The Evolving Roles of CBMS Amidst Changing Environments

Proceedings of the 2004 CBMS Network Meeting

June 16-24, 2004
Senegal & Burkina Faso

IDRC

Politiques **E**conomiques et **P**auvreté
Poverty and **E**conomic **P**olicy

De La Salle University
AKI
Angelo King Institute
for Economic and Business Studies

THE EVOLVING ROLES OF CBMS AMIDST CHANGING ENVIRONMENTS

. . . .

PROCEEDINGS OF THE 2004 CBMS NETWORK MEETING

THE EVOLVING ROLES OF CBMS

AMIDST CHANGING ENVIRONMENTS

. . . .

PROCEEDINGS OF THE 2004 CBMS NETWORK MEETING

June 16-24, 2004
Senegal and Burkina Faso

The Evolving Roles of CBMS Amidst Changing Environments
Proceedings of the 2004 CBMS Network Meeting
Copyright © CBMS Network Coordinating Team, 2005

Acknowledgement

Table of Contents

· ·

Preface

The CBMS Network members convened on June 16-20, 2004 for the 3rd general meeting of the Poverty and Economic Policy (PEP) Research Network in Senegal. The conference was hosted by the Centre de Recherches Economiques Appliquees (CREA) in cooperation with the Angelo King Institute for Economics and Business Studies of the De La Salle University-Manila, and the Centre Interuniversitaire sur le Risque, les Politiques Economiques et l'Emploi (CIRPEE)-University Laval, Canada.

The general meeting is an annual event which brought together the three subnetworks under the PEP, namely: (a) the CBMS, (b) the Modeling and Policy Impact Assessment (MPIA), and (c) the Poverty Monitoring and Measurement Analysis (PMMA).

Contained in this volume are CBMS papers presented during the PEP Plenary Session and the suceeding sessions of the CBMS Network:

- **Poverty Reduction, Adjustment and Crisis Management: Role of CBMS**
  Papers presented in this session tackled the socio-economic contexts under which local poverty monitoring systems have evolved and developed in the abovementioned countries as well as their rationale for adopting the CBMS process.
- **Decentralization and the Role of CBMS**
  The set of papers presented in this session dealt with the increasing demand for local level data amid the backdrop of ongoing decentralization in most developing countries. It also explored how CBMS can address the demand for more disaggregated data on the different dimensions of poverty.
- **Use of CBMS for Local Governance**
  Papers presented in this session documented the experiences of and the valuable lessons learned by local chief executives,

local development planning officers and other stakeholders in their efforts to institutionalize CBMS as a tool for planning and governance in their respective areas.

- **CBMS Technical Working Papers**
  The papers presented in this session focused on technical applications of the CBMS for policy formulation and monitoring.
- **Updates on New CBMS Initiatives**
  Presentation of ongoing activities in the new CBMS sites sums up the papers presented in this session.
- **CBMS Institutionalization and Management Issues**
  The paper presented in here raises issues and concerns on scaling up CBMS operations.

Participants in the meeting include CBMS researchers, as well as partners and policymakers from the national and local governments in CBMS sites in Bangladesh, Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Ghana, Lao, Nepal, Philippines, Pakistan, Senegal and Vietnam. These invited policymakers expressed their commitment to support the expansion and the use of CBMS for planning, program design and impact monitoring in their respective localities.

Guest resource persons from Indonesia and Thailand were also invited to share their respective country's experiences on the use of local poverty monitoring systems.

As part of the meeting of the CBMS Network, a field visit in CBMS sites in Senegal was conducted. A documentation of this visit is also included in this volume. After the general meeting in Senegal, members of the CBMS Network visited Burkina Faso, another CBMS site in Africa, on June 22-24, 2004. A summary of this field visit are contained in this volume as well.

Program

······································

June 16, 2004: PEP Network Plenary Session

Morning Session
Chair: Cosme Zinsou Vodounou

Opening Ceremony
  Welcome Remarks
    Abdoulaye Diagne
    Director, CREA

    Luc Savard
    MIMAP Team Leader, IDRC

  Introduction and Overview of Meeting Program
    Celia Reyes, PEP-Co-Director, CBMS Network
    John Cockburn, PEP-Co-Director, MPIA and PMMA Networks

Plenary Session 1: Presentation from CBMS
  The Follow-up Device on the Living Conditions of Households in a Local
  Community and the Document on the Strategy for Poverty Reduction
  Presentor: Momar Balle Sylla
        Direction de la Prévision et de la Statistique, Senegal

Break

Plenary Session 2: Presentation from PMMA

Pauvreté multidimensionnelle au Sénégal : Approches non-monétaires fondées sur les besoins de base

Presentor: Jean Bosco Ki
                UNESCO/BREDA, Senegal
Discussant: Cosme Zinsou Vodounou

Equity and Health Policy
Presentor: Slim Haddad
                Université de Montréal, Canada
Discussant: Chris Scott

Lunch

Afternoon Session
Chair: Brent Herbert Copley

Plenary Session 3: Presentation from MPIA

Libéralisation commerciale, pauvreté et inégalités au Sénégal : la place du secteur informel - Une approche par la modélisation en EGC

Presentor: Fatou Cissé
                Université Cheikh Anta Diop de Dakar, Senegal
Discussant: Souleymane Sadio Diallo

Microsimulation, CGE and Macro Modelling for Transition and Developing Economies

Presentor: Jim Davies
                University of Western Ontario, Canada
Discussants: Jeevika Weerahewa and Jeffery Round

Break

Plenary Session 4: New National Projects

*Capturing Intra-Household Distribution and Poverty Incidence:
A Study on Bangladesh*
Presentor: Mohammad Razzaque
        University of Dhaka, Bangladesh

Presentation of Nigeria National Project
Presentor: S.O. Akande (Nigeria)
*Young Lives - Analysing the Potential of Ethiopia's SDRP to Improve
Child Wellbeing*
Presentor: Tassew Woldehanna
        Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia

L'évaluation de l'efficacité des stratégies de réduction de la pauvreté au Mali
Presentor: Massaoly Coulibaly (Mali)

General Information on Niger National Project
Presentor: Ousseini Hamidou (NigerIA)

Presentation of PARSEP Project
Presentor: Dieudonné Ouedraogo
        PARSEP, Burkina Faso

Dinner

June 17, 2004

**CBMS Session 1: Poverty Reduction, Adjustment and Crisis
Management: Role of CBMS**
Chair: Ponciano Intal, Jr.
       AKI-DLSU, Philippines

Local Monitoring System in the Implementation of Indonesia's Social Safety Net Programs with Special Reference to the BKKBN System
Presentor: Sudarno Sumarto
The SMERU Institute, Indonesia

Open forum

Community-Level Statistics for Monitoring System in Thailand
Presentor: Oraphin Mathew and Chalermkwun Chiemprachanarakorn
National Statistics Office, Thailand
Open forum

Implementation of CBMS in Vietnam's Localities
Presentor: Vu Van Toan
Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs, Vietnam

Open forum

CBMs for PRSP Monitoring in Nepal
Presentor: Shiva Sharma and Basant Raj Gautam
National Labour Academy/Ministry of Local Development, Nepal

Open forum

Lunch

CBMS Session 2: Decentralization and the Role of CBMS
Chair: Vu Tuan Anh
Vietnam Institute of Economics

Poverty Reduction, Decentralization and Community-Based Monitoring Systems
Presentor: Celia Reyes
  AKI-DLSU, Philippines

Open forum

Decentralization and the Role of CBMS in Ghana: A Case Study on the Dangme West District
Presentor: Mohammed Ali Amadu
  Dangme West District Assembly, Ghana

Open forum
NARIMS and the Role of CBMS in Pakistan
Presentor: Mashir Naqvi
  National Reconstruction Bureau, Pakistan

Open forum

The SEILA Program and the Role of Commune Database Information System (CDIS)
Presentor: Try Sothearith
  National Institute of Statistics-Cambodia

Open forum

June 18, 2004

CBMS Session 3: Use of CBMS for Local Governance
Chair: Prosper Somda
  CEDRES/Université de Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso.

CBMS and Governance: The Experience of Municipality of Labo, Camarines Norte
Presentor: Winifredo Balce-Oco
    Municipal Government of Labo, Philippines

Open forum

CBMS and Governance in Bangladesh
Presentor: Ibrahim Khalil
    Upazila, Daukandi, Bangladesh

Open forum

CBMS and Governance in Lao
Presentor: Sithon Nantharath
    Planning and Cooperation of Savannaket Province, Lao
Open forum

CBMS and Governance in Senegal
Presentor: Dib Niom
    Député à l'assemblée Nationale, Senegal

Open forum

Use of CBMS: Case of Burkina Faso
Presentor: Moumouni Zida
    Département de Yako/Province du Passoré, Burkina Faso

Open forum

Lunch

CBMS Session 4: CBMS Technical Working Papers
Chair: Shiva Sharma
      National Labour Academy, Nepal

Community-Based Monitoring System for Access to Basic Minimum
      Services in Kerala
Presentor: Smitha Aravind
      Centre for Development Studies, India

Open forum

Investigating Social Vulnerability in Community-Based Poverty Monitoring
in Sri Lanka: Scaling Down to the Household Level
Presentor: Markus Mayer
      University of Colombo, Sri-Lanka

Open forum
Poverty Monitoring System in Burkina Faso: The Case of Yako Division
      in the Passore Province
Presentor: Prosper Somda
      CEDRES/University of Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso

Open forum

Utilizing CBMS in Monitoring and Targeting the Poor: The Case of
      Barangay Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan
Presentor: Kenneth Ilarde and Joel Bancolita
      AKI-DLSU, Philippines

Open forum

June 19, 2004: CBMS field visit in Senegal

June 20, 2004

CBMS Session 5: Update on New CBMS Initiatives

Ensuring Services to the Poor: Learning from the LLPMS
Presentor: Ranjan Kumar Guha
             Bangladesh Academy for Rural Development

Working Toward a Commune Based Poverty Monitoring System in
    Cambodia
Presentor: Kim Net
             Cambodia Development Resource Institute

Community Based Monitoring System in Lao PDR
Presentor: Samaychan Boupha
             National Statistical Centre, Lao PDR

Implementation of a Community-Based Poverty Monitoring System in
    Ghana
Presentor: Felix Ankomah Asante
             Institute of Statistical Social and Economic Research
             University of Ghana

Community Based Monitoring System: A Pilot Implementation in Pakistan
Presentor: Durr-e-Nayab
             Pakistan Institute of Development Economics

Open forum

CBMS Institutionalization and Management Issues
Chair: Celia Reyes

Can Community-Based Poverty Monitoring Become a National System?
Presentor: Vu Tuan Anh

Open forum

CBMS Planning for Future Activities

Closing Remarks

Lunch

PEP Steering Committee Meetings

PEP Network Plenary Session 5 : Closing Ceremony

Session Summaries
    Celia Reyes
    CBMS Network Leader
    Bernard Decaluwé
    MPIA Network Leader

    Jean-Yves Duclos
    PMMA Network Leader

Future Directions of PEP Network
John Cockburn, PEP Co-Director, MPIA and PMMA Networks
Celia Reyes, PEP Co-Director, CBMS Network

June 22-24, 2004: CBMS Field Visit in Burkina Faso

Plenary Session

The Follow-up Device on the Living Conditions of Households in a Local Community and the Document on the Strategy for Poverty Reduction*

Momar Balle Sylla

For the project period 2004-2006, the CBMS work in Senegal is geared toward the achievement of the following objectives: institutionalization of the poverty monitoring at the local level, selection and definition of monitoring indicators and set-up of the next round of surveys. The expected outputs during this period are the socio-economic data of the pilot communities as well as a report on household living conditions.

To achieve these objectives, the CBMS-Senegal Project Team proposes the establishment of a national permanent device and integrated follow-up-evaluation of the Document on the Strategy of Poverty Reduction (DSRP) and the definition of overall intermediary and result indicators. It likewise advocates the creation of the National Statistics and Demography Agency

(ANSD) and the National Observatory on Poverty, Living Conditions and Human Development (OPCVD). However, the operational framework of the collection, analysis and dissemination of information has yet to be conceptualized. A follow-up and evaluation framework of the DSRP also needs to be drawn up. Moreover, the team is also preparing for the integration of the CBMS in the structure of the OPCVD.

The proposed activities during the project period 2004-2006 include the following: creation of a CD-ROM for the conservation and dissemination of the results and documentation of the poverty monitoring system, and introduction of the CBMS in two types of local government units – localities where government projects geared toward fighting poverty exist and zones where these projects have yet to be introduced.

There are a number of challenges that lie ahead in the full-scale implementation and institutionalization of the CBMS in Senegal. These include the commitment and support of communities to introduce and finance the implementation of their own local poverty monitoring system, the continued usage of information generated by the CBMS evaluating the impacts of development projects, and the maintenance of linkages with all stakeholders, especially the Ministry of Social Development, Directors of the Project to Fight Against Poverty (PLCP), the local authorities and the villagers.

CBMS Session 1
Poverty Reduction, Adjustment and Crisis Management: Role of CBMS

Local Monitoring System in the Implementation of Indonesia's Social Safety Net Programs with Special Reference to the BKKBN System

Sudarno Sumarto, Daniel Suryadarma,
Wenefrida Widyanti, and Asep Suryahadi

Introduction

The outbreak of the Indonesian crisis in late 1997 has forced Indonesian households to adjust to the first serious economic contraction in years.[1] The response of the government to the impending social impact of the crisis was to launch the so-called social safety net (SSN) programs in early 1998. These are a set of new as well as expanded initiatives widely known as the "JPS"

---

[1] Throughout 1998, real economic growth was -13.7 percent. This was a sharp turnaround from the high growth of the previous three decades, which averaged over 7 percent annually. The social impact of this large economic contraction was substantial. With poverty rate increasing by 164 percent from the immediate pre-crisis level in mid-1997 to the peak of the crisis by the end of 1998. In the labor market, even though the open unemployment rate only increased slightly from 4.7 percent in August 1997 to 5.5 percent in August 1998, real wages fell by around one third during the same period. One year later, real wage growth has returned to positive in most sectors but the unemployment rate continued to climb, reaching 6.4 percent by 1999.

programs, an acronym of the Indonesian term for social safety net, *Jaring Pengaman Sosial.*

It is important to note that before the crisis, Indonesians had never relied on government safety net programs. The country has neither the economic apparatus nor the political mechanism required to deliver large-scale, widespread, transfer programs. The government, among others, was therefore constrained by a lack of timely, complete, accurate and acceptable data which it then needed at the time of the crisis to design the social safety net programs that would help mitigate the impact of the crisis. Nonetheless, despite the fact that there were no well-designed and publicly accessible information systems that would facilitate efforts to address the needs of the traditionally poor and newly poor resulting from the crisis, the government played a key role during the crisis, complemented by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and donors.

As the economic and political crisis in Indonesia worsened over the years, there have been an increasing recognition of the need to identify and track emerging problems, with a view to designing appropriate responses. Efforts to monitor social impacts have concentrated on improving or accelerating existing tools such as the national socio-economic survey (SUSENAS) and the village potential survey (PODES). Although these efforts are crucial for medium-term planning, the time necessary to design instruments, gather and process data is too long for these instruments to be a useful guide for immediate action. By the time data are processed and analyzed, quickly changing crisis conditions will have rendered them obsolete. In addition, both SUSENAS and PODES data are only appropriate for geographic targeting and thus cannot be used to identify eligible individual beneficiaries.

The only nationally representative data available during the crisis was the Family Planning Coordinating Board (BKKBN) data. The BKKBN has been collecting data on welfare indicators of all Indonesian households through its cadres all over the country even before the crisis. Majority of the SSN programs used the BKKBN data to target their beneficiaries. However, there have been some

concerns over the reliability of the BKKBN data, both in terms of the way the data are being collected and of the static nature of the BKKBN indicators, which does not allow the data to capture shocks suffered by households.

In this regard, this paper discusses the use of local monitoring systems, in particular, the BKKBN monitoring system, and evaluates how a community-based monitoring system can be used for national programs.

Inventory of research, monitoring and social safety nets program during the Indonesian crisis

Since the outbreak of the Indonesian crisis, various monitoring efforts have been established by the government, NGOs, universities and donor agencies. These monitoring bodies have been working both to assess the extent of the crisis itself and the impact of the programs which have been put in place to address the crisis. These efforts were done to complement regular, large sample data collection carried out by Statistics Indonesia (BPS) that are not a response survey type.

Box 1 summarizes the major monitoring activities on the social impact of the crisis put in place in the country since the start of the crisis.

Approaches and targeting practices for the Indonesian social safety net programs[2]
Approaches to targeting

In general, as the accuracy of targeting increases, both the benefits and associated costs from targeting also increase.[3] Hence, targeting should be carried out only as long as the benefits exceed the associated costs. This, however, is easier said than done. Often, it is very difficult to quantify all the benefits and costs that are involved. In addition, there are many practical questions that need to be answered regarding

---

[2] This section is derived heavily from Sumarto and Suryahadi (2001).
[3] See Besley and Kanbur (1990).

Box 1. Major Monitoring Activities on the Social Impact of the Crisis

1. *NGO mapping and consultation* — Perhaps the most important partnership on this category was the efforts developed through the Community Recovery Program (CRP), which was facilitated by the World Bank and involved several donors and a broad spectrum of national and local NGOs. This is a civil society-led mechanism that channels resources to community-based organizations and strengthens the coping capacities of vulnerable groups of the population most severely affected by the crisis.

Parallel to the CRP was a national NGO mapping effort supported by the Ford Foundation, which involved consultations in all regions with a large range of NGO coalitions. The mapping process was carried out through focus group discussions (FGDs) at the community, district, and provincial levels, which were facilitated by locally-based NGO activists/researchers, some of whom have active relationships with the communities where the FGDs were conducted.

All 27 provinces in Indonesia were involved in this mapping process, which was carried out simultaneously in the months of October-November 1998. In each province, two districts were selected, one representing an urbanized district and another a relatively isolated and poor one. The districts and communities selected for mapping were identified based on consultations with other members of civil society and, sometimes, with input from local government officials. A gleaning of regional newspapers was conducted to document a broader range of crisis-related issues which emerged locally during the same time period of the FGDs. Data analysis and writing up took place in late April 1999. The mapping team also established a crisis website, which provided the means for a continual flow of field-based monitoring information from community organizations.

2. *SMERU's Kecamatan (sub-district) Crisis Impact Survey* — The *Kecamatan* Rapid Poverty Assessment was a subjective, expert respondent survey of three government officials in each of Indonesia's 4025 *kecamatans* conducted in 1998. In each sub-district, three respondents with *kecamatan*-wide responsibilities were chosen: the agriculture officer (*mantri tani*) in rural areas or the community development officer (*kepala seksi PMD*) in urban areas; the *kecamatan* school supervisor (*penilik sekolah*); and the doctor at the primary health center (*dokter puskesmas*). Each respondent was asked a standard set of questions about changes taking place in the *kecamatan* as a whole, as well as a set of questions about their professional specialty.[4]

The questions asked of all three respondents were qualitative and required the respondents to rate each indicator's severity on a five-point scale: (1) somewhat improved; (2) about the same; (3) somewhat worse; (4) much worse; and (5) very much worse.[5] The common questions also included a ranking of problems and three questions on existing crisis response programs. The respondent-specific questions were also primarily qualitative, but included a small number of quantitative questions (which duplicated the topics covered qualitatively).

There are limitations to every approach and the use of subjective qualitative questions is no exception. With the decision to use this type of instrument, the loss of quantitative precision and

---

[4] In addition to the three respondents in each *kecamatan*, BPS local officer (*mantri statistik*) completed a separate questionnaire, including some quantitative questions regarding changes since the start of the crisis.

[5] A typical question is "Relative to the same period last year, how many families are switching from staple foods to lower quality substitutes? Please answer on the scale indicated".

Box 1 (cont'd)

reliance on a very small number of respondents in each location were the price paid for a rapid and nationally comprehensive survey.

3. *SMERU's Community-Based Monitoring* — In September 1998, SMERU established community-based monitoring (CBM) in three areas: Cibangkong village in Bandung City in Jawa Barat, and Gangga and Sekotong villages in Lombok Barat district. The main purpose was to monitor the flow of funds of the crisis-mitigating programs. The study in Cibangkong involved 12 neighborhood communities and a neighborhood forum was established as a result. Similarly, a forum of village representatives was established in Gangga and Sekotong.

 While the fora were originally created to discuss the social safety net programs, said venue has been broadened by the people to discuss wider community issues such as land disputes, local public services and local sanitary conditions. The contributions these fora are making in Indonesia by allowing people to discuss their rights and entitlements have added immense value to local social infrastructure.

4. *Coping mechanism and the social impact of the crisis on the informal sector* — The Center for Population Research (PPK) at Gajah Mada University (UGM) has conducted three studies in relation to the crisis. The first study is the Social Security Survey which was conducted in Yogyakarta, Central Java, and East Java Provinces in the months of February to April 1998, covering 1,411 households. The survey was aimed at investigating survival strategies of households with different types of occupation to cope with the economic crises. Focus group discussions (FGD) and indepth interviews were also conducted to collect qualitative data. The second study is the Crisis Impact Study which covered several districts in Yogyakarta and Central Java, i.e. Gunung Kidul, Klaten, Bantul, and Kulon Progo. A combination of rural rapid appraisal (RRA), FGD and indepth interview is used to describe impacts of the crises on the community and how the crisis has affected their lives. The third study is the informal sector survey which covers 367 informal sector unit in the City of Yogyakarta. The survey was aimed at, among others, investigating how the crises affect the informal sectors and how they overcome the crises.

5. *SUSENAS* — The National Socio-Economic Survey (SUSENAS) is the main monitoring and targeting tool for many national programs. Its data have been collected by the BPS since 1976. It is a nationally representative household survey, covering all areas of the country. There are two types of SUSENAS: the Consumption Module and Core SUSENAS. The Consumption Module of SUSENAS is conducted every three years, specifically collecting information on very detailed consumption expenditures from around 65,000 households, and its data are used for the official poverty statistics in Indonesia. Meanwhile, the core SUSENAS, which is conducted every year in the month of February, collects information on the characteristics of over 200,000 households and over 800,000 individuals. The sample of households in the Consumption Module of SUSENAS is a randomly selected subset of the 200,000 households in the Core SUSENAS sample of the same year.

6. *100 Village Survey* — This survey was sponsored by UNICEF and carried out by the BPS. As suggested by its name, the survey covered 100 villages, all of which are located in 10 districts spread across eight provinces throughout the country. It collected data from 12,000 households in each round. Each village was divided into three enumeration areas. Forty households were chosen randomly from each enumeration area as a sample so that the total sample number in each village

Box 1 (cont'd)

is 120 households. The survey was originally meant to identify village level variables which were closely correlated with characteristics of the poor. The survey was first implemented in May 1994 and then repeated in May 1997.

When the economic crisis struck Indonesia starting in mid 1997, there was a lack of data on the social impact of the crisis during the first year of the crisis. In order to overcome this, four rounds of the '100 Village Survey' were implemented in a course of 14 months (August 1998, December 1999, May 1999, and October 1999). It was intended that the sample households would remain the same for all four rounds of the survey but some replacements were made due to various unavoidable reasons. In the end, there were 10,640 households visited in all the four rounds of the survey and a complete panel data set was made.

While the '100 Village Survey' sample was relatively large, it was not designed as a statistically representation of the country over-all. The survey areas were chosen before the 1994 crisis, based on a sampling approach which intended to include a range of villages that were "representative" of various parts of the rural economy. Since the areas were chosen before the crisis, there is no reason to suspect that these samples were influenced by the crisis. Furthermore, the intention of this survey was to focus on rural and relatively poor areas; therefore, it is not representative of all social stratas within the country and the conclusions from this study can only be applied to this sample.

7. *IFLS2+ (Indonesia Family Life Survey)* — IFLS is a panel (longitudinal) survey of 7,500 households statistically representative of 13 provinces. The survey was done by RAND Corporation and the Lembaga Demografi at the University of Indonesia. The IFLS2+ revisited 2,058 of those households in seven provinces in August 1998. The IFLS2+ was the third time that IFLS was administered. Thus, there was a pre-crisis, representative baseline (re-interview rates in the last round were 92%) and the means to follow the panel throughout the crisis and recovery. The design covers both rural and urban areas. The survey collected data on coping strategies during the crisis, among others. The household-level data collected in both IFLS2 and IFLS2+ include expenditures, assets, income and details of current work status of each household member; education enrollments, expenditures and school attendance; use of healthcare and family planning including prices and choice of provider; indicators of health status (both self-reported and measured by a trained health worker); and migration, among others. At the community level extensive data on prices, service availability and quality are collected.

the implementation of targeting. What targeting mechanisms are available to reach the intended beneficiaries of a program?

The intended beneficiaries of social safety net, social protection, or poverty reduction programs depend upon the objectives of the particular program. A food assistance program targets its benefits to those within the community who are having difficulties obtaining food out of their own resources. A health assistance program aims to provide

free or subsidized medical benefits to those with health problems who are poor or who are unable to access medical services without outside assistance. The strategy on how to reach the intended beneficiaries should be a central element of any program design.

The targeting mechanism issue, however, is also complicated by the fact that poverty is a very fluid condition, where people frequently move in and out of poverty as a result of various external factors. Many households, while not currently in poverty, recognize that they are vulnerable and that events— for example a bad harvest, a lost job, an unexpected expense, or an illness—could easily push them into poverty in the future. Therefore, targeting "transient" or recent poverty may not provide a solution to the time-invariant "chronic" poverty.

In general, there are two types of targeting mechanisms: administrative targeting and market-based targeting.

In administrative targeting, the beneficiaries of a program are selected by the program implementers. Two approaches are commonly used in administrative targeting: geographic targeting and household or individual targeting.

Geographic targeting simply means selecting particular regions or areas in which the benefits of a program will be distributed. The selection is usually based on a set of indicators, by which all regions are ranked from the most to the least eligible to be included in the program. Geographic targeting has its advantages and disadvantages. It is easy to implement and to monitor, typically involves less fraud and much lower administrative costs than other targeting mechanisms, and requires only limited information at the individual or household level. However, some benefits will inevitably leak to the non-poor who reside in the targeted areas while the poor who reside in non-target areas will not be covered.[6]

Household or individual targeting is basically an effort to identify households or individuals who are deemed eligible to receive the benefits of a program. The selection of households or individuals can be based

---

[6] Bigman and Fofack (2000).

on means testing or based on a set of indicators as in geographic targeting. Means testing is a method of selecting individuals or households based on whether they pass a certain predetermined threshold. The most commonly used threshold is a certain level of income. The problem with such "direct targeting", though, is that screening to identify the poor is difficult and expensive and requires extensive information gathering and verification on the part of government administration.

These problems have led to a variety of schemes using indicator targeting or intervention on the basis of the particular characteristics of the poor ("characteristic targeting"). This can be considered as a form of statistical discrimination where lack of detailed information leads program providers to use average characteristics to target intended beneficiaries. Examples of indicators or characteristics that are useful good predictors of income include ownership of durable goods, number of children, gender, age and education level. Data on these characteristics are relatively easier to obtain than data on income and thus, the administrative costs of characteristic targeting are much lower than those of direct targeting.

Market-based targeting is also often referred to as "self-selection targeting". With this targeting mechanism, a program is designed in such a way that only those who really need assistance will choose to participate in the program. For example, a food security program can provide in-kind benefits of very low quality food, available to anybody who applies for it. The very low quality food is considered an inferior good, where demand decreases with rising income. Although theoretically every one can apply for the benefits, it is expected that only the poor will apply since such low quality food will not be acceptable or desirable to the non-poor. This self-selection mechanism has certain advantages over administrative criteria in that it allows individuals to choose to participate or not and is more flexible to unobserved household shocks than administrative criteria.[7]

---

[7] See Sumarto *et al.* (2000).

In practice, a program can use or apply a single targeting mechanism or a combination of two or more targeting mechanisms. For example, a combination of geographic and household targeting can be used to reach the poor.[8] Initially, the government project staff may select areas where the poor are most likely to be found. Obviously, poverty incidence is an important indicator that can be used as a guide in this selection of areas. Subsequently, the government may choose those households which are deemed eligible to receive the program benefits using means testing or particular indicators or characteristics. Using means testing, a household is either included or not included in the program based on the information and criteria selected to determine participation. In order to do this, several methods are available, including measured poverty status, community-based identification, and household self-reporting status.

Community-based identification allows communities to categorize households within their own community as poor or vulnerable. This method is simple and inexpensive and accuracy can be gained by the fact that poor households are a part of the local community and can be readily identified. However, there are also certain disadvantages with community-based identification: (1) communities have a tendency to overstate the number of poor households; (2) community rankings are relative to community measures so that such rankings might not be consistent at the aggregate level; and (3) there is a need for some relatively skilled staff to oversee this process.

Targeting practices during the Indonesian crisis

Table 1 lists the various social safety net programs established by the government of Indonesia to mitigate the social impact of the recent crisis. These programs made use of targeting in identifying their intended beneficiaries. Though the programs were launched in early 1998, many

---

[8] Similarly, geographic targeting at the first stage can also be combined with self-selection or even with broad targeting at the second stage.

Table 1. Areas and Major Programs of the Indonesian Social Safety Net Program

Area	Program Description and Benefits	Targeting	FY 1998-1999	FY 1999-1990
Food Security	OPK program: sale of subsidized rice to targeted households. Eligible households can purchase 10-20 kg of rice at Rp. 1,000/kg (market price is Rp. 2,500 – 3,000/kg)	Geographic	None	None
		Household	BKKBN list	BKKBN list with flexibility
Community Empowerment	PDM-DKE: a 'community fund' program that provides block grants directly to villages for either public works or revolving credit funds.	Geographic	Pre-crisis data	Updated with regional data
		Household	Local decision making	Local decision making
Employment Creation	"Padat karya": a loose, uncoordinated collection of several 'laborintensive' programs in various government departments.	Geographic	None, various ministries	Urban areas, based on employment
		Household	Weak self selection	Self selection
Education	Scholarships and block grants: providing Scholarships of Rp. 10,000/month for elementary (SD) students, Rp. 20,000/month for lower secondary (SLTP) students, and Rp. 30,000/month for upper secondary (SMU) students. Block grants to selected schools.	Geographic	Old data on enrollment	Poverty data updated to 1998
		Household	School committees applying criteria	School committees applying criteria
Health	JPS-BK: a program providing subsidies for Medical services Operational support for health centers Medicine and imported medical equipment Family planning services Nutrition (supplementary food) Midwife services	Geographic	BKKBN pre-prosperous rates	Pre-prosperous rates updated to 1999
		Household	BKKBN list	BKKBN list with flexibility

of them did not start until the second half of the year. They were intended to help protect the pre-crisis poor as well as the newly poor as a result of the crisis through a fourfold strategy: (1) ensuring the availability of food at affordable prices; (2) supplementing purchasing power among poor households through employment creation; (3) preserving the access of the poor to critical social services, particularly health and education; and (4) sustaining local economic activity through regional block grant programs and the extension of small-scale credits.

In general, the targeting for these programs was based on a combination of geographic and household targeting mechanisms, except for the subsidized rice program which used only household targeting. The targeting for some programs was based on a household classification created by the BKKBN. The subsidized rice and the health programs explicitly used this BKKBN household classification for targeting. The selection of recipients in the scholarship program was also intended to take into account their BKKBN household status. Originally, eligible recipients for some JPS programs were only KPS– the lowest household welfare classification–card holders, but for certain programs, for example, the *Operasi Pasar Khusus* or special market operation (OPK) program, eligibility was extended to include KS I– the second lowest classification–households as well.

The *padat karya* programs consisted of quite diverse programs and although specific programs were targeted to particular areas (such as drought areas), the lack of coordination meant that in effect, there was little or no systematic geographic targeting of this set of programs. Within these labor-intensive programs, there were a variety of disagreements about the desired characteristics of intended participants but typically the beneficiaries were not chosen according to any fixed administrative criteria. Hence, to the extent that there was targeting, it was primarily through self-selection.

In the scholarship program, scholarship funds were first allocated to schools where "poorer" schools received proportionally more scholarships. In each school, the scholarships were then distributed to individual students by a school committee, consisting of the principal,

a teacher representative, a student representative, the head of the parent association as the representative of community and the village head. The selection of scholarship recipients was based on a combination of various administrative criteria such as household data from school records, family BKKBN status, family size and the likelihood of students dropping out of school.[9]

School students in all but the lowest three grades of primary school were officially eligible. In principle, students selected to receive the scholarships were supposed to be from the poorest backgrounds. As a guidance, scholarships were to be allocated at first to children from households in the two lowest BKKBN classifications. If there were more eligible students than the number of scholarships available, then additional indicators such as the distance from home to school, physical handicaps and children coming from large or single parent families were to be used to identify the neediest students.

In the health programs, meanwhile, the free medical and family planning services program was implemented by giving "health cards" to eligible households based on BKKBN household status.

Local monitoring in Indonesia: Experience from the BKKBN's monitoring system

The targeting for some social safety net (SSN) programs during the Indonesian crisis was based on a household classification created by the BKKBN because this was the only set of data available for individual targeting. Little is known publicly, however, on how the BKKBN data is generated and how reliable they are in terms of accuracy as a proxy of household welfare status. This is crucial as there have been some concerns over the reliability of the BKKBN data, both in terms of the way the data is being collected and their inability to capture shocks. The following sections thus discuss the mechanics and reliability of the BKKBN monitoring system.

---

[9] Similarly, geographic targeting at the first stage can also be combined with self-selection or even with broad targeting at the second stage.

Background and data gathering mechanics of BKKBN[10]

Prior to 1970, family data in Indonesia had been scattered in and recorded by different departments in the government depending on the departments' needs. Furthermore, different recording procedures and standards had rendered efforts to combine the databases into a national database impossible. In the late 1960s, as the government started to push for the National Family Planning Program (NFPP), it needed a database on Indonesian families that captured all the required information to implement and monitor the NFPP. Thus, it established the BKKBN in 1970 as an agency that specifically deals with the recording and monitoring of Indonesian families and, most importantly, with the inputting of the data into one database.

Initially, the BKKBN data consisted of monthly reports from public health centers that provide family planning services. These reports were sent to the BKKBN headquarter in Jakarta annually. Examples of such data are the number of users of contraceptive tools and their basic characteristics, the number of available health workers, and the amount of contraceptive supplies that each health center has. In order to ensure data quality, BKKBN field supervisors were assigned at the *kecamatan* (subdistrict) level. By the third Five-Year Development Program (*Pelita III*, 1979-1984), all *kecamatans* already had a field supervisor.

After an extended period of testing and modification in the recording and monitoring system, the BKKBN officially began the first national family planning survey in 1985. Village elders conducted this survey usually over a three-month period at the neighborhood level. The survey has been conducted annually ever since.

In 1994, BKKBN added to its survey two sections that consisted of questions measuring family welfare and demographic characteristics. The welfare section is used to target poor families and provide them with special assistance programs as the government began to recognize

---

[10] Information in this section is compiled from BKKBN publications listed in the references. Figures are also derived from these sources.

the extent of poor families in Indonesia and started to implement specific programs aimed at tackling poverty.

At present, the BKKBN data set consists of family planning data, family welfare data, demographic data, individual family member data, and data on family changes. The last two sections were added in 2001 and 2002, respectively. The family welfare section consists of a list of 23 indicators, shown in Box 2, that will allow BKKBN to determine the welfare category of a family. There are five welfare categories according to the BKKBN, ranging from "Pre-Prosperous" to "Prosperous 3 Plus".[11]

Other institutions, both government and non-government, have used BKKBN data on family welfare as a targeting tool. Several examples include Family Savings Program (Takesra); Family Credit Program (Kukesra); National Foster Parents Movement (GN-OTA); medical assistance for the poor; and housing assistance for the poor. During the economic crisis in 1997, BKKBN data were used as a targeting tool for some specific crisis-mitigating programs that were part of the SSN program.

BKKBN data were chosen because, compared to the annual SUSENAS conducted by the BPS, they cover more households, their enumeration is conducted by locals, and they have more specific indicators to determine whether a household is considered poor or not. More importantly, the BKKBN actually collects data on all households in contrast to SUSENAS which uses sample households.

During the early inception of BKKBN family indicators, there was a criticism that some families were categorized as pre-prosperous or poor solely on the basis of non-economic reasons such as failure to meet the indicator 1. This can have adverse implication if the category is used for program targeting as these families may actually need no benefits from the program.

---

[11] The indicators and the categories are listed in the next section.

Box 2. BKKBN Classification Indicators of Family Welfare Status

1. Family members are able to adhere to the religious principles of the religion of their choice.
2. All family members are able to eat at least twice a day.
3. All family members have different sets of clothing for home, work, schools, and visits.
4. The largest portion of the household floor is not made of dirt.
5. The family is able to obtain modern medicines or family planning services when a child is sick.
6. The family is able to follow religious laws and customs.
7. At least once a week, the family is able to consume meat, fish, or chicken.
8. Each family member obtains at least one new pair of clothing each year.
9. There is at least eight square meters of household space for each occupant in the house.
10. All family members have been healthy within the last three months.
11. At least one family member older than 15 years of age has a fixed income.
12. All family members between 10 and 60 years of age can read and write.
13. All children between 7 and 15 years of age are enrolled in school.
14. If the family has two or more living children and is still in the reproductive age group, the family uses contraceptives.
15. The family has the ability to improve its religious knowledge.
16. The family is able to save part of its earnings.
17. The family is able to eat with able members together at least once per day and that opportunity is used for communication among family members.
18. The family normally takes part in local community activities.
19. The family undertakes recreational activities outside the home at least once every six months.
20. The family is able to obtain news from newspapers, radio, television, or magazines.
21. Family members are able to use local transportation facilities.
22. The family makes regular contributions in the form of money or goods in social activities.
23. At least one family member is active in managing a local institution.

A family is classified as:

- KPS (keluarga pra-sejahtera or 'pre-prosperous family') if it fails to meet all of the indicators 1 to 5.
- KS1 (keluarga sejahtera 1 or 'just prosperous family') if it meets all of the indicators 1 to 5.
- KS2 (keluarga sejahtera 2 or 'prosperous 2 family') if it meets all of the indicators 1 to 14.
- KS3 (keluarga sejahtera 3 or 'prosperous 3 family') if it meets all of the indicators between 1 and 21.
- KS3 Plus ((keluarga sejahtera 3 plus or 'prosperous 3 plus family') if it meets all of the indicators.

To address this criticism, the classification scheme was revised by adding two additional categories of families, focusing only on particular economic criteria. These two additional classifications are referred to as KPS ALEK (*Keluarga Pra-sejahtera Alasan Ekonomi* or "Pre-prosperous family based on economic reasons") and KS1 ALEK, respectively. A family will be classified as KPS ALEK if it fails to meet any of the indicators 2 to 5. Meanwhile, a family will be classified as KS1 ALEK if it fails to meet the indicator 7. Therefore, KPS ALEK

families are a subset of KPS families and similarly, KS1 ALEK families are a subset of KS1 families.

BKKBN data gathering mechanism

At the household level, the data collection is implemented by neighborhood family planning cadres based on the BKKBN process shown in Figure 1. The preparation stage includes village-level meetings and training for enumerators. The meetings are necessary to determine budgets and timetables for the survey and to coordinate the data collection across neighborhoods. The BKKBN headquarter allocates funds to each *kabupaten*. Since the start of decentralization, more and more provinces allocate additional funds in order to provide supporting facilities such as computers and increased remuneration for the enumerators. The stage of preparation lasts between two weeks and one month. Training for enumerators usually lasts between two to three days and is conducted at the village level. The training consists of the procedure for filling out forms and of asserting the importance of acquiring real data.

Figure 1. BKKBN Data Collection Mechanism
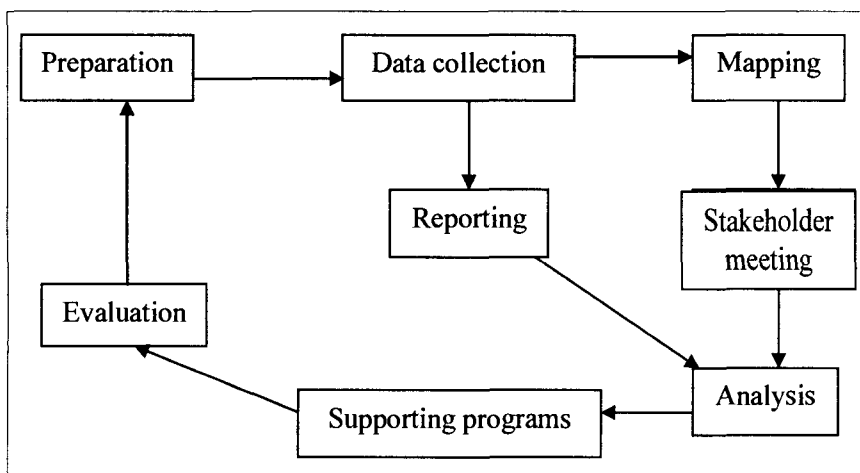
After the preparation stage is completed, actual data collection takes about three months to accomplish. At the neighborhood level, data are collected house-to-house by local cadres such as teachers, youth groups, and family planning (FP) cadres, taking advantage of local knowledge and local monitoring. In addition, the enumerators are assisted by family planning field workers in each village and monitored by *PPLKB* (*Kecamatan*–level field supervisors). In 2000, close to a total of 1 million *PPKBD*, *sub-PPKBD*, and cadre groups conducted the survey, assisted by about 35,000 *PLKB* and *PKB*.[12]

The result is the collection of individual-level data for each household and a very detailed neighborhood map, which is developed by *PPKBD* or *sub-PPKBD* along with community cadres. The map consists of the location of every household in the neighborhood, the characteristics of each household—welfare category, family planning status, demographic characteristics—and available infrastructure in the neighborhood.

Prior to 2001, data reporting was conducted manually by filling recapitulation forms. The procedure for data reporting from neighborhood level up to Jakarta is as follows: data from the neighborhood level is sent to the village level, where it is combined with the village level data and then collected at the *kecamatan* level. After that, each *kecamatan* sends the data to the *kabupaten* (district) where the data are further checked and combined before being sent to the provincial level. Each *kabupaten* also keeps a record of the data and distributes it back to the *kecamatans*, villages, and NGO partners at the *kabupaten*. At the provincial level, the BKKBN receives data from the *kabupaten* and sends province-level data to the BKKBN headquarter in Jakarta within one week of receiving the data. In addition, it also processes the data and conducts preliminary analysis and disseminates the data back to *kabupatens* and partners at the

---

[12] PPKBD (*Pembantu Pembina KB Desa*) is Village Family Planning Assistant Supervisor; PLKB (*Petugas Lapangan KB*) is Family Planning Field Worker; PKB (*Penyuluh KB*) is Family Planning Extension Officer; PPLKB (*Penyelia PLKB*) is PLKB Supervisor.

provincial level. A similar activity takes place at the BKKBN headquarter in Jakarta. All in all, it took about five months in order to send data from the enumerators in each neighborhood to the BKKBN headquarter in Jakarta.

Starting 2001, survey results were scanned into computers at the village level in order to expedite subsequent checking and reporting process. Moreover, since computerization took place, surveys in subsequent years only record changes in the households instead of redoing the whole survey from zero. Figure 2 shows the revised data collection and reporting flow. From Figure 2 one can see that the role of cadres has increasingly become more important since 2001 as the data they gather are scanned directly at the village level and then sent straight to the BKKBN headquarter in Jakarta.

Figure 2. Data Collection and Reporting Flow

Level / Conducted by	1994-2000	2001		2002
Central BKKBN	Recap	Family data 2001		Family data 2002
Province BKKBN	Recap			
Kabupaten/kota BKKBN	Recap			
Kecamatan PPLKB	Recap			
Village PLKB/PKB	Recap	Scan to computer		Scan changes
Community PPKBD/SUB-PPKBD	Recap			
Neighbourhood Cadre	Survey result	Survey result		Family data 2001
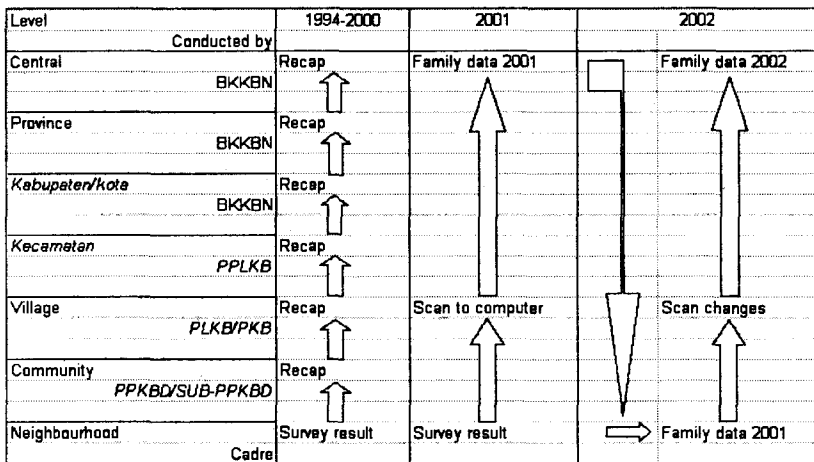
After mapping the survey results, a stakeholders' meeting at the village level is held with neighborhood leaders, village elders, village-level government officials and NGOs in attendance. This meeting records the data on poor people and discusses the necessary actions to be taken in order to help the poor using specific poverty alleviation

programs. Similar meetings are also held at each level of government up to the provincial level.

At the central level, the BKKBN, other governmental departments and NGOs also analyze the data that are used as a targeting tool for programs undertaken by the central government and as data source by NGOs and research institutions, both local and international, in conducting related research. After the process is completed, the final step is to conduct an evaluation of the whole process.

Strengths and weaknesses of BKKBN data

There are two strengths of the BKKBN data: One is that they are the only available micro data that collect information down to each household in each neighborhood in Indonesia. As of 2002 (the 2003 survey is still being processed), the BKKBN Family Database has data on 197.5 million individuals, making it the most comprehensive database on individuals in Indonesia, albeit only collecting basic information. And two is that the BKKBN data are collected by locals. Because local people know the condition of other people in their own neighborhood, the comprehensiveness of data is ensured.[13] This is the advantage of local monitoring.

However, there are also several weaknesses of BKKBN data, namely: (1) the sheer amount of data collected makes mistakes unavoidable, even with the computerization in 2001; (2) the high variation in the ability of the enumerators could affect the quality of data and consistency across regions; (3) since locals collect the data, subjectivity could play a significant role in the data; (4) the data do not capture transitory shocks to income as they are based on relatively fixed asset; (5) the highly subjective non-economic criteria are questionable, e.g., the capacity of families to meet religious obligations; (6) the composition of the list is susceptible to changes by local government officials;[14] and (7) BKKBN data collection

---

[13] This might be less so in urban areas.
[14] See Sumarto et al. (2000).

suffers from lack of funding, as is typically the case with government programs.[15]

Comparison with consumption-based measures of poverty

To assess how well the BKKBN classification matches the consumption-based measures of household welfare, two levels of comparison are made. One is at the regional (district) level and another at the household level. At the district level, the district rank correlation of the BKKBN measures with SMERU poverty mapping results is calculated. At the household level, the two classifications using the 20th consumption percentile as the poverty line are cross-tabulated.

Regional Comparison

The new method of comparing the BKKBN classification with the consumption-based measures of household welfare at the regional (district) level combines the advantage of detailed information on household characteristics obtained from a household survey (SUSENAS) with the complete coverage of a population census to estimate welfare indicators for small administrative areas. First, the method estimates a model of per-capita consumption expenditure as a function of variables that are available in both the household survey (SUSENAS) and the population survey. Second, the resulting parameters from the first stage procedure are used in a simulation to predict per capita consumption for each household in the census. Third, household level measures of poverty and inequality are then calculated and aggregated for small areas (such as districts, sub-districts or villages) using the predicted per-capita consumption generated from the second stage.[16]

---

[15] Currently, remuneration for the cadres is Rp., 150,000 (around US$ 17.65) for one vllage, independent of the size of the village and the number of cadres participating in this survey.

[16] See Suryadahi and Sumarto, 2003.

The district rank correlations of the BKKBN data with the poverty mapping results for three provinces–East Java, North Sumatra and South Sulawesi–indicate that the poverty headcount based on poverty mapping significantly agrees with BKKBN welfare indicators in most cases. In particular, the two measures of household welfare highly correlate with each other when the combination of KPS and KS1 is used to approximate the poor. It can therefore be concluded that BKKBN welfare indicator is a relatively reliable tool to indicate poverty at the district level.

However, district level may not be detailed enough to actually confirm BKKBN data reliability. Agreement at district level is insufficient, particularly for program interventions that are aimed at households.

Household level comparison
To examine how well the BKKBN household classification (prosperous/pre-prosperous) matches the consumption-based measures of poverty classification (non-poor/poor), this study performs a simple cross-tabulation using data from the 100 Village Survey (SSD). The SSD covered 100 villages located in 10 *kabupaten* spread across eight provinces. The SSD surveyed 120 households in each of the 100 villages in each round of the survey, making a total sample size of 12,000 households. The December 1998 round of the SSD has a question on respondent's classification based on BKKBN welfare criteria. Therefore, the sample can be divided into poor and non-poor households by two criteria: consumption expenditures per capita or the BKKBN welfare status.[17]

In the first exercise, the 20th percentile of households ranked by nominal expenditures per capita in *each* district is used as the dividing line between the poor and the non-poor. This poverty line is admittedly drawn arbitrarily but it has three advantages. First, there are no

---

[17] In this sample, there ac 49 percent 'pre-prosperous' households.

sufficiently detailed consumption expenditure or price data to re-estimate a poverty line for each district although a reasonable estimate of the national incidence of poverty rate in this period is around 20 percent.[18] Second, just using a quintile makes the results on program participation consistent with a large and growing literature on benefit incidence, which typically uses income or consumption expenditure quintiles, not poverty rates. Third, there is no attempt to capture differences in poverty across districts in the sample. For this to be possible, nominal expenditures have to be converted into real expenditures that take into account regional price variations. Unfortunately, the required price data to do this exercise well and actually make reliable cross district comparisons of poverty do not currently exist. Thus, in this case focus is only on the *within* district comparison, and no attempt is even made to treat the question of whether a district is relatively poor when compared *across* districts.

Table 2 cross-tabulates the two classifications using the 20th consumption percentile as the poverty line. The table shows that while only 15 percent of the "prosperous" households are poor, 75 percent of the "pre-prosperous" households are non-poor. On the other hand, 46 percent of the non-poor households are "pre-prosperous" and 38 percent of the poor households are "prosperous".

This implies that the two criteria, expenditures and BKKBN, do not match well at all. To reduce the possibility that this "mismatch" is caused by the poverty line which is "too low", the level of poverty line is raised to match the proportion of "pre-prosperous" households in the sample, which is 49 percent. The results of cross tabulation between this new "non-poor/poor" classification with the "prosperous/pre-prosperous" classification are presented in Table 3. The table shows that there are 41 percent of the "prosperous" households which are poor, 43 percent of the "pre-prosperous" households which are non-poor, 41 percent of the non-poor households

---

[18] See Suryahadi and Sumarto.

which are "pre-prosperous" and 43 percent of the poor households which are "prosperous".

Both Tables 2 and 3 therefore consistently show that there is quite a large degree of mismatch between the "prosperous/pre-prosperous" household classification from BKKBN with household welfare as measured by consumption level. Unfortunately, when the two

Table 2. Cross-tabulation Between BKKBN's Welfare Indicator with SSD's "Non-Poor/Poor" (20% Poor)

		SSD		
		Non-Poor	Poor	Total
BKKBN Welfare Category	Prosperous	5,197	920	6,117
	% Row	85	15	100
	% Column	54.2	38.3	51
	Pre-Prosperous	4,400	1,480	5,880
	% Row	74.8	25.2	100
	% Column	45.9	61.7	49
	Total	9,597	2,400	11,997
	% Row	80	20	100
	% Column	100	100	100

Table 3. Cross-tabulation Between BKKBN's Welfare Indicator with SSD's "Non-Poor/Poor" (49% Poor)

		SSD		
		Non-Poor	Poor	Total
BKKBN Welfare Category	Prosperous	3,585	2,532	6,117
	% Row	58.6	41.4	100
	% Column	58.7	43	51
	Pre-Prosperous	2,523	3,357	5,880
	% Row	42.9	57.1	100
	% Column	41.3	57	49
	Total	6,108	5,889	11,997
	% Row	51	49	100
	% Column	100	100	100

classifications disagree, it is impossible to say which is a "mistake" from a targeting point of view. On the one hand, many feel that by being based on relatively permanent characteristics (e.g., type of floor) and including non-economic criteria (e.g., whether families are able to fulfill their religious obligations), the BKKBN indicator is not a valid poverty indicator and will not specifically capture current poverty status, in particular, the households which are newly poor due to the financial crisis. On the other hand, consumption expenditures are difficult to measure accurately and it could be that consumption-poor households are the results of measurement error in expenditures.

The way forward: Scoring system or composite index construction

The consistency checks at the household level show that there is quite a large degree of discrepancy between the "prosperous/pre-prosperous" household classification from BKKBN with household welfare as measured by consumption level. Thus, the concern raised over the reliability of BKKBN data in identifying the poor is justified.

The following example from East Nusa Tenggara (NTT) province, as shown in Table 4, further confirms the weaknesses of the BKKBN classification system. The dominant factors that make a family considered poor in NTT, per the BKKBN indicators, are the housing condition and access to health and education. The indicators for housing condition in this region, however, are sensitive to local custom since traditional houses, whether poor or rich, are mainly earth floor. With regard to access to health and education services, the information collected during the mission indicates that it is not only affected by the welfare level but also by local culture and customs. This means that poverty measurement in NTT using BKKBN data is overestimated. Thus, if one uses BKKBN classification for a program that targets the poor in NTT, a large number of recipients of that program would actually be people who are not poor.

The BKKBN has information on the 23 variables (requirements)

Table 4. Number and Proportion of Poor Families in NTT Based on Various BKKBN Indicators, 2001

Main Indicators	Specific Economic Indicators	Number of Household	Percentage of Household
Food	1) All members of a family eat less than 2 times a day	66,230	8%
	2) Minimum not consuming meat/fish in a week	72,642	9%
Clothing	3) Not all members of the family have different cloth for different occasion (at home, school, work, traveling)	62,797	7%
	4) Not all members of a family have new cloth every year	85,294	10%
Housing	5) The largest part of the house is earth floor	290,203	34%
	6) Floor less than 8 m2 per member of family	183,531	22%
Health	7) If children sick or wanted to get contraception, they are not going to health facility and got modern treatment	317,317	37%
Education	8) All children age 7-15 attending school	356,641	42%
	Total Household	**850,134**	**100%**

Source: BKKBN, NTT in NTT PRSP 2004-2010

used to categorize families. One way to improve the reliability of BKKBN data in measuring welfare is by performing an alternative classification method. An example is a scoring system or composite index to identify the poor. Summary indices can be constructed from a combination of indicators, and using the chosen variables, the principal components technique may be applied to summarize the "signal" contained in a set of variables dealing with a common topic. However, such a technique cannot be applied at the present time as the data at the household level are not yet available.

Conclusion

Targeting is very important but it is not nearly as easy as is often suggested. Besides administrative costs, targeting also entails additional costs, including disincentive costs, stigma costs and political economy

costs. It is therefore possible that targeted intervention is more costly than universal intervention. Bacause of this, targeting is only considered beneficial when the benefits outweigh the costs.

In the Indonesian case, targeting was applied in its various social safety net programs that were intended to protect both the traditionally poor and the newly poor who were unable to cope with the impact of the 1997 East Asian financial crisis without external assistance. In general, the targeting for these programs was based on a combination of geographic and household targeting mechanisms, except for the subsidized rice program which used only household targeting.

Several community-based monitoring systems were also used in Indonesia during the crisis. One of the most widely used is the BKKBN monitoring system. Originally created in 1970 in order to monitor the implementation of Indonesia's national family planning program, the BKKBN then added a special section in 1994 that monitors family welfare in line with the government's intensified effort to reduce poverty.

The BKKBN monitoring system was then used as the targeting tool for programs that were aimed to mitigate the impact of the economic crisis in Indonesia in 1997 for several reasons. One, in contrast to the annual SUSENAS conducted by the BPS, the BKKBN data cover more households, its data collection is conducted by locals, and it has more specific indicators to determine whether a household is poor or not. Two, BKKBN data actually collect information on each household in contrast to SUSENAS that uses sample households.

Unfortunately, there are several weaknesses of the BKKBN data that had been uncovered by studies over the years. Two of the most glaring weaknesses are the: (1) failure of the BKKBN data to capture transitory shocks to income as the indicator is based on relatively fixed asset; and (2) highly subjective non-economic criteria.

To analyze this, two comparisons between BKKBN and consumption-based measures of poverty were conducted. The first comparison is at the district level, the result of which shows that BKKBN data to a large extent, agree with district-based poverty

headcount. The second comparison is at the household level which, in contrast to the first comparison, shows that there is quite a large discrepancy between BKKBN and consumption-based measure of poverty taken from the SSD. In order to remedy this discrepancy, a new scoring system or composite index that will evaluate the results of the BKKBN survey needs to be explored.

References

Badan Koordinasi Keluarga Berencana Nasional (2003). *Menyusuri Liku-liku Pendataan Keluarga: Apa dan Bagaimana?*. BKKBN: Jakarta.

Badan Koordinasi Keluarga Berencana Nasional (2003). "Pendataan Keluarga dan Peranannya Dalam Era Desentralisasi." BKKBN: Jakarta.Besley, Timothy and Ravi Kanbur (1990). *The Principals of Targeting*, Policy Research and External Affairs Working Paper Series No. 385, The World Bank, Washington, DC.

Bigman, David and Hippolyte Fofack (2000). 'Geographical Targeting for Poverty Alleviation: An Introduction to the Special Issues'. *The World Bank Economic Review*. 14(1). Pp. 129-145.

Ferreira, Francisco, Giovanna Prennushi, and Martin Ravallion (1999). *Protecting the Poor from Macroeconomic Shocks: An Agenda for Action in a Crisis and Beyond*, World Bank, Washington, DC, mimeo.

Grosh, Margaret E. (1994). *Adminstering Targeted Social Programs in Latin America*, The World Bank, Washington, D.C.

Hoddinott, John (1999). *Targeting: Principles and Practice*, Technical Guide No. 9, International Food Policy Research Institute. Washington, D.C.

Noerdin, Mazwar, Wandri Muchtar, and Freddy Aritonang (2003). *Family Enumeration as Micro-Data Source in Indonesia and its Development*. Technical Report Series Monograph no. 105. BKKBN: Jakarta.

Noerdin, Mazwar (2004). "Apa dan Bagaimana Pendataan Keluarga". Paper presented at the Pertemuan Sosialisasi Pendayagunaan Hasil Pendataan Keluarga, 20 April 2004. Jakarta.

Pritchett, Lant, and Sudarno Sumarto (2001). *Safety Nets in Trouble Times: Lessons from Indonesia's Crisis*. Syndicated Publications, Harvard University.

Subbarao, K., Aniruddha Bonnerjee, Jeanine Braithwaite, Soniya Carvalho, Kene Ezemenari, Carol Graham, Alan Thompson (1997). *Safety Net Programs and Poverty Reduction: Lessons from*

Cross-Country Experience. Directions in Development. The World Bank, Washington, D.C.

Sumarto, Sudarno, Asep Suryahadi, and Lant Pritchett (2000). *Safety Nets and Safety Ropes: Who Benefited from Two Indonesian Crisis Programs–The "Poor" or the "Shocked?"*. Policy Research Working Paper No. 2436. September. The World Bank, Washington, DC.

Sumarto, Sudarno, Asep Suryahadi, and Wenefrida Widyanti (2001). *"Designs and Implementation of the Indonesian Social Safety Net Programs: Evidence from the JPS Module in the 1999 SUSENAS"*. SMERU Working Paper. March. The SMERU Research Institute, Jakarta.

Suryahadi, Asep, Yusuf Suharso, and Sudarno Sumarto (1999). *"Coverage and Targeting in the Indonesian Social Safety Net Programs: Evidence from 100 Village Survey"*. SMERU Working Paper. August. Social Monitoring & Early Response Unit, Jakarta.

Tim Dampak Krisis SMERU (2000) *Laporan Perkembangan Pelaksanaan Program Operasi Pasar Khusus (OPK): Januari 1999 – Maret 2000*. Laporan Khusus SMERU, April, Social Monitoring & Early Response Unit, Jakarta.

van de Walle, Dominique (1998). *"Targeting Revisited"*. The World Bank Research Observer. 13(2), pp. 231-248.

Wahab, Abdul Aziz (2004). "Pengembangan dan Pemanfaatan Database Keluarga dan SIDUGA untuk Pembangunan di Daerah." Paper presented at the Pertemuan Sosialisasi Pendayagunaan Hasil Pendataan Keluarga, 20 April 2004. Jakarta.

Community-Level Statistics for Monitoring System in Thailand

Oraphin Mathew and
Chalermkwun Chiemprachanarakorn

Background

Thailand's National Statistical Office (NSO) is the core agency producing statistical data—both social and economic—for the development of the country. At present, the NSO has Provincial Statistical Offices (PSO) throughout 75 provinces. It also conducts public opinion surveys to measure, monitor and evaluate the success of the main policies of the government such as the Village and Urban Fund Project and the Health Care Project.

Since the national economic and social development plan came out in 1982, the Thai government has tried to alleviate the people's poverty. It acknowledges that poverty exists and has identified poverty alleviation as the only road to take toward the people's self-reliance.

Under the new constitution promulgated in 1997, the government's power was decentralized to the local administration (i.e., province, *amphoe* [district]) and down to the *tumbon* [sub-district] level. Accordingly, each local administration area has its own head and team elected by the local people and responsible for the socio-economic, political and environmental development of the area. This has led to an increase in the demand for community-

level statistical data, especially those to be used in poverty analysis and poverty alleviation plans and programs. At the tumbon level, basic statistical data are useful for setting the local development planning as well as for monitoring and evaluating progress.

Because the aim is to lead the people at the commune-level toward self-sufficiency, it is these people that have to jointly create a development plan. To do this, they need to have the figures/data on their areas. Such plan will involve initially looking into demographic factors such as income, education and occupational skills.

Pilot community-level statistics project

The NSO realizes that each commune/village needs its own reliable statistical data. Once these data exist, government agencies can make use of the results.

The NSO initially studied the procedure for the conduct of the pilot project in 12 provinces and then decided that the data ought to be collected every two years. A committee consisting of officials from all the concerned government agencies such as the Ministry of Education, Department of Health, Department of Medical Services, Royal Irrigation Department, Department of Livestock Development, Land Development Department, Department of Agriculture Techniques, Department of Agriculture Extension and the Office of Agriculture's Economics and Community Development Department was then created. With the help and cooperation of this committee, a complete schedule on the data collection process was sent to each Tumbon Administration Organization (TAO).

The integrated schedule consisted of questions on people's basic needs, which would be helpful in the drafting of the development plan of the local area as well as that of other government agencies.

Officials of about 1,335 TAOs and 13,000 villages were made in charge of the field work and the preliminary scrutiny of the data before these were sent back to the PSO for data processing and analysis.

The PSO officials initially underwent intensive training in the conduct of this project as they would be the ones to echo the training

to TAO officials. Since this is the first time the NSO transferred the field work to the TAO, all TAO officials also had to pass a thorough training on the objective and the benefits of the survey, including knowledge about statistics. Here, every item in the schedule, including how to analyze and interpret data, was explained.

Inquiries in the integrated schedule

The committee was created to study and consider the basic data and key performance indicators (KPI) that measure respondents' situation and well-being. One of the schedules focuses on the state of each village. This schedule has the following fields:

- Population and housing;
- Labor force;
- Education/training;
- Religion/culture;
- Health and social welfare;
- Income and expenditure;
- Agriculture and fishery;
- Manufacture/industry;
- Business/wholesale/retail/services;
- Communication/transportation;
- Tourism;
- Natural resources/environment; and
- Problems specific to the villages and would need the government's help.

The basic needs (3-5-2)

The basic needs that when met would allow the Thais to be self-reliant are:

- According to the constitution: At least 12 years of education, an ability to learn a trade, standardization in health insurance and security after retirement (aged 60 years);

- Reliance on oneself: Sufficiency in food, housing, drinking water/water supply, electricity and a chance to get pertinent information for each household's livelihood; and
- Security: Safety in life and freedom from drugs.

Possible problems of the pilot project

The PSO had to help TAOs collect data from villages. Now implemented, the resulting problems found are as follows:

- Initially, TAOs had to deal with insufficiently trained officials;
- The government agencies handed the power and responsibility over to the commune with insufficient time to concentrate on this project; and
- The TAOs had no knowledge and experience on how to use the data.

Community-level statistics project in 2004

From the study on 12 provinces, some questions on the interview/ questionnaire were improved. In 2004, all 75 provinces were required to collect data. There were about 7,000 TAOs and 70,000 villages in the coverage, and the field work had to be finished in two months (16 February to 15 April 2004). While the data was being processed at the PSO level, each TAO was required to improve the recording of data in their own area—each area consisting of an average of about 10 villages per TAO. Once the PSO completed the data processing and created its database, both the TAOs and other agencies were expected to make use of the results.

The plan required the report at the provincial level to be issued before October 2004. Because of its prior experience in the field, the TAOs this time knew what areas of the project to concentrate on. Also, because they had earlier been involved in the monitoring and evaluation of the projects, the TAOs now had a better appreciation of the importance of their data.

Future plan

After the 2004 project, TAOs continue to gain more experience on how to collect, scrutinize and use their data. For a project set for 2006, the NSO had again proposed that the field work, scrutiny and data processing be done by TAOs with assistance from the NSO.

Implementation of CBMS in Vietnam's Localities

Vu Tuan Anh and Vu Van Toan

Introduction

The community-based monitoring system (CBMS) work in Vietnam stems from the need for a system that can provide timely and disaggregated information for planning and poverty monitoring. It also aims to serve as a tool for analyzing the impact of government policies on poor households at the commune level.

The CBMS is being implemented in the country by the Socio-Economic Development Center (SEDEC), a non-governmental research and consulting institution, in coordination with the Office of the National Program for Poverty Reduction and Job Creation. The center is currently engaged in the following activities: piloting the national system of poverty observatories in 20 communes in 12 provinces, providing technical support to Ha-Tay Province to improve the provincial CBMS in 30 commune-observatories, and providing technical support to Yen-Bai Province to establish the provincial CBMS in 10 commune-observatories.

Implementation of CBMS

The establishment of a poverty observatory system has the following rationale: to follow up poverty tendencies in the whole

country, to analyze the impacts of poverty reduction policies on poor households and communes, and to evaluate the implementation of the National Program for Poverty Reduction.

Initially, the system of poverty observatories was established in 12 provinces covering 20 communes. A total of 4,026 households (approximately 200 households per commune) comprised of 19,700 individuals are likewise expected to participate.

Moreover, the CBMS work in these national poverty observatories will be implemented for three years starting 2002 and will use the standard CBMS survey instruments to capture the multi-dimensional aspects of poverty. Local residents will be assigned to collect the data which will be used by the HEPR for poverty assessment, impact evaluation of poverty reduction policies as well as in the evaluation of the identification system for poor households.

One of the CBMS project sites in the country is the Province of Ha Tay which is located in the Red River Delta surrounded by Hanoi, Hung Yen, Ha Nam, Hoa Binh, and Phu To. The CBMS work in this province is geared toward improving the poverty monitoring system in its 14 districts comprised of 323 communes with a total population of 2.5 million. At present, there are poverty observatories in 30 communes. The implementation of the CBMS in the province is expected to contribute technical know-how in the areas of survey · design and data processing.

Another province in Vietnam where CBMS work is currently ongoing is Yen Bai which is located in Tay Bac, the northern part of the country. It is bordered on the north by Ha Giang, on the south by Son La, on the northeast by Tuyen Quang, on the southeast by Phu Tho and on the northwest by Lao Cai. The province has nine districts comprised of 180 communes with a total population of 730,000. CBMS was first implemented in the province in 2004 in 10 communes covering 9,000 households. The CBMS work in the province is expected to provide technical support in the areas of sample selection, questionnaire design, data collection and data processing.

The indicators that are being monitored in the localities mentioned above include the following: population, food production, living conditions, education, health and income.

The implementation of CBMS in these areas demonstrates the importance of encouraging the participation of the local communities and stakeholders in the project's activities. Fostering "ownership" of homegrown poverty reduction strategies is likewise crucial since local partners are going to be the owners and end-users of the CBMS outputs.

Finally, the implementation of CBMS is expected to provide more relevant and comprehensive data on the living standards in these localities as well as assure wider participation of local people in decision-making and monitoring of poverty reduction plans.

CBMS for PRSP Monitoring in Nepal

....

Shiva Sharma

Introduction

Nepal is a small landlocked country in South Asia, sandwiched between two giant Asian countries: China in the north and India in the south. It is one of the 49 least developed countries and had a per-capita income of US$240 in 2001. Of its area of 147,000 square kilometers, only one-fifth is cultivable. Almost half of the total population of 23.5 million is below the poverty line, and the figure is increasing over the years. The population hit 4.9 million in 1977 and 9.5 million in 1996. The economy is overwhelmingly rural and agricultural. Eighty percent of the population lives in rural areas and almost the same proportion depends on agriculture. Around two-fifths of GDP is contributed by agriculture.

The country restored democracy in 1990 and adopted a decentralized system as the key administrative strategy. It has 58 urban units called municipalities, and 4,000 rural units called village development committees (VDCs). Each of these local units have elected governing bodies. They receive annual grants from the center as well as have their own sources of income through taxes and other means.

Nepal traditionally prepares a five-year national development plan, which forms part of the basis for the annual budget. The Tenth Plan (2002-2007), which is also Nepal's current PRSP, adopted poverty reduction as the sole objective. The PRSP in the Tenth Plan is guided by the long-term objectives set in the Ninth Plan, as enumerated in Table 1.

Table 1. Major Long-Term PRSP Objectives

1. Macroeconomic Targets	Targets
Annual Growth Rates (at factor cost)	8.3
-Agriculture	5.0
-Non-agriculture	9.7
Saving/GDP Ratio (%)	30
Investment/GDP Ratio (%)	34
2. Major Physical Infrastructure	
Districts with Roads (%)	100
Irrigation (in '000 Hectares)	1685
Telephone Lines (per 1000 population)	150
Population Served by Electricity (%)	80
3. Major Socioeconomic Objectives	
Infant Mortality Rate (per'000)	34.4
Total Fertility Rate (%)	3.05
Maternal Mortality Rate (per '00000)	250
Primary Education (%)	100
Literacy Rate (15 yrs and above)	100
Population Below Poverty Line (%)	10
Population Growth Rate	1.5
Water Supply (% of population)	100

Source: Tenth Plan, National Planning Commission

Under the period covered by the Tenth Plan, two alternate scenarios have been considered: First is a growth rate of 6.2 percent and the second is a 4.3 percent growth rate. The lower rate is assumed under a scenario of escalating insecurity in the country, which impacts on investment. The socio-economic objectives set by the Tenth Plan/ PRSP are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Major Socioeconomic Objective of Tenth Plan/PRSP

Items	Baseline (2001/2)	Projected Growth Rate in 2006/7	
		at 6.2%	at 4.3%
1. Infant Mortality rate (per '000)	64.2	45	47
2. Total Fertility Rate (%)	4.1	3.5	3.6
3. Maternal Mortality Rate (per '00000)	415	300	315
4. User of Family Planning Services (%)	39.3	47	46
5. Health Person Attended Child Birth (%)	13	18	17
6. Average Age (yrs)	61.9	65	64
7. Primary Education Net Enrolment (6 yrs and above %)	80.4	90	89
8. Literacy (6 yrs and above %)	55.5	70	68
9. Literacy (15 yrs and above %)	49.2	63	61
10. Water Supply (% of population)	71.6	85	83
11. Population Growth Rate	2.25	2.1	2.1
12. Population Below Poverty Line (%)	38	30	33
13. Human Development Index	.466	.517	.512
14 Human Poverty Index	39.2	34.0	34.5

PRSP monitoring

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the National Planning Commission (NPC) have been implementing the "Poverty Monitoring in Support of the PRSP" Project since 2002. Here, one of the aims is to improve and streamline the poverty monitoring system in Nepal. For the past few years, the NPC has been coordinating the efforts in the design of a comprehensive poverty monitoring system at both the national and district levels.

Poverty monitoring and analysis system

In 2003, the NPC/UNDP formulated a national-level Poverty Monitoring and Analysis System (PMAS) framework document based on consultations with donor communities. The aim is to "coordinate, consolidate, harmonize and analyze data from existing, as well as new, poverty monitoring mechanisms, and communicate results in order to feed back into the policy-making process." The following are the main features of the framework document.

- The Poverty Monitoring Section (PMS) under the Central Monitoring and Evaluation Division (CMED) of NPC will be the focal point for the system;
- A system of input and output monitoring requiring coordination among line ministries, district level agencies and CMED has been specified;
- A public expenditure tracking of programs and projects has been proposed;
- Performance monitoring based on intermediate indicators is to be performed annually through the sectoral MIS;
- A core set of outcome/impact and process indicators have been proposed for tracking over time;
- A sequencing of surveys has been proposed (Table 3) as the key source of data for poverty monitoring. This list will also help avoid duplication of efforts and information, and minimize lack of coordination.
- The Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) will be at the center of the conduct of national household surveys; thus, its capacity will be improved; and
- Participatory monitoring and evaluation will complement the quantitative surveys.

District poverty monitoring and analysis system
A study on the framework and implementation strategy for the District Poverty Monitoring and Analysis System (DPMAS) was completed in

Table 3. PRSP Proposed Sequencing of Surveys

				Year		
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
National Living Standards Survey	x					x
Consolidated Social Survey				x		
Expenditure Tracking and/or Service Delivery Surveys		x	x	x	x	x
Labor Force Survey				x		
Agricultural Survey		x		x		x

2003. The DPMAS is being translated into Nepali language and will be circulated to the district development committees (DDCs) for feedback and comments. Its framework consists of implementation monitoring, outcome/impact monitoring, and institutional structure of the poverty monitoring system at district levels. The main features of the framework document are as follows:

- Six key sectors have been identified for implementation and outcome/impact monitoring, which are to be primarily based on the sectoral MIS, supported by the information derived from household surveys;
- Monitoring of 28 inputs, 39 outputs and 37 outcome/impact indicators is proposed;
- Quantitative and qualitative approaches (including PPA) have been proposed as monitoring tools. Most of the outcome/ impact indicators are to be derived from household surveys. However, there is no further elaboration on whether the surveys will be based on sample or census and how it is to be conducted;
- The DDC is to be the lead institution for DPMAS implementation;
- The NPC and Ministry of Local Development (MLD) are to support the DDC in the DPMAS implementation;
- The system will be built from an existing institutional framework rather than from a new mechanism; and
- The system is to be institutionalized at the DDC level.

Poverty monitoring must be useful for devising appropriate policies and strategies as well as targeting development activities to the poorer sections of the community. The best way to reach the poor requires decentralized local participatory approaches in planning, implementation and monitoring. Monitoring is only as good as its use. At present, quantitative information generated at the district and national levels are hardly being used. On the other hand, participatory approaches seem to be relatively better since they address the issue of implementation as part of the monitoring process.

While there is no dearth of data, their access to the local-level policymakers is often inadequate. For example, the wealth of data from the population census never reaches the VDCs and wards where they could be most utilized. This points to the need for information to be directed to actual users, and such dissemination modality ought to be built in during the survey design itself.

A crucial issue is the linkage of information generated at different levels: local (village), district and national. Some argue that "well-being monitoring at the national and district levels should not be combined within a single system" since no single system is likely to meet the requirement of both (IDEA International 2002). A major constraint for devising a single system is the sample size required to represent both levels, which would be extremely costly. The merit of establishing a unified framework is that locally generated information is aggregated for the district level such that the district to national system no longer needs to be emphasized. In the context of poverty alleviation, locally generated information on "who the poor are" and "where they are" are crucial for designing an effective program for this target group. Most participatory PPA in Nepal (e.g., the Poverty Development and Monitoring System and VDP) have shown that such information can be generated easily without much cost especially since most community-based programs use social mobilization approaches with a facilitator or mobilizer in place. Since social mobilization has also been accepted as the main approach for poverty alleviation programs (e.g., PAF, VDP, DACAW), it is possible that in the future most of Nepal's VDCs will have some form of community-based programs under way. In addition, local people's collection and use of data empower them to design and monitor their own development. It is therefore suggested that the issue of linkage be given more serious consideration than has been hitherto.

MIMAP and PMS activities in Nepal

The Micro Impacts of Macro and Adjustment Policies (MIMAP) research project was initiated in Nepal in mid-1996 with the support

of the International Development Research Centre (IDRC) in Canada. Its main objective is to analyze the micro impacts of macro policies, especially the impacts on poverty at national and local levels. It aims to enhance the country's policy analysis capability, especially on the impact of liberalization policies on income distribution, expenditure pattern, living standards and other social dimensions of poverty. It also aims to contribute in policy debates on alleviating poverty. In the later phase of the project, emphasis will be on the design and implementation of a poverty monitoring system at the lowest unit of administration—the VDC level.

Poverty and Development Monitoring System (PDMS)

The Poverty and Development Monitoring System (PDMS) has been one of the major components of MIMAP-Nepal since its second phase. It aims to measure social and economic changes at the community (ward) level for a fixed period. Sixty-two indicators have been designed and a system of collecting and analyzing yearly information from the community has been developed. The main bases in identifying the indicators are (1) the development goals set by the government; (2) various aggregate economic, social and poverty indicators set in the long-term targets; and (3) international development goals set forth by different international conventions. The indicators are related 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 judgment.

The PDMS information will be collected every year from ward-level focus group discussions so that the situation of poverty could be monitored on a regular basis. Its indicators for one VDC are presented in Appendix 1.

Before collecting the data, the VDC representatives and local elites are informed of the methodology of data collection. Then, information from each ward is collected from a focus group discussion of about 15

participants from different groups. Participants are members of ward committees, teachers, key informants and knowledgeable persons. Information that is not possible to collect from focus group discussions is culled by conducting quick household enumeration. The VDC-level information is a compilation of all ward-level information.

Initially, PDMS was implemented in a cluster of five VDCs in Kavre, Dhanusha, Bardiya and Dailekh districts. The lessons from this experiment were then extended to all VDCs in five MIMAP districts (Kavre, Dhanusha, Bardiya, Dailekh and Jumla). The National Labour Academy (NLA) implemented the PDMS in Dailekh and Bardiya districts while CECI implemented in Kavre (two rounds), Jumla (two rounds), Dhanusha (one round) and a second round in Dailekh. So far, the first round of the PDMS has been fully implemented in 293 VDCs in the five MIMAP districts. Information from nine communities is aggregated for the VDC level. Then, PMS information from all VDCs of the district is aggregated for the district-level analysis.

Use of the PDMS information

The PDMS is useful in monitoring poverty as well as development activities in the VDCs. Past experiences in monitoring poverty situations in the VDCs showed that there was no significant change in results for short periods such as one to two years. However, PDMS information—when taken together with the VDC profile—is effective for long-term VDC planning exercises. A five-year development vision for all VDCs and municipalities of three districts was prepared using the PDMS information. The next section illustrates an example of one VDC's planning exercise.

VDC planning exercise

For the VDC level plan, a need assessment of the local people and the priorities placed by the community ought to be done. Thus, the potential comparative advantage of a VDC was identified for planning considerations. To assess both needs and resources, information from non-conventional gender indicators from PDMS and VDC profile was used.

For the five-year plan, special emphasis was given to underdeveloped areas and poorer sections of VDCs. The potentials of the VDC to take the lead in specific production sectors and sub-sectors were also given due consideration.

Then, a series of planning meetings with VDC officials, schoolteachers and VDC's knowledgeable persons was held. Professionals from NLA facilitated the discussion and systematized the vision and priorities that evolved from the discussion. Resource requirements for the planned activities by year were also tackled.

Areas where the VDC is involved in the planning are enumerated below:

1. Agriculture
   - Irrigation
   - Seed multiplication
   - Horticulture
   - Vegetable
   - Livestock
2. Roads
3. Electrification
4. Forest
5. Information and communication
6. Social Services
   - Education
   - Health
   - Drinking Water
   - Sanitation
   - Social Security
7. Small-scale and cottage industry
8. Women development

The guiding principles for evolving the five-year plan were agreed in the planning units, and generally contained the following:

1. Sustainable development
2. Peoples 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

Results of the planning exercise are presented in log-frame format. The cost of each activity is proposed by planning session participants. Then they agree on how to sequence the implementation process. Below is a sample of the major outcome of the planning session of the Mirgaulia VDC.

1. The five-year development expenditure is estimated at Rs 36 million, of which about Rs 13 million is to come from the people's participation. Thus, the annual estimated expenditure (external) is Rs 4.66 million. This is equal to Rs 1,903 (US$26) per household member and Rs 364 ($5) per-capita per year.
2. The development of the social sector, which includes education, health, drinking water, sanitation, nutrition and social welfare, accounted for almost 45 percent of the total planned expenditure. The large share is due to investment on infrastructure such as building or drinking water plants. Agricultural development accounts for 24 percent of total expenses. Village roads receive 17 percent allocation.
3. Women development and gender equity programs receive 2.2 percent (i.e., Rs 160,900 per annum) of the total planned expenditure. The programs include training, awareness and other interventions.

In preparing the plans for the VDC, a large number of people from the village are involved in data collection, priority setting and consensus on the implementation modalities. Part of the process also includes training.

PRSP monitoring vis-à-vis MIMAP-PDMS

The MIMAP-PDMS complements the national PRSP-PMS in various angles. Below is a discussion of each angle.

Administrative and statistical Level

The MIMAP-PDMS is designed as a monitoring tool at the VDC level while the PRSP-PMS is planned to be a tool significant at both the DDC and national levels. Moreover, the MIMAP-PDMS has the ward (community) as the lowest statistical unit, it being defined as a cluster of 50 to 200 households[1]. The main measurement method is the ward-level group meeting (participative interview). For the PRSP-PMS, the household is the statistical unit.

Statistical coverage

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

Periodicity

The MIMAP-PDMS is designed as a set of indicators updated yearly. This implies that its data are of use to some kind of annual local management activities at the VDC level. On the other hand, the PRSP-PMS is planned to be a four-year based system at the district level, where its rotating sampling scheme allows each district to come back in the national sample every four years. More than that, the benchmark of the PRSP-PMS will be the Nepal Living Standard Survey (NLSS), whose periodicity is not firmly defined but rarely less than five years[2].

---

[1] There is in fact a household listing form, but this is viewed as a tool for computing demographic groups' variables used as the reference to interpret all other domain indicators, and eventually to compute more significant indicators at an aggregated level (rates).

[2] In fact, the first NLSS was in 1996, and the second one was planned for 2002 or 2003.

Sustainability

The MIMAP-PDMS is a community-based monitoring system designed to be feasible depending on the human, physical and financial resources available at the VDC level. Its immediate upper administrative level, the district development committee (DDC), has an important role to play in providing technical support (e.g., periodical training for newly elected members and data quality control). It goes without saying that the whole management of the system relies first on the DDC level. Local sustainability is therefore affected by factors at both the VDC and DDC levels.

On the other hand, the PRSP-PMS relies on the technical staff of the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS), with its 33 district offices. The CBS reference document clearly states that the "main reasons for CBS not being able to take up its mandated job in a coordinated way is its low status."[3] Thus, there is a need to upgrade the status of its staff. Also, external funds are usually required for the survey to be implemented.

It should be clarified that the complementarity of the MIMAP-PDMS and the PRSP-PMS does not mean substitutability. Rather, both have their specific roles and can strengthen each other. For example, the review on a set of 31 poverty indicators[4] that may be used for the national consensus should be seen as an important input in the ongoing process of reducing the current 62 MIMAP-PDMS indicators. Consistency between both systems is thus a necessary condition for complementarity.

A basic principle in any CBMS location is that local communities tasked to collect data are the first to be empowered by the information coming out. They are the first clients and users of the data. Because of such (and 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

---

[3] loc. cit., p. 22.

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

Act (LSGA) in 1999.

This fact is explicitly recognized in the Local Governance Strengthening Program (LGSP) of July 2002. The LGSP is the new large umbrella under which all actors in decentralization will be coordinated by the NPC and the Ministry of Local Development (MLD). The "LGSP will follow on from the Participatory District Development Program (PDDP) and Local Governance Program (LGP), which were a collaborative venture' between His Majesty's Government of Nepa (HMGN) and UNDP, originating in late 1995. The Program in its entirety is intended to contribute to the over-all goal of reducing the incidence of poverty in rural areas of Nepal."[5] As such, "there is a requirement for more general monitoring of the incidence of poverty."[6] 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."[7] It refers explicitly to the PRSP-PMS as thus: "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".[7] The involvement of MIMAP-PDMS is thus clear. The MIMAP-PDMS seeks to reach some consistency with the PRSP-PMS through the former's more direct link to the poverty monitoring system required by the decentralization policy, the LGSP-PMS. Then, the MIMAP-PDMS will remain what it intends to be fundamentally: a poverty monitoring system that will also fill the

---

[5] loc. cit., p. 16.

[6] loc. cit., p.17.

[7] loc. citt., p.17.

information vacuum at the VDC level.

Conclusion

The major thrust of PRSP (or the Tenth Plan) is to reduce the poverty level through economic growth and targeted programs. In such a situation it is obvious that all the development programs to be implemented in the next five years will be geared toward this direction. To jumpstart such initiatives, poverty assessment at the disaggregated level is essential. The NPC has also recognized the need for regular monitoring of poverty when reviewing the country's poverty reduction strategies and their impact on poverty. It will 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 shown the same concern for poverty reduction in Nepal and has set development goals on poverty. This also requires a sound database that has poverty monitoring indicators at the grassroots level.

The PRSP-PMS monitoring system designed by the government is targeted to cover only up to the district level. On the other hand, MIMAP- PDMS provides VDC-level data that can easily be compiled at the district level. Its collection method is also helpful in building the capacity of local government institutions and strengthening the poverty information base at the grassroots level at regular intervals. Such a system empowers the locally elected bodies with the gathered information and initiates sound resource allocation at the local level.

Appendix 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
3	Female	446	665	495	684	684	926	511	865	1,022	6,298
	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 children 14 years or below and married last year	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Boys	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Girls	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12	Number of children 14 years or below and working as wage laborers	-	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

Appendix 1 (cont'd)

S.No.	Description	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	VDC Total
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 labourers 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										
	Female	25	20	25	25	20	25	20	25	25	23
	Male										
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	19	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)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Appendix 1 (cont'd)

S.No.	Description	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	VDC Total
						Wards No					
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	Number of households self sufficient in fuel wood and fodder supply	36	22	37	8	30	15	9		12	169
29	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 loan institutions 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 with 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

Appendix 1 (cont'd)

S.No.	Description	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	VDC Total
						Wards No					
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 where all 14 years old 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 program last year										
	Male	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Number of primary schools in the ward	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	-	1	10

Appendix 1 (cont'd)

S.No.	Description	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	VDC Total
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 deaths 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 five years old last year	2	-	-	1	-	-	-	3	2	8
	Boys	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	2	5
	Girls	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	2	-	3
50	Death of mothers due to pregnancy reasons	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
51	Number of disabled	13	5	10	7	13	19	8	13	16	104
	Blind	1	1	-	1	2	1	-	-	2	8
	Male	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2
	Female	1	1	-	1	2	1	-	-	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	1	4	2	3	2	20
	Female	2	-	-	1	3	4	-	2	-	12
52	Number of Health post	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1

Appendix 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 a living by selling fuel wood	-	14	-	2	-	7	-	-	28	51
57	Number of households that make a living by pottering	-	5	-	-	5	1	-	-	-	11
58	Number of individuals with goiter	1	1	-	1	-	-	3	-	-	6
	Male	1	1	-	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 of well/tap	192	259	246	266	288	332	183	334	340	2,440
62	Number of households having dwelling space and animal shed in the same house	47	141	59	7	5	88	43	45	190	625

CBMS Session 2
Decentralization and the Role of CBMS

Poverty Reduction, Decentralization and Community-Based Monitoring System*

*Celia M. Reyes and Lani E. Valencia***

Introduction

The period of high economic growth in Asia has brought about a significant decline in poverty. Poverty incidence has dropped drastically, particulary over the last decade. Using the US$1 a day threshold, the World Bank estimates that poverty incidence in East Asia has been halved---from 29.4 percent in 1990 to 14.5 percent in 2000. In South Asia, the poverty incidence dipped from 41.5 percent to 31.9 percent over the same period. Nevertheless, the number of poor in the region still reaches 694 million, and poverty remains to be one of the biggest challenges confronting the region.

With poverty still looming across Asia, it is not surprising for poverty reduction to become the main goal of many countries. At the Millenium Summit in September 2000, 147 heads of states and governments adopted the Millenium Declaration and affirmed their commitment toward sustaining development and eliminating poverty.

This led to the formulation of the the Millenium Development Goals (MDGs), which is a concise set of goals, numerical targets and quantifiable indicators. With the MDGs, countries can focus their efforts on achieving significant, measurable improvements in people's lives. Even multilateral development banks support the adoption of the MDGs. They agree to relate their long-term strategic frameworks to the MDGs and commit to reflect the MDGs in their country strategies and programs.

The eight Millenium Development Goals are the following:

1) Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger;,
2) Achieve universal primary education;
3) Promote gender equality and empower women;
4) Reduce child mortality;
5) Improve maternal health;
6) Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases;
7) Ensure environmental sustainability; and
8) Develop a global partnership for development.

The first seven goals relate to the different dimensions of poverty. There is a total of 48 targets.

While the world community has been focusing its efforts in reducing the different dimensions of poverty, the governance structure in many countries is evolving. Decentralization gained popularity within the last two decades. It was seen as a more cost-effective way of providing public services.

Decentralization brought with it greater demand for local-level data. This paper examines the role of community-based monitoring systems in addressing this demand for more disaggregated data on the different dimensions of poverty. In particular, it looks at the initiatives carried out in the Philippines, Nepal and Vietnam in developing local level poverty monitoring systems.

Decentralization defined

Decentralization is defined as the transfer of responsibility for planning, management and resource raising and allocation from the central

government and its agencies, to the lower levels of government. It is pursued so as to improve delivery of services. Local government units are now involved in identifying problems in their localities, formulating plans and programs to address these problems, implementing the corresponding programs and projects, and monitoring and evaluating the impact of these interventions. The local units are now more accountable to their constituents.

Advocates of decentralization argue that bringing the government closer to the people will make it more responsive and hence more likely to develop policies and programs that meet the needs of the people. This can be done by giving local governments autonomy and building their capacity to meet the challenge of improving the lives of their constituents, which is in turn conducive to poverty reduction.

Several countries in Asia have long advocated for and practiced decentralized system of governance for effective participation of the people in the governance process, equitable distribution of resources, organized government presence at all levels, and empowerment of disadvantaged communities. The examples below serve to illustrate the diverse types and degrees of approaches to decentralization.

In Nepal, two decentralization acts have been enacted following the new 1990 Constitution: The Village Development Committee (VDC), Municipality and District Development Committee (DDC) Act of 1991, and the Local Self-Governance Act 1999. The former was merely a continuation of the earlier system with a different classification while the latter was designed based on the report of the High Level Decentralization Coordination Committee 1997. The Local Self-Governance Act 1999 includes provisions for broad-based organizational structure and devolution of authorities. It enabled elected local bodies to establish sectoral units within DDCs, collaborate with the private sector on joint ventures, levy local taxes and exercise judicial authority.

The passage of the Local Government Code (LGC) in 1991 represented a major step in decentralization in the Philippines. Before the LGC, the local government units' (LGUs') main functions were

levying and collecting of local taxes, regulating business activities, and managing garbage collection, public cemeteries, public markets and slaughterhouses. The LGC paved the way for increased local autonomy, expenditure responsibility and revenue authority. In particular, the principal responsibility for the delivery of basic social services and the operation of the facilities were devolved to LGUs. The devolved areas are: agricultural extension and research; social forestry; environmental management and pollution control; primary health and hospital care; social welfare services; repair and maintenance of infrastructure; water supply and communal irrigation; and land use planning. Consequently, personnel of National Government Agencies who used to handle these tasks before the passage of the LGC were devolved to the LGUs.

In addition, the LGUs were given taxing authority to generate resources that complement the Internal Revenue Allotment (IRA) they get from the national government. The new scheme devised to determine the share of LGUs from the revenues collected by the national government is based primarily on population and land size.

In Vietnam, the Law on the Organization of the People's Council and People's Committee provides for decentralization in the social sectors, particularly in education, health and social welfare. The transfer of power to the local levels unburdens the central government and allows it to concentrate on issues of national importance. Powers distributed to different local government levels include taking over some of the responsibilities of the central government or coordinating the latter's activities. This will enable local authorities to immediately attend to the needs of the communities because they do not have to wait for instructions from above.

Vietnam brings the process a step further by giving local authorities, instead of the central administration, the power to issue decentralization measures. Such measures empower not just the local governments but also the social organizations, mass organizations, the various sectors and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). In effect, decentralization in Vietnam combines the principles of

management by sector and management by locality or territory. The executive organs, particularly the ministries, deliver the national services while the local authorities deliver the services in their respective territories "without any discrimination as to central and local economic activities."

The constitution of Pakistan does not stipulate for the creation of local governments. They existed through ordinances and under the supervision of their respective provincial governments. Pakistan is undergoing decentralization through devolution. The plan requires the establishment of a three-tier local government system in every district. Its design is based on five fundamentals concepts: devolution of political power, decentralization of administrative authority, deconcentration of management functions, diffusion of the power-authority nexus and distribution of resources to the district levels. Providing greater autonomy to provinces is based on the rationale that they are in a much better position to deal with, decide on and design a local government plan that will be more responsive to the specific needs of each province.

To reduce red tape and make government more responsive to the needs of the people, decisive steps will be taken for the devolution of authority at the federal and provincial levels. In the first phase, health, primary education, secondary education, local roads, irrigation and police activities will be decentralized. These services are to be managed at the district or regional level with provincial or central government exercising supervisory roles.

In the Sri Lankan context, devolution means transferring political and administrative decision-making authority from central government to elected bodies at lower levels. The instruments of devolution are The Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution (1987) and The Provincial Councils Act No. 42 of 1987.

There are three formal levels of state administration in Sri Lanka:
- the Center – with the President, Prime Minister and Cabinet of Minister;
- Province – Provincial Councils; and

- Divisions – Divisional Secretary, Produce *Sabhas*, Urban Councils and Municipal Councils.

The government decided to decentralize administration to the divisional level. The objective of this proposal is to ensure that delivery of services to the people is undertaken at the level closest to their place of residence. That is all operational activities presently performed by line ministries of the central government, provincial councils and the district administration, which directly affect the people, are carried out at the divisional level. In effect, the functions of line ministries, departments and provincial councils in respect of these activities will be confined mainly to planning and policy-making.

The major components of the decentralized planning and coordination are found at four levels; namely, Provincial Development Policy, Strategy and Program; District Development Program; Divisional Development Plan; and Village Development Plan. The last one focuses mainly on projects and activities at the village level that will be identified through direct consultation between the village level organization and the community. They will be drafted with an assigned order of priority based on the development needs of the village. To coordinate decision-making at the four levels, three bodies have been set up: Provincial Planning Councils, District Coordinating Committees and Divisional Planning Councils.

In terms of project planning and implementation, the level of decentralization has gradually shifted down to the divisional level, where strong participation of the divisional secretariats has to be tapped. It has become the meeting point where national development efforts, provincial development strategies and peoples' needs, as represented by village groups and elected members, are brought together, appraised, reviewed and approved. It is also at this level where projects are monitored and implemented and their impact evaluated.

In Bangladesh, local bodies are controlled by the central government in all aspects. Through legislation, the government

determines the structure, composition, functions and responsibilities of the local bodies. It also formulates detailed rules on powers of the elected members, assessment of the taxes, among others. Regulations made by the local bodies are subject to government approval. Financially, the government prescribes in detail the sources of income, the powers of taxation, maintenance of accounts, the rules to be followed and other related matters. Administratively, the local bodies do not appoint their own staff. Administrative control is also carried out through review of resolutions (the local bodies have to submit a copy of the proceedings of their meetings and the resolutions passed) and periodic inspections.

Since 1991, there has only been a local government at the union level and that is the *Union Parishads* (the lowest unit of local government). This structure has been in existence for a long time and is one where the locally elected persons are well-known to them.

Challenges of decentralization

Decentralization brings decision-making closer to the people and yields programs and services that better address local needs. The latter requires sufficient technical capacity on the part of local government units, as well as supporting institutional arrangements.

Local government units face greater challenges with the increased powers given to them. They now have to do their own planning and implementation of projects and programs. They need to be able to determine what the problems in their localities and interventions are, who the target beneficiaries should be and what the impacts of these programs are. To be able to carry out these functions well, it is necessary to have the relevant information. Institutionalizing a monitoring system at the local level is one of the more important challenges faced by local government units.

In the case of the Philippines, there are structures mandated by the local government code to assist the LGU to carry out its functions, but these are not enough. For instance, a planning unit is mandated to be operational in every province, city and municipality. These units

are tasked to prepare annual development plans. However, there are no clear guidelines on how the planning unit is supposed to carry out its functions. Thus, there are large variations in the tasks performed by the planning units as well as in the quality of plans (if there are). One of the more serious gaps is the lack of data that can be used in preparing the plans.

The types of programs implemented by local governments are dependent on the identified needs of the local populace. In the absence of data on the different dimensions of well-being, it is not uncommon to find that the programs implemented by local government units correspond to the priorities of the local chief executives. Thus, one finds local government units (especially those headed by engineers) to prioritize infrastructure projects. There are also examples of localities that prioritize health concerns or education. The lack of data covering the different dimensions of poverty will make it easy to overlook the other dimensions.

Poverty monitoring systems

With decentralization, the types of data being demanded by the various stakeholders such as policymakers, program implementers and civil society are also changing. Data that has been disaggregated to correspond to the different levels of government are needed by the local governments to assess the situation. Longitudinal data are necessary to track changes over time. Furthermore, household level data are needed to identify eligible beneficiaries of the different programs.

Existing poverty monitoring systems in many countries rely on national surveys and censuses conducted by the national statistical offices. When conducted regularly, these surveys and censuses provide data on the different dimensions of poverty every three or five years. Many of these surveys can generate national and regional level estimates. However, they cannot provide data disaggregated enough to meet the needs of local government units.

Various national statistical systems are trying to address the demand for micro-level poverty statistics. Small area estimation facilitates the

generation of estimates for areas smaller than the sampling domain. The Micro Impacts of Macroeconomic Adjustment Policies (MIMAP)-Philippines has conducted a research on this in 1996. The research demonstrated the use of various estimation methodologies in generating estimates of poverty incidence at the municipal level. Some of the estimates, however, had high coefficients of variation. Nevertheless, the MIMAP work has helped increase awareness of these techniques for more disaggregated poverty estimates. This type of research requires linking census and survey data. Thus, the extent of overlap between the two sources determines to a large extent the resulting estimates' quality.

Poverty mapping is now being carried out in several countries to facilitate geographic targeting. It identifies small areas where poverty is prevalent. That is, through the use of regression, poverty indicators are mapped for smaller areas. This method requires the combined use of data from censuses, surveys and/or administrative records. One problem with poverty mapping is the difficulty in updating the poverty maps. Since censuses are conducted every five or 10 years, this implies that updates can only be done at the same frequency.

Some countries have redesigned their surveys to generate more disaggregated data. The sample size of surveys can be increased but at greater costs. The Philippines, for instance, started generating provincial estimates in 2001. However, findings show that more than half of the estimates have coefficients of variation greater than 20 percent.

Meanwhile, some countries have started to focus on other poverty monitoring systems that can provide local level data. The Community-Based Monitoring System (CBMS) is one such alternative.

Background of CBMS

The CBMS was started in the Philippines by the MIMAP-Philippines Project in response to the need to monitor the impact of macroeconomic policies and shocks on the population. Earlier, the project found that national surveys and censuses conducted by the statistical system could

provide statistics relating to the different dimensions of poverty. However, there are gaps in the system in terms of the level of disaggregation and frequency. While there is the Family Income and Expenditure Survey conducted by the National Statistics Office as the source for the income-based measures of poverty, it could only provide national and regional data until 2001. Moreover, the data are collected every three years so that the official estimate of the impact of the 1997-1998 Asian Financial crisis on poverty in the Philippines came out in late 2001, four years after the onset of the crisis.

The gaps are greater for some of the non-income-based measures of poverty. Some of these statistics are collected infrequently. For instance, the latest data on functional literacy rate are as of 1994. Moreover, most estimates are available at the national and regional levels only.

To meet LGUs' demands for local level data, MIMAP-Philippines pilot tested the CBMS. Florentino et al. (1992) propose a system of monitoring the impact of macroeconomic adjustment policies on the welfare conditions of the population, particularly the poor and vulnerable segments of the population. Reyes and Alba (1994) modified the proposed MIMAP monitoring system, specified the indicator system, identified the key players at each geopolitical level and outline the flow of information. Reyes and Ilarde (1996) further developed the details of the monitoring system. The design was further refined to incorporate the results of the pilot testing in Bulacan in 1995-1996 and this was presented in the Reyes (1998) study.

The CBMS is an organized way of collecting information at the local level for LGUs, national government agencies, NGOs and civil society's use. A brief description of CBMS is given below.

The CBMS has several features:
- It is LGU-based;
- It taps existing LGU personnel as monitors; and
- It has a core set of indicators.

Being LGU-based, the CBMS adopts the strategy of mobilizing and developing the capability of communities for data generation and utilization. It also reports the data collected to the higher geopolitical level for immediate intervention and ultimately reaches macroeconomic planners to influence adjustment programs. It utilizes the information generated by other monitoring systems already in place as a support. It also creates and maintains a databank at each geopolitical level and taps local personnel to do the data collection, processing and analysis of the data.

The CBMS adopts a core set of indicators, which are recommended to be collected annually or, at most, every two years. These indicators have been chosen based on the multidimensional aspects of poverty and have been confined largely to *output* and *impact* indicators. The system is flexible and can accommodate community-specific indicators to reflect the other concerns of the community.

CBMS experience in the Philippines

The CBMS experience in the Philippines has been very positive. Implemented province-wide in Palawan, the CBMS results show that it can provide the needed information to support planning and project implementation at the local levels. It is now being implemented also in Camarines Norte. Region IVB (consisting of the provinces of Mindoro Oriental, Mindoro Occidental, Marinduque, Romblon and Palawan) through the NEDA Regional Office, expressed interest in applying the system region-wide.

At the national level, the CBMS work has led the Department of Interior and Local Government (DILG) to issue a memorandum circular advocating for the institutionalization of a community-based monitoring system and the adoption of the core indicators recommended by MIMAP-CBMS. Prior to this issuance, the DILG released a circular in December 2001 requiring all provinces and municipalities to identify a Local Poverty Reduction Action Officer (LPRAO). The LPRAOs are mandated to prepare poverty action plans. Consequently, they will need data in the different dimensions of poverty to be able to diagnose the poverty situation in their localities.

CBMS in Nepal

As mentioned earlier, two decentralization acts in Nepal are the Village Development Committee (VDC), Municipality and District Development Committee (DDC) Acts of 1991 and the Local Self-Governance Act (LSGA) of 1999. Under the LGSA, the DDC has influence and control over-all government development initiatives in the district. The district-level activities are allocated to the VDCs through the DDC. The DDC also works to link the line agencies representing government ministries and the local bodies. In essence, the VDC is the lowest political unit of which all local level initiatives and development interventions are conceived, designed and implemented. It is, therefore, necessary that planning and implementation of the programs be at the VDC level. This is not the case, however. Plans are prepared only at national level after collecting inputs from districts on *ad-hoc* basis. In such plans, needs of local people are not reflected. It is, therefore, imperative that plans should be formulated at the VDC level, going up to DDC and then to the national level.

The information base at the local level is virtually non-existent, however. The only household survey being conducted by the national government is the Nepal Living Standards Survey (LSS), which consists of integrated surveys that provide statistics relating to all aspects of income-related poverty, human development and social inconsistencies. The LSS is conducted every five years or so, with the initial survey conducted last 1995-1996 and the next one scheduled on 2002-2003. It does not provide district-level statistics. Therefore, it is necessary to gather up-to-date information on the welfare status of the people at the district level.

In addressing this problem, the MIMAP Project in Nepal started to gather information at the local level. Data were collected through focus group discussions at the ward level, with the ward chairperson, ward members, schoolteachers and local elite as key participants. The wards consist of 100 households or so, and the discussants number about 15 to 20.

Sixty-two indicators were identified from the discussions. These indicators are simple to collect, easy to interpret and had little or no room for subjective judgment. After the information were collected, processed and interpreted, it served as inputs to the planning preparation at the VDC level. This step was noted to be necessary since planning, programming and budgeting exercises were done at this level. Forty participants were invited. The plan was prepared by identifying the basic needs and long-term development vision of the VDC. Programs and activities were discussed and finalized. At the completion of a program, achievements from different sectors were also assessed.

At present, the CBMS is being operationalized in five districts in Nepal.

CBMS in Vietnam

Local government in Vietnam consists of three tiers: province and central city, district and township, and commune. Each administrative level has a People's Council and a People's Committee. Law on the Organization of the People's Council and People's Committee provides for decentralization in the social sectors, particularly in education, health and social welfare. The People's Council consists of the local authority of the state and the top supervisory bodies at each level and oversee People's Committees. People's Committees, on the other hand, act as executive bodies and carry out local administrative duties.

As mentioned earlier, decentralization in Vietnam combines the principles of management by sector and management by locality or territory. The executive organs, particularly the ministries, deliver the national services, while the local authorities deliver the services in their respective territories.

Another notable move by the government in the area of decentralization is the issuance of a recent decree, the *grassroots democratization decree*, which stipulates actions which local leadership must take in order to promote grassroots democracy. The decree differentiates four levels of participation: sharing information, providing comments, participating in decision-making and monitoring.

Given that local authorities have the power to deliver services within their locality, it is necessary that timely information on the welfare status of the people at the village level be known. The information generated will be valuable inputs in planning, decision-making and policy-making, especially in the poverty alleviation efforts of both the local and national administration.

The two main sources of information on poverty in Vietnam are the General Statistics Office (GSO) and the Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs (MOLISA). The former estimates poverty using international poverty line, through a nationally representative survey. Results provide inputs for macroeconomic policymaking. Meanwhile, MOLISA is the government agency responsible for coordinating poverty alleviation and poverty reduction programs.

In line with this, the MOLISA, with the assistance of the provinces, supervises a community leaders' household survey on income. While preparing for the survey, communes preliminarily classify households by the living standard, primarily based on individual observation of the commune and village's leaders. All households that have low income or are considered to have lower average level of living standard, will be on the list of survey. The output of the questionnaires is the average income per-capita in a month. This is the main indicator, which is used by MOLISA as the poverty line.

After completing the survey, a meeting is held with households in villages to get their opinion as to which household must be considered as poor. Participants in this meeting will discuss and give comment on each household with income below the poverty line. Other characteristics of the household such as asset, income and living standard are assessed. The outcome of this meeting is a final list of poor households in this village. The commune will gather these lists from all villages in the commune and report them to the district. The list goes up to the provincial level. At this level, MOLISA has supervision missions to the provinces to check lists and try to reduce these.

The two surveys address the need of national and local administration for their planning and program implementation, especially in the area of poverty. However, it has been observed that income alone is not sufficient to capture the multidimensional aspects of poverty. Likewise, the data collected at the local level is difficult to consolidate at the national level because these were collected in different periods. In addition, the manner of identifying poor households in the MOLISA survey has room for subjectivity.

What is needed is a system for gathering information on all households in a village to identify the poor. Likewise, a set of indicators is needed to determine the welfare conditions of the people with respect to poverty's causal links with many other forms of deprivation, including access to healthcare and basic facilities, educational services and employment opportunities.

In response to this, MIMAP Project in Vietnam initially implemented CBMS in selected areas of the country. The local people themselves collect information from the households. Other relevant information (other than income) relating to aspects of poverty is also collected. Data available at the village and commune levels can be used immediately by local people in their development planning poverty monitoring.

According to the assessment of the Managing Office of Hunger Eradication, Poverty Reduction Job Creation (HEPRJC)–the main user of the survey results–CBMS has provided relatively valuable basic information on surveyed communes and households, and on impacts of poverty reduction policies on poor households and communes in various regions. This is crucial information because such can be the baseline data for assessing impacts of poverty reduction policies in the future.

Other initiatives in Asia and Africa

The CBMS has also been pilot tested in Bangladesh and Sri Lanka. In the pilot test phase in Bangladesh, only one ward with four villages (out of the total of nine wards in a Union Parishad) was covered. A

ward may be composed of one or more than one village with 3,000-4,000 residents. In the next phase, all villages under the Union Parishad will be covered. The main objective of the activities was to strengthen the capacity of the local government institution at the Union level (i.e.,Union Parishads) in regularly collecting, classifying and incorporating poverty and socioeconomic data as basis for their local development plans/programs.

Meanwhile, implementation of CBMS in Pakistan and Cambodia has just begun. The former hopes that information on some 20 core indicators will provide policymakers with regular information on the inputs and the impact of these inputs on marginalized communities. In the case of Cambodia, the CBMS will nicely complement decentralization efforts in a concrete way and contribute to successful functioning of the new decentralized state apparatus.

Meanwhile, in Africa, CBMS work is going on in Burkina Faso and Senegal. Work is soon to commence in Ghana and Benin.

Conclusion

Dr. Romulo Virola of the Philippine National Statistical Coordination Board stated that "statistical offices must bear in mind that if they do not produce the poverty statistics needed by the public, somebody else will." The statistical system has to respond to this demand and sometimes may need to go beyond the traditional approaches. As evidence-based policymaking further spreads, so will the demand for more data that are disaggregated, comparable over time, and adequate for panel data analysis.

Data being produced outside the statistical offices are already happening in the Philippines, Vietnam, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Pakistan, and Bangladesh. The Community-Based Monitoring Systems are being institutionalized or pilot-tested in these countries to generate village-based indicators on the different dimensions of poverty. These initiatives are linked to the poverty reduction efforts of the governments. The data have been used by local government units for diagnosing the nature and extent of poverty in their localities, producing

appropriate interventions, identifying eligible beneficiaries to poverty reduction programs and assessing the impact of some of these programs.

The next scenario hoped for is for the national statistical systems to acknowledge the role that CBMS and other local monitoring systems have in providing a comprehensive picture of the poverty situation in the country. It is common knowledge that there are very few, if any, national surveys that collect information on the different dimensions of poverty. There is a survey on income and expenditure, another survey on health, another on education, another on employment, another on nutrition, among others. The samples are different and so are the reference periods. Thus, one cannot have a comprehensive picture of the poverty status of the population at any point in time. The CBMS can do this through a set of core indicators relating to the different dimensions of poverty.

Since the national statistical offices cannot provide all the information needed by local policymakers due to resource constraints, they can assume a coordinative and oversight role. Statisticians from the national statistical agencies can share their expertise with other stakeholders who are trying to address the data gaps. In addition to providing assistance in improving the survey instrument, statisticians from the national statistical offices can also train community volunteers in collecting and processing the data. This will help substantially in improving the quality of the data from local systems. At present, there is a large unmet demand coming from the local government units for capacity-building, particularly on how to implement CBMS and how to prepare poverty reduction action plans. ✦ Thailand is also taking steps to improve poverty statistics. One of the activities is to improve the NSO coordination role with other statistical units so as to reduce redundant statistical works and improve the quality of statistics produced. Thailand NSO has identified the Basic Minimum Needs (BMN), a community-based monitoring system, and Socio-Economic Baseline Data (SEB) as two data collection initiatives that will be covered. The Thai cabinet agrees that the NSO

is entitled to organize the statistical data system to be used in local administrative area development. After restructuring the system, the NSO plans to improve the quality of such data by training the personnel involved as well as launching a systematic quality control exercise.

Many countries now recognize the emerging demands for data brought about by the changing structures and policies in Asia. Data collection initiatives outside the official statistical system are gaining ground. It will not be long before community-based monitoring systems becomes part of the national poverty monitoring system. In the near future, one can see NSOs not just conducting surveys but even coordinating the collection of all poverty-related data—even micro-level data—thereby, facilitating poverty measurement, monitoring and analysis at all levels of government.

While poverty reduction remains to be a national concern, decentralization has shifted greater responsibility to the local government units in carrying out the policies and programs. A community-based monitoring system increases the capacity of local government units to meet the challenge of improving the lives of their constituents. The CBMS will enable the local government to formulate policies and programs more responsive to the needs of the people. This will facilitate faster and sustained reduction in poverty, and help attain the Millennium Development Goal of cutting by half the existing extreme poverty incidence by year 2015.

References

Barrios, Erniel. (1996). "Generating Small Area Statistics from House-hold Surveys Conducted by NSO." Research Paper Series No. 29. MIMAP-Philippines Project Management Office.

Barrios, Erniel. (1998). "Small Area and Sub-Domain Estimation of Selected Socio-Economic Indicators." Research Paper Series No. 36. MIMAP-Philippines Project Management Office.

Brillantes, Alex, Simeon Ilago, Eden Santiago and Bootes Esden (eds.). (2003). *Decentralization & Power Shift: An Imperative for Good Governance.* Quezon City: National College of Public Administration and Governance, University of the Philippines.

Calugay, Zita Concepcion. *Nepal: Strengthening Local Governance.* (Retrieved from http://www.decentralization.ws/srcbook/nepal.pdf).

Florentino, Rodolfo. (1996). *Contribution of Major Food Items on Caloric and Protein Intake of Filipinos.* Research Paper Series No. 23. MIMAP-Philippines Project Management Office.

Florentino, Rodolfo F. and Ma. Regina A. Pedro. (1992). *Monitoring the MIMAP.* Research Paper Series No. 8. MIMAP-Philippines Project Management Office.

Food Agricultural Organization. *Impact of Decentralization on Rural Development at the Local Level, Bedgar Perera, Sri Lanka.* (Retrieved from http://www.fao.org/ DOCREP/004/AC158E/ac158e0g.htm).

Martir, Rolando. *Sri Lanka: Strengthening Decentralization and Democratization: Challenges, Issues and Reforms.* (Retrieved from http://www.decentralization. ws/srcbook/srilanka.pdf).

Moscare, Donna Lou. *Pakistan: Rebuilding the Nation through Decentralization.* (Retrieved from http://www.decentralization.ws/srcbook/vietnam.pdf).

Moscare, Donna Lou. *Bangladesh: Decentralizing Local Governance.* (Retrieved from http://www.decentralization.ws/srcbook/bangladesh.pdf).

Nepal Government. (1999). "Local Self-Governance Act, 2055: An Act Made to Provide for Local Self Governance."

Reyes, Celia M. (1994). "Assessment of Community-Based Monitoring Systems Household Welfare." Research Paper Series No. 30. MIMAP-Philippines Project Management Office.

Reyes, Celia M. (1996). "Monitoring Systems for Poverty Tracking." Research Paper Series No. 30. MIMAP-Philippines Project Management Office.

Reyes, Celia M. and Kenneth C. Ilarde (1996). "A Community-Based Monitoring System for Poverty Tracking." Research Paper Series No. 24. MIMAP-Philippines Project Management Office.

Reyes, Celia M. (1998). "Institutionalizing a Poverty Monitoring System in the Philippines." Research Paper Series No. 40. MIMAP-Philippines Project Management Office.

Reyes, Celia M. and Kenneth C. Ilarde. (1998). "Indicators for Monitoring Poverty." Research Paper Series No. 37. MIMAP-Philippines Project Management Office.

Sharma, Shiva. (2003). CBMS Presentation at the CBMS International Network Meeting, Hanoi, Vietnam.

Santiago, Eden V. "Vietnam: Decentralization for Better Local Governance." (Retrieved from http://www.decentralization.ws/srcbook/pakistan.pdf).

Vu, Tuan Anh. (2003). CBMS Presentation at the CBMS International Network Meeting, Hanoi, Vietnam.

Westergaard, Kirsten. (2000). "Decentralization in Bangladesh: Local Government and NGOs." Denmark: Center for Development Research.

Decentralization and the Role of CBMS in Ghana: A Case Study on the Dangme West District*

· ·

Mohammed Ali Amadu

Introduction

The earliest attempt at local administration during the colonial era started with native authorities, particularly the chiefs. The process was not democratic because the chiefs were handpicked. Their main interest was to help the British colonial government maintain law and order, although they had limited involvement in local administration.

The Municipal Ordinance of 1859 established municipalities in the coastal towns of the Gold Coast (Ghana). In 1943, a new ordinance set up elected town councils for Accra, Kumasi, Sekondi-Takoradi and Cape Coast. A year later, the Municipal Councils Ordinance was passed, and this was followed by the Local Government Act of 1961, Act 54.

In all of these pieces of legislation, the distinction between central and local government institutions was maintained. There were two different machineries in the administration of Ghana: One is based on capital, with branches at the local (district) level; the other is based on well-defined localities and referred to as the

---

* An English translation of the French presentation of the author.

local government. Decision-making was tedious because these bodies had to refer most issues to a Ministry in Accra, which, meanwhile, was already bogged down with matters of national significance.

Certain problems therefore developed as a result of this dual-hierarchy model of administration. First, the central government agencies encroached on rights and responsibilities of the weaker local government bodies because areas and limits of responsibilities between the two levels were not clearly defined. Second, the various government bodies went their various ways without sufficient consultations with each other.

Against this background, several committees were set up to review the administration of the country, notably: The Watsan Committee (1949), Sir Fredrick Bourne Committee (1955), the Greenwood Commission (1957), The Akuffo-Addo Commission (1966), the Mills Odoi Commission (1967) and the Constituent Assembly (1969).

In spite of the far-reaching nature of these committees' recommendations, most of which were accepted, attempts to decentralize the functions did not materialize until 1974 due to the change of government in 1972.

The 1972 local government, described now as the "Single Hierarchy Model," sought to abolish the distinction between local and central government at the local level and create one common structure (district councils), which was made wholly responsible for governing the local government. Though well-intentioned, the system never worked due to several problems. Among these was the lack of an effective, accountable and legitimate political authority at the district level that would oversee the new structure.

The new local government system in Ghana

The new local government system in Ghana began in 1988 with a redemarcation exercise. This is now a four-tier metropolitan and three-tier municipal/district assemblies structure designed to be in line with the decentralization policy.

The first level of the system consists of 10 administrative regions under the Regional Coordinating Councils. Regions are then subdivided into local government assemblies: *metropolitan*, which has a population of over 250,000; *municipal*, consisting of over 95,000 residents; and *district*, which has a population of over 75,000. There are at present three metropolitan assemblies, four municipal assemblies and 103 district assemblies.

Areas are classified as metropolitan, municipal or district assemblies based on the following criteria: Population size in the area; demographic characteristics; and ability of the area to generate revenue for development.

The Local Government Assemblies further consist of sub-units such as zones, areas, town and urban councils. At the lowest level of the tier are 16,000 unit committees. These committees represent the basic unit of the planning and political administration.

The CBMS project

The Dangme West District has been chosen as the pilot site for the CBMS project. The district is situated in the southeastern part of Ghana in the Greater Accra Region. It has a total land area of about 1,442 square kilometers, representing 41.5 percent of the region's land area. Its capital is Dodowa, which is 25 kilometers from the national capital of Accra.

The district is purely rural, with over 65 percent of the people relying on subsistence agriculture as the main source of livelihood. It is also characterized by the following:

- Low income and low investment;
- Low level of infrastructure;
- Lacks presence of industrial activities;
- Mass out-migration of economically active population;
- Weak revenue base; and
- Presence of donor agencies for such programs as the United Nations Development Programme/GOG Poverty Reduction Program and the DANIDA/CWSA Project.

The role of CBMS in Ghana

Preparation of poverty profiles and pro-poor programs

The CBMS's community poverty indicators will help design programs that target the poorest of the poor. This will complement the currently meager data on core poverty indicators in the district. Part of the activity is to create accessibility maps.

Regularity of data

The CBMS will regularly feed the information management units (called The District Planning Coordinating Units) of the district assemblies with updated data.

This should be able to address the current data weaknesses in this district. Currently, the Living Standard Surveys in Ghana are saddled with certain weaknesses such as poor questionnaire design, making it difficult to capture data at the district level. Also, the surveys failed to analyze poverty at the community level.

Reliability of data

The CBMS will serve as a reliable source of data to facilitate district assemblies' prioritization process as well as planning and monitoring activities on various development projects.

Capacity-building/skills development

The CBMS will provide basic skills training in the collection, processing and analysis of data to people at the sub-district level. This will assure that the program is sustained even after the completion of the pilot phase. Training will also provide skills needed for the district assembly's planning and budgeting processes.

The SEILA Program and the Role of Commune Database Information System (CDIS)

· ·

Try Sothearity

Introduction

Cambodia has a land area of 181,035 square kilometers in the southwestern part of the Indochina peninsula and lies completely within the tropics with its southernmost pointing slightly more than 100 above the Equator. The country's capital city is Phnom Penh. International borders are shared with Thailand and the Lao People's Democratic Republic on the west and on the north, and the socialist Republic of Vietnam on the east and southeast. The country is bounded on the southwest by the Gulf of Thailand. The country has a coastline of 440 kilometers and extensive mangrove forests, some of which are relatively undisturbed.

At the beginning of 1999, the Cambodian government launched a broad reform program and agreed on its implementation with the donor countries. The Governance Action Plan (GAP) was formulated to guide and monitor the implementation of the reform agenda[1]. This agenda for reform covers improvements in the legal system, public finances

---

[1] The Governance Action Plan (GAP) outlines short-term action programs on five crosscutting issues and on two specific issues. The crosscutting issues are: legal and judicial systems; public administration, decentralization and deconcentration; public finance; anti-corruption; and gender equity. The two specific issues are reform of the armed forces and natural resource management.

and security forces and a comprehensive reform of public administration, including the decentralization of the state administrative structure. The GAP considers decentralization and deconcentration as instruments to further democratize the country and improve service delivery.

Specifically, the SEILA[2] program helps the government formulate and strategize the new decentralization program that will bring the government closer to the people.

The Commune/Sangkat Councils (Royal Kram No. 0301/04) and the Law on The Administration and Management of Commune/ Sangkat (Royal Kram No. 0301/05)[3] are two enactments that further decentralized communes.

The Law on the Administration and Management of Commune/ Sangkat (LAMC) provides a comprehensive framework for the decentralization program of the Royal Government of Cambodia (RGC). The LAMC provides for the creation of communes/sangkats as legal entity; defines the administrative structure of the commune and the legal basis for the establishment of the Commune/Sangkat Fund-the intergovernmental fiscal transfer system; and empowers the creation of the inter-ministerial policy formulation and coordination body for decentralization, among others.

Rationale

Excessive concentration of decision-making power and authority in the central government renders government remote and alienated from the people. In this set-up, decisions on the crafting and implementation of policies, programs and projects are done by the

---

[2] The Seila is a national effort to achieve poverty reduction through improved local governance. It is a program for institutional strengthening of local authorities within the context of the decentralization and deconcentration strategies adopted by the Royal Government of Cambodia. As of 2003, the program covers the whole communes/sangkats of 24 provinces and municipalities.

[3] Royal Kram 0301/05 passed by the National Assembly on January 12, 2001 and declared constitutional by the Constitutional Council by decision No. 041/003/2001 dated February 28, 2001.

central government without knowing, or at the very least determining, through appropriate modes of consultation what the actual needs, sentiments and preferences of the people are. Centralization, thus, excludes the people from meaningful participation in governance.

Decentralization and devolution of power from the central government to local government, on the other hand, is one of the major government reforms supporting poverty alleviation, development and democratization in Cambodia. To move toward this direction, the commune was formed as the lowest level of local government in February 2002. The commune assumes the role of implementer and executor of the national government's development program. This is local development planning at the commune level.

Meanwhile, SEILA is the government's decentralization experiment. It has been implemented in some provinces since 1996 and currently covers all communes in the country. Through SEILA, communes gained experiences through training on how to collect information, analyze, prioritized information and plan their development activities with local participation.

Good commune development planning is based on reliable data that presents the problems, interests and priority needs of beneficiaries (i.e., the people). In practice, the commune council generates data that are useful to interested political group and government development programs. In this area, SEILA has provided critical assistance in local development planning, although the commune still has limited knowledge and experience in statistical data collection and entry. The quality of data collected from communes as well as from other government agencies are not easily accessible, creating a distorted dataset for development planning.

Thus, there is a need for good data management system at the local level. The National Institute of Statistics (NIS), in collaboration with a number of international organizations, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and other non-governmental organizations, is currently improving and building up the capacity of the newly elected commune so as to generate better and reliable data.

Since this development process is young, most council members are inexperienced especially in collecting data and building up reliable databases. This research study thus proposes to draw up the development framework that will build the present capacity of the commune council.

There are at least three objectives when developing this framework:

- To identify the potential change in data collection instruments so as to address emerging issues in development planning;
- To analyze analytical techniques and manner of presenting data so as to improve their usefulness for policy decision-making; and
- To provide commune council members an opportunity to discuss and exchange information related to the collection, processing and utilization of data.

Main objective of the framework

The main research objective is to draw up a framework for designing and developing a commune-database system. The following are the specific objectives:

- To analyze the present SEILA program;
- To identify how the NIS can play a more active role in supporting the commune council; and
- To draw up a policy recommendation and framework that aim to establish or strengthen the local database system.

Scope and limitation of the study

Since this study focuses on the framework for a statistical database at the commune level, there is a need to identify the agencies involved and to set up a framework for statistical workflow at the commune levels.

There is a time constraint for the study. The study also relies only on the review of qualitative and secondary information and materials on policies and practices regarding decentralization in Cambodia. It is only proposing the framework based on the SEILA and CBMS model.

Significance of the study

This paper explains the relevance of statistical data and identifies the types of information and development indicators in the local development planning process.

Beneficiaries in this research are:

- Stakeholders, who potentially have an interest in helping build the capacity of the local government staff (i.e., commune council) in collecting, preparing and producing quality and accurate data;
- The NIS, which can use the data from the communes to compute and produce information database system for the district and provincial levels; and
- Community households, who can use the results of the improved indicators on their community in their development of investment plans.

Review of commune databases

SEILA programs

The SEILA program is a national effort that aims to reduce poverty through improved local governance. It was set up by the Royal Government of Cambodia and UNDP to promote commune councils as primary agents of local development and emphasize the governors' functions as main coordinators and promoters of provincial development.

SEILA structure

The SEILA program document, approved by the Council of Ministers on 5 January 2001, defines SEILA as a series of aid mobilization and deconcentration reforms. Under the government's over-all reform program, a three-tiered system of planning and budgeting would emerge: the commune/sangkat, the province/municipality and the national levels. The SEILA framework supports the programming of financial and technical resources at all three levels.

The program is the collective responsibility of the SEILA Task Force (STF) which is comprised of representatives from the Ministries

of Interior, Economics and Finance, Planning, Rural Development, Women and Veteran Affairs, Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry, and Water Resources and Meteorology.

The SEILA's immediate objective is to institutionalize systems and strategies to manage sustainable local development. This will be realized through the three program outputs:

- To get related institutions at all levels to strengthen and effectively implement the decentralized and deconcentrated system;
- To efficiently and effectively provide services and investments for local development; and
- To help improve policy and regulations on decentralization and deconcentration, and on poverty alleviation.

The SEILA's contribution will thus be felt at the national level through its policies and regulations as well as sub-national (province and commune) levels, where more institutions will be made capable and accountable through this project.

The main "point of contact" between SEILA and participating communes is the Local Development Fund (LDF), one of the core financial transfer mechanisms. At the local level, the fund is administered by the Commune Development Committee (CDC) based on the agreements signed with the Provincial Rural Development Committee (PRDC)-Executive Committee.

The CDC prepares a three-year Commune Development Plan (CDP), which is integrated into the Provincial Development Plan (PDP) by the PRDC-Executve Commmittee. Annual Commune Investment Plans (CIP) are prepared following a district integration workshop.

The District Facilitation Workshops are facilitated by the District Development Facilitation Committee (DDFC), which is also responsible for facilitating communication between PRDC and CDCs.

Figure 1: SEILA Program Management Structure (Province to commune level)
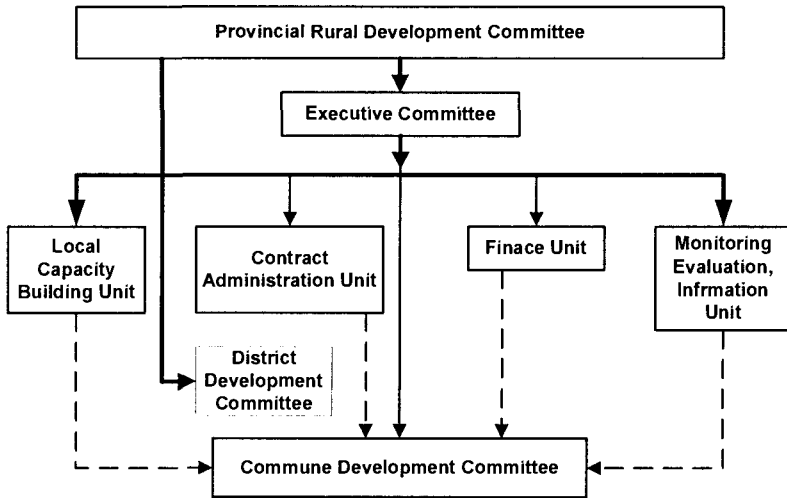
Current monitoring and evaluation structures and responsibilities

The established monitoring and evaluation system reaches the district level through focal points attached to district offices of provincial line departments. Specific responsibilities directly related to monitoring and evaluation were assigned to both DDFCs and CDCs.

The District Development Facilitation Committee (DDFC)

The DDFC is composed of the district chief and deputy district chief, CDC chairpersons and a designated district facilitator. The DDFC's roles related to monitoring and evaluation include the following:

- To regularly review the performance of SEILA;
- To facilitate the flow of information to and from the PRDC and CDC;
- To facilitate the collection of data in the district (i.e., with the Office of Planning and Statistics); and
- To organize an annual reflection workshop at district level so as to review strengths and weaknesses of SEILA and propose improvements to the PRDC.

The Commune Development Committee

The CDC includes the commune chief and the deputy commune chief, chiefs of the village development committees (VDCs), elected VDC representatives and respected members of the community. Its roles related to monitoring and and evaluation are:

- To ensure that appropriate participatory monitoring and development of the commune development activities are carried out (with guidance and training from the Executive Committee);
- To maintain appropriate financial records at the commune level in line with established guidelines ensuring transparency and accountability;
- To establish and maintain a commune resource center including information reflecting the development status of the commune (based on PRDC guidelines);
- To ensure the smooth flow of communication from commune to village, district and/or another commune; and
- To prepare quarterly reports for the PRDC-Executive Committee and the DDFC.

Key activities and information needs

At the commune level, the main activities are focused on the provision of public services and investments funded through the LDF. Past monitoring and evaluation activities primarily focused on the contract implementation, and this is likely to continue to be so. In addition, the commune has an interest in providing feedback on the appropriateness and performance of the structures, procedures and guidelines put in place through SEILA.

Key information needs (from a management rather than evaluation perspective) are thus likely to fall under the following categories:

- Availability and appropriateness of refined guidelines and procedures;
- Availability and timeliness of financial information (indicative planning figures, allocations and transfers);
- Activity status;

- Financial status; and
- Capacity information (Is the CDC able to work independently? Is it able to maintain the project cycle?).

Information sources

At the commune level, a lot of information is collected and provided to the province level for entry into one of the databases established under the SEILA program. While some data (especially that from the commune database) are provided in report form to the commune, no databases are managed or maintained at that level and records tend to be paper based. The main records the CDC can draw on in its monitoring and analysis activities are:

- Temporary agreements produced during the District Integration Workshop;
- CDP and CIP;
- CIP reviews;
- Contracts with PRDC and contractors;
- Project progress and completion reports; and
- Financial data relating to contracts.

Information collection and use

At the commune level, the "collectors" and "users" of information are often the same; that is, CDCs do not have any functional organization (unlike the organizational structure of, for example, the PRDCs). The CDCs are primarily supported by District Facilitation Teams (DFTs) and Technical Support Staff (TSS). Thus, CDC, DFT and TSS members will almost without exception be responsible; for the collection and use of data. For this reason, the CDC's job descriptions do not distinguish each person's responsible; such a listing would only be highly redundant.

Commune database under SEILA program

Commune Database (CDB) has been set up under SEILA program for all communes/Sangkats nationwide. The commune-level indicators form a subset of the indicators.

After the commune council in 2002, SEILA began to fully cover the whole country's 1,621 communes. Through the program, the MOP and PDOP were made responsible for coordinating the yearly data collection, review workshops, and training related to this database. Commune councils underwent a number of trainings for two years. The key training focused on, among others, administration, planning, procurement and finance data management, information, and project monitoring and evaluation. Some communes, especially those in urban areas, learnt fast but majority needed more time to apply their new knowledge. For members with limited academic background, the training alone could not assure quality performance. Therefore, aside from training members, provincial trainers had to act as personnel to permanently backup the commune council in all steps of implementation. Through this strategy, the commune members who could not learn much from the trainings will get more on-the-job instructions, refresher trainings on the next year, and another opportunity to take on the same task in the new cycle. This SEILA plan is applicable until the end of 2005. By then, commune councils would have gained enough experience to carry on the tasks without or with minimal support.

While the SEILA framework encompasses all government levels, not all selected indicators are necessarily meaningful or useful for each level. For example, the reduction in the poverty level is a national indicator, which is unlikely to be measured at the commune level.

Brief description of Commune Database (CDB)

The commune database (CDB) contains basic socio-economic data collected at village level. This database functions as a baseline in (new) SEILA target areas and is managed by the Provincial Departments of Planning Statistics (PDPS) under the technical supervision of the Ministry of Planning.

The objectives of the commune database are to provide data and input needed for situation analysis and local development planning, for decision-making on the allocation of resources, and for measuring impact of local development activities.

Data collection and analysis procedure

The main parties responsible for data collection are the village leader and the Commune Development Council (CDC). Meanwhile, the STF at the provincial level is responsible for facilitating and conducting trainings. The activities are as follow:

- STF trains the Staff of the District Planning Office (SDPO);
- SDPO trains the CDC;
- CDC train to village leaders;
- Village Leader are responsible for data collection at the village; and
- Data collected are village-based and not household-based.

Data analysis is done by the Department of Planning and Statistics Office (DPSO) at the provincial level. The village and commune staff is only responsible for data collection, checking and validation/clean-up. After filling-up the questionnaire, the village leader sends the form to the CDC for checking and validation/clean-up, then to SDPO for crosschecking, and finally to the Provincial DPSO for data analysis.

The output produced by the DPSO will not be distributed to village leaders. The documents are made available only to the communes, districts and provinces.

- Commune profile: Village database;
- District profile: Commune database;
- Provincial profile: District and commune database

Challenges ahead

The SEILA program will be completed in 2005, which means the commune database will not be updated thereafter. Because the decentralization reform is a long-term process and affects all aspects of governance and delivery of services, there is a need for another project to support this existing commune database and continue what had been started.

Community-Based Monitoring System (CBMS)

The CBMS Cambodia is a pilot project supported by the MIMAP/
CBMS Network. The Cambodia Development Reource Institute
(CDRI) is able to pioneer this exercise within a two- or three-year
timeframe. It is actively engaging the NIS and the PLG/SEILA
Program in undertaking the exercise since it is envisaged that the
government formally adopts and eventually takes over the project for
gradual expansion. A "supervisory team" composed of these
institutions and led by CDRI, has been formed to implement the
project.

Objectives of the pilot CBMS project

- To select appropriate indicators for commune-based poverty
  monitoring and analysis;
- To provide practical, scientifically generated data to commune
  councils for their effective planning, monitoring and evaluation
  of development projects;
- To produce Commune Poverty Monitoring Reports based on
  the CBMS results;
- To build capacity of the selected commune councils in survey
  methods and data processing, analysis and use;
- To promote the link between commune and provincial/
  national level planning processes when utilizing CBMS data;
- To forge the link between PMATU and NIS, and commune
  councils and to prepare for an eventual nationwide CBMS; and
- To promote a firm process of decentralization in which both
  the government and donors are highly committed to.

Composition of indicators

A set of CBMS core indicators (Table 1) follows and may duplicate
those already contained in the SEILA Program's village data book of
the village chief. Since the proposed CBMS will employ a census
approach, and given the critical importance of these variables, such
variables will remain in the core of this pilot survey.

Table 1. Set of Core Indicators and Variables

Area of Concern	Indicators	Variables
1. Composition and Characteristics	Demographic and Social Characteristics	- Area size of house - Landlessness (homestead and agricultural land)
2. Basic Education and Literacy	Educational facilities Educational attainment and literacy of household members	- Number of schools and classrooms available to villagers - Educational materials, teachers - Elementary enrolment (6-12yrs) - Lower secondary enrolment (13-15) - Number of males and females completed high school - 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. 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)
5. Water and Sanitation	Households with sanitary toilet facilities Households with access to safe water	- Percentage of households having different types of toilet facilities and no toilets - Percentage of households having access to different sources of water (boreholes, ponds, etc.) in both wet and dry seasons
6. Health	Health indicators and access to health facilities	- Common diseases within community - Infant, child and maternal mortality - Presence of health workers, hospitals, health posts etc. - Distance to such facilities
7. 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
8. Peace and Order	Crime Incidence Conflicts or armed encounters within community members	- Number of crime victims by type of crime (rape, murder, robbery, abuse, physical injury) - Number of conflicts or armed encounters - How conflicts are settled

Data collection and analysis procedure
Data collection
Under the pilot project, six communes representing nearly 12,000 households in two provinces were selected as CBMS sites. The project was conducted in areas with both poor and better off socio-economic conditions. The data collection procedure is as follow:

- A village census is undertaken;
- CBMS national team trains commune and village leaders;
- Village leader collects data about village; and
- Data collected are household-based.

Data analysis
The commune council members then compute and prepare a summary at the commune level:

- Data is processed manually;
- A simple way of computing is done and a report is prepared; and
- A summary report is produced.

Dissemination
Outcomes from the CBMS project will be the basis for commune poverty monitoring report. This will in turn be the commune council members' main tool for monitoring and evaluating the impacts of development policies and programs in their communities, and for basing their decisions on resources allocation.

Challenges ahead
Cambodia is envisioned to gradually maximize its implementation of the CBMS. A successful pilot CBMS will be more persuasive in "selling" the system to government and to other donor agencies that support the decentralization in Cambodia. The NIS could make the CBMS output part of the official database geared for all levels (commune, district, province and national levels).

A proposed framework of commune database information system

Currently, it is the NIS that conducts and produces the database information at the national level. However, the commune database developed by international organizations and local NGOs is being used by these agencies for their own needs. Therefore, there is no linkage between these agencies' commune database information system and that of other end-users, particularly commune councils or other governmental agencies who might benefit from these databases as well. There is a need to develop Commune Database Information System (CDIS) that will benefit all interested parties, especially the commune councils.

There are lessons to be learned from the commune database developed by NGOs for their own goal and purposes.

The lessons show that the database

- Is a one-shot project report;
- Is donor driven;
- Has collected information that was not well shared and used;
- Has no clear inter-linkage of monitoring and evalution system at local-level framework;
- Provide no clear understanding of what key data are needed;
- Has no clear reporting system; and
- Provides no clear methodology and standards.

This study thus aims to propose a framework for the CDIS, a commune/sangkat information system for gathering, analyzing and utilizing data on the basic needs at the local level. This will generate basic information on indicators, which in turn can help users make the right development and planning decision at the commune level.

Conceptual Framework of the Study

The conceptual framework, as shown in Figure 2, illustrates the flow and relationships of the agencies involved and variables to be studied. The involved agencies are as follows:

Figure 2. Conceptual Framework
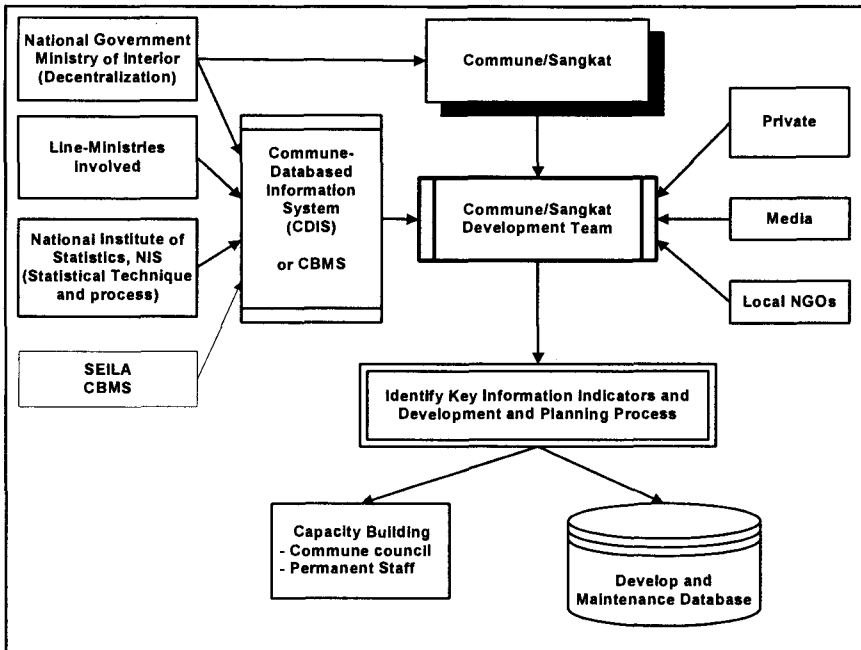
- The Ministry of Interior which is responsible for local development and decentralization;
- General Department of Planning and the NIS of the MoP, which help prepare the planning and statistical techniques and provide training to the commune councils;
- United Nations agencies, international organizations, foreign and local NGOs, and private agencies involved in capacity-building and provision of financial assistance to communes; and
- Media, which assists in the development process by disseminating and coordinating information for the public.

Understanding of CDIS and its uses

The CDIS is the over-all information system to be used by communes. It generates data that depict the commune's financial, socio-economic,

topographical, demographic and other characteristics/conditions. The CDIS is the bottom-top system that complements local information system data with primary information gathered directly from communes.

The data will provide communes with a basis for identifying the local government needs and problems, prioritizing them, and developing the programs and projects most effective in improving the socio-economic conditions of the community and alleviating the deprivations of the neediest members.

The regular update on the CDIS data will enable the community to note trends in decentralization. Such will be used to monitor and evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of local programs and nationally initiated support services on residents' quality of life.

The CDIS is important because of the following:

- The CDIS generates and validates the information needed for focused targeting;
- It identifies family situations and encourages families to initiate actions to alleviate their condition;
- It ensures that the information needed in the situational analysis, planning implementation, and monitoring and evaluation are reliable, accurate relevant and timely; and
- It promotes sharing of information among various sectors in the commune, higher levels of government, private NGOs and the business sector.

The CDIS framework

The Royal Government of Cambodia has adopted the decentralization approach and a basic framework for poverty alleviation especially for the social development and planning. Sectoral agencies, local governments, NGOs, and communities need information indicators to determine the level of development in the community. The primary purpose of the development framework of CDIS is thus to generate information that will enable the agencies involved and communities to take immediate local action.

This framework is addressed to set up CDIS teams working in communes/sangkat all over the country. The detailed steps of the framework are organizing, operationalizing, and sustaining the CDIS for local development planning and management. The three major phases of the framework are: pre-implementation, implementation, analysis and utilization of data.

Pre-implementation

The first stage of the framework is to develop and set up the CDIS system. This includes identifying indicators needed, orienting the commune/sangkat leader/development council and the community to the CDIS, organizing CDIS team working groups and preparing the material list of indicators. A flowchart (Figure 3) provides a more comprehensible picture of the relationship of the development of CDIS to the planning and monitoring aspects of the system as well as identifies the technical working groups at various levels.

Setting CDIS framework system

A technical working group (TWG) comprises of members from various agencies such as the Ministry of Interior, MoP, NIS, Ministry of Finance, the United Nations (UN) and NGOs. The group prepares the whole CDIS procedure, including administration and finance, to make sure the project can be implemented and maintained.

Identifying support agencies

It is essential that agencies accept the CDIS. The steps involved in the CDIS set-up should be well-communicated to related agencies and communities. Since this is a nationwide project, financial and technical assistance are provided by the UN, NGOs and other agencies. The main supporting agencies of this project include the national government, the UN, NGOs and the UNDP-SEILA.

Figure 3. Commune Database Information System (CDIS)

ACTIVITY	RESPONSSIBLE PERSON/GROUP	EXPECTED RESULT
PRE-IMPLEMENTATION		
Commune-Database Information System (CDIS) Framework	NG/NIS/Tecnical Team	CDIS Framework
Identify Supporting Agencies	NG/UN/NGO	Fund Support for CDIS
Identified Indicators Needed for CS	PM/NIS/Tecnical Team	List of Indicators Needed
Orient CS DC/Leaders	PM/Technical Team	Leadership Support
Orient Community	CS Team	Understanding/ Cooperation
Organize CS CDIS Teams	PM/NIS/Tecnical Team	Technology Transfer
Prepare Material List for Indicators	PM/NIS/Tecnical Team	Questionnaire Form
IMPLEMENTATION		
Conduct CDIS Training	PM/NIS/Tecnical Team	Assignment/Allocation Resouces
Data Collection	CS Team	Raw Data
Data Processing and Editing	PM/CS Team	Data Cleaning
Data Analysis and Report Writing	PM/CS Team	Output Results
Statistical Indicators for Development and Planning		

Identifying indicators needed at the commune/sangkat (CS) level

Indicators needed are those that simply measure the effectiveness and efficiency of service delivery. These tell whether the families are actually being reached by the goods and services intended for them.

Orienting Commune/Sangkat Development Council (CSDC)

At this stage, the commune/sangkat leader and Commune/Sangkat Development Council (CSDC) members are oriented to the CDIS so as to gain their support. Also, the possible resources that may be required by the Commune/Sangkat, and whether these can be provide through the CSDC, are studied.

Orienting the community

Orienting the community to the CDIS is important as this could facilitate participation and support. The CSDC team should be able to answer the community's questions regarding the system. The community should know the following:
- Concept and importance;
- Benefits/uses; and
- Expected roles and responsibilities of the community.

Organizing commune/sangkat CDIS team

Choosing the right CSDC is important because they will be the ones to gather and handle the raw data and update the data on a regular basis. The CSDC member should be:
- A member of commune/sangkat (CS) council;
- A permanent staff of CS;
- A permanent resident of the CS community;
- Literate and articulate in the local dialect;
- Has had previous experience in collecting data;
- Willing to undergo training and do work on a volunteer basis; and
- Willing to spend time with CS constituents for consultation.

Preparing a material list per indicator

The TWG then prepares forms that contain all information needed to compute for each indicators. The forms contain the raw data from the survey families. Such forms are accomplished by a trained CSDC-member through an interview process.

Conducting the CDIS training

It is important that those trained ought to be the same ones involved in CDIS activities and do the actual interview, collection, and analysis of data. The training prior to implementation thus covers the following topics:

- CDIS definition, purpose and framework;
- CDIS stage and activities;
- Data collection and interviewing technique; and
- Data analysis and reporting technique.

Collecting data

Data gathering will be via interviews with CDIS form as the interview instrument. Direct interviews could be with the family head, his/her spouse and/or other members of the family in a position to provide accurate data. The interviewers/data collectors are confined to the CSDC members and those involved in the training process.

Before the actual data gathering starts, members of the community are informed that interviewers will be visiting their homes to administer the CDIS questionnaire within a given timeframe.

Data processing and editing

Results collected will be under the safekeeping of the secretary of the CSDC team. The answers will be checked for errors and re-enumerated before proceeding to data analysis.

Data analysis and report writing

There are a number of ways to analyze, use and present the data gathered. The analysis depends on the purpose for the data and the

audience of the study. The process starts with identifying what data are available. At least two steps/types of data work are identified:

- The first are the family-level data, which provide a profile of each family in the community; and
- The second are the commune-level data, which provide a profile of the whole community.

The targeted end-users of data

Target users of the data output comprise of the families and the community. Other targeted users are government, private and NGO agencies and groups that provide services to the community.

Data requirements of the local development planning

The local situation analysis provides the data needed in local development planning. Hence, the data requirements for local situation analysis are basically the same as those for local development planning.

Under the Integrated Approach to Local Development Planning, the most important data required for local situation analysis/ development planning are broadly classifed as demography, housing, education, health/nutrition, peace and order/public safety, income and livelihood, land used, agriculture and transportation.

Table 2 shows the initial list of indicators for the minimum basic needs at the commune level. The local government units will find this list effective in identifying major areas of concern and as primary guide in planning and programming for the community.

Proposed workflow for CDIS

According to the framework (Figure 4), the CDIS' TWG will be established by selecting members from related government agencies and NGOs. Their tasks include preparatory work as those pertaining to the manuals and guidebooks, statistical techniques, data collection, among others. The TWG will also have to orient local leaders and councils appointed by the provincial and municipal governments.

Table 2. List of Indicators and Methods

No.	Sub-domain	Indicator name
1	Demography	1. Population
		2. Annual population growth rate
		3. Population density
		4. Crude birth rate
		5. Crude death rate
		6. Fertility rate
		7. Percentage of family planning acceptors
		8. Average household size
		9. Percentage of household head by sex
2	Housing	10. Percentage of own house
		11. Percentage household by type of lighting sources
		12. Percentage household by type of drinking water sources
		13. Percentage household by type of fuel use for cooking
		14. Percentage of Household by type of dwelling unit
3	Education	15. Literacy by age group
		16. Elementary level participation rate
		17. Secondary level participation rate
		18. Number of schools
		19. Number of class rooms
		20. Classroom-student ratio
		21. Teacher-student ratio
		22. Percentage of population 15 years and over by highest education
		23. Percentage of population less than 15 years who dropped out of school
4	Health/Nutrition	24. Newborns with birthweight of at least 2.5 kgs
		25. Percentage of underweight children under 5 years
		26. Deliveries by trained personnel
		27. Percentage of 0-1 year old infant fully immunized
		28. Infant mortality rate
		29. Cause-specific mortality rate
		30. Incident rate of mortality
		31. Number of deaths in the family due to preventable causes
5	Peace and Order/Public Safety	32. Number of family member victimized by crimes against person (e.g., murder, rape, abuse, physical injury)
		33. Number of family member displaced by natural disaster
		34. Number of family member victimized by armed conflict
		35. Domestic violence
6	Income and Livelihood	36. Member of the family employed
		37. Family with income above subsistence threshold level
		38. Unemployment rate
		39. Percentage of household by income level
		40. Local government income and expenditure
	Land Used	41. Land area of commune
		42. Land areas use for agriculture
		43. Land areas use for business/industry
	Agriculture	44. Rice production
		45. Other agriculture product
		46. Area of full-irrigated
		47. Fishery production
	Transportation	48. Number of kilometers city/rural road
		49. Cars/motorcycles/tractors/koyons

Figure 4. Proposed Framework for CDIS
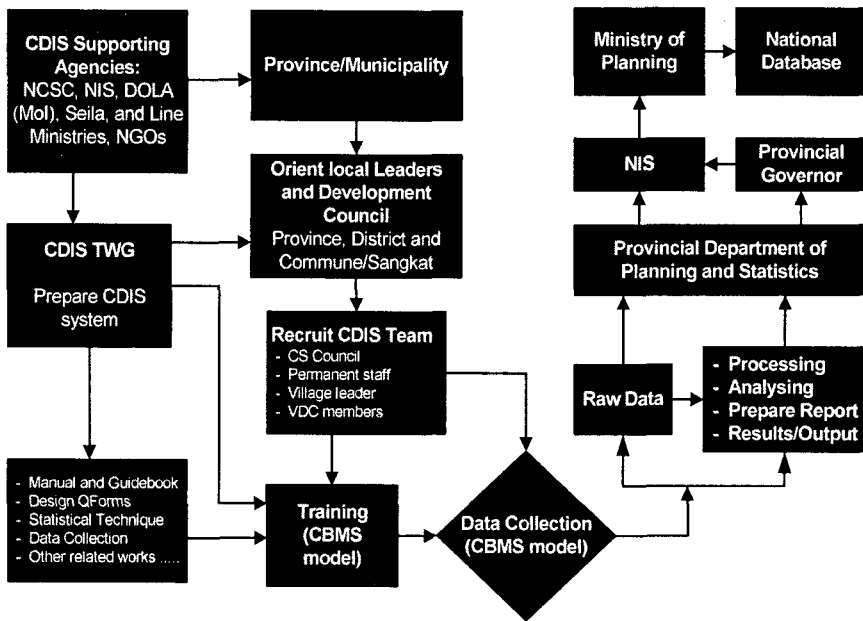
The main actor of this framework is the CDIS Team who will be trained by TWG. The CDIS Team will be processing and analyzing data, writing reports, and producing results/output from the data collected. The group can also provide specific agencies with raw data needed in coming up with the development plans of the district, province/municipality, or even the national government agencies.

Institutional arrangement
To institutionalize the set up, the commune-database information system would require the participation of all levels of the government. The roles of each level responsible for statistical activities are listed below:

Commune/Sangkat level
The commune secretary takes the lead in data collection activities. The CSDC and members are the enumerators. The commune officials and CDIS teams process and analyze the data at the commune level.

Results are then presented to the officials of the commune council and members of the community.

The data are kept at the commune level but copies of the summary forms are submitted to district statistics office and to the Provincial Department of Planning and Statistics (PDPS).

Province/Municipality level

The provincial statistics office consolidates data from the communes and prepares summary forms. Summary reports are then submitted to the governor, the Ministry of Interior, provincial development council, provincial development and planning office, NIS, and other concern agencies. The provincial statistics office keeps the data.

National level

The NIS, the Ministry of Interior and the local government compile the summary reports from the different provinces/municipalities. These are then passed to the Ministry of Interior, MoP, and Ministry of Finance and Economics for further analysis.

NIS' possible involvement in CDIS

The NIS' officers, together with the MoP cover all districts in 24 provinces/municipalities. They are also a partner of the SEILA project and other agencies involved in development planning at all levels of the government.

The NIS and MoP will take over the CDIS program when the SEILA mandate ends. Here, there is a potential for the two agencies to develop the CDIS into a national standard database system useful to all agencies and government levels.

The advantages of collaboration include the following:
- They can develop statistical techniques and methods;
- Presence of statistics office in the province and district that can serve as correspondent agencies;
- NIS staff involved in the SEILA database already have the experience;

- They are engaged with CBMS;
- They are responsible for the development report of provincial and national levels; and
- They can easily identify and select corresponding NIS members in communes.

Possibility of setting-up the CDIS

In the CDIS project, the NIS general director will be accountable to the donors for financial and management issues. The NIS staff provides project oversight to ensure high quality and integrity. In sum, the CDIS comprises of the following points:

- The NIS is responsible for the project;
- Donors provide the financial support with help from supporting agencies and line ministries;
- Its human resources at the commune and village levels are also experienced with the SEILA project;
- There is already the experience gained from the SEILA and CBMS models and methods;
- The project can use the data sources of the CDB SEILA; and
- The project can rely on the local development fund of the government.

The use of CDIS output

The CDIS results will be disseminated to all project partners, and relevant government and non-governmental institutions through a national and provincial workshops. The CDIS data will be used as diagnostic study of the poverty situation in the communes. The information shall help design policy interventions and target the vulnerable groups, including the poorest of the poor in the communes. Data will be used by the community, local government, national government agencies, NGOs, and other agencies providing services to communes.

Conclusion

As the decentralization reform efforts of Cambodia move on, there is a need to have accurate and accessible information at all levels of the governments, especially at the commune level. With the decentralization, communes now play an important role in local development planning. To achieve effective and efficient development objectives, communes must first have clear and accurate data on their own localities' needs and priorities.

As the CBMS experiences of other countries—especially the Philippines—show, statistics is indispensable because it forms the bases for the formulation of sound development plans for the communes. For example, planning for the efficient delivery of basic services entails updated statistics on water, population, transportation, health and land resources. Local government units (LGUs) need to increase their knowledge on statistical standards and measurements currently being developed by agencies. It is therefore imperative that an effective inter-agency collaboration be instituted to ensure uniformity and compliance with certain standards.

Local development planning should be the concern of more entities other than LGUs. The participation of NGOs and private organizations in the generation of statistical data would ensure that local plans respond to actual needs and conditions of the community. The integration of statistics in every local plan would ensure that such plan's targets and objectives are attained.

Lastly, the government of Cambodia, international donors, and other related agencies must recognize the importance of a database system in achieving the development goals of communes, districts, provinces/municipalities, and the national government.

References

Batanero, Carmen. (2001). "Training Researchers in the Use of Statistics." Netherland, ISSE.

Bersales, Lisa Grace S. (2004). "Methods of Writing the Report." RbTP, UNSAIP.

Gay, L.R, (1996). *Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Application.* 5th edition. New Jersey: Printice Hall.

Min Mony. (undated). "Own Revenues for Local Governments in Cambodia." Master Thesis. National University of Singapore.

National Economic Development Authority (1995). *60 Years of Development Planning in the Philippines.* Pasig City, Philippines.

National Institute Statistics (2003). *Cambodia Statistical Yearbook.*

National Statistical Coordination Board. (1998). "7th National Convention on Statistics." Makati City, Philippines.

National Statistical Coordination Board. (1995). "6th National Convention on Statistics." Makati City, Philippines.

National Statistical Coordination Board. (2001). "8th National Convention on Statistics." Makati City, Philippines..

Porter, Doung, Leonardo Romeo and Shiv Saingal. (2000). "SEILA Decentralization Support Program Formulation Mission." United Nations Development Programme.

Reyes, Celia M. (2002). "A Survey of Poverty-Related Research and Monitoring Systems in the Philippines." MIMAP Research Paper Series No. 42.

_____. (2002). "Diagnosing Poverty at the Local Level." MIMAP Research Paper Series No. 55.

Rong, Chhorng. (2004). "Decentralization in Cambodia: A Closer Look the Commune's Governance and Decentralization." A research proposal submitted to the University of the Philippines-National College of Public Administration and Governance (UP-NCPAG).

San Sy Than. (2002). "ADB/Paris21 High Level Forum On Statistical Capacity Building For Asean Countries." Asian Development Bank.

Tabunda, Ana Maria L. (2004). "Special Topic on Local Development Planning." RbTP, UNSAIP.

Templo, Ofelia. (2004). "Special Topic on Project Monitoring and Evaluation." Rbtp, UNSAIP.

UPSC Research Foundation Inc. (Undated). "Training Statistics for Local Planning." Quezon City, Philippines

CBMS Session 3
Use of CBMS for Local Governance

CBMS and Governance: The Experience of Municipality of Labo, Camarines Norte

*Winifredo Balce-Oco**

Introduction

The municipality of Labo is geographically located at the center of the province of Camarines Norte and is approximately 335 kilometers south of Metro Manila (about 6-7 hours travel by land) and 15 kilometers away from Daet, capital town of the province. It is bounded on the north by the Municipalities of Paracale, Jose Panganiban and Capalonga, on the south by the Province of Quezon and the adjoining province of Camarines Sur, on the East by the municipalities of Vinzons and San Vicente and on the west by the municipality of Sta. Elena.

It is the biggest among the 12 municipalities of the Province. Its aggregate land area of 64,448 hectares or 648.84 square kilometers occupies more than 25 perczent of the total provincial land area.

The municipality was once a barrio of Indan, now known as Vinzons and was created a municipality on September 8, 1800. Its 52 barangays represent 18.44 percent of the total number of

*Local chief executive, Municipality of Labo, Camarines Norte, Philippines

barangays of the province. Ten of these barangays are classified as urban barangays and the rest are considered rural barangays.

The surface of the municipality is generally rugged, hilly and mountainous, with some flat terrain. These characteristics and its vast land area is generally devoted to agriculture where coconut and rice are the major agricultural products.

Rationale for CBMS implementation

Reducing poverty to the minimum has always been the municipality's biggest challenge. As its top priority, Labo has set goals and targets to achieve this objective. With this plan, the municipality needs to identify who among the beneficiaries must be prioritized given limited resources. For this, it has to have full and relevant information which may be addressed through the institutionalization of a community-based monitoring system (CBMS).

Realizing the importance of having the system institutionalized in the municipality, initial meetings between the municipality and the CBMS Network Coordinating Team were held in early 2003. Briefings were also done for the members of the Sangguniang Bayan (Municipal Council). Then, on March 18, 2003, an Executive Order for the institutionalization of CBMS was issued, signaling the start of a series of trainings provided by the CBMS Network Coordinating Team. The actual survey then commenced in April 2003.

Results of the CBMS survey

The results of the CBMS survey reveal that the municipality is performing well in some dimensions of well-being but performing poorly in others. Among the areas where the municipality is doing well are in health and nutrition, housing, peace and order, basic education and food sufficiency, as shown in Table 1.

What the municipality should be concerned about based on the survey results, meanwhile, is the very high proportion of households who are poor even though a high employment rate was registered. This indicates that the income of those who are working is not sufficient

Table 1. CBMS Core Indicators, Municipality of Labo, Camarines Norte, 2003

Indicator			Proportion
A. Health	1.	Proportion of child deaths	0.2
B. Nutrition	2.	Prevalence of malnourished children	8.8
C. Housing	3.	Proportion of households living in non-makeshift housing	94.5
	4.	Proportion of households who are formal settlers	95.6
D. Water and Sanitation	5.	Proportion of households with access to safe water supply	64.5
	6.	Proportion of households with access to sanitary toilet facilities	65.4
E. Basic Education and Literacy	7.	Elementary school participation rate	79.6
	8.	Secondary school participation rate	67.5
	9.	Literacy rate	97.5
F. Income	10.	Proportion of households who eat at least 3 meals a day	97.6
	11.	Proportion of households with income above poverty threshold	32.2
	12.	Proportion of households with income above food threshold	48.2
G. Employment	13.	Employment rate	88.1
H. Peace and Order	14.	Proportion of persons who are victims of crimes	0.6

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2003

to meet other basic needs. Low access to safe water and sanitary toilet facilities as well as low secondary school participation rate were also identified as problem areas.

Interventions

With the problems identified through the CBMS data, the next step taken was the identification of programs and projects to address such problems.

In the area of health, the criteria for choosing beneficiaries of an

ongoing program of the Municipal Health Office (MHO) on the provision of toilet bowls had been improved with the incorporation of the results of the CBMS. The program is carried out as a partnership between the MHO and the barangay government units, whose counterpart area of responsbility is the provision of cement and hollow blocks needed for the construction of the toilet facilities in the households. A total of 900 toilet bowl units were purchased for this program benefiting 295 and 403 households in 2003 and 2004, respectively, with priorities given to needy households. There are still 202 units of toilet bowl still to be distributed to needy households this year.

Figure 1 shows the extent of improvement on the households' access to sanitary toilet facilities in one barangay after such intervention.

For the problem on the lack of access to safe water, the improvement of several barangay water systems was identified as the appropriate response. As such, a certain amount has already been

Figure 1. Proportion of Households with Access to Sanitary Toilet Facilities, Before and After Intervention, Brgy. Sta. Cruz, Labo, Camarines Norte, Philippines, 2003
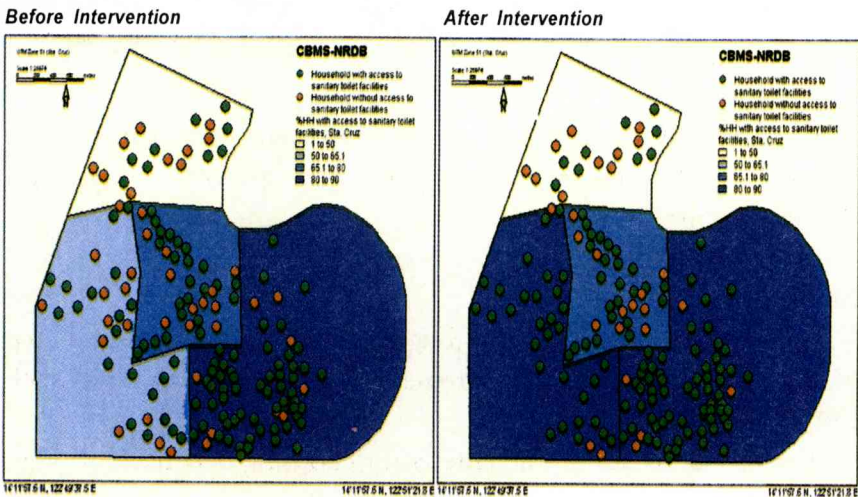
allocated for this. Another program proposed is the Integrated Rural Accessibility Project-Infrastructure for Rural and Social Enhancement Project (IRAP-INFRES) to be implemented in priority barangays. This project is a national program wherein program beneficiaries are given financial support for water system improvement.

In the area of education, results of the CBMS validation exercises reveal that distance and/or non-proximity to school facilities is one reason for the low participation rate of children. Another reason cited is the lack of financial means of parents to send their children to school. Their incomes are not enough to pay for the tuition and other day-to-day expenses of the children.

To address this problem, the Sangguniang Bayan passed a resolution granting educational aid in the form of financial assistance and school supplies to deserving students as identified in the CBMS survey results. The students belonging to the top 10 percent of their class will be prioritized as beneficiaries. They also have to belong to low-income and large-size households. An initial fund of P50,000 was allotted for this program. Target beneficiaries will receive P500.00, with P200.00 for financial assistance and P300.00 allotted for school supplies for the school year.

The construction and improvement of farm-to-market roads was likewise identified as a priority program. Results of the validation exercises reveal that one of the reasons for the low income of those who are working is the inability of farmers to transport their goods, mostly copra, palay, pineapple, cassava and banana, to markets because of the poor road condition. An amount was thus allocated for this project. Road openings for many inaccessible barangays in the municipality were also identified.

Other uses of CBMS data

Apart from helping identify or strengthen intervention programs in Labo to address problems previously indicated, the CBMS data were also useful in other aspects of development programs both at the municipal and barangay levels.

At the barangay level

- CBMS data and their analysis served as inputs in the preparation of the barangay annual investment and development plans. They also provided a basis in identifying appropriate programs and projects to address the immediate basic needs of various barangays and in determining priority needs of the barangays.

- CBMS data were utilized for the preparation of the Barangay Socio-economic Profiles.

- After the CBMS data and information have been validated at the barangay level, the programs and projects to be implemented were identified based on the outcome of the CBMS survey. All of the 52 barangays in Labo complied with this. To mention a few:

  ➢ To address its high malnutrition rate, Barangay Tulay na Lupa allocated an amount of P20,000.00 for its supplemental feeding program and P4,000.00 for an educational assistance program.

  ➢ Barangay Matanlang has allocated P10,000.00 for the purchase of 15 toilet bowls for the 15 households without access to sanitary toilets.

  ➢ Barangay San Antonio has allocated P23,000.00 for the literacy program for adults, out-of-school-youths and school drop-outs.

  ➢ Barangay San Antonio has allocated P21,000.00 for the installation of six units of Jetmatic pumps to improve the water supply system of the barangay.

- The CBMS results were utilized as basis for the water supply and road network development program. Specifically, its results were used in identifying the barangays with low access to safe water supply. With the maps already in place, the office of the MPDC easily identified which barangay was in dire need of the water facilities.

- The CBMS database was utilized in the preparation of barangay poverty maps, which showed the most depressed areas in the barangays in terms of the different dimensions of poverty.
- CBMS data were used in the monitoring and evaluation of existing development programs. For instance, Barangay Tulay na Lupa used the results of the CBMS survey in the analysis of the welfare status of children-leading to their having won the coveted award of the province-wide search for the "Child-Friendliest Barangay."
- Finally, the CBMS results will be utilized for the formulation of the Medium-Term Municipal Development Plan for calendar year 2005-2010 as well as for the Executive and Legislative Agenda for the next three years.

At the municipal level
- CBMS data were utilized in the preparation of the municipal annual investment and development plans and municipal socio-economic profile.
- The Municipal Social Welfare and Development Office (MSWDO) utilized the CBMS data to identify the poorest households in the barangays in terms of income. The MSWDO also used the CBMS data as basis for selecting the beneficiaries of the health insurance program (Philhealth) of the national government.
- CBMS data were also used in determining priority needs of the municipality. Since education is one of the priorities of the municipality, a program of educational assistance is to be implemented in the municipality.
- Information from the CBMS served as inputs in the socio-economic database and geographic information system (GIS) of the Municipal Planning and Development Office.
- CBMS survey results were also used as additional data in the preparation of the municipal land use plan.

What's the cost?

Any undertaking has corresponding cost in terms of monetary expenses. In the case of the CBMS implementation, it may perhaps be said that the benefits and rewards far outweigh the expenses involved. Consider the following amount incurred during the first round of the CBMS implementation: P431, 523.00 or P27.18 per household.

Said amount was shared by the municipal and barangay administrations, with the municipal government and barangay governments shouldering P220,773.34 and P210,750.00, respectively.[1]

For the subsequent implementation, meanwhile, an estimated cost of P224,503.34 or P14.14 per household is anticipated. This sum, however, excludes training costs in the same enumerators who will be tapped for the next round of survey.

All in all, the cost of implementing the CBMS are minimal when compared to large surveys, which have interval periods. As such, it may be considered as a low-cost technology or procedure.

Conclusion

The experience of the Municipality of Labo in implementing the CBMS shows that it requires strong political commitment on the part of the local chief executives at the provincial, municipal and barangay levels for the system to succeed. In addition, the involvement of the community residents in data collection and processing, given their limited technical capacity, proves to be a big challenge. Their participation is of critical importance in as much as accurate results are needed to implement programs and projects that will help achieve the goal of reducing poverty to the minimum.

---

[1] The municipal expenses are broken down as follows: (a) training on data collection and processing- P155,020.00; (b) validation exercise- P 2,168.00; (c) reproduction of forms such as questionnaire and manual- P 61,985.34; and (d) traveling expenses- P 1,600.00. for the barangay counterpart, meanwhile, the breakdown is as follows: (a) allowance for enumerator (P 10/hh)- P158,750.00; and (b) training on drafting socio-economic profiles at P1,000/barangy- P52,000.00.

For future CBMS activities, officials and program implementers of Labo have given their commitment to be fully involved. Their support had been guaranteed for the new round of survey activities. At the same time, these officials have committed to promote the awareness and use of the CBMS as a tool for poverty monitoring and local governance. The most critical part, of course, is the institutionalization of CBMS activities in the development programs of the municipality.

CBMS and Governance in Bangladesh

Ibrahim Khalil

Introduction

The Local Level Poverty Monitoring System (LLPMS) Project is being implemented by the Bangladesh Academy for Rural Development (BARDz) under the auspices of the International Development Research Centre (IDRC) through the Community-Based Monitoring System (CBMS) International Network. The project aims to develop a user-friendly poverty monitoring system at the local level and to ensure active local government participation and effective use of relevant information. A number of functionaries of the Union Parishad have shown keen interest in the CBMS process and as a result, a union under the Upazila of Daudkandi was selected to be the pilot site of the project.

The Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) has been conducting the Household Income Expenditure Survey (HIES) to monitor poverty at the national level and to help the national government in preparing its poverty alleviation plans. The functionaries of Union Parishad[1] serve as its partners and provide assistance by conducting these surveys. Unfortunately, however, they have yet to harness the full potential of the information generated by these

---

[1] Lowest unit of local government in Bangladesh.

surveys due to their lack of technical capacity and lack of awareness about the power of information. Developing a poverty monitoring system at the local level would therefore empower the local government authorities by providing them with access to relevant information, which they can use in their community development planning processes.

The CBMS-Bangladesh Project Team has been working toward this end for the last six months. The members of the research team have, on various occasions, consulted the functionaries of Union Parishad about the implementation of the project in their localities. The officials of nation-building department posted at the Upazila level have likewise been oriented with the process during the early stages of the project.

Uses of data generated through the LLPMS

The following feedback from the officials of nation building departments including development partners and functionaries of Union Parishad, has been articulated:

Sensitize the functionaries of local government

The functionaries of local governments are still performing their activities in a traditional manner. They are very much dependent on the central government, which undermines their legitimate capacity for resource mobilization. Since the CBMS process will entail information gathering on different aspects of income and human poverty as well as utilization of resources, this would be helpful in encouraging them to be innovative in performing their activities.

Assessing the needs at the local level

It is oftentimes very difficult to supply need-based support services to the people due to inadequate information at the local level. Information gathering through this process would therefore be helpful in knowing the needs of the local people and in meeting their requirements.

Coordination of different activities

Various organizations are working in the field of poverty alleviation

at the local level. To avoid an overlap of functions and misuse of resources, these organizations may now simply consult the LLPMS database on who are the eligible beneficiaries of their programs.

Initiating project activities without delay

The database created through this project will be able to meet the data requirements of development agencies, thus reducing time in initiating projects in their target communities. On the other hand, the Union Parishad may earn revenues by claiming service charges on those who access this database.

Union plan book

Information generated through this process is helpful in preparing a Union Plan book. It may be mentioned here that Bangladesh has a very rich experience in the field of preparing the Union Plan Book especially in infrastructure development.

Sensitize the policy planner

Information generated through this process would be helpful in directing the policy planner to give emphasis on special areas. The disparities of poverty situations within a community as represented in a map using the Natural Resource Database (NRDB) software will be very helpful in campaigning for a specific area.

Program evaluation

Data collection would be helpful in identifying changes in poverty situations over the years as well as in knowing the impact of national policies at the local level. Identifying the beneficiaries of safety net programs would be helpful to verify the accurateness of beneficiary selection process by crosschecking his/her status vis-à-vis the villagers' perception.

Management information system (MIS)

While industrial organizations and the private sector have successfully

developed and harnessed their MIS to their maximum benefit, similar initiatives in the field of development, especially in rural areas, have not yielded encouraging results. The experiences from this project might be a milestone for developing MIS at the grassroots level.

Maximum utilization of resources

Since local resources will be identified through this process, it will be easier for local government authorities and respective line departments of the government to maximize their full potential.

Strengthening the functions of Gram Sarkar

The government of Bangladesh has recently introduced an associate organization of the Union Parishad called Gram Sarkar to help the latter in its development activities. Its role is very much related with information gathering but due to lack of capacity and resources, the Gram Sarkar is hardly able to do this work efficiently. Since the LLPMS process already involves functionaries of Gram Sarkar and local people for data collection and tabulation, it will be easier to develop their capacity in performing their activities.

Need-based decision making

The Union Parishad and service providers would be able to make decisions on the basis of facts instead of hypothetical data. This will increase efficiency of the local government institution as well as ensure transparency and accountability.

Innovative ways of identifying the poor

Identification of the poor on the basis of people's perception is innovative and user-friendly. It is possible to identify the poverty situation in a locality within a short period of time. This exercise is helpful in identifying and providing support services to the poor as well as in monitoring their status over the years.

Conclusion

Indeed, there are a number of reasons to be optimistic about the long-term benefits of the Local Level Poverty Monitoring System (LLPMS). Its success, however, will depend on the ability of functionaries of local governments to channel resources on the basis of the data generated through the LLPMS. The sustainability of the project likewise depends on the bridge between the service providers and local government units when using the CBMS data in their development planning processes.

CBMS and Governance in Lao

Sithon Nantharath

Introduction

Since the 1990s, the Government of Lao PDR has implemented a number of development programs to stabilize the economy, promote growth and subsequently reduce poverty. To monitor the socio-economic impacts of these programs, the Lao Expenditure Consumption Surveys (LECS) have been conducted throughout the country. However, the results have satisfied nationwide analysis only. The data shortfall on local communities creates problems in designing and prioritizing programs and policies that will alleviate the conditions of the rural poor. The community-based monitoring system (CBMS) work in Lao therefore aims to fill that need by developing the data collection capacity at the grassroots level. It also intends to provide policymakers with timely information on the living conditions of the people at the local level.

One of the two CBMS sites for the pilot phase is the Province of Savannakhet. Located in the central part of the country, Savannakhet is bounded on the East by Vietnam, on the West by Thailand, on the North by Khammouane Province and on the South by Saravane Province. It has a total land area of 21.774 square kilometers, 84 percent of which is classified as rural. The province has 15 districts that are further subdivided into 1,543 villages, where approximately 118,440 households reside.

Savannakhet has a total population of 757,950. Ethnic minorities comprise 45.4 percent of the country's total population. The agriculture sector accounts for 57 percent of the total GDP structure of the province while the services and industry sector contribute 25 percent and 18 percent, respectively.

CBMS work in the province is being undertaken under an aggressive government campaign to overcome its status as a Least Developed Country by the year 2020. Toward this end, the government issued Instruction Number 010/PM in June 2001, identifying poverty criteria and clarifying the modalities for the preparation of an operational poverty eradication program. The indicators identified include rice consumption, clothing, housing, access to health services and education. These are expected to supplement the information contained in the Village Books.

CBMS offers several advantages, chief of which is that the data it generates can be used for planning as well as monitoring the status of the rural area. However, there are three possible obstacles that may affect its full-scale implementation. First is the lack of technical capacity of local government units as well as the limited number of educated villagers who can ably administer the survey instruments. Second is the lack of funds, which puts into question the sustainability of the project. Third is the challenge of coming up with indicators and variables that will capture the local living conditions. The existing survey forms, for example, do not cover indicators such as ownership of land, agricultural implements, among others.

CBMS and Governance in Senegal*

Dib Niom

To make sure that it will be able to satisfactorily respond to the social demands of the underprivileged, the Senegalese Parliament reiterates its offer to collaborate with all sectors of society through its Technical and Specialized Commissions as well as through the Network of Senegalese Parliamentarians for Population and Development (NSPPD).

The CBMS is new to the Members of Parliament of Senegal. However, they have been informed about a CBMS pilot test in three local communities in Senegal during a workshop participated by the researchers of Micro Impacts of Macroeconomic Adjustment Policies (MIMAP), Centre de Recherches Economiques Appliquees (CREA) and Centre de Recherches pour le Développement International (CRDI) and parliamentarians of the Network for the Reduction of Poverty (organized by the Central Canadian Parliament).

The CBMS seems to be applicable especially at this time when Senegal commits firmly to administrative and territorial reforms and agree to facilitate the National Program on Good Governance. Its socio-economic data that emerged from the pilot-test proved useful.

---

* An English translation of the French presentation of the author.

Indeed, to wage war against poverty, the executive branch of government, the parliament, local communities, the civil society, the private sector, and partners for development can use such data to guide them on how to act, when to act and with whom to act.

The design and pilot-test of the CBMS in these areas led to the selection of the following indicators for community-based poverty monitoring and analysis:

- Socio-economic and Demographic Characteristics,
- Education and Illiteracy Indicators,
- Health and Nutrition Indicators,
- Recreation/Activities Indicators, and
- Indicators of living conditions

The establishment of pertinent, effective and efficient programs and projects as well as an equitable allocation and transparent management of financial resources can now be done in Senegal thanks to the CBMS and other organizations such as the Citizen Control of Public Action and the Participative Budget (CCPA/PB of the IIED), the Participative Decentralized Development (PDD of World Bank), the Community Follow-up of Strategies on Reduction of Poverty (CFSRP of the Canadian Parliamentary Center).

The Senegalese Parliamentarians will certainly draw lessons from the CBMS experiences since CBMS offers a rich database useful for policy-making, parliamentarians will be able to discover the importance of development planning and budgeting. The CBMS database will also facilitate their mandate to check government actions.

On the other hand, the CBMS will be a motivating factor to all stakeholders involved in this global effort to reduce the poverty incidence in developing countries.

The MIMAP and CBMS-Senegal should likewise benefit from a partnership with the Parliamentary Network for Population and Development (PNPD) of the National Assembly (Congress) of Senegal. Better yet, this partnership should also include the parliaments of all countries in the MIMAP, Modeling and Policy Impact Analysis

(MPIA), Poverty Monitoring, Measurement and Analysis (PMMA), CBMS, and Poverty and Economic Policy (PEP) Networks. Given such powerful presence in most countries, the parliament could spearhead initiatives to scale up the CBMS operations in these countries and to advocate for need-based decision-making at the local level.

Use of CBMS: Case of Burkina Faso*

Moumouni Zida

Most African nations still face formidable problems in the 21st Century including population explosion, famine, illiteracy and sickness. An agricultural country, Burkina Faso is likewise in a vulnerable situation with many of its people still living under conditions of poverty. It is a constant source of amazement how people manage to survive under abject ignorance and poverty. How then can well-meaning people and organizations help without first conducting an exhaustive diagnosis of the problem and taking an inventory of the people's needs?

It is in this context that the concept and implementation of a participative poverty monitoring system, introduced by the Community-Based Monitoring System (CBMS) Network Coordinating Team, was welcomed favorably by the residents of the Department of Yako, in the Province of Passoré. Moreover, the introduction of the system comes at an auspicious time when the process of decentralization is still very much under way in the country. The CBMS complements the objective of decentralization as both allow the local population to take charge of their own future. By providing the villagers with a tool to plan and manage their development as well as to evaluate and monitor their

---

* An English translation of the French presentation of the author

conditions over time, the CBMS indeed facilitates programs on poverty alleviation and on local development.

The recent pilot-testing of a CBMS in the Department of Yako led to the selection of the following indicators: health, hygiene, education, food security, nutrition and living conditions. The results of the research now constitute a precious development tool for decision makers, local authorities and non-government organizations (NGOs).

Moreover, the local officials of pilot sites that produced the data are now aware of their importance and are starting to use their data. That is, officers can now set up boards in every village, establish a local development plan by prioritizing needs as well as design strategies against poverty in their areas.

CBMS Session 4
CBMS Technical Working Papers

Community-Based Monitoring System for Access to Basic Minimum Services in Kerala

D. Narayana, Slim Haddad, Smitha Aravind, and Katia Mohindra

Introduction

This paper outlines the approach and results so far of the Community-Based Monitoring System (CBMS) in Kerala, India. It begins by presenting the democratic decentralization efforts in India over the last 10 years---the constitutional amendment, the structure of governance and the mandate of local governments. The problems faced by the local governments in fulfilling the mandate of database planning are explained, followed by a presentation of the salient aspects of the project called the **Community-Based Monitoring System for Access to Basic Minimum Services in Kerala**. The attempt at building a database at the local level and the three-track approach of the CBMS in Kerala are then discussed in some detail.

The 73rd and 74th Amendments to the Constitution of India, which became law in April 1993, provided the foundation for a comparable democratic decentralization in the rural and urban areas, respectively, across the states of India. The Amendments made it mandatory for each state to constitute local self-government institutions (called *Panchayats* in rural areas) at the

village, intermediate and district levels (except for states with less than 2 million population). The three-tier structure of governance in India following the formation of Panchayats and Municipalities is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Implications of Panchayati Raj/ Municipalities as the Third Tier of Governance in India's Federal Structure.

```
                              | UNION |
                                  |
|------------------------------ STATE  -------------------------------|
|                    |-------------  ------|------  -------------|              |
|        PANCHAYATI RAJ                    MUNICIPALITY                          |
|               |                              |                                |
|        3. Zilla Panchayat              Municipal Corporation                   |
|               |                              |                                |
|        2. Block Panchayat              Municipal Council                       |
|               |                              |                                |
|        1. Gram Panchayat               Nagar Panchayat                         |
|               |                              |                                |
|        GRAM SABHA                      WARD MEETINGS                           |
|                                                                               |
|                                                                               |
'|--------------------Autonomous Councils for Tribal Areas------------------|
    Source: Figure 2, Mathew, G. and Mathew, A. (2003)
```
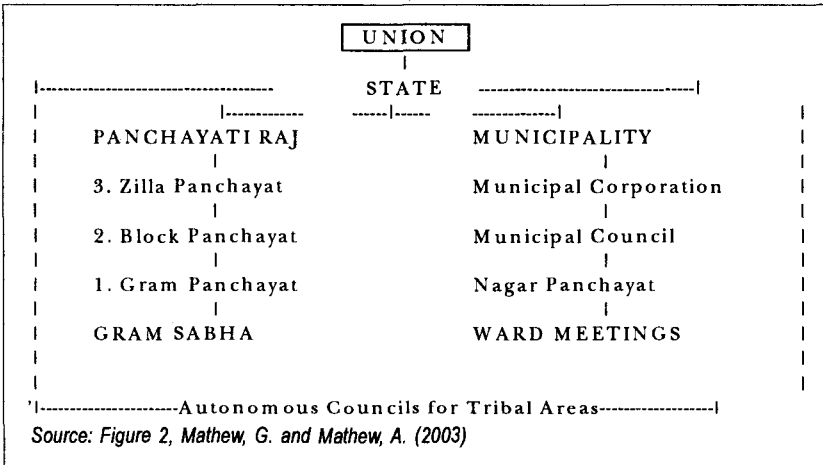
The Amendments mark India's shift from a two-tier system of governance. The 73rd Amendment defines *Gram Sabha* or village assembly as a community of persons registered in the electoral rolls within a village or group of villages, marking a clear shift from representative democracy to participatory democracy. The Gram Sabha has been mandated to approve all plans and programs for social and economic development, audit the Panchayat accounts and select beneficiaries for all types of programs.

The Amendments make a number of actions mandatory now. Persons chosen via direct election shall fill all the seats in a Panchayat. Seats shall be reserved for the Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST). At least one-third of the total number of seats to be filled in by direct election in every Panchayat shall be reserved for women.

The office of chairperson in the Panchayat shall be reserved for SC, ST and women. Every Panchayat has a term of five years. It is endowed with powers as may be necessary to function as a self-governing institution with respect to the preparation of plans for economic development and social justice, and the implementation of schemes for economic development and social justice.

Naturally, the question of who will prepare the plans and monitor the implementation arises. In Kerala, this question was answered by forming working groups (formerly called task forces). Working groups play an important role in decentralized planning. They develop the ideas discussed in the Gram Sabha into projects/schemes, monitor their implementation and see to their proper completion.

India has one of the most elaborate statistical systems in the world. Production, trade and population data are collected regularly and made available in usable form. The country also has regular surveys on aspects of social and economic development—for example, employment, health and consumption. However, most of these are available at the national or state level of aggregation. District-level estimates on some of these indicators are problematic. Hardly any of these estimates are available at levels below the district level.

Decentralized governance and planning for local development calls for an exhaustive database at the local level. Unfortunately, the Gram Panchayats in Kerala still have a building register, which was their staple line of work, as building tax was the main source of Panchayat revenue prior to the implementation of the 73rd Amendment while line departments continue to collect data on aspects of the population's socio-economic life. There is considerable duplication and compartmentalization in the activities of the departments. The data, although often collected with help from the Panchayat, are not made available to the Panchayat itself.

Objectives of the CBMS for Access to Basic Minimum Services

The CBMS implemented in Kottathara Panchayat, in Wayanad district

in Kerala, seeks to provide the Gram Panchayat and local communities with an information system on the access to Basic Minimum Services for policy formulation and monitoring. It will help reduce inequalities in both health and access to Basic Minimum Services by providing disaggregated information on health, access to healthcare and other services for different sectors of the population. The CBMS involves systematic and regular gathering of baseline information at the community level, with a particular emphasis on vulnerable households.

The expected outcomes of the project are:

General

- A disaggregated community-based monitoring system for access to Basic Minimum Services;
- Carefully validated indicators, tools, and methodologies for planning and monitoring differential access to Basic Minimum Services.

Gram Panchayat

- Set of relevant information and available longitudinal measures through population-based information systems;
- Increased knowledge of characteristics of vulnerable populations with special emphasis on the poor, women and tribes;
- Improved evidence-based planning and skills;
- Feedback on implemented programs.

Community

- Less exclusion from Basic Minimum Services, better access to quality care and lower inequalities in access to services;
- Increased participation and empowerment of deprived groups and community-based organizations.

What distinguishes the CBMS?

Partnership development

The first step in partnership development is to create a steering

committee for the project. Such a committee will consist of representatives from the state government, district government, local government, local non-governmental organizations (NGOs), the director of CDS and selected members of the research team. The idea is to get broad-based suggestions and present results for wider dissemination.

Thus, when the steering committee created thereafter was found to meet twice a year only, it was necessary to have a local coordination committee (LCC). The initial consultation involved in constituting the LCC was fairly long-drawn and laborious. Although the steering committee had recommended the constitution of the LCC as early as October 2002, the LCC was only set up in March 2003. However, the broad-based consultations resulted in a balanced committee representing the various active groups and institutions in the Panchayat. It was gender-balanced, with five women and three men. It represented the two networks of women's groups proportional to their strength, the local government (through the presence of the elected Panchayat president and the secretary) and the PHC (through the medical officer).

It took a few meetings for the committee to come to grips with its mandate. By July 2003, the LCC had evolved certain healthy conventions for its effective functioning. It scheduled meeting every month. It took up both external and internal issues affecting the project. It discussed in detail the activities---completed and proposed---of the project and came up with valuable suggestions.

The LCC quickly evolved into a forum where the project team members and stakeholders conveyed their views. One probably could not find a better model of local participation than this.

Approach

The functions of the Panchayats in the Indian context are intended to go beyond the conventional civic duties. These could be grouped into three types:

Group I: Conventional civic functions
- Maintenance of roads, buildings among others;
- Sanitation, maintenance of public wells and sources of water;
- Lighting of village streets;
- Prevention of contagious diseases;
- General administration and public assistance.

Group II: Provision of public services
- Provision of public services such as health, and education;
- Support services related to agriculture and industry.

Group III: Planning and implementation
- Preparation of plans for economic development;
- Implementation of programs and schemes.

Currently, working groups in each Panchayat monitor project implementation. The CBMS project aims to move them toward impact monitoring instead. That is, the performance impact of the Panchayat needs to be viewed in terms of better and equitable access because its mandate is economic development and social justice. Hence, focus will be on the services falling under Groups I and II above rather than simply project monitoring.

The CBMS elsewhere uses indicators such as BMI, incidence of illness, literacy, calorie intake, number of meals per day and ownership of assets, which cannot directly be related to the functioning of local governments. Indicators are outcome measures and a result of the functioning of local governments, individual behavior and the socio-economic context, and hence may not be suitable for capturing the impact of how governments function. That is why this study focuses on process indicators such as access to roads, access to drinking water, sanitation and access to public services.

So as to analyze the nature, content and survey data utilization by various agencies, a survey of surveys was conducted in Kottathara Panchayat during the period February–March 2003, with 1997-2003

as the reference period. The study considered eight surveys conducted in the Panchayat. A critical review of the surveys concluded that:

- The Gram Panchayat does not have a *complete* list of households residing in the Panchayat. The only department with a list of households is the health department, but this list cannot be considered complete. Most of the surveys carried out by line departments and agencies are the census of households, but the department uses only a small fraction of the information. There is practically no effort made by any department to reconcile the data with other sources. The lack of a baseline database has not allowed for any inter-temporal comparisons either. This is a major lacuna given that many censuses are repeated at regular intervals. Tracing households' progress in time in terms of poverty line, for example, would have brought out very important policy lessons.

- The amount of manpower and resources wasted is stupendous, and it is about time a database is built up at the Gram Panchayat level. This shall first be useful for the Panchayat Board's local planning and service provision and as other departments' easy reference. With this objective in mind, a household survey was conducted in Kottathara Panchayat in April-June 2003. The survey evolved into a census after a prior review of the Panchayat's surveys[1] revealed that although a number of surveys had been conducted in Kottathara, there was no complete listing of households, and thus, no baseline data was available. Following pre-testing of the household survey questionnaire in April 2003, the census was carried out by 20 trained investigators, all from within the Panchayat and trained and supervised by the Centre for Development Studies. The response rate of the census was 99.0 percent.

---

[1] Review of surveys carried out in Kottathara Panchayat, Wayanad District, Narayana, Haddad & Aravind (October, 2003).

CBMS interaction with working groups

The preliminary results of the household survey were presented to a group consisting of working group chairpersons, conveners and selected members on 13 November 2003 at the Panchayat office premises. The over-all response was encouraging; those present recognized that such information could be of great value for community monitoring of access to services and for local planning. The challenge now is to come up with a system that will sustain such an effort even after the ongoing project of the Centre for Development Studies and University of Montreal is completed. A system—call it the Kottathara Resource Group (KRG)—for the regular collection, analysis and presentation of information would go a long way in evaluating progress and plan projects.

The KRG will necessarily have three components:

- Personnel, expertise and resources for regular update of relevant information;
- The use of information by elected members, working groups and people-at-large for planning and monitoring activities; and
- An organization, which provides over-all guidance and support for the two components mentioned above.

The three may be called the technical, user and organizational components of the KRG. What are the challenges in setting up such a system then? What will be the initial support for the CBMS? What should be the long-term vision to sustain it as a non-bureaucratic organization? There are both short-term as well as long-term challenges.

Interaction in the Steering Committee

The preliminary results and the plan of action with regard CBMS were presented to the Steering Committee in November 2003.

- The Committee opined that information management is the key issue in decentralized planning. The CBMS seeks to improve the management of data for easier access. Simultaneously, the question of ownership of data has to be

addressed because confidentiality of information is a crucial aspect of data management.

- The committee agreed that that the CBMS no doubt would make a difference on the current process. It would begin with the Gram Panchayat and extend to the state government. The number of indicators would be more at the lower level and fewer at the higher levels of government.

- To sustain the CBMS, personnel and funding will not be a major problem but the technical expertise will be, especially because data validation is the crucial issue in this whole exercise. How can this problem be solve?

- As regards extension of CBMS beyond Kottathara, the member-secretary for Planning of the government of Kerala indicated that the state government is willing to hold one of the Panchayat-to-Panchayat training programs in Kottathara Panchayat. The research team and Kottathara Grama Panchayat shall be taking steps to start this activity in the next few months.

The KRG approach

The KRG for operationalizing community-based monitoring system was constituted during the Local Coordination Committee meeting on December 12, 2003. Since then, efforts to organize a resource group meeting failed. What initially would be the first of the CBMS resource group meetings on January 17, 2004 was rescheduled for February 4, 2004 but did not push through again. Likewise, the one for February 26, 2004 was not possible because of some unforeseen reasons. The next date was March 19, 2004 but was again cancelled because four of the members did not attend.

Finally, the meeting took place on April 17, 2004 at the Kottathara Panchayat office. Participants included Panchayat President Balagopalan; Mr. Rajan, headmaster of Karinjakunnu L.P School; Mrs. Philomina, teacher of Venniyode L.P School; Mr. Suresh, teacher of Valal U.P School and Mr. M.C. Kelu, Panchayat member of ward X. Mr. Sudhakaran, head clerk of the Panchayat and Mr. Narayanan,

resource team member, were absent from the meeting. The gathering sought more explanation on the purpose and importance of a community-based monitoring system and database planning. Although the same issues were discussed extensively in meetings with the working group members, the long interval between the resource group meeting and the working group meeting–over six months–has resulted in memory lapse. This took more than the expected time to explain and synthesize issues. The presentation of the survey's results, which was set for April 28, 2004 at Panchayat office, again did not push through.

The LCC members now think that the KRG was not a feasible idea.

Interaction in the Gram Sabha (Village Assembly)

After the presentations on the CBMS were finally made before the working group representatives, the data collected from household survey were likewise presented during the Grama Sabha meetings of wards IV and V. The following are the results:

- The people recognized the database as an important input in the discussion on development of their Panchayat.
- They agreed that it is the right time to change the existing system of distributing the schemes equally among wards without considering the present condition of each ward.
- The presentation of the survey results is a means to convince the people that disclosing facts about personal assets will not bring them any harm as confidentiality could be maintained.
- The recurrence of the survey was a major topic as the people wanted to know again about their condition after a few years.
- Participants tended to validate the reliability of the data presented by comparing the results with their local knowledge.
- What to do next and what can be done with the data were the two major questions raised.
- For the first time, the people had an opportunity to be acquainted with the data and data interpretation.
- The group wanted to know more about the data and their uses.

One of the committee members who was also a surveyor in the household survey opined that had there been a similar presentation on the objectives and methodology of the survey, the project would have gathered more reliable data.

Scientific reports

To capture a broad spectrum of the population's welfare, seven reports have been prepared. Each is a stand-alone report and designed to focus on needs of specific stakeholders. Consequently, replication of some information may be expected across reports. The reports are the following:

General profile

This report provides an overview of the Panchayat, including geopolitical and climatic features as well as demographic, and socio-economic characteristics of the population.

Poverty profile

This report analyzes poverty and inequality in the Panchayat, adopting a multi-dimensional approach to poverty measurement that emphasizes processes, and not merely resources or outcomes. The nuances of the Kerala population are considered.

Health profile

This report examines health from a population perspective and assesses health needs, health inputs and access to healthcare. Social inequalities in health are also examined.

Access to basic services

This report examines access to basic services such as water and sanitation, electricity, healthcare and social security in the Panchayat. Barriers to these services are also considered.

Gender profile

This report explores gender differences in the Panchayat, comparing indicators of welfare according to gender at both the individual level (i.e., men and women, boys and girls) and at the household level (i.e., male- versus female-headed households). Also, profiles of key vulnerable groups such as widows are highlighted.

Tribal profile

This report focuses on the welfare of tribal groups in the Panchayat, including their living conditions, basic needs, and access to resources and services. Data are provided to highlight both differences between tribals and non-tribal group, and differences among tribes.

Financial protection: paying for health care

This report assesses the economic burden of healthcare, including healthcare costs, household-coping strategies, inequalities in accessing care and preferences for a community-based health insurance scheme.

These reports draw heavily from preliminary findings of a household survey conducted in Kottathara Panchayat in April-June 2003. In addition to census data, other sources of information, including complementary surveys conducted by the research team as well as local and national data, are integrated.

Where to go from here?

The dominant theme of the project is participation. The three-track approach--i.e., presentation before elected representatives and committees; presentation before village assemblies; and production of scientific reports--is also to evaluate who participates, by how much and who will potentially use it for what purpose. The researchers do not pre-judge; rather, they leave it to the Local Coordination Committee to draw its own inferences and come up with suggestions. Simultaneously, information is made available via scientific reports for wider circulation.

Investigating Social Vulnerability in Community-Based Poverty Monitoring in Sri Lanka: Scaling Down to the Household Level

∙∙∙

Hartmut Fuenfgeld, S.T. Hettige, Markus Mayer
and Sonali Senaratna-Sellamuttu

Introduction

There is, without a doubt, an increased agreement among academicians and development practitioners nowadays that poverty is not solely about economic grievances but rather, is a complex social, political and economic phenomenon that can only be addressed adequately by using interdisciplinary and multidimensional approaches (Devereux 2003; Hulme and Shepherd 2003). To identify and understand the structural processes that generate and transform poverty, researchers strive to overcome conventional dichotomies of conceptualized space (such as local level versus national or global level) and time (short-term versus long-term effects).

Consequently, if poverty researchers want to successfully integrate these different analytical perspectives into a holistic and contextual analysis of poverty processes, the research methodology has to be multidimensional, too. Poverty monitoring has been an important step into the right direction. In monitoring

exercises in various countries, attempts have been undertaken to overcome the limited information of national-level poverty data by institutionalizing the collection of relevant data at the regional and, in some cases, the local level (for instance, Krishna 2004; MIMAP documents). Also, many poverty monitoring exercises seek to overcome the restricting time factor by undertaking longitudinal studies, using panel data to compare structures of poverty at different points in time (e.g., Reyes 2003).

What seems to be more important, however, is to identify new indicators–rather than merely indicate an increase or decrease in poverty within a given community, region or country–that can uncover the underlying factors and processes driving people into poverty, keeping them in poverty or helping them move out of poverty. These factors and processes may operate at different levels: individual, household, community, regional, country and world systems. Though they are not necessarily measurable in quantitative, statistical terms, they can often be observed in real life situations at the community level, using qualitative research methods.

Any community-based poverty analysis also has to take into account the structural processes that impinge on individuals. Coping strategies in the face of such structural processes can differ substantially between communities, regions and time. The temporal dimension for any community-based analysis is quite critical. It can range from such sudden incidents as loss of employment to inter-generational accumulation and transmission of assets and capabilities. Similarly important, empirical research on poverty should not focus on the poor alone because the poor does not exist in isolation from their wider social environment, particularly, the non-poor. Poverty is usually a relational phenomenon. In other words, an analysis of economic, social, political and cultural relations of the poor is critical in understanding their changing "life chances." The local community is a critical vantage point from where to observe multifarious interactions and transactions between the poor and the outside world.

This paper uses a qualitative research methodology for the Community-Based Poverty Monitoring (CBPM) empirical experiences in two rural locations in Sri Lanka: Hambantota District on the south coast; and Batticaloa District on the east coast of the island. The analysis of data serves three main purposes: First, to highlight challenges involved in the use of qualitative poverty monitoring exercises by focusing more strongly on social, cultural and political dimensions of poverty at the community level, thus bringing out issues on social vulnerability and social integration. Second, this qualitative focus is also an opportunity to investigate conflict-related aspects of poverty in two locations with similar ecological setting and socioeconomic characteristics but with different ethno-political impacts of violent conflicts in Sri Lanka over the past 20 years. Third, the paper looks at the experiences in getting community members involved in the collection of qualitative data. Related to that, this paper reflects on the potentials and limitations of such attempts.

The following chapter will highlight concepts that led to the analytical framework used for the community-based poverty monitoring exercises in Sri Lanka, before presenting selected research findings.

Linking Poverty with Social Integration and Conflict

In recent years, poverty's definition has extended beyond conventional income and consumption approaches when investigating the vulnerability of individuals, groups and/or populations. "Vulnerability" has different dimensions such as the access and availability to basic resources (necessary for safeguarding a sustainable livelihood) and involves more complex factors such as economic, ecological, infra-structural, social, cultural and political assets (DFID 1999; Bohle 2001).

Beside personal investment assets (e.g., education, training skills), physical investment assets (e.g., housing, land), supplies (e.g., food, cash savings) and individual health, the vulnerability approach in a broader sense has also incorporated less tangible assets; these may be

in the form of available social capital (e.g., claims on others such as relatives, neighbors, patrons or the state), coping strategies (differentiated in terms of region, community, gender and age) and, considering concepts such as dignity and autonomy, priorities of the poor (with regard to survival, security and self-respect). The strength of the vulnerability approach thereby lies in its attempt to investigate and contextualize the processes of poverty, rather than seeing poverty as a static phenomenon (Chambers 1995; Baulch 1996).

So far, the main application of the vulnerability approach has been largely limited to assessing the risks on natural resource-based livelihoods. This approach thus focuses on the survival of vulnerable groups in times of crisis, mainly related to natural disasters and problems of food insecurity (Mayer 2002). However, if one were to utilize the concepts of the vulnerability approach to assess conflict potentials, one has to look into factors that not only limit people's ability for basic survival but also reduce their available options for a livelihood appropriate to their individual needs and aspirations.

An important dimension for analyzing poverty and conflict-related aspects is the impact of social change on the basic needs and its relation to conflict potentials within different societies. In the context of rapid social change, needs (especially those regarding security, welfare, identity and freedom) can contradict available opportunities. It is therefore important to ask how and which areas human needs are not being properly fulfilled, and to assess the perceived reasons for these deficiencies. This, in turn, provides a good entry point when looking into social groups' degree of preparedness for violent conflict. By doing so, the focus of the analysis shifts from questions of basic survival to understanding contradictions between social expectations, social aspirations and human needs and on the available means to achieve different life perspectives. This can be, and has been, linked to theories of social violence (e.g., Watts 2000).

In this empirical investigation, the characteristics of desired life chances for specific target groups have to first be looked at in a gender-caste/class- and age-specific differentiation. Second, the analysis has

to focus on economic as well as social factors and risks that ensure or threaten an adequate and desired livelihood. When focusing on social groups, the analysis also has to incorporate the issues of identity building, general social integration, human rights, and political and socio-cultural participation.

To link conflict analysis with poverty-related issues, one has to elaborate on conventional poverty concepts. In his latest book, *Development as Freedom*, Sen relates individual human development with different types of rights and opportunities such as "political freedoms, economic facilities, social opportunities, transparency guarantees and protective security" (Sen 1999). This approach provides a good theoretical framework for the analysis of poverty as it assesses the available "space of life chances" of selected social groups. One can now empirically test the hypothesis that "a limitation of adequate life chances is likely to increase potential for violent conflict."

Poverty in this regard can be understood as the limited ability to choose between different ways of living due to social or individual constraints. Following Sen, poverty investigation has to shift away from the means (e.g., income) to the ends that people value, and the capabilities to satisfy these ends (Sen 1999). Generally, the most important factors that can increase people's capacities for making desired choices are in unhindered access to education and healthcare. Nonetheless, general social conditions will still determine to what extent a person can make use of good education and stable health: "The political economy of actual use can be very different from the potential possibilities generated" (Dreze and Sen 1996). Aspects of social and political participation and empowerment, therefore, become highly important in increasing the capabilities of a person to choose between different lifestyles.

It is, however, important to keep in mind that limited life chances and a higher degree of structural restrictions alone do not necessarily translate into violent conflict. First, so as to gain greater social support and approval for violent conflict, radical individuals/organizations would have to capitalize on frustrations arising from such limitations

of life chances. Any large-scale revolt also requires an organizational platform for agitation and the conduct of forceful action. Without such structures, tendencies toward conflict cannot translate to violent action and reaction. Second, violent conflict can also be triggered by other forms of discrimination or dissatisfaction that are not necessarily linked to dimensions of life chances, but to larger questions of identity and ethnic or cultural ownership. It is important to use the above model when analyzing specific, poverty-related dimensions of conflict. In the context of Sri Lanka, such an analysis can be an important contribution to the over-all understanding of the multidimensional causes of violent conflict, which also has relevance for similar research elsewhere.

Social vulnerability and conflict

Social vulnerability depends on different dimensions such as access to and availability of basic resources. Resources here include more complex factors such as social, cultural and political assets, and more importantly, social relations. Of course, social vulnerabilities can exist in pretty much the same way in areas where there is no conflict. In conflict-affected areas, however, they have been compounded by long years of conflict-related deprivations. Social assets, particularly social relations, which can exist as sources of support and coping mechanisms, have been disrupted by years of conflict. Social relations include a wide range of relationships (e.g., between families, peer groups, religious and cultural institutions) but also link with civic and political authorities. The diverse experiences of war have often altered existing social relations through death, separation, displacement and other kinds of temporary or permanent losses. "Social" may also include an economic dimension: Since many individuals and families suffer from the material and economic devastation of war, they lose their social status and place in their familiar social networks.

The depletion of such social resources can render people vulnerable, as they may not be able to draw upon the usual problem-solving mechanisms when confronted with a critical situation.

Figure 1. Analytical Framework for the Assessment of Life Chances and Social Integration

EXPOSURE		
Ecology	**Economy**	**Politics**
"crisis"	"restructuring"	"new order"
pressure on environmental resources	mismatch between education and employment	structures of social dominance

potential restrictions (external side)

Space of Life Chances
(*Psychosocial Well-Being*)

self-esteem and cultural practices	scope for individual initiatives	capabilities for the formation of public action

potential enhancements (internal side)

"new identities"   "transitions"   "empowerment"

Identity Formation   **Social Integration**   **Human Rights Recognition**

RESISTANCE

Draft: Markus Mayer   based on concepts from:
Baulch 1996; Bohle 2001; Chambers 1989, Friedmann 1992; Johnston/Taylor/Watts 1995; Mayer 2000; Mayer/ Salih 2002; Sen 2000; UNDP 2000; Watts 2000

Experiences such as displacement, human rights violations and the lack of consistent law and order can also result in social disarticulation, i.e., the disruption of formal and informal social networks and links at a community level. This may also include factors such as lack of social cohesion and communality, the reluctance of community members to invest in permanent community structures and a sense of fatalism that hinders one to take on projects for development. Moreover, the increase in social problems such as more violence and lawlessness, and substance abuse severely obstructs community-oriented development work.

A Framework for analysis

To capture the degree of deprivation of different social constituencies, six analytical dimensions can shed light on the availability of the space of life chances and its scope for potential restriction/enhancement. The dimensions "ecology," "economy" and "politics" mainly investigate external factors that influence the design of life chances positively or negatively. An important aspect of the analysis is focused on the impact of structural processes and changes such as–in the ecological sphere–pressure on environmental resources (due to climatic change, new forms of land use, overpopulation, lack of technical advice for sustainable agriculture, etc.). In the economic sphere, problems and challenges emerging from the restructuring of national and regional economies in the midst of globalization, and existing mismatches between education and employment, are important dimensions to examine. In the political sphere, the differing social structures within different political orders have to be studied– e.g., by looking at institutional regulations for decision-making at different levels (i.e., national, regional, local) and at the structures of local-level authorities and civil society organizations.

On the internal side, "identity formation," "social integration" and "recognition of human rights" are dimensions that affect the potential of groups or individuals to counter structural or external restrictions on their life chances. Again, the aspect of change is an important

component. Changes in local culture and regional identities affect one's self-esteem. The level of social integration (in family, community or wider societal structures) constitutes the scope for individual initiatives. Both dimensions are closely linked to the capabilities of social groups to mobilize. These capabilities, built mainly on recognition of human rights of individuals, ultimately provide the prerequisites for empowerment.

Separating this dimension into "external" and "internal" sides is only for analytical purposes here. In reality, there is a close interaction between all dimensions, and any final conclusion is surely a product of such interaction. Thus, policy reforms that aim to reduce the structural constraints and projects and try to strengthen local capacities of marginalized communities can increase the availability of life chances. This ultimately improves the economic integration of the poor, and more importantly, contributes to an improved psycho-social well-being.

Although quantitative data collection can be useful in understanding the indicative patterns of distribution, an in-depth analysis of livelihood structures based on detailed empirical observations at family and community levels can be critical in the study of poverty-related issues such as types and causes of poverty, different dimensions of poverty (such as exclusion, lack of self-esteem, powerlessness) and underlying poverty processes. While some of the factors may be internal to families, households and communities, others may extend even beyond the local boundaries. Likewise, any community-based livelihood analysis has to take into account the structural processes that impinge on individuals' well-being.

The temporal dimension for any community-based analysis is critical. It can range from such sudden incidents as loss of employment to inter-generational accumulation and transmission of assets and capabilities.

Assessing local poverty processes: Extending the CBPM methodology

The CBPM system has so far concentrated on the collection of quantitative data on a set of indicators. While quantitative data are necessary and adequate for macro-level poverty profiles, poverty understood as a complex social and relational phenomenon can only partly be comprehended at the micro-level through quantitative indicators. This study, therefore, proposes to integrate a set of qualitative research tools into the CBPM practices. Institutionalizing qualitative methods can provide deeper insights into the causal relationships of the poverty phenomenon. It can also point to hidden social, political and economic linkages that are difficult to detect otherwise. As will be shown in the case studies that follow, qualitative research can reveal, for example, important linkages between incidences of poverty and lack of social integration and/or impact of violent conflicts on households.

Cooperating with local investigators

The CBPM has already proven its success in gaining the cooperation of communities in the collection, verification and update of quantitative data. During the pilot studies in Sri Lanka, the research team had also assessed the possibility of soliciting the cooperation of both the academe (i.e., professionals and students) and local partners in qualitative data collection. Adequate research methods were tested and the possible means for institutionalizing such cooperation were assessed. The following sections give an account of the experiences gained during the case studies and point to options and limitations for implementing a qualitative CBPM.

Assessed against "hard" scientific standards, qualitative data collection is subject to distortion by a range of factors. In particular, the interview and facilitation skills of the researchers are of prime importance for ensuring a high data standard. The success of qualitative CBPM exercises, therefore, relies to a large extent on a thorough training and supervision. Here, CBPM should make use of

locally available capabilities. In an ideal CBPM setup, where the research exercise also leads to community empowerment, community members themselves collect relevant socioeconomic data. This, in turn, will facilitate a discursive environment in the village, which could eventually lead into a more participatory, proactive and bottom-up development process. Experiences from the pilot phase reveal interesting differentiations with regard the potentials and limitations of data collection conducted by community members themselves. For example, questions related to social networks and other sensitive issues such as intra-community or intra-household conflicts reveal more accurate information when collected by community members. It appears that respondents are more reluctant to talk about social and political issues with outsiders, but have difficulties withholding such information from people who are also aware of the issues locally.

However, it should be noted that community members themselves are unlikely to be impartial, as they are part of local politics-either willingly and actively, or simply by their (or their families') social existence as an organic part of the community. Thus, qualitative (as well as quantitative) data collection by community members requires very careful selection of local facilitators and investigators. Such individuals have to be widely perceived as unbiased by the community and should not be actively involved in local politics (e.g., in political parties or other influential community-based organizations [CBOs]). Even then, their scope for data collection must be limited to questions of low sensitivity as pre-assessed during pilot tests.

From the experiences during Sri Lanka's CBPM pilot phase, it was observed that villagers were extremely reluctant to reveal any information on income, food consumption patterns or loans/savings to members of their own community. Interestingly, information about their health status (especially incidences of diseases) and food habits was considered sensitive as well.

Tasks for external investigators

Therefore, data identified as sensitive may have to be collected in collaboration with outsiders rather than by community members alone. For this purpose, the next attempt is to utilize an often unrecognized resource: the large numbers of social science graduates from Sri Lankan Universities who come from under-privileged rural areas and disadvantaged social backgrounds. The project can team them up with community members, especially the youth, for the CBPM study. These graduates can relate to as well as mobilize other educated rural youth who remain unemployed or underemployed.

There are advantages to this new strategy. For instance, university students with a rural background already have training subjects as part of their university curriculum. Such subjects are pre-requisites for either their major or minor courses since research is applicable in a number of academic activities such as in thesis preparation. A senior researcher experienced in empirical social research can supervise the students in data gathering and presentation techniques. Here, the actual empowerment process takes place. Facilitating community dialogue creates awareness and capacities for change at the local level. The data and insights gained from focus group discussions, problem rankings and in-depth problem analysis can also be used in setting up community projects and facilitating contacts with non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and education institutions. The emphasis should be placed, on one hand, on the (mainly academic) interest of increasing the knowledge on poverty dynamics, and on the other hand, on community empowerment by supporting local partners in the proactive use of community-level data.

External students, equipped with adequate techniques, can take on a strong role in creating awareness and facilitating local discourses on poverty in the community, instead of merely collecting data in an enumerator-like way. This process of community discourse should include different perspectives based on gender, caste/class and age. During the pilot study in Batticaloa, for instance, the community-level dialogue on poverty issues among the younger generation, who often

felt disempowered by politicians and ruling elites, proved to be very successful and informative. Both male and female participants exchanged views on a broad range of issues affecting their daily lives in the village. As families tried to cope with the impacts of poverty and, in Batticaloa's case, the ethnic conflict, young men and women attained a clear understanding of the underlying factors that kept their families trapped in poverty and deprivation.

This intra-communal dialogue, guided by external facilitators, seems to increase community awareness and planning. It is also a means for examining solutions to particular day-to-day problems (e.g., garbage disposal, local flood problems). Moreover, such venue can also be used to inform the community of existing ways to access support from government and non-governmental sources, thereby leading to a true exchange of knowledge between community members and external facilitators. From the point of view of the students, qualitative CBPM has the potential to increase the young researchers' understanding of social processes and qualify them for future research work inside or outside the university sector.

Despite the advantages of working with external investigators, local researchers still play a significant role in the analysis of data on complex poverty issues and in building relationships of trust and rapport, as gleaned from the Sri Lankan pilot study. When there is cooperation with local researchers, all researchers increase their probability of receiving more reliable and detailed data about issues that often impinge on poverty dynamics—in spheres of community life that cannot be tapped into by data on income, economic activities, education and health status alone.

Options for institutionalization

To establish lasting and regular cooperation between the local level and research institutions, CBPM processes need to be formally institutionalized between the directly cooperating partners and, preferably, local government institutions such as the Divisional Secretariat or the Pradeshiya Sabhas. In the case studies, the local

majors (Grama Niladaris or Grama Selvakas) played an important role in facilitating initial contact with the community, and the village population also felt all official projects in the villages should be channelled through them.

Also, locally operating NGOs or, in some cases, CBOs, may be a means of institutionalizing CBPM, as they are usually less involved in—although not necessarily completely impartial to—local party politics. The locally available options for formal institutionalization of CBPM have to be assessed prior to any monitoring exercise. Building up trust takes a considerable amount of time and effort and thus should be included in project design from the very beginning. Once the project is under way, the institutionalization has to be monitored by maintaining regular contact with relevant agencies. This involves annual (or more frequent) meetings with members of the community and relevant government, non-governmental and academic institutions.

Qualitative poverty profiles: Cases from Southern and Eastern Sri Lanka

In the Sri Lankan CBPM pilot study, the conflict-related aspects of poverty were assessed using qualitative methodology in two locations with similar ecological setting and comparable socioeconomic characteristics. The communities of both research locations were caught in prolonged social unrest and violent conflict. However, the forms of violence experienced over the past 20 years as well as the subsequent ethno-political impacts differ greatly in both research locations. This allows for a controlled analysis of the different ways the "conflict factor" impinges on poverty dynamics.

The following section therefore gives an overview of the methodology of the study, before introducing the differing lines of conflict that have affected the two research areas. Then, the discussion will move to the analysis of the poverty-conflict nexus in each case study by drawing up qualitative poverty profiles. The identified issues that were found to trigger, aggravate or alleviate poverty are described under the five analytical dimensions introduced earlier (ecological,

economical, social, cultural and political) within each poverty profile. Due to the scope of this paper, the poverty profiles have to remain brief cross-sections of the diverse data gathered during the exercises.

Methodology

In both pilot locations, a sample of 16 households was selected using a combination of participatory methods such as mapping of social and natural resources, wealth ranking of households and semi-structured interviews with key informants. The wealth ranking exercises were undertaken using local concepts of wealth, which were examined prior to the actual ranking exercise. This facilitated the classification of households into different socioeconomic categories that had experienced different poverty dynamics over time (i.e., moved in or out of poverty, or remained at the same high or low poverty level). In-depth interviews were conducted with different household members. The collected data were then compared with the information from other households. Additional interviews were held to crosscheck the data, where necessary. Also, the life histories and family trees of household members were recorded to adequately place the results of the individual interviews in the context of personal life paths and family backgrounds.

Of all the methods tested, individual in-depth interviews with household members were discovered to be most informative for the analysis of the relational aspects of poverty. While individual interviews could reveal more sensitive information (e.g., on conflict impacts [in the case of Batticaloa], income and community politics), group discussions in general and problem-ranking exercises in particular pointed out some major structural issues that prevent people from improving their livelihood. The family trees and life histories, on the other hand, were invaluable on the relational aspects of poverty. Family relationships were qualified into "positive" and "negative" as well as "strong" and "weak" relationships while the impact of family safetynets on poverty dynamics was also discussed. Other PRA tools such as mobility maps proved useful since they led into a discussion

on social networks and bonds inside and outside the community. Here, however, it was crucial to recognize the frequently varied needs and aspirations of different social strata (particularly by age and gender) within the community. If interviews with different individuals revealed different opinions, discussions on a specific topic with different social groups were likely to generate variant data. Therefore, the reliability of data could only be achieved by working separately with a number of individuals as well as by staging focus group discussions per social grouping.

Case 1: Changing Livelihoods in Kalametiya Lagoon

Kalametiya is a coastal lagoon system in the Hambantota District on the southern coastline of Sri Lanka. This rural setting boasts of a range of natural resources with many uses. This includes a lagoon. Activities range from near-shore sea fishing, shell mining, turtle egg collecting and farming (paddy farming, chena cultivation and cattle rearing). Due to Kalametiya's proximity to the coast, fishery is a major economic sector in the area. Communities are considered to be amongst the most economically disadvantaged in the country.

Based on the 2002 national survey, the highest percentage of poor[1] households (37.8%) was reported in the Hambantota District (Department of Census and Statistics 2003). The district is part of a region that was twice the stage of a large-scale unrest among rural Sinhalese youth. In particular, the second insurgency in 1987-1991 brought the country in the verge of collapse. The brutal submission of the movement by the Sri Lankan government left 40,000 to 60,000 dead or missing, most of which are part of the youth. The reasons for the unrest can be seen in the structural changes in the agricultural sector, where there remains limited livelihood opportunities. The lack

---

[1] Those households spending more than 50% of the expenditure on food, and average adult equivalent food expenditure is less than Rs. 1,338.48 per adult per month are considered as poor households (Department of Census and Statistics Sri Lanka 2003).

of (or perceived lack of) alternatives led to unemployment and frustration among the educated rural youth. The radical Janata Vimukti Peramuna (JVP), a Marxist-oriented party behind the youth unrests in the past, has regained substantial political power over the last 10 years. This can be seen as a strong indicator for the persisting dissatisfaction among rural youth on the existing social and political system.

In Kalametiya, 16 households were selected from the Gurupokuna, Wewegoda and Thuduwa villages bordering the lagoon. The population is entirely Sinhalese. As most of the interviewed families are, to some extent, dependent on natural resources for their income, a strong link between environmental changes and poverty processes was identified. During the in-depth interviews, the nature of this nexus was examined and differentiated in greater detail. The most important and rather obvious linkage was the impacts on the natural resource (e.g., the lagoon or the sea in Kalametiya's case). Such had repercussions on the households' economic state. In some cases, environmental change triggered negative events that exacerbated poverty. For example, several lagoon fishermen reported that the lagoon ecology had changed dramatically over the past three decades, mainly due to upstream irrigation interventions as well as infrastructure construction at various points in the lagoon. As a consequence, the lagoon hydrology was severely altered, which was seen by fishermen as the major reason for the decreasing fish population. Below is a sample of a respondent's thoughts[2]:

> The income I obtain from lagoon fishing is much lower today than what it was in the past. I now only make about Rs. 100 to Rs. 150 per day. The main reason for this is the decrease in the numbers of fish found in the lagoon. This is most probably a result of the lagoon size shrinking, a thick

---

[2] A more detailed account of the hydrological changes was given in a paper presented at the 4th National Symposium on Poverty Research in Sri Lanka (cf. Senaratna Sellamuttu, S. and A. Clemett 2003).

layer of silt collecting in the lagoon and waterweeds spreading
rapidly over the surface of the lagoon. There is no space in the
lagoon for fish to breed. (Lagoon fisherman, age 49, Thuduwa
village).

Similar reports were expressed about the sea, although the major contributor to its decreasing fish catch was seen in the rise in marine fishing, which had also led to increasing competition among the fishermen.

However, revenues from sea fishing (and to a lesser extent, lagoon fishing) have always been seasonally variable, and fishermen had adopted a strategy of livelihood diversification to make up for seasonal losses. Among those activities, casual labor work was found to be the most prominent among the poor households. Common activities included laboring in the fisheries sector itself, in paddy farming or in brick making.

Labor in Kalametiya is highly seasonal, too, and to a large extent dependent on forces of nature. For example, unexpected floods in May 2003 destroyed the paddy cultivation, which also meant a considerable loss in opportunities in casual employment.

Other strategies adopted by several fishermen to increase revenues were to improve their technology and fishing gear, target additional fish and crustacean species, and invest more time per day in fishing activities than ever before. Here, the causal relationship between environmental destruction, human interference and economic demise became apparent. Drawing from the qualitative data, environmental changes particularly affected poor households, which often had only one---often unskilled---breadwinner each.

In this quote below, the combination of decreasing revenues from fishing and a second factor such as old age or ill health often led to a negative poverty trend:

In the past I used to engage in both sea and lagoon fishing.
Now I am too old to go sea fishing, so I just go and help out
sometimes at the fish landing site. I am usually rewarded with

a couple of fish for my effort, which I bring home for our consumption. Until recently, I used to cast a net occasionally in the lagoon during the shrimp season. But since the shrimp resource in the lagoon has declined dramatically, there is no point to do this anymore, as I would often not catch enough to bring home for one meal. (Retired sea and lagoon fisherman, age 76, Gurupokuna village).

A coping strategy commonly adopted by households that, in effect, led to an upward trend in social mobility was to get more than one household member to earn an income. This is often possible by investing beforehand in the human capital of the family. The higher education of a family's children is seen as a major way for the latter to gain permanent employment outside the primary sector (e.g., in computer training centers, local government administration or in the armed forces). Another increasingly common measure of a rising household income is when a family member, usually a woman, goes abroad to work. Typically, young women target Middle Eastern countries and take on unskilled jobs such as housemaids and kitchen staff, often under difficult circumstances. The remittances are sent home regularly. However, this strategy is not always a fool-proof way out of poverty because recruitment agencies' rates for migrating labor are high, payment irregularities in the host countries are common and the remittances are often used to pay for daily consumption rather than invested in productive assets. The following example clearly illustrates this recurring scenario in rural areas.

I went to the Middle East as a housemaid in January 2002 as my husband income's from lagoon fishing was far from sufficient for us to live. We did not even have a permanent house in Thuduwa and lived in very basic conditions. Unfortunately, all the money I had sent to my husband to build our house, he had spent on entertaining friends and other unnecessary things. My hard-earned money had been completely wasted! The house is still incomplete as a result. I get so upset and angry with my

husband whenever I think about how badly he managed the money I sent him. (Wife of lagoon fisherman, Thuduwa Village).

Respondents of positively dynamic households emphasized their sound management of financial resources as a major reason for their upward mobility. Their stable income enabled families to save and make provisions for their future, as illustrated in the following statement:

I would like to ensure that I could help my sons build their own houses. I also am very keen on educating my youngest son. He is good in his academic studies, so we hope that he will continue his higher education and then get a good job. I do not want him to follow my two elder sons and me by getting into fishing as a livelihood. I also hope to save some money so that my wife and I will not be a burden to our children and can look after ourselves. (Sea fisherman, age 48, Gurupokuna village).

Poorer families, however, found it harder to cope with increasing costs of living. Investing in human capital or saving money was not possible at all. Instead, families belonging to poor households explained during the interviews that they had to change consumption patterns. They often missed a meal or replaced the common rice and curry with less costly and less nutritious substitutes such as tea and bread. Moreover, they often had to buy goods on credit or borrow money from a village moneylender.

Thus, this brings the discussion to the social sphere of livelihood strategies. In the absence of a functioning formal social safety-net system, many families relied on assistance through their networks of family, relatives and neighbors. In all the upwardly mobile households, the presence of a strong family safety-net was an important positive factor. The assistance they received from the extended family included food, money and educational items for the children. Siblings helped one another financially or in kind. In many cases, the assistance came

from relatively well-off siblings. But even poor siblings appeared to help by devoting their time and labor for various activities such as looking after the children and helping during special occasions or events such as weddings and funerals. Siblings who lived in other villages or distant towns did not assist on a regular basis, but provided assistance when the occasion called for them to do so. In the case of elderly couples, their children supported them in their financial and material needs.

Chronically poor households, however, reported the absence of a functioning network of family assistance, mainly because their families were either equally poor and therefore could not provide much help or were geographically distant from them. Other inhibiting factors were when disagreements and conflicts existed within the family, thus leading to a complete breakdown in family networks.

> *I cannot go fishing anymore. My wife and I are old and it is therefore difficult for us to eke a living now. We are entirely dependent on our children. It is difficult for them also as they are married and have families of their own. My son's wife did not get along with us and we had a disagreement. As a result, my son stopped supporting us. My three daughters support us, but they too have financial problems of their own. We are very unhappy with our current situation as we do not like to be a burden to anyone. (Retired sea and lagoon fisherman, age 76, Gurupokuna Village).*

This statement illustrates once again how old age and ill health are major contributors to social and economic decline. Another constraint is when a member suffers from alcoholism. A large proportion of the income could be wasted on alcohol consumption. Alcoholism could also be a source of domestic conflict and violence. It can be a vicious

---

[4] Before the ceasefire came into being, lagoon and forest access was restricted to day time only, and fishermen were frequently accosted with their canoes and imprisoned if they failed to adhere to the many restrictions imposed on movement in and around the lagoon by the Sri Lankan army.

cycle that leads to a breakdown of family life and well-being. On the other hand, one of the key features of better-off households is the absence of alcoholism in the family.

> There is no difference in our economic status in the past and the present. This is all because my husband is an alcoholic. He spends most of his income on alcohol. We do not have enough money for our daily expenses. We never get to save any for the future. Even if I manage our finances carefully, I think we will always be poor as a result of my husband's drinking. (Wife of sea fisherman, age 50, Gurupokuna Village).

Meanwhile, the support community-based organizations (CBOs) can provide seemed to depend to a large extent on the personalities heading them. Most respondents expressed that they were disillusioned with most of the CBOs due to the latter's cases of corruption, nepotism and patronage of influential and wealthy members. Despite the numerous projects in communities, fishermen never received the benefits they were promised. The frustration with CBOs is expressed in the following statement:

> I was eligible to receive an oruwa [non-mechanized fishing canoe] through the Fisheries Society as my primary livelihood is lagoon fishing. Because I am poor and do not have any influence in the society, someone else more influential than me received the boat even though he only fishes in the lagoon occasionally. This individual then proceeded to sell the oruwa and take the money from the sale! Who is there to look out for us and point out these unjust actions? (Lagoon fisherman, age 49, Thuduwa Village).

Membership in a CBO, therefore, is highly political. In fact, in Kalametiya, people complained that all spheres of community life are weighed down by party politics and power play. Several respondents reported of political and social discrimination. The poorer segments

of the villages' population, in particular, often lacked political linkages and missed out on benefits distributed by the government.

> *We had to face political discrimination due to our party affiliations. For example, we were entitled to receive tiles for our roof but due to our political affiliations we did not get any. Other households that were not entitled to this, received the tiles because they supported the same party. Although our house has a thatched roof, we did not get the tiles. (Sea fisherman, Age 33, Gurupokuna village)*

These families also indicated that they were discriminated against by those in their own political party simply because they were poor and did not have much influence in the community nor the means to play an active role in the village political party system.

Despite ongoing political discrimination, no major cases of violence or conflict were reported in the three villages. Despite the political disputes, respondents agreed there was a high degree of unity among households in the village, particularly during community events such as funerals and weddings. In such occasions, the entire community assisted in different ways. Moreover, all respondents indicated that they were proud of their village identity and as Sinhala Buddhists. None of those interviewed had much contact with people from other ethnic or religious groups.

Case 2: Livelihoods under threat of conflict: Batticaloa Lagoon

The Batticaloa lagoon is the largest coastal lagoon ecosystem on Sri Lanka's east coast, extending about 56 kilometers from north to south. It provides a diverse range of resource-based and mostly small-scale income-earning activities. Primary forms of resource use such as various modes of fishing and, more recently, aquaculture, serve secondary small- and medium-scale industries such as lime making and fish trading.

In Batticaloa's case, communities have been heavily affected by the war between the Sri Lankan state and Tamil militants. This conflict is mainly between the Sri Lankan army and the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE). After almost 20 years of armed violence, the conflict, which had once started as a struggle for political rights and self-determination of a minority community, has generated new conflicts (e.g., Tamil-Muslim polarization in the Eastern province). The ongoing violence destroyed modes of coexistence between diverse and often mixed ethno-religious communities.

Besides the ethno-political dimensions of the conflict, other causes are rooted in resource utilization and land distribution in the predominantly rural areas in the North and East; the access to state-controlled assets; and (lack of) employment opportunities. An estimated 60,000 people were killed in the conflict while another 800,000 were displaced. After the conflict escalated in 1998 to 2001, a newly elected government---with the support of Norwegian facilitators---was able to enter into a ceasefire agreement with the LTTE in early 2002. The initiated peace process brought substantial relief to the population; however, the situation remained fragile due to tensions between the government and the LTTE as well as among the main Sinhalese political parties. Also, it is yet to be seen how LTTE will establish its rule in the North-Eastern parts of the country under a political settlement, especially with regard its treatment of local minorities as well as tensions among its different regional factions.

As a result of the conflict, the Batticaloa lagoon is a highly contested resource. The frontline between the two opposing parties runs along the longitudinal axis of the lagoon. Separating the lagoon's eastern shore is an area under the control of the Sri Lankan army; the western shore is part of the area under the control of the LTTE. While this spatial polarization has become slightly blurred after the 2002 ceasefire, violent incidents are still common and the political situation remains highly volatile.

In the Batticaloa case study, the sample of 16 households was selected from two villages: the Hindu village of Mavilangathurai,

which directly borders the lagoon; and the Muslim village of Iyankerny, located about 2 kilometers off the lagoon shore. The 16 households were either partly or entirely dependent on the lagoon for their income. This is where they often undertook small-scale fishing using simple fishing methods (e.g., using cast nets, gill nets, lines or fish traps).

In Batticaloa, the most severe environmental problem that increased the economic hardships is the regular flooding of the lagoon shores and large areas of the rural hinterland during the rainy season. Both villages are regularly affected by different types of floods: Mavilangathurai is mainly prone to flooding as a result of a rising water level in the lagoon while Iyankerny regularly experiences floods because of its topographical features and poor drainage system. Not only are the profits from fishing limited during the rainy season. The fishing families' material assets are also in peril during the floods, which reportedly reached up to waist level in 2003. Health risks arising from the use of stagnant, contaminated water are a severe secondary problem.

Also, the rapidly changing natural environment was identified as an issue of major concern. Fishermen see this as largely man-made; overfishing led to ecological changes in the lagoon. The identified causes and effects (unsustainable fishing methods, hydrological changes, etc.) are almost identical to those examined in the Kalametiya case study and will not be discussed in greater detail here. However, the social consequences of the environmental changes have taken on a more serious turn in Batticaloa. For example, incidences of sabotage and theft (e.g., stealing and destroying of fishing canoes and nets) were reported. Also, frequent quarrels within the villages (often involving alcohol abuse) about fishing methods were highlighted in interviews.

Several fishermen emphasized that open access to lagoon and forest resources, which was re-established after the ceasefire, has affected their economic situation in a positive way. However, both Muslim and Hindu fishermen still feel insecure when fishing and therefore remain in the near-shore waters, which to a great extent are overfished and heavily polluted. In the Muslim community, the lack of

access to alternative natural resources such as the sea and the forest were categorized as urgent in a problem-ranking exercise. Although official access restrictions had become invalid after the signing of the memorandum of understanding between opposing parties, access is sometimes controlled indirectly by the LTTE by levying specific taxes.

Despite the ceasefire, the economic repercussions of the conflict are still heavily affecting poverty dynamics in the two villages. In the in-depth interviews and problem-ranking exercises, the most severe constraints were the lack of employment opportunities and, consequently, the lack of income security and diversification. In the Muslim community, education is still seen as an important path to upward mobility despite high unemployment rates.

> *Education is very important to us. If we want to go abroad, we have to be educated. There is a school in the village that is well-equipped and has good teachers. However, poor families don't have enough money to pay for their children's education. Most parents stop sending children to school after five years. Due to this low education level, there are many other related problems in the village. For example, it is hard to get jobs if one is not educated. Then, the drop-out youth often gets on the wrong side and starts drinking, smoking and stealing. Because of that, he losses his status in the society and remains poor. (From a focus group discussion with six girls, ages 14-18, Iyankerny village).*

However, this perception, which is very common in Sri Lanka, is beginning to change. Several young men explained how they were disillusioned with higher education. In Mavilangathurai, many young men said that due to the lack of employment opportunities, fishing is still a good alternative to studying, as one can at least derive a regular–although small–income from it. Despite the complexity of the education-economy nexus, a lack of economic opportunities was unanimously perceived as a direct effect of the ethnic conflict. Before the conflict started, many residents in Iyankerny, for example, used to

rear cattle, produce buffalo curd and sell these locally and in Colombo. After the riots between Muslims and Tamils began in 1990, several families lost their cattle and access to grazing land. Also, existing marketing networks broke down, mainly due to the cessation of transport services (e.g., the railway line to Colombo). Thus, some families turned to lagoon fishing as a source of income.

In in-depth interviews, respondents explained that setting up small businesses would be a viable alternative to dependency on the labor market and natural resources. However, lack of capital impedes self-employment in the rural areas. Public financial services and credit facilities are often not accessible to rural families due to their lack of creditworthiness (no land title, no physical assets and no regular income). While some micro-credit schemes are at work, they do not reach remote communities or the extremely poor households in a particular community. Younger men expressed their dire need for basic capital so as to invest in small-scale economic activities such as retailing, vegetable gardening and sale, and animal husbandry. However, in both communities the foremost coping strategy to increasing household income is sending family members abroad to work. Almost all families that had maintained or improved their livelihood relied on the returns of one or more temporary migrant household member.

In the face of these day-to-day difficulties, many fishermen had turned to alcohol, which has become another serious impediment to the economic development of fishing communities in the Batticaloa district. A group of young men in Mavilangathurai explained why they thought alcoholism was the single most important obstacle to development in the village:

> *Alcoholism is the main problem in the village. Almost all fishermen are addicted to alcohol---even young boys. Due to such, there are quarrels in the village every day, which sometimes lead to violence. The alcoholic parents don't care about the children's education either. Because they spend so much money on alcohol,*

> *they can't manage to pay for education. They also don't have*
> *enough money left to buy nutritious food for their children.*
>
> *Fishing is a seasonal work. Sometimes, fishermen earn a*
> *lot and sometimes they don't earn anything at all. They suffer a*
> *lot during lean days and face risks to catch some fish. Thus,*
> *when they do earn some money, they take this opportunity to*
> *enjoy and relax a bit.*
>
> *Low education is another reason for alcoholism. On the*
> *other hand, alcoholism too can lead to low education levels.*
>
> *If people only try to earn more, they can improve their*
> *standard of living. Once they are a little better off, they will*
> *want to maintain their standard, which means they will also*
> *educate their children on the perils of alcoholism. (Group of*
> *five men, ages 24-28, Mavilangathurai)*

Similar patterns of support and cooperation were observed in the Muslim and the Hindu Tamil communities. In both Iyankerny and Mavilangathurai, interviews with respondents showed good relationships with family members and neighbors existed. From the informal group discussions, some distinct patterns of support were highlighted. In Iyankerny, people seemed to rely considerably on neighbors for help and in a few cases, on relatives who were located elsewhere. Often, their close relatives also struggling economically, which was seen as a reason financial assistance was difficult:

> *My brothers and sisters are as poor as I am and suffering*
> *every day. They are not in a position to help me and my family.*
> *One of my brothers is now a bit better off, but he lives far away*
> *from here. Therefore, I can't go there and get help from him. My*
> *wife's brothers and sisters are better off than my relatives,*
> *because they had gone abroad and returned. But we don't get in*
> *touch with them. They don't want anything to do with us because*
> *we are so poor. (Fisherman, age 57, Iyankerny village)*

In-depth interviews in Mavilangathurai revealed that social relations were of minor importance and often unhealthy. There were reports of regular in-fighting between families:

> *We often quarrel with our relatives over financial issues. When one family borrows money from the other and can't pay it back soon enough, disputes start. My husband often goes to my sister's house to drink toddy. When he pays for it and is even one rupee short of the due amount, she would still ask for that one rupee, too. I don't like my husband's relatives. (Housewife, age 42, Mavilangathurai village)*

As these statements show, it is not necessarily the expansion of social networks that is important but rather, the quality of the existing relationships. This issue was thoroughly discussed during sessions where respondents were asked to draw their family trees and collect people's life histories. For example, even if some families have all their relatives living in the village, the latter may not be of any help to the family if the relationship is charged with jealousy and saddled with disputes on everyday issues. In most cases, respondents themselves grew up in households where parents were economically-constrained, and poverty was inherited from one generation to the next. The inter-generational transmission (IGT) of poverty seemed to be not only dependent on a family's economic status but closely connected to caste and social status as well. In the Hindu Tamil community where most inhabitants belonged to the fishing caste, very few families managed to move away from fishing and into more lucrative economic activities. Such transformatory social processes, albeit affecting a minority only, seemed to have begun fairly recently only. They were triggered by temporary international migration and new local economic opportunities during the ceasefire.

Extending social networks to those outside the village was constrained by security concerns. Girls and young women, in particular, were prohibited to move around freely. These restrictions were heavily enforced upon young women in Iyankerny. In

Mavilangathurai, the lack of transport was the major obstacle to establishing relationships with those outside the village:

> If we want to take up private school classes, we have to travel for four hours for a one-hour class because there is no bus service to our village. If a public vehicle is late, breaks down or gets stuck in an accident, we miss the classes. But what can we do? (Girl, age 18, Mavilangathurai village)

Both Iyankerny and Mavilangathurai seemed to be highly politicized territories. Political matters were regarded as having repercussions on the people's livelihood and aspirations in many different ways. In Iyankerny, for example, party politics was the single most debated issue. In some instances, it also had negative effects on family unity. Frequently, political dissent led to violent clashes in the community. Some murders were reported in Iyankerny due to these political clashes. Political violence normally occurs during election time, when it poses a threat to social cohesion as well as adversely affects livelihood security.

> The people in the village support different parties and often squabble about these. Sometimes, the fishermen fight in the lagoon over party affiliation. Some then don't go out to fish anymore because they are afraid to get involved in the quarrel. With no income from fishing, they then had to borrow money from others. (Housewife, Iyankerny village)

Discrimination due to party affiliation was identified as another major factor affecting poverty dynamics in both villages. Having the "right" political contacts was perceived to be a way to access government grants such as housing schemes and flood relief. While some people tried to avoid party politics altogether by keeping a low political profile, those who were outspoken about their political affiliation had to find a way to cope with the impact of their political party preferences.

> *I was discriminated against for supporting a certain political party. Earlier, I was promised a house through government grants, but because I belong to the wrong party, I did not receive the grant. It was only when I sent one of my daughters to work abroad that we were able to build a house. (Housewife, Iyankerny village).*

Apart from direct political discrimination, respondents in both communities said they suffered greatly from the social and political gap the conflict left in the region. As a direct consequence of the conflict, the ethnic/religious communities (i.e., Hindu and Muslim) had become highly segregated both in spatial and economic terms. There was little interaction between both groups, and fears of being harassed by the militant groups as well as the Sri Lankan army were widespread. Trust between these groups was low, and economic partnership outside Batticaloa was limited. This hindered the livelihood opportunities of the rural population.

It is not surprising then that the first and foremost request of the people in both communities was for the peace process to proceed, and that armed conflict be avoided. While members of both the Tamil and the Muslim communities expressed their willingness to reconcile with other ethnic groups, they were highly concerned with the top-level political developments, over which they had no influence.

> *We are enjoying the freedom we have gained through the peace process. But because I think the Sri Lankan president will never give the interim administration to the LTTE, it will definitely lead to another war. If the war starts again, we will have to leave the village. We will flee to the LTTE-controlled area and come back when things are better. That will take a long time, though. (Young man, Mavilangathurai village).*

Comparing the Kalametiya and Batticaloa experiences

In these case studies, common factors affecting local poverty dynamics in both communities have been identified. Alcoholism, for example,

was seen to hinder families in both Kalametiya and Batticaloa from moving out of poverty. Also, environmental change was mentioned by fishermen in both locations as an issue. These changes were mainly attributed to human interference (i.e., the construction of infrastructure, overfishing and pollution). To cope, people realized that livelihood diversification is a way to reduce the risk of income failure due to seasonal or otherwise recurring environmental changes. In both case studies, upward social mobility was mainly achieved by adding an income earner to the family. In most cases, these were those who worked outside the resource-based livelihood sector or overseas.

Family networks, therefore, proved to be an effective means in improving livelihood. Meanwhile, those who remained poor were found to lack either a strong or extended social network where they could derive economic aid and other benefits.

There were also differences in the factors affecting poverty. Foremost was the local political conflict situation in the two case studies. In Kalametiya, the last incidence of violent conflict was in the early 1990s. Since then, community life has been characterized by an over-all state of (formal) peace, where people pursue their normal economic and social activities and community organizations are able to operate. Despite the formal settlement of the conflicts more than a decade ago, village politics is still highly volatile. For instance, political parties divide the community and even institutionalized patronage and discrimination, both of which have negative economic impact. The economic dimension of political discrimination often oppress poorer individuals, who are denied subsidies or benefits due them because of their political affiliations.

In Batticaloa's case, on the other hand, the two-decade long conflict is still omnipresent in community life despite the two-year ceasefire. The constant threat of conflict and its repercussions such as economic downturn and spatial segregation along ethnic and religious lines has greatly altered livelihoods, livelihood strategies and, thus, poverty dynamics. Access restrictions and political violence

between the militant groups diminished mobility and economic interaction.

Social networks are one major avenue to diversify a family's income. Those households who had experienced deteriorating poverty dynamics often lacked large social networks or had relatives that were equally deprived. During the war, all families in the sample experienced a downward economic trend. Not all households were also able to benefit from the structural improvements that the ceasefire brought. Increasing competition in lagoon fishing, for example, began to weaken the resource-based income opportunities in the villages, with serious implications on the environment's sustainability.

In both case studies, socio-cultural and political aspects greatly affect rural livelihood. The constant social and political interaction of different stakeholders determines local poverty dynamics in times of both peace and war. Affiliation to (politically or economically) powerful groups or networks is a major asset that can be tapped to improve or maintain a livelihood. Social cohesion within a village is often eroded by factors that are disadvantageous to one group. However, in an atmosphere of high conflict, these social and political factors may seriously impinge on development efforts undertaken by community members or outsiders (NGOs, international donors, etc.).

Conclusion: Benefits of qualitative CBPM

As the case studies have shown, qualitative research techniques can improve the understanding of social processes that affect poverty, especially on the question of conflict and social integration. Where quantitative methods often lack the ability and flexibility to adapt the research process to the social, political or cultural nuances of the setting, qualitative techniques complement. The case studies also demonstrate how the dynamics of interdependent factors (sometimes common or exceptional) influence poverty dynamics.

Themes that are difficult to cover in a quantitative survey such as social integration or hidden conflict, family relations, social networks, political dimensions of marginalization require in-depth qualitative

study if the core issues relevant to those themes are to be revealed. Furthermore, the emphasis that respondents put on specific social phenomena (such as alcoholism as a key inhibiting factor to upward economic mobility) can be given adequate room for analysis in the problem-ranking exercises and individual in-depth interviews.

References

Baulch, B. (1996). "Editorial - The New Poverty Agency: A Disputed Consensus." *IDS Bulletin* 27 (1): 1-10.

Bohle, H. G. (2001). "Vulnerability and Criticality: Perspectives from Social Geography." *IHDP Update - Newsletter of the International Human Dimensions Programme on Global Environmental Change.*

Chambers, R. (1989). "Vulnerability, Coping and Policy." *IDS Bulletin* 20 (2): 1-7.

Chambers, R. (1995). "Poverty and Livelihoods: Whose Reality Counts?" *Environment and Urbanization* 7 (1): 173-204.

Department for International Development (1999). "Sustainable Livelihoods Guidance Sheets." http://www.livelihoods.org/info/info_guidancesheets.html, accessed 15.05.04.

Department of Census and Statistics (2003). *Poverty Indicators. Household Income and Expenditure Survey 2002.* Colombo: Department of Census and Statistics.

Devereux, S. (2003). "Conceptualising Destitution." IDS Working Paper No. 216. Sussex: Institute of Development Studies.

Dreze, J. and Sen, A. (1996). *India: Economic Development and Social Opportunity.* New Delhi.

Friedmann, J. (1992). *Empowerment: The Politics of Alternative Development.* Cambridge/ Oxford.

Johnston, R. J., Taylor, P. J. and Watts, M. (ed.) (1995). *Geographies of Global Change: Re-mapping the World in the Late Twentieth Century.* Oxford, Cambridge (Mass.): Blackwell.

Hulme, D. and Shepherd, A. (2003). "Conceptualising Chronic Poverty." *World Development* 31 (3): 403-423.

Krishna, A. (2004). "Escaping Poverty and Becoming Poor: Who Gains, Who Loses, and Why?" *World Development* 32 (1): 121-136.

Mayer, M. (2000). "Life Opportunities and Youth Conflict in Sri Lanka: Challenges for Regional Development Planning." In: Hettige, S.T. and Mayer, M. *Sri Lanka at Crossroads: Dilemmas and Prospects After 50 Years of Independence.* Macmillan India, New Delhi.

Mayer, M. (2002). *Empowering Youth: An Approach from Southern Sri Lanka*. In: VISTAS/ The Journal of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Science. Open University, Colombo.

Mayer, M. et al. (2003). *Assessing Conflict Risks in Southern Sri Lanka. An Exploratory Study on Conflict Potentials in the Hambantota District and the Applicability of PCIA Tools for Project Impact Analysis*. GTZ Sri Lanka, Colombo.

Mayer, M. and Salih, M. (2003). "Poverty Alleviation and Conflict Transformation: The Case of Youth Integration in Jaffna, Sri Lanka." In Mayer, M.D., Rajasingham-Senanayake, Y. Thangarajah (eds.)'s *Building Local Capacities for Peace: Rethinking Conflict and Development in Sri Lanka*. Macmillan India, New Delhi.

Reyes, C. M. (2003). "A Study on Chronic and Transient Poverty." MIMAP Philippines Research Paper No. 58. Ottawa: International Development Research Centre.

Sen, A. (2000). *Development as Freedom*. New York: Anchor Books.

Senaratna Sellamuttu, S. and A. Clemett (2003). "Avoiding Conflict between Fishers and Farmers: A Study of Potential Social Conflict Over Scarce Water Resources in Kalametiya." Fourth International Symposium on Poverty Research in Sri Lanka, Colombo. Organized by the Centre for Poverty Analysis (CEPA), Improving Capacities for Poverty & Social Policy Research Program (IMCAP), and the Association for the Advancement of Science (SLAAS).

United Nations Development Programme (2000). *Human Development Report 2000*. New York.

Watts, M. J. (2000). "Development at the Millennium: Malthus, Marx and the Politics of Alternatives." *Geographische Zeitschrift* 88 (2): 67-93.

Poverty Monitoring System in Burkina Faso: The Case of Yako Division in the Passore Province

· ·

Lassina Konate, Prosper Somda and Michel Kone

Introduction

Poverty is a phenomenon that exists at different levels of every society. It manifests itself in greater and disturbing proportions in developing countries, notably, in most African and Latin American countries, as well as a few Asian countries. According to M. Ravaillon, "poverty exists in a society when the welfare of one or several persons does not reach a level considered as a reasonable minimum according to the criteria of that same society," but poverty has increasingly called on non-material considerations such as the social and cultural aspects as well.

Ways have therefore been sought to improve the living conditions of the greatest possible number of people. International institutions and organizations have been working, with some success, to reduce poverty in countries where it is more acute.

In Burkina Faso, the population remains extremely poor despite the significant economic and social progress, as attested by the government's priority surveys in 1994 and 1998. Based on the study on its the poverty line, which was estimated at 72,690 CFAF in 1998 (versus 41,099 CFAF in 1994), the poor registered a slight

increase---moving from 44.5 percent in 1994 to 45.3 percent in 1998. While poverty declined slightly in rural areas, it has spread widely in urban areas. Annual per-capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) stands at about US$ 220. In 1999, the country's Human Development Indicator (HDI) was about 0.320.

According to the United Nations Development Program's (UNDP's) durable human development index for year 2001, Burkina Faso occupies the 159th rank. As a basically agricultural country, Burkina Faso has poverty indicators that have remained very high despite the adoption of structural adjustment programs as far back as 1991. In this regard, the government has developed a Strategic Framework for the Fight against Poverty (SFFP), which prioritizes rural development, given the rural areas' large number of poor people and the potential for medium-term economic growth.

This research on participative Poverty Monitoring Systems (PMS) fits into the support process for the fight against poverty.

The research issue
A consortium involving the Center for Studies, Documentation, and Economic and Social Research (CSDESR), the National Institute of Statistics and Demography (NISD) and the Center for Studies and International Cooperation (CSIC) carried out a pilot research project from 1997 to 1999 in Burkina Faso. This research follows the example of some Asian countries and works within the context of the Micro Impact of Macroeconomic and Adjustment Policies (MIMAP) research program of the International Development Research Center (IDRC). It aims to verify the feasibility of a participative poverty monitoring system (PMS) by identifying relevant poverty indicators. The first phase of this study (1997-1999) focused on the design of a research methodology.

Results from the first phase verified some aspects of the feasibility of PMS for Burkina Faso. Moreover, it was necessary to adjust the PMS by focusing on its original clients, anchoring its administrative position and revising its methodology, especially on data gathering.

The rest of PMS's feasibility still needed to be verified. In this regard, it was necessary to operationalize the PMS. Thus, by introducing it into an entire administrative entity such as a division, it can complete methods used in evaluating the impact of development policies on the poorest and most vulnerable populations.

Therefore, the CSIC, an organization that has a research center in Quebec specializing in the measurement and analysis of poverty, decided to pool its expertise together with CSDERSR and NISD and present a proposal for the PMS's second phase (2000-2003).

Phase II aims to transform the PMS into a tool that the local population can use for planning and managing their own welfare, and for making decisions on how to improve their living conditions. In other words, the over-all objective is to implement a participative research action involving the population. Even if the local population is singled out as the original PMS clients, the research can also help identify a small number of poverty indicators useful in comparing one community with another. Here, the PMS also serves as a monitoring-evaluation instrument for policies and programs against poverty.

The guiding principle for PMS phase II is to promote a community-based poverty monitoring system that can be generalized for the whole country. Thus, this project covers all villages of a given administrative entity and studies how PMS is feasible in monitoring the local, regional and national efforts against poverty.

Methodology: A plan for establishing a poverty monitoring system (PMS)

The PMS, now called the Community-Based Monitoring System (CBMS) as developed by the MIMAP network, can be described by the following constitutive elements:

Identification of the area where the system is to be introduced

Since PMS is an instrument that should monitor the poverty level of a given population, it is advisable to chose an area or a locality recognized

as poor, with further emphasis on poor households or the most disadvantaged groups.

Contact: Meeting the population of the locality

Once the area for the study is identified, PMS initiators should contact the local, traditional and administrative officials, and the population itself to know more about the social environment of the area. This encounter should enable all actors of the community's life to be aware of the PMS, including its objectives, the way it operates, its advantages and drawbacks. It is advisable to stress right from the start that the PMS does not operate as a classical assistance or aid scheme; instead, it is an instrument that can facilitate the search for the means likely to stimulate development.

Development of poverty monitoring indicators

This step is more important because it serves to develop the indicators that determine how the questionnaires are designed. Indicators must be validated through a pre-test. They are divided into two groups: The first are the light and simple indicators whose results survey researchers and supervisors can process and analyze easily. The second group comprises the so-called heavy or complex indicators, which are difficult to work out manually. The data gathered from the questions resulting from these indicators must be processed in a computer.

Designing household and community questionnaires

The questionnaire, designed based on identified indicators, consists of two series: the household questionnaire and the community questionnaire. The household questionnaire contains questions for the head and members of the household. It aims to gather relevant data on individuals and life of a household, including its state of poverty or welfare. It is administered by a survey researcher.

The community questionnaire, as its name indicates, is addressed to the smallest local administrative unit (the village or sector). It aims to collect relevant information on the life and socio-economic position

of the local community. The latter is represented by a focus group whose 10 or so members are chosen by the community itself. The community questionnaire is a guide for the focus group debate.

Production of manuals for the survey and count

To facilitate the work of survey researchers and supervisors, it is necessary to produce a document providing all the information on the stages of the survey, the researcher's behavior in the field and the attitude he should adopt toward the population surveyed. In sum, the document includes the behavioral rules in carrying out a good survey.

Moreover, the survey researcher's manual or guide provides precise directives and explanations on the content of the questionnaire. All the questions and concepts are clearly explained in it. Given its importance in the survey process, no researcher or supervisor should go in the field without this manual or guide.

Finally, a guide manual on how to count/tally results is given to each supervisor.

Training survey researchers and supervisors

Once survey researchers and supervisors are recruited, they are trained based on the researcher's manual. The training may last two or three days depending on the candidates' general level of comprehension. Training is done in two phases:

- The **first phase** consists of explaining basic concepts and, above all, making sure that candidates understand them. All questions are analyzed in detail and reviewed; if necessary, they are translated into the local languages. Role playing is organized to help each candidate simulate survey situations. This allows the trainer to have some indication on the behavior, expression and delivery of the budding survey researcher when he faces the actual sample group to be surveyed. It should be noted that role playing may also take place in a real situation among household respondents.

- The **second phase** consists of a class test at the end of the training period. Here, the number of best candidates retained depends on the number of candidates needed for the survey.

Data are collected by survey researchers under the supervision of controllers during the year judged as relevant for information gathering. Depending on the variability of the indicators, survey researchers pay households a visit during the year or for a given period to collect data. The frequency or periodicity of data collection is therefore a function of the variability of the indicator.

This step is very important in the system since data collected at regular and frequent periods allow researchers to compare and better monitor the evolution of indicators in space and time.

In effect, if the data is available for two periods, the direction of the evolution of poverty can be deduced. This detects whether poverty is declining or rising with the population.

Selection of survey researchers and supervisors

Survey researchers and supervisors must be members of the local community and chosen by the community itself. The needed qualifications are:

- Integrity;
- Good knowledge of the survey area;
- Accepted by the population;
- With sufficiently high educational level to understand the questionnaires to be administered to the population; and
- Easily gets along with people.

Administration of questionnaires

The household questionnaire is administered by a survey researcher to each household head with assistance, if possible, from all his/her members. There are instances where some questions will need to be answered by these other household members. On the other hand, the

community questionnaire is administered by a supervisor to the focus group of the locality.

Data processing

The data gathered by survey researchers and verified by supervisors are processed at two levels. Data on light indicators are processed manually in the field and returned to the population whereas the data derived from so-called heavy or complex indicators are processed with computers by PMS researchers or any other structure which can be put in place for that purpose. An outline of the process is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Levels at Which the Data Collected is Processed

Level	Persons in charge	Tasks	Instruments
Village	Supervisory team at the local level: PMS monitoring committed	Data aggregation at the village level	- Questionnaires - pocket calculators for first synthesis on index cards - index cards for synthesis - village registers
Divisional	Divisional PMS Committee	Data aggregation at the divisional level	Synthetic index cards filled out at the divisional level
Provincial	PMS Monitoring Committee	Data aggregation at the provincial level	Synthetic index cards at the provincial level
National	- Technical cell of Regional Department of the Economy and Planning	Data aggregation at the regional level - Poverty profile at the level of the economic region	Regional instrument for monitoring poverty - Computerized data processing system
	NISDPMS team of analysts	Data aggregation at the national level	- Comparative poverty profile at the divisional, provincial and national levels.

Data restitution

Two types of restitutions are made in the PMS approach. The first restitution is made in the locality first to village development committees (VCDs) and then to the population by supervisors and survey researchers as soon as the information gathered on the light (simple) indicators is processed manually. This enables local decision-makers to use the first-hand information in their problem-solving process.

The second type of restitution is made at the division's level, where administrative officials and local development committees will be gathered. All data derived from manual processing and those processed using computers will be returned to the said level. Data restitution will also take into account the analyses carried out by the PMS team that had produced the data at the local level and aggregated them at the division's level. The ensuing presentation will compare outcomes between localities as well as with the division.

Use of the data

Data or information collected through questionnaires is used to establish the poverty profile and to monitor the evolution of the economic conditions (i.e., poverty, welfare) of individuals and households.

These data must be reported at a high geopolitical level for immediate action so as to address the welfare deficit among vulnerable groups and to call on macro-economic planners to influence development programs.

Community-based animation (Organization of community activity)

The organization of local activities is an essential step in the PMS. Such activities can increase the population and officials' awareness on the project and secure their cooperation. The community-based animation stimulates the population to organize itself, to learn how to identify its problems and to take command of its own socio-economic development and welfare improvement.

Moreover, animating the community leads to the establishment of local structures for socio-economic management such as the VDC or the local village Committee for Monitoring Poverty.

Preservation of the survey materials, archives and databases
All materials used in the survey belong to the local community. Therefore, it must be kept in a totally safe place designated by the community management's committee. The collected and processed data may be entered into a registry or any other information database on the locality where those interested may consult at leisure. The structure of the poverty monitoring system is hierarchical, beginning with the local community and rising to the highest administrative hierarchy. In the case of Burkina Faso, this hierarchy goes from the village or sector, to the province by passing through the division. Thus, the information derived from data at the local level (village or sector) should be directed up the geopolitical level. Decisions or solutions to problems made at higher levels of administration should go down to the local community through the same hierarchical channel. Data will be aggregated according to their geopolitical hierarchy.

The role of village or local development committees
The village or local development committee is set up by the local community. Its members are chosen based on their influence in the locality, probity, knowledge of the area and interest in local development. As a development organization, this committee may initiate any actions toward improving the poverty level of the community based on the data gathered by the PMS.

Implementation of the PMS approach in the Yako Division
The over-all objective of the PMS is to empower local communities, determine the many facets of poverty so as to ensure a regular and efficient monitoring, undertake actions to improve the community's situation and contribute to the efficiency of policies and programs against poverty.

The specific objectives of the PMS, among others, are:
- To describe an appropriate methodology that is adapted to the realities and capacities of the population; and
- To describe the different facets of poverty in the Yako Division through indicators on households as well as on local communities.

Introducting the PMS to the community requires carrying out information, education and communication (IEC) campaigns that explain the importance of enhancing capacities at their level. As a starting point, the diagnosis of communities' existing capacities helps them zero in on their areas for improvement. Through a participative process, members of the VCD are selected. Where local authorities are already in place, the strategy calls for enlisting them as long as they meet the criteria.

The whole process also requires an exhaustive census of households for each of the 39 villages and sectors of Yako City.

Phase II of the PMS aims to cover a significant number of villages almost the size of Yako Division. A pilot survey covering five villages and one sector of the Yako City was undertaken.

For the general survey, the originally 72 indicators were reduced to the current 39, of which 24 were light or simple indicators. Household and community questionnaires were also revised so as to reduce the time involved in their administration while still preserving the quality of their output.

The survey was carried out from May 2003 to July 2003. The 39 villages of the Yako Division and seven sectors of Yako City involved 8,454 households. Survey researchers were selected by the villagers themselves to gather information in the field whereas controllers supervised the survey and survey researchers, and made counter-surveys. The central team made surprise community inspections in the fields to carry out controls. Community questionnaires were discussed in each locality via a focus group.

Data counting was carried out at two levels: the first level requires

controllers to manually count data from light indicators from an index card. This procedure follows the MIMAP approach, where so-called light indicators are processed by the local population for its own consumption. The second level was also carried out by the MIMAP team using the SPSS software package.

Survey results

The survey focused on demography, food security, health and hygiene, education and the living conditions based on material possesions.

The analysis of these areas will be based on the survey on select indicators. Data are available for each village/sector. For practical reasons, however, these are not analyzed by locality.

Demographic characteristics

Table 2 shows the number demographic characteristics of the survey site. It also features the number of individuals per village and indicates inter-village variability. Villages are of average sizes; no locality has more than 4,000 persons. The most densely populated villages are Songnaba with 3,979 persons (473 households); Moutoulou with 3,463 persons (350 households); and Petit Samba with 3,330 persons (355 households). In contrast, four villages are least populated (less than 500 persons). These are Gobila (217 persons), Ouekiougo (395 persons), Napa (415 persons) and Soa (468 persons).

Apart from the villages of Ouekiougo (where 50.4% are men), Nobegyan (50.3%) and Sector 4 (50.1%), other localities have a predominantly female population representing 52.7 percent of the population of the Yako Division. Some localities reveal a marked deficit in men. These are Gobila (41.0%), Tanguin (43.0%) and Ragounda (43.2%).

Households are basically headed by men (84.5%). It should be noted, however, that women who manage households are mostly in urban areas, where there are higher than average rates. In particular, Sector 1 of Yako City has 35.8 percent of its households headed by women.

Table 2. Demographic Data of the PMS Survey in the Yako Division

Village/sector	Total	Sex of Individuals %		Sex of Household Head (%)			Household Size		
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Number of Households	Male	Female	Total
Baskare	736	45.2	54.8	87.0	13.0	54	15.4	1.6	13.6
Bouboulou	2,992	46.5	53.5	90.4	9.6	311	10.2	4.5	9.7
Boulma	2,201	46.0	54.0	98.2	1.8	171	13.1	3.3	12.9
Boura	874	46.9	53.1	82.8	17.2	87	11.2	4.7	10.0
Bouria	2,181	46.6	53.4	93.2	6.8	207	10.9	6.5	10.5
Doure	1,705	45.1	54.9	85.3	14.7	184	10.2	4.1	9.3
Gandado	1,039	48.1	51.9	82.3	17.7	113	10.4	3.4	9.2
Gobila	217	41.0	59.0	78.4	21.6	37	6.7	2.9	5.9
Golo	798	48.0	52.0	96.1	3.9	76	10.6	7.3	10.5
Gonsin	801	46.7	53.3	97.5	2.5	81	10.1	2.5	9.9
Goungha	1,137	45.8	54.2	77.7	22.3	139	10.0	1.9	8.2
Kabo	2,446	46.3	53.7	83.1	16.9	295	9.3	3.9	8.3
Kèo	618	47.9	52.1	71.6	28.4	74	11.1	1.4	8.4
Koalla	1,330	48.0	52.0	88.8	11.2	134	10.7	3.6	9.9
Koaltanghin	2,078	47.1	52.9	89.8	10.2	235	9.4	3.9	8.9
Kolbila	1,705	49.3	50.7	87.5	12.5	144	13.1	3.6	12.0
Lilbouré	1,678	46.9	53.1	84.3	15.7	198	9.3	3.9	8.5
Moutoulou	3,462	46.5	53.5	90.3	9.7	350	10.6	3.4	9.9
Nabegyan	694	50.3	49.7	75.9	24.1	87	9.4	3.9	8.1
Nagsene	1,245	44.6	55.4	100.0		95	13.1		13.1
Napan	415	45.3	54.7	89.8	10.2	49	9.0	4.0	8.5
Noussou	1,043	48.1	51.9	88.1	11.9	101	11.4	2.1	10.3
Ouaille	992	47.8	52.2	84.5	15.5	103	10.7	3.8	9.6
Ouedkiougo	395	50.4	49.6	84.9	15.1	53	8.3	2.6	7.5
Pelegtenga	1,637	48.2	51.8	94.6	5.4	149	11.2	7.1	11.0
Petit Samba	3,330	47.1	52.9	87.0	13.0	353	10.1	5.0	9.4
Ragounda	549	43.2	56.8	82.4	17.6	51	12.0	5.1	10.8
Rallo	1,817	47.0	53.0	92.8	7.2	167	11.5	3.4	10.9
Roumtenga	2,184	48.9	51.1	83.6	16.4	269	9.0	3.4	8.1
Sabo	642	44.2	55.8	96.4	3.6	55	11.9	5.0	11.7
Saria	1,002	48.5	51.5	55.4	44.6	213	5.5	3.7	4.7
Sassa	1,624	47.7	52.3	86.6	13.4	157	11.4	3.6	10.3
Soa	468	44.9	55.1	75.4	24.6	57	10.2	2.1	8.2
Songnaba	3,979	47.3	52.7	85.0	15.0	473	9.2	3.9	8.4
Tanguin	859	43.0	57.0	92.4	7.6	79	11.4	4.8	10.9
Taonsgo	995	47.7	52.3	82.6	17.4	138	7.9	3.8	7.2
Tibin	1,674	47.6	52.4	90.7	9.3	172	10.4	3.5	9.7
Tindila	1,611	49.0	51.0	87.0	13.0	207	8.3	4.4	7.8
Zizon	1,293	46.8	53.2	91.2	8.8	137	10.0	3.9	9.4
sect.1(Yako)	1,583	46.1	53.9	64.2	35.8	265	6.6	4.9	6.0
Sect2 (Yako)	2,399	47.9	52.1	80.4	19.6	286	9.2	4.9	8.4
Sect3 (Yako)	2,269	49.7	50.3	79.2	20.8	390	6.2	4.4	5.8
Sect4 (Yako)	2,687	50.1	49.9	76.8	23.2	367	8.0	5.0	7.3
Sect5 (Yako)	3,016	47.6	52.4	84.0	16.0	501	6.4	3.8	6.0
Sect6 (Yako)	3,206	46.8	53.2	82.2	17.8	405	8.8	4.0	7.9
Sect7 (Yako)	1,684	48.0	52.0	90.8	9.2	185	9.7	3.6	9.1
Total	**73,290**	**47.3**	**52.7**	**84.5**	**15.5**	**8,454**	**9.5**	**4.0**	**8.7**

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

The household size in the Yako Division stands at nine individuals per household. Large-size households basically reside in rural areas. Nagsene, for instance, has the largest household size (13 persons). In contrast, except for Yako City's Sector 7, other sectors have households with sizes well below the average. In general, the size of households in rural areas is bigger than those in urban areas. This may be due to mutation factors linked to urbanization.

Furthermore, regardless of the area type, households headed by women are smaller. At the division's level, these households have four individuals on average versus 10 individuals in households headed by men. This preference for smaller-size households among women could be because they are aware of the responsibility involved in managing the risks faced by households with large sizes.

The extreme youthfulness of the population is apparent in Table 3. In effect, 49.5 percent of the population is less than 15 years old age. Moreover, individuals less than five years old constitute the most vulnerable group and represent 19.3 percent of the population.

From this standpoint, villages such as Kéo (22.5%), Baskaré (23.2%), Kolbila (22.9%), Goungha (23.0%) and Nagsane (23.6%) ought to be considered as vulnerable, given the higher risk factor for children. In particular, a number of localities have more than half (or 50%) of their population comprising of those younger than 15 years old. These localities are Rallo (65.3%), Kolbila (54.4%), Baskaré (53.5%), Kéo (52.1%), Noussou (52.7%), Lylbouré (52.5%), Bouria (52.1%) and Gandado (52.4%).

In terms of dependency at the division's level, 57.8 percent are considered a burden to others. Such dependency is more pronounced in rural localities. Places such as Rallo (63.2%), Lilbouré (62.2%) or Gandado (61.6%) have more than 60 percent of the population dependent on others.

One striking demographic characteristic of Yako Division in 2003 is that 15 percent of households were managed by women. Other salient characteristics of this population are the following:

Table 3. Distribution of the Population According to Age Group and Village of Residence

Village/sector	Less than 5 Years	6 to 15 Years	16 to 25 Years	26 to 35 Years	36 to 45 Years	46 to 65 Years	More than 55 Years	Proportion of Dependent Population
Baskarè	23.2	30.3	17.5	9.9	8.3	3.7	7.1	60.6
Bouboulou	19.8	28.0	19.7	9.4	7.1	6.6	9.4	57.3
Boulma	17.1	31.0	20.0	11.2	8.1	5.1	7.5	55.6
Boura	21.5	30.2	18.3	11.6	6.3	4.8	7.3	59.0
Bouria	20.6	31.5	17.7	11.7	7.4	4.8	6.2	58.3
Doure	20.8	30.1	16.4	9.6	8.2	6.7	8.2	59.1
Gandado	19.1	33.3	16.9	9.0	7.0	5.4	9.2	61.6
Gobila	24.0	21.7	13.4	9.7	11.1	5.1	15.2	60.8
Golo	20.3	26.6	21.8	11.0	6.9	5.6	7.8	54.6
Gonsin	16.9	30.3	18.6	11.2	8.0	5.0	10.0	57.2
Goungha	23.0	29.3	17.2	10.0	8.4	4.5	7.6	59.9
Kabo	17.0	31.9	18.3	9.6	7.0	6.4	9.8	58.7
Kéo	22.5	29.6	16.3	10.0	8.1	5.3	8.1	60.2
Koalla	18.8	30.5	19.0	10.0	8.9	5.1	7.7	56.9
Koaltanghin	20.3	30.1	15.2	11.8	9.1	4.9	8.7	59.0
Kolbila	22.9	31.4	18.4	10.3	8.7	3.2	5.2	59.5
Lilbouré	19.0	33.6	15.1	9.7	7.2	5.9	9.7	62.2
Moutoulou	19.9	31.8	16.6	9.5	8.0	5.6	8.5	60.3
Nabegyan	19.3	31.1	18.3	8.4	9.1	6.3	7.5	57.9
Nagsene	23.6	25.5	17.3	13.0	7.7	5.1	7.7	56.8
Napan	21.7	26.7	15.7	10.4	7.5	7.7	10.4	58.8
Noussou	20.4	32.3	18.0	9.1	8.2	4.0	7.9	60.6
Ouaille	22.5	28.5	18.5	9.1	7.2	4.8	9.4	60.4
Ouedkiougo	17.0	25.1	19.2	11.4	6.3	8.1	12.9	54.9
Pelegtenga	22.9	26.9	18.8	11.9	7.5	5.4	6.7	56.4
Petit Samba	21.1	29.8	18.3	10.2	7.1	5.3	8.3	59.1
Ragounda	20.4	27.5	20.6	6.9	6.4	8.7	9.5	57.4
Rallo	22.4	32.8	16.5	8.4	6.9	5.0	7.9	63.2
Roumtenga	17.1	28.7	19.2	10.4	7.7	6.4	10.5	56.3
Sabo	20.9	30.4	15.4	11.2	6.7	6.5	8.9	60.1
Saria	19.6	28.3	18.4	11.9	7.4	5.9	8.6	56.5
Sassa	19.0	32.2	16.3	9.9	8.3	5.8	8.5	59.7
Soa	18.6	30.8	19.9	9.2	6.4	4.5	10.7	60.0
Songnaba	18.5	31.5	16.9	10.5	6.8	5.7	10.2	60.1
Tanguin	21.8	29.2	16.4	10.6	7.3	5.9	8.7	59.7
Taonsgo	18.6	30.1	18.4	10.1	6.0	5.5	11.4	60.0
Tibin	19.6	30.3	18.3	10.8	7.6	5.7	7.6	57.5
Tindila	18.7	32.4	16.8	10.7	8.1	5.1	8.2	59.3
Zizon	17.3	33.7	18.8	8.8	7.5	5.0	8.8	59.9
Sect.1(Yako)	13.1	29.8	24.2	12.1	7.2	6.1	7.6	50.5
Sect2 (Yako)	16.2	29.9	22.6	10.4	7.2	6.0	7.7	53.8
Sect3 (Yako)	15.5	28.0	24.0	13.3	7.8	4.5	7.0	50.4
Sect4 (Yako)	15.7	28.8	24.1	11.1	6.7	5.2	8.3	52.8
Sect5 (Yako)	18.3	30.2	22.6	11.4	7.5	4.3	5.5	54.1
Sect6 (Yako)	18.5	29.9	18.5	10.7	7.6	5.1	9.6	58.1
Sect7 (Yako)	21.0	29.3	19.9	9.4	8.1	5.2	7.2	57.5
Total	**19.3**	**30.2**	**18.8**	**10.5**	**7.5**	**5.4**	**8.4**	**57.8**

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

- *An extremely young population:* Around 49.3 percent of the population is aged less than or equal to 15 years. In particular, children less than five years old make up 19.3 percent of the population. This implies a great need for significant investment in social infrastructure, notably on health and education.
- *Large household size and high proportion of dependents:* This implies the need to manage numerous risks and consequently, the significant sources of vulnerability. However, since households managed by women have smaller sizes than those managed by men, the former are less vulnerable.

Health and hygiene

Health is a basic element in an individual and society's welfare. A survey evaluates the population's state of morbidity, the households' capacity to identify and prevent the major risks linked to health and their access to adequate healthcare services. This evaluation will be made at the level of each village and sector of the division through indicators selected for that purpose.

Inventory of healthcare infrastructure

The Health and Social Promotion Center (HSPC) is the first resort of the sick. If the case is beyond the competence of the HSPC once the diagnosis is made, the patient is referred to the Medical Center. The latter, in turn, refers the patient to the Regional Hospital Center (RHC), which transfers him/her to the National Hospital Center (NCH), if necessary. The NHC is at the top of the healthcare pyramid in Burkina Faso.

Table 4 shows very few healthcare infrastructure existing in the Yako Division. In 39 villages and seven sectors, the survey found only 11 HSPCs, and almost as many outlets for the supply of pharmaceutical products. Maternity clinics usually accompany HSPCs. Given the lack of healthcare infrastructure in a large number of villages, the population is forced to travel great distances to access healthcare

Table 4. Health Care Infrastructure and the Range of Coverage

Village sector	HSPCs Number	Pharmacy	Maternity	Nurses	Midwives	Traditional Midwives	Distance from HSPC	Distance from Pharmacy	Distance from Maternity
Baskaré							5	5	5
Bouboulou				1		1	7	7	7
Boulma	1	1	1	1			0	0	0
Boura							5	5	5
Bouria	1		1	1		1	0	13	0
Douré				1		1	4	4	4
Gandado				1		1	2	2	2
Golio							5	5	5
Golula				1	1	1	5	5	5
Gonsin				1	1	1	8	8	9
Goungha				1		1	7	7	7
Kabo				1		1	4	4	4
Kéo				1			7	7	7
Koalla				1		1	5	5	5
Koaltanghin				1		1	10	10	10
Kolbila				1			10	10	10
Lilbouré			1			1	8	8	8
Moutoulou							5	5	5
Nagsene				1		1	3	3	3
Nabegyan		1					6	6	6
Napan				1		1	12	12	12
Noussou				1		1	4	4	4
Ouaillé				1			2	2	2
Ouedkiougo				1	1	1	7	7	7
Peigtanga	1	1	1	1		1	0	0	0
Petit Samba	1	1	1	1		1	0	0	0
Ragounda				1			4	4	4
Rallo							5	5	5
Roumtenga	1	1	1	1			0	0	0
Sabo				1		1	5	5	5
Saria				1			4	4	4
Sassa				1		1	3	3	3
Soa				1		1	6	6	6
Song-Naba	1	1	1	1		1	0	0	0
Tanghin				1	1		7	7	7
Taonsgo				1		1	5	5	5
Tibin	1	1	1	1			0	0	0
Tindilla	1	1	1	1		1	0	0	0
Zizon				1		1	1	1	1
Secteur1/Yako		1					2	0	2
Secteur2/Yako	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
Secteur3/Yako		1		1	1	1	2	0	2
Secteur4/Yako	1	1		1	1	1	0	0	3
Secteur5/Yako	1			1	1	1	0	5	5
Secteur6/Yako			1	1		1	2	2	0
Secteur7/Yako				1	1	1	5	5	5
Total	11	12	11	38	9	30			

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

services. To compensate for the lack of infastructure, proximity health services, which can be brought in through the presence of specialists (i.e., itinerant nurses, traditional midwives) appear to be one way to address this deficit.

It can also be noted that a large number of villages are located more than 3 kilometers from HSPC. Villages such as Napan, Koaltanghin and Kolbila are more than 10 kilometers away. Such distance affects the rate residents access these healthcare facilities.

Health status of the population

Individuals who fell sick during the last days preceding the start date of this survey were estimated based on statements given by the respondent. In Table 5, morbidity at the division's level was 16.5 percent for men versus 17.3 percent for women. This slight difference might be due to specific requirements of women in matters of health. Localities with high rates of sick people are Soa (36.7% for men and 33.7% for women), Saria (28.4% for men and 28.2% for women), Tibin (24.5% for men and 27.6% for women) and Sabo (23.3% for men and 27.7% for women).

On the other hand, low morbidity rates are found in Sector 5 (3.3% for men and 3.5% for women), and villages such as Tanguin (8.4% for men and 10.7% for women) and Nabegyan (7% for men and 14.2% for women).

It is well-known that the poor (who lack healthcare structures or purchasing power to buy prescripted drugs) tend to suffer from their illness in silence, rather than complain.

The State of hygiene amongst the population

The hygiene of a population can be assessed based on latrine use and soap usage as health indicators.

Use of soap

Bathing improves body hygiene, especially when individuals use soap to eliminate microbes and bacteria that are sources of dermatitis and

Table 5. Distribution of Sick Individuals during the Last 30 Days, According to Sex and Village of Residence

Village	Male	Female	Village	Male	Female
Baskaré	18.0	26.6	Pelegtenga	11.4	10.6
Bouboulou	15.8	14.4	Petit Samba	21.6	21.2
Boulma	19.2	19.3	Ragounda	12.7	14.4
Boura	19.3	14.7	Rallo	15.2	17.7
Bouria	20.6	20.8	Roumtenga	18.1	19.3
Doure	16.8	15.6	Sabo	23.3	27.7
Gandado	17.4	16.9	Saria	28.4	28.2
Gobila	11.2	10.2	Sassa	16.3	17.3
Golo	15.1	14.3	Soa	36.7	33.7
Gonsin	20.9	22.5	Songnaba	19.1	16.9
Goungha	12.9	12.5	Tanguin	8.4	10.7
Kabo	15.6	14.2	Taonsgo	15.8	13.5
Kéo	17.2	11.8	Tibin	24.5	27.6
Koalla	15.0	14.2	Tindila	15.3	12.4
Koaltanghin	15.1	16.8	Zizon	17.5	19.9
Kolbila	18.1	15.7	Sect.1(Yako)	21.8	26.6
Lilbouré	11.1	10.9	Sect2 (Yako)	20.9	27.8
Moutoulou	10.7	12.9	Sect3 (Yako)	13.5	15.2
Nabegyan	9.7	14.2	Sect4 (Yako)	14.0	19.0
Nagsene	10.1	10.9	Sect5 (Yako)	3.3	3.5
Napan	11.2	8.4	Sect6 (Yako)	21.1	25.6
Noussou	17.1	14.6	Sect7 (Yako)	17.1	15.3
Ouaille	19.2	23.7	**Total**	**16.5**	**17.3**
Ouedkiougo	13.6	16.3			

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

other skin diseases. In the survey, three out of four individuals in the Yako Division use soap while taking a bath.

Unlike in Nabegyan, where everybody uses soap while bathing, villages such as Petit Samba (28.3%), Boura (29.9%), Keo (40.1%), Koalla (45.3%), Goungha (45.4%) and Sabo (48.4%) reported fewer residents using such cleaning agent (Table 6).

Latrine use

People's use of latrines is very low at the division's level (17.8%). Households relieve themselves outdoors (81.2%). This means that the risk of getting sick is very high because in most cases, it is the dirty water drawn from rivers and ponds—where excrete and trash go—that serves as drinking water for most of the villagers.

The village of Golo has the highest latrine use rate among the rural areas (15.8%). The lowest rate in the division (0%) applies to seven villages: Goungha, Nabegyan, Napan, Rallo, Keo, Soa and Bakare.

The survey reveals that latrine use still remains an urban phenomenon. In effect, five out of seven sectors have a rate higher than that of the division. Sector 1 has the highest latrine use rate in Yako City and in the whole division (90.9%). Sector 7's rate is the lowest.

Frequency of visits to healthcare facilities

The frequency of healthcare visits is a measure of such healthcare facilities' efficiency. The percentage of population who do not visit any modern healthcare facilities or consult only traditional healers and marabouts is 66 percent. Only one out of five sick persons (20.5%) in the Yako Division goes to an HSPC for consultation.

Note that 15 out of 39 villages in the division have frequency rates lower than the division's average (Table 7). In the village of Gobila, no sick person went to an HSPC for consultation. The lack of healthcare infrastructure and distance may be postulated as the main causes of such household behavior in rural areas. On the other hand, in the city of Yako, three sectors (5, 6 and 7) display very low frequency rates, the lowest rate being in Sector 5 (1%). According to representatives of Sectors 5 and 7 during one of the focus group discussions, such behavior is influenced by the cost of healthcare services.

Summary on healthcare results

The results for the Yako Division reveal the weaknesses in healthcare coverage. The supply of healthcare services is very low, and the distance from village to center is too far apart. In effect, of all the 39 localities in the Yako Division, only 11 availed of an HSPC. The frequency of visits to HSPCs is low because of, among others, the lack of such facilities in most villages on one hand, and the high costs of healthcare

Table 6. Distribution of Households per Village According to Toilet and Soap Use

Village	Water Closet (W.C)	Latrine	Nature	Other	Soap use
Baskaré			100.0		62.9
Bouboulou	0.3	1.6	98.1		88.1
Boulma	1.8	7.1	90.6	0.6	74.8
Boura		4.5	95.5		29.9
Bouria		1.9	97.6	0.5	68.2
Doure		1.6	98.4		95.0
Gandado		5.3	93.8	0.9	65.1
Gobila		2.7	97.3		86.6
Golo	3.9	1.8	80.3		94.9
Gonsin		1.2	98.8		74.8
Goungha			100.0		45.4
Kabo	1.4	0.3	98.3		55.6
Kéo			100.0		40.1
Koalla	0.7	0.7	98.5		45.3
Koaltanghin	0.4	0.4	99.1		75.2
Kolbila		2.8	97.2		61.7
Lilbouré	3.0	6.6	89.9	0.5	95.3
Moutouiou	0.3	1.4	98.0	0.3	86.7
Nabegyan			98.9	1.1	100.0
Nagsene		1.1	98.9		99.8
Napan			100.0		62.9
Noussou		4.0	96.0		54.3
Ouaille		1.0	99.0		85.5
Ouedkiougo		1.9	98.1		72.4
Pelegtenga	2.0	6.0	91.9		98.4
Petit Samba	0.3	2.8	96.9		28.3
Ragounda		9.8	88.2	2.0	91.1
Rallo			100.0		67.0
Roumtenga		4.8	95.2		77.3
Sabo		3.6	96.4		48.4
Saria		3.3	96.7		65.1
Sassa		7.6	91.1	1.3	98.1
Soa			100.0		58.3
Songnaba	1.9	10.8	87.3		85.7
Tanguin	2.5		97.5		99.8
Taonsgo	0.7	6.5	92.8		99.2
Tibin	0.6	6.4	93.0		55.9
Tindila	0.5	7.2	92.3		94.1
Zizon		0.7	99.3		79.4
Sect.1(Yako)	1.1	90.9	7.2	0.8	86.6
Sect2 (Yako)	0.3	51.7	46.2	1.7	95.5
Sect3 (Yako)	1.8	86.7	11.0	0.5	98.6
Sect4 (Yako)	2.4	49.5	46.5	1.6	99.1
Sect5 (Yako)	0.4	57.3	41.9	0.4	98.2
Sect6 (Yako)	0.2	16.8	82.5	0.5	88.6
Sect7 (Yako)		8.1	91.9		59.4
Total	**0.7**	**17.8**	**81.2**	**0.3**	**77.8**

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

Table 7. Distribution of Sick Persons According to Village and Medical Facilities Consulted

Village	Traditional Health	HSPC	Traditional Midwife	Others	None
Baskarè	29.4	41.2			29.4
Bouboulou	23.3	37.2	1.2	25.6	12.8
Boulma	27.7	51.1		19.1	2.1
Boura	40.0	30.0		3.3	26.7
Bouria	1.2	53.5		19.8	25.6
Doure	44.8	46.3		3.0	6.0
Gandado	8.0	17.7		2.7	71.7
Gobila	13.5			8.1	78.4
Golo	65.2	17.4		17.4	
Gonsin	50.0	31.3		18.8	
Goungha	4.3	4.3		7.9	83.5
Kabo	9.2	10.2		5.1	75.6
Kèo	9.1	31.8		40.9	18.2
Koalla	3.7	14.9		9.7	71.6
Koaltanghin	12.3	5.1		2.6	80.0
Kolbila	15.8	36.8		15.8	31.6
Lilbourè	48.9	22.2		15.6	13.3
Moutoulou	55.1	27.5		14.5	2.9
Nabegyan	52.2	4.3		43.5	
Nagsene	64.7	23.5			11.8
Napan		62.5	12.5	12.5	12.5
Noussou	5.0	13.9		4.0	77.2
Ouaille	29.7	10.8		35.1	24.3
Ouedkiougo	5.7	3.8		3.8	86.8
Pelegtenga	19.4	52.8	2.8	13.9	11.1
Petit Samba	15.7	30.7		11.8	41.7
Ragounda	13.7	13.7		2.0	70.6
Rallo	41.3	43.5		10.9	4.3
Roumtenga	19.8	54.2		18.8	7.3
Sabo	11.5	30.8		46.2	11.5
Saria	13.3	25.3		49.4	12.0
Sassa	19.6	52.9		27.5	
Soa	21.1	21.1		3.5	54.4
Songnaba	7.1	53.8	1.3	35.3	2.6
Tanguin	68.8	31.3			
Taonsgo	7.2	15.9			76.8
Tibin	37.0	37.0		9.6	16.4
Tindila	1.4	15.9		.5	82.1
Zizon	8.8	11.8		9.6	69.9
Sect.1(Yako)	7.6	47.8		28.3	16.3
Sect2 (Yako)	33.9	36.4		16.1	13.6
Sect3 (Yako)	20.0	24.2		35.8	20.0
Sect4 (Yako)	10.9	64.4		17.8	6.9
Sect5 (Yako)	1.0	1.0	.4	5.2	92.4
Sect6 (Yako)	3.7	4.0		21.0	71.4
Sect7 (Yako)	16.8	7.6		4.3	71.4
Total	13,5	20,5	,2	12.7	53,1

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

services (notably in Yako City), on the other hand. The population's state of morbidity is of great concern, and serious efforts will have to be deployed to improve the latrine use rate in the division.

Education

Education as a poverty-monitoring indicator is assessed in terms of its effectiveness and efficacy. For instance, the supply and demand for education is measured based on the educational infrastructure such as the number of schools and their impact on the localities and surroundings where they are located, the population's level of schooling, and the net rate of schooling.

Infrastructure

The Yako Division has 36 primary schools, both public and private, with 167 classrooms. Out of 15 localities, 14 rural villages and Sector 3 of Yako City have no primary schools (Table 8). Such disparities between rural and urban areas are prevalent across the country, too. In the Yako Division, 25 out of 39 rural villages (64%) have a school with three or six classrooms each. On the other hand, out of seven urban sectors in the municipality of Yako, six have at least one school each (86%).

Moreover, Sector 1 has three public schools with six classrooms each and a private school with three classrooms. This translates to 21 classrooms for a population of 1,583 inhabitants. In Sector 3, there are no schools for the 2,399 inhabitants. In the village of Moutoulou, which has among the highest school-age population (6-15 years old), there exists only one school with three classrooms.

Although relatively endowed with more schools than the other divisions in the Passore Province and the rest of the country, the Yako Division's educational infrastracture is on the lower side of Burkina Faso's standard. Ideally, there should be one school per 1,000 inhabitants.

In addition to primary schools, there exist 24 literacy centers in the Yako Division, most of which are located in rural areas. Three

(Sectors 1, 2 and 3) out of seven sectors of Yako City have a literacy center. As with the entire territory, these literacy centers compensate for the lack of traditional schools and give those who, for various reasons, have been unable to attend school, an opportunity to learn to read, write and calculate. Unfortunately, these centers are not adequately distributed since 22 out 24 centers are established in localities that already have at least one primary school. Sector 1, which possesses the largest number of schools (4) and classrooms (21) in Yako City, also has a literacy center. In fact, only two localities (the village of Zizon and Sector 1) have been able to acquire a literacy center.

Koranic schools (or Franco-Arabic schools known as Medersa) are only six in number, five of which are scattered in other localities of the Yako Division while one is in the city. These make up for the lack of traditional schools and literacy centers.

Meanwhile, there are three secondary education schools in Yako City: one provincial high school, one municipal high school and one private high school.

Despite the existence of a relatively high number of educational infrastructure, the prospect of redistributing these schools to rural areas has not been taken into consideration. Moreover, literacy centers and the Médersa schools, which could serve as a palliative for the rural population, are limited in number and unequally distributed in the division.

Distances

Since the 24 literacy centers and six Medersa schools are located in only a few localities, notably in rural villages, children have to travel for 2 kilometers to 9 kilometers to attend the nearest school from the village. Two other villages (Goungha and Tanghin) are located 7 kilometers from the nearest school.

Even though national standards provide that children should not travel more than 2.5 kilometers to attend school, more than 12 villages are located at distances varying between 2 kilometers and 9 kilometers

Table 8. Educational Infrastructure in the Yako Division

Village	Number of Primary Schools	Number of Classrooms		Number of Médersa	Distances Covered in KM		
					Literacy Centers	Médersa	Primary School
Baskaré	0	0	0	1	5	5	
Bouboulou	1	6	1	0	5	7	0
Boulma	1	6	1	0	3	6	0
Boura	1	3	0	0	5	5	0
Bouria	1	3	1	0	0	17	0
Doure	1	6	1	0	15	4	0
Gandado	1	3	0	0	2	14	0
Gobila	0	0	0	0	2	5	5
Golo	0	0	0	0	5	5	5
Gonsin	0	0	0	0	9	9	9
Goungha	0	0	0	0	7	17	7
Kabo	1	6	1	0	0	14	0
Kéo	1	3	0	0	5	12	0
Koalla	1	3	1	0	1	10	0
Koaltanghin	1	3	1	0	0	8	0
Kolbila	1	6	2	1	0	0	0
Lilbouré	1	3	1	0	5	3	0
Moutoulou	1	3	1	0	0	2	0
Nabegyan	0	0	0	0	6		6
Nagsene	0	0	0	0	12	7	5
Napan	1	3	1	0	0	19	0
Noussou	0	0	0	0	2	2	1
Ouaille	0	0	0	0	1	7	1
Ouedkiougo	1	6	0	1	9	0	0
Pelegtenga	1	6	1	0	0	6	0
Petit Samba	0	0	0	0	1	4	2
Ragounda	1	3	1	0	0	5	0
Rallo	1	6	1	0	0	4	0
Roumtenga	1	3	0	0	5	5	0
Sabo	1	3	0	0	4	5	0
Saria	1	3	0	1	9	0	0
Sassa	1	9	2	1	0	0	0
Soa	0	0	0	1	7	0	7
Songnaba	1	4	1	0	0	5	0
Tanguin	1	6	1	0	0	10	0
Taonsgo	1	6	1	0	1	18	0
Tibin	0	0	1	0	0	17	1
Tindila	0	0	0	0	4	4	4
Zizon	0	0	0	0	6		2
sect.1(Yako)	4	21	1	0	0	1	0
Sect2 (Yako)	2	12	1	0	2		0
Sect3 (Yako)	0	0	1	1	3	0	2
Sect4 (Yako)	2	10	0	0	3	3	0
Sect5 (Yako)	1	6	0	0	10	5	0
Sect6 (Yako)	1	6	0	0	3	2	0
Sect7 (Yako)	1	6	0	0	5	5	0
Total	36	173	24	6			

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

from the nearest school.The same holds true for literacy centers whose distances from one of the 27 villages vary from 2 kilometers to 15 kilometers. The village of Doure is the farthest from the nearest literacy center (15 kilometers), followed by the village of Napan (12 kilometers).

Schooling and literacy

The survey looks at the level of schooling of different populations in villages and sectors to evaluate the impact of educational infrastructure on these localities. If the percentage of educated people and the level of schooling are high enough in a given locality, then the human resources can acquire more skills for learning new methods of cultivation and better use of appropriate farming techniques.

Table 9 gives the distribution of population according to the level of schooling. Records pertain to the highest level of education attained, whatever the age and time that elapsed since the individual left school, if he ever attended one.

Survey results show a high percentage (84%) of individuals with no schooling in all the 39 rural villages of the division and the seven sectors of the Yako Municipality. The survey also confirms the disparity between urban or semi-urban areas, and rural areas. The lowest percentages for individuals with no schooling are found in semi-urban areas. On the average, 74 percent of the population of the sectors in Yako City has no schooling, against 90.8 percent in rural villages. For instance, by comparing data outliers of the two areas (rural versus urban), only 63 percent of the population of Sector 1 (versus 80 percent of the population of Songnaba) is not educated. Sector 7 (85.8%) and the rural village of Napan (97.8%) have the highest number of individuals with no schooling. It should be pointed out that Sector 7 is a peripheral area that can be easily classified as a rural area.

When viewed division-wide, 13.1 percent has reached the primary school level while 2.5 percent and 0.4 percent has attended the first cycle and second cycle of the secondary school, respectively. Clearly, the percentage of people who went to a university (higher education)

Table 9. Distribution of the Population According to Level of Schooling and Village of Residence (%)

Village	No Schools	Primary School	Secondary 1	Secondary 2	Higher Educ.	Total
Baskaré	89.9	9.2	0.9			100.0
Bouboulou	89.7	9.5	0.6		0.1	100.0
Boulma	84.5	15.4	0.1			100.0
Boura	83.5	15.5	1.0			100.0
Bouria	90.9	9.1				100.0
Doure	84.3	15.2	0.5			100.0
Gandado	83.8	14.1	1.9	0.1		100.0
Gobila	84.3	12.0	3.7			100.0
Golo	83.8	13.5	2.0	0.6		100.0
Gonsin	94.1	5.1	0.8			100.0
Goungha	96.0	3.9	0.1			100.0
Kabo	91.3	7.9	0.7	0.1		100.0
Kéo	94.8	4.8	0.4			100.0
Koalla	91.4	8.3	0.3			100.0
Koaltanghin	95.3	3.7	0.9	0.1		100.0
Kolbila	88.2	11.0	0.8			100.0
Lilbouré	78.4	18.1	3.2	0.2		100.0
Moutoulou	88.9	9.7	1.2	0.2		100.0
Nabegyan	89.3	9.1	1.4		0.2	100.0
Nagsene	91.7	8.3				100.0
Napan	97.9	1.8	0.3			100.0
Noussou	88.7	9.8	1.5			100.0
Ouaille	86.2	13.4	0.3	0.1		100.0
Ouedkiougo	89.9	8.9	1.0	0.3		100.0
Pelegtenga	80.4	18.4	1.2			100.0
Petit Samba	86.2	12.3	1.3	0.2		100.0
Ragounda	87.1	10.2	2.7			100.0
Rallo	88.3	10.4	1.2	0.1		100.0
Roumtenga	81.7	15.4	2.5	0.3	0.1	100.0
Sabo	79.9	19.5	0.4	0.2		100.0
Saria	81.1	17.3	1.6			100.0
Sassa	81.8	15.9	1.8	0.5		100.0
Soa	90.2	9.0	0.6	0.2		100.0
Songnaba	80.0	17.7	2.1	0.2		100.0
Tanguin	91.7	8.1	0.2			100.0
Taonsgo	86.1	11.5	2.0	0.4		100.0
Tibin	81.6	16.4	1.7	0.2		100.0
Tindila	82.4	14.9	2.5	0.1		100.0
Zizon	90.6	8.2	0.9	0.3		100.0
Sect.1(Yako)	74.2	18.4	6.2	1.1	0	100.0
Sect2 (Yako)	69.3	20.0	9.1	1.6	0.1	100.0
Sect3 (Yako)	67.5	20.4	9.3	2.8		100.0
Sect4 (Yako)	77.7	15.8	5.2	1.3		100.0
Sect5 (Yako)	63.0	21.3	1.2	2.5		100.0
Sect6 (Yako)	81.0	14.7	3.8	0.5		100.0
Sect7 (Yako)	85.8	11.2	2.9	0.1		100.0
Total	**84.0**	**13.1**	**2.5**	**0.4**	**0.0**	**100.0**

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

is negligible at the level of villages and sectors, and even at the division's level.

Furthermore, six out of the seven sectors in Yako City have primary school education ratings that are above the division's average of 13.1 percent. Sector 1 holds the highest percentage (21.3%). In Sector 7---the only area of the Yako urban municipality that is below the division's average---only 11.2 percent has primary school education. As for the rural zone, 15 out of 39 villages stand above the average, with the village of Sabo leading at 19.5 percent. The village of Napan has the lowest percentage of people with primary school education.

The survey reveals that 2.5 percent of the population of the division reached the first cycle of secondary schooling. Except for Yako City's Sector 1, where 13.2 percent of the population reached the first cycle, all other localities stand below 10 percent. Only five rural villages have reached and slightly gone beyond the division's average of 2.5 percent; these are Roumtenga and Tindila (2.5%), Ragounda (2.7%), Liboure (3.2%) and Gobila (3.7%). In the villages of Nagsene and Bouria (1,245 and 2,181 inhabitants, respectively), no one reached the secondary level.

Data also show that 0.4 percent of the division's population (or one out of 250 individuals), attended the second cycle of secondary schooling. Only six sectors of Yako City and two rural villages are above the division's average of 0.4 percent: Their rates range from 0.5 percent (for Sector 6 and Sassa) to 2.8 percent (for Sector 4). In 20 out of 37 villages, no inhabitant has reached the second cycle of secondary schools. As for higher education, the survey reveals that only four localities have residents who reached that level: Nabegyan, Sector 3, Roumtega and Bouboulou.

When analyzed by gender and level of schooling, the percentage of men who have never attended school is lower than that of women (80.5% for men versus 87.1% for women). At the primary school level, 15.8 percent of men (against 10.6% of women) have reached this level; 3 percent of men (against 2% of women) attended the first cycle of secondary school; and 0.6 percent of men (versus 0.2% of

Table 10. Population Distribution According to Level of Schooling, Sex, and Village of Residence

Village/ sector	No schooling		Primary School		Secondary School		Scholars		Higher education		Total	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Bouboulou	86.9	92.0	11.8	7.7	1.2	0.2					100	100
Napan	97.4	98.3	1.9	1.7	0.6						100	100
Goungha	95.0	96.9	4.8	3.1	0.2						100	100
Koaltanghin	94.1	96.5	4.6	2.9	1.2	0.5	0.1	0.1			100	100
Gonsin	92.6	95.5	6.5	3.9	1.0	0.6					100	100
Kéo	90.4	98.2	8.7	1.8	1.0						100	100
Zizon	89.1	92.0	9.4	7.1	1.0	0.7	0.5	0.1			100	100
Kabo	88.9	93.4	10.2	5.9	0.8	0.6	0.2	0.1			100	100
Koala	88.3	94.4	11.4	5.4	0.3	0.3					100	100
Nagsemé	88.2	94.4	11.8	5.6							100	100
Bouria	87.5	93.8	12.5	6.2							100	100
Soa	86.7	93.0	11.4	7.0	1.4		0.5				100	100
Moutoulou	86.4	91.0	12.0	7.8	1.5	0.9	0.2	0.3			100	100
Tanghin	85.6	95.9	14.0	4.1	0.4						100	100
Ouedkiougo	84.9	94.9	13.1	4.6	2.0			0.5			100	100
Baskaré	84.1	94.4	14.3	5.3	1.6	0.3					100	100
Ragounda	84.0	89.4	12.2	8.7	3.8	1.9					100	100
Noussou	83.9	93.2	12.9	6.8	3.2						100	100
Secteur7	83.9	87.5	12.5	9.9	3.3	2.5	0.2				100	100
Kolbila	83.7	92.2	15.1	7.4	1.1	0.4					100	100
Nambéguian	83.4	95.1	14.4	3.9	1.8	1.1			0.4		100	100
Taonsgo	83.4	88.6	12.4	10.6	3.4	0.8	0.8				100	100
Rallo	83.1	92.8	14.6	6.8	2.2	0.4	0.2				100	100
Golula	82.0	85.9	12.4	11.7	5.6	2.3					100	100
Petit Samba	81.9	90.0	15.6	9.3	2.2	0.6	0.3	0.1			100	100
Ouaïllé	79.9	91.7	19.2	8.3	0.6		0.3				100	100
Boura	79.6	86.8	19.1	12.3	1.2	0.8					100	100
Boulma	79.4	88.8	20.4	11.1	0.1	0.1					100	100
Roumtenga	79.4	83.9	16.7	14.1	3.2	1.9	0.6	0.1	0.1		100	100
Secteur6	79.4	82.4	16.2	13.4	3.6	3.9	0.8	0.2			100	100
Gandado	79.0	88.3	18.6	10.0	2.2	1.7	0.2				100	100
Tindilla	79.0	85.7	18.0	11.9	2.8	2.3	0.3				100	100
Gollo	78.9	88.4	17.5	9.7	2.6	1.5	1.0	0.3			100	100
Sassa	77.8	85.2	18.6	13.7	2.6	1.1	1.0				100	100
Song-Naba	77.0	82.6	20.9	14.9	2.0	2.3	0.1	0.2			100	100
Tibin	76.6	86.1	20.3	13.0	2.5	1.0	0.5				100	100
Sabo	76.4	82.6	23.1	16.7	0.4	0.4		0.4			100	100
Saña	75.7	86.0	21.7	13.3	2.6	0.7					100	100
Secteur5	75.7	79.5	15.9	15.7	6.2	4.3	2.2	0.5			100	100
Douré	75.4	91.5	23.8	8.3	0.8	0.3					100	100
Pelgtenga	73.3	86.8	24.2	13.2	2.5						100	100
Secteur2	71.6	76.5	19.8	17.2	7.2	5.3	1.4	0.9	0.1		100	100
Lilbouré	70.8	84.9	24.4	12.8	4.7	2.0	0.2	0.3			100	100
Secteur3	67.8	70.7	20.9	19.2	9.3	8.9	1.9	1.2	0.1		100	100
Secteur4	65.2	69.7	21.0	19.9	10.3	8.2	3.5	2.2			100	100
Secteur1	59.3	66.2	22.9	19.8	13.4	13.0	4.3	0.9			100	100
Total	80.5	87.1	15.8	10.6	3.0	2.0	0.6	0.2	0	0	100	100

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

women) reached the second cycle of secondary schooling (Table 10).

In practically all villages, one finds that it is the women who reached the primary school level, even if their percentage is sometimes very low. At the first cycle of the secondary school level, there are two villages (Nagsene and Boura) where no male had attended that cycle; In 11 villages, no female reached that level. When it comes to higher education, it is only in Bouboulou where women had reached that scholastic level (0.2%). Meanwhile, there are four localities (Nabegyan, Roumtenga and Sectors 2 and 3) where men attended the level.

Net rate of schooling (NRS)

The net rate of schooling (NRS) is the ratio of children in full-time education in period P to the number of children of the same school age who should be attending that same level of schooling at around the same period. In the case of this survey, NRS is the ratio of children ages 6 to 15 years who attend school, to children of the same school age living in the village or sector. Table 11 gives the NRS in primary and secondary schools for each of the 39 villages and seven sectors in Yako City. Even though there are no secondary schools in every village or sector of the division, the calculation for NRS for secondary schools also takes into account the children of each village or sector attending a secondary school outside their place of residence.

The net average rate of primary level schooling for Yako Division is 40.3 percent. It is certainly higher than the national NRS of 36.5 percent but lower than that of Passore Province (53%) and Northern region (49.9%), according to the quick survey results of MEBA for school year 2003-2004. The highest NRS (74.1%) is found in Sector 1, whereas the lowest (3.3%) is in the village of Napan. Once more, the data bring out the gap between urban and rural areas. Twenty-five out of 39 rural villages have an NRS below the division's average, while in the urban areas, six out of seven sectors are clearly above that average. The lowest NRS, which is that of Sector 7 (39.4%) is very close to the division's average. Three rural villages have rates

Table 11. Net Rate of Schooling According to Level, Sex and Village of Residence

Village	NRPRIM	NRPRIM-men	NRPRIMwom	NRSEC1-men	NRSEC1wom	NRSEC2-men	NRSEC2wom
Baskarè	25.7	38.0	13.3	6.0	3.1	0	0
Bouboulou	24.1	29.8	20.6	2.8	.8	0	0
Boulma	44.1	50.2	37.0	.6	1.0	0	0
Boura	37.1	47.3	31.9	1.4	5.1	0	0
Bouria	23.3	30.2	17.2	0	0	0	0
Doure	36.4	51.5	21.5	.9	1.6	0	0
Gandado	44.1	51.4	35.2	4.8	2.1	0	0
Gobila	59.1	50.0	68.8	21.4	25.0	0	0
Goio	34.8	43.7	24.0	13.6	5.7	4.2	0
Gonsin	11.2	11.1	9.8	1.6	0	0	0
Goungha	11.4	13.5	11.3	0	0	0	0
Kabo	26.4	31.3	22.4	4.5	3.6	2.6	0
Kèo	10.7	16.6	5.6	1.0	0	0	0
Koalla	24.8	33.2	19.5	3.0	.8	0	0
Koaltanghin	13.0	14.1	10.0	4.2	1.9	0	0
Kolbila	29.1	36.7	25.3	2.8	1.2	0	0
Lilbourè	43.6	54.8	32.3	20.1	7.3	0	2.0
Moutoulou	25.6	28.3	20.1	2.8	2.6	1.2	3.0
Nabegyan	27.7	34.6	19.1	2.3	1.2	0	0
Nagsene	25.8	33.2	19.9	0	0	0	0
Napan	3.3	5.8	3.3	0	0	0	0
Noussou	29.0	39.0	19.4	9.3	0	0	0
Ouaille	34.1	40.8	31.4	2.3	0	0	0
Ouedkiougo	35.9	43.5	31.1	8.0	0	0	0
Pelegtenga	53.0	58.5	44.9	8.1	0	0	0
Petit Samba	36.1	44.9	28.8	5.3	1.2	1.0	0
Ragounda	33.9	41.1	23.9	16.0	5.6	0	0
Rallo	24.6	31.1	20.4	7.4	.4	2.2	0
Roumtenga	43.9	44.8	44.9	7.6	6.7	1.5	0
Sabo	49.3	52.4	42.1	2.1	0	0	0
Saria	56.7	66.5	43.9	7.2	1.6	0	0
Sassa	45.5	47.6	42.9	9.1	3.8	2.9	0
Soa	28.9	31.5	26.9	4.8	0	4.2	0
Soa	28.9	31.5	26.9	4.8	0	4.2	0
Songnaba	45.9	47.3	42.1	8.5	10.1	0	9
Songnaba	45.9	47.3	42.1	8.5	10.1	0	9
Tanguin	18.0	23.9	11.8	0	0	0	0
Tanguin	18.0	23.9	11.8	0	0	0	0
Taonsgo	41.1	45.5	40.0	12.3	4.2	6.5	0
Taonsgo	41.1	45.5	40.0	12.3	4.2	6.5	0
Tibin	44.5	53.8	31.6	9.4	2.1	5.0	0
Tindila	45.7	47.3	42.4	15.9	7.3	4.8	0
Zizon	29.7	33.4	27.0	6.7	3.7	1.2	1.4
Sect.1(Yako)	74.1	75.0	73.2	38.8	36.6	18.2	6.5
Sect2 (Yako)	59.9	59.5	57.0	27.6	19.5	6.3	4.5
Sect3 (Yako)	71.2	71.8	71.2	33.1	25.5	5.2	3.9
Sect4 (Yako)	68.9	69.5	70.0	30.8	34.4	12.2	9.7
Sect5 (Yako)	55.1	60.0	52.2	23.1	15.5	12.7	2.1
Sect6 (Yako)	51.5	53.3	50.2	18.4	20.7	6.1	9
Sect7 (Yako)	39.4	39.9	36.8	11.7	15.0	2.8	0
Total	**40.3**	**44.3**	**35.3**	**10.9**	**8.1**	**3.4**	**1.4**

Note:
NRPRIM = net rate of schooling (nrs) at the primary school level
NRPRIM-men = net rate of schooling at the primary school level for men
NRPRIMwom = net rate of schooling at the primary school level for women
NRSEC1-men = nrs at the first cycle of secondary school for men

NRSEC1wom = nrs at the first cycle of secondary level for women
NRSEC2-men = nrs at the second cycle secondary level for women

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

comparable with those of the sectors of Yako City; these villages are Gobila (59.1%), Sarig (56.7%) and Pelegtenga (53.0%). This gap is also observed at the secondary school level.

When viewed by gender, the division's NRS reveals a disparity of 8.8 percent between boys and girls at the primary level (44.3% and 35.5%, respectively). As gleaned from Table 12, this tendency is reflected at the secondary level (secondary 1: boys, 10.9% and girls, 8.1% ; secondary 2: boys, 3.4% and girls, 1.4%). Moreover, the disparity between boys and girls are more pronounced in rural than in urban areas. Thus, the greatest difference between boys and girls in rural areas is 225 percent, in Lilboure (boys, 54.8% and girls, 32.3%), whereas the greatest disparity in the urban areas is a 7.8 percent in Sector 5 of Yako (boys, 60.0% and girls, 52.2%).

Table 12. NRS of Girls Higher Than That of Boys According to Level and Village of Resident

Village/sector	NRPRIM-men	NRPRIM-women	NRSEC1-men	NRSEC1-women	NSEC2-men	NRSEC2-women
Gobila	50.0	68.8	21.4	25.0	0	0
Sect4 (Yako)	69.5	70.0	30.8	34.4	12.2	9.7
Sect6 (Yako)	53.3	50.2	18.4	20.7	6.1	9
Sect7 (Yako)	39.9	36.8	11.7	15.0	2.8	0
Ensemble/ département	44.3	35.3	10.9	8.1	3.4	1.4

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

The village of Gobila and Sector 4 are exceptions to the rule, and stand out because their girls' NRS is higher than that of the boys at the primary and secondary first cycle levels. In Sectors 6 and 7, it is at the secondary level's second cycle where girls' NRS exceeds that of the boys. The lower disparity between boys and girls in some villages, particularly in urban areas, means that parents attach as much importance to the education of girls as they do to that of the boys. In contrast, girls in rural areas are kept at home to handle domestic chores.

The survey reveals that in most villages and sectors of Yako Division where the household head is a woman, girls are maintained in school longer, and the NRS for both gender is higher in such household. Data averages for the whole division confirm this. Division-wide, the NRS for households headed by men is 39.2 percent. For those headed by women, it is 48.4 percent (Table 13).

Table 13. NRS According to Gender of Household Head, Level and Village of Residents: Yako Division

HHGender	TNPRIM	TNPRIMH	TNPRIMF	TNSEC1H	TNSEC1F	TNSEC2H	TNSEC2F
Male	39.2	43.3	34.1	10.2	7.1	3.3	1.1
Female	48.4	53.4	45.1	17.1	15.4	4.7	4.8
Total	40.3	44.3	35.3	10.9	8.1	3.4	1.4

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May/June 2003

The survey results clearly demostrate the effort made by women household heads to enable their children not only to acquire an education but to go as far as they can in their schooling as well. This is perhaps the only way for women to ensure success and the family's future, considering that these households do not own land and often expect to be expropriated. Table 14 highlights the girls' higher NRS at the primary as well as at the secondary levels in households managed by women in the Yako Division.

The lower NRS in most rural villages compared to those in urban areas may be due, among others, to the limited resources of parents, most of whom are food crop producers. The educational infrastructure is certainly available, but parents lack the financial resources that will allow their children access to existing schools.

The NRS has tremendously fallen at the secondary school level. For instance, boys' rates dropped from 43.3 percent at the primary school level to 10.2 percent at the secondary level first cycle, and to 3.3 percent at the secondary level second cycle. For the girls, the decline in the NRS between primary and secondary levels is even more dramatic: from the primary level's 34.1 percent, this dipped to the secondary first cycle's 7.1 percent and secondary second cycle's 1.1 percent.

Table 14. Net Rates of Schooling of Girls According to Level, Gender of Household Head (HH) and Village of Residence

Village	Gender of HH	NRPRIM women	NRSEC1women	NRSEC2women
Baskarè	Male	12.4	3.2	0
	Female	50.0	0	
	Total	13.3	3.1	0
Bouboulou	Male	20.3	0.8	0
	Female	25.0	0	0
	Total	20.6	0.8	0
Boura	Male	31.6	5.9	0
	Female	33.3	0	0
	Total	31.9	5.1	0
Bouria	Male	15.9	0	0
	Female	35.0	0	0
	Total	17.2	0	0
Gobila	Male	70.8	28.6	0
	Female	62.5	0	0
	Total	68.8	25.0	0
Kabo	Male	21.0	3.2	0
	Female	31.3	5.6	0
	Total	22.4	3.6	0
Koalla	Male	17.3	0.9	0
	Female	62.5	0.0	0
	Total	19.5	0.8	0
Koaltanghin	Male	9.7	2.1	0
	Female	14.3	0.0	0
	Total	10.0	1.9	0
Kolbila	Male	24.0	1.4	0
	Female	42.9	0	0
	Total	25.3	1.2	0
Lilbourè	Male	30.6	4.9	2.1
	Female	48.5	21.4	0
	Total	32.3	7.3	2.0
Pelegtenga	Male	45.8	0	0
	Female	25.0	0	0
	Total	44.9	0	0
Petit Samba	Male	27.6	0.2	0
	Female	39.2	11.9	0
	Total	28.8	1.2	0
Ragounda	Male	22.0	3.2	0
	Female	50.0	20.0	0
	Total	23.9	5.6	0
Soa	Male	24.5	0	0
	Female	40.0	0	0
	Total	26.9	0	0
Songnaba	Male	41.8	9.5	1.0
	Female	45.5	14.8	0
	Total	42.1	10.1	0.9
Tanguin	Male	10.8	0	0
	Female	25.0	0	0
	Total	11.8	0	0
Taonsgo	Male	38.2	4.9	0
	Female	50.0	0	0
	Total	40.0	4.2	0
Zion	Male	26.4	4.1	1.4
	Female	50.0	0	
	Total	27.0	3.7	1.4

Table 14 (cont'd)

Village	Gender of HH	NRPRIM women	NRSEC1women	NRSEC2women
Sect.1(Yako)	Male	71.6	36.2	8.2
	Female	75.5	37.3	1.9
	Total	73.2	36.6	6.5
Sect2 (Yako)	Male	57.3	19.2	1.9
	Female	55.4	21.7	22.7
	Total	57.0	19.5	4.5
Sect3 (Yako)	Male	73.0	26.1	3.6
	Female	64.2	23.6	5.3
	Total	71.2	25.5	3.9
Sect4 (Yako)	Male	72.0	29.5	8.3
	Female	61.4	50.0	15.2
	Total	70.0	34.4	9.7
Sect5 (Yako)	Male	52.7	13.0	1.6
	Female	50.0	27.8	5.6
	Total	52.2	15.5	2.1
Sect6 (Yako)	Male	48.2	21.4	1.1
	Female	65.4	16.7	0
	Total	50.2	20.7	0.9
Sect7 (Yako)	Male	34.4	15.6	0
	Female	100.0	0	0
	Total	36.8	15.0	0
Département Yako	Male	34.1	7.1	1.1
	Female	45.1	15.4	4.8
	Total	35.3	8.1	1.4

At the second cycle of the secondary school level, the NRS tends to drop to zero in almost all the villages. In the few exceptional villages where students are able to reach that level, more often that not, these students are boys. On the other hand, it is in the sectors of Yako City where girls in the second cycle of secondary school can be found.

The phenomenon is explained by the presence of secondary schools in Yako City. That is, their existence facilitates girls' access to that educational level. Conversely, the low number of village girls in the second cycle of secondary schools may be due to the absence of this scholastic level in the said villages. Parents may not be ready to send their children---specially their daughters---without trustworthy landlords, to cities or urban centers where secondary schools are located. Moreover, many parents prefer to give their a daughter in marriage once the latter turns 16 or 17 years old rather than let her pursue her studies.

Success rates in school exams

The survey focuses now on exam results at the primary school level as these provide insights on children's success rates in official examinations, especially the primary school certificate (PSC). In addition to exams, the survey looks into the rates of transition from the primary to the secondary level–i.e., the percentage of children who succeeded in obtaining the PSC and who were able to enter the first year of secondary schooling. These rates cover the 2002-2003 school year and are presented in Table 15.

Note that the study on the rates of success and entry into the first year of secondary school looks at children from different localities who succeeded in obtaining the PSC regardless of the primary schools they attended, and were able to enroll in a secondary school.

Table 15 calculates that the success rate for the whole division at 52.1 percent, of which 49.7 percent where able to enroll in a secondary

Table 15. Rates of Success in the PSC and Access to First Year of Secondary School According to Area of Residence

Village	% Success in the PSC Exam	% Students with PSC Moved up to First Year SEC1	Village	% Success in the PSC Exam	% Students with PSC Moved up to First Year SEC1
Baskaré	0	0	Pelegtenga	42	6.7
Bouboulou	41	50	Petit Samba	32.1	33.3
Boulma	100	57.1	Ragounda	33	50
Boura	57	18.2	Rallo	100	50
Bouria	76.9	70	Roumtenga	27.8	53.3
Douré	100	50	Sabo	75	50
Gandado	75	66	Saria	66	100
Gobila	25	100	Sassa	35.5	12.5
Gollo	40	50	Soa	0	0
Gonsin	50	100	Song-Naba	82.6	31.5
Goungha	55	0	Tanghin	0	0
Kabo	20	35	Taonsgo	28	50
Kéo	0	0	Tibin	66.7	41.7
Koala	43	28	Tindilla	50	30
Koaltanghin	85	100	Zizon	43	100
Kolbila	54	50	Secteur1	66.1	56.4
Lilbouré	77.8	50	Secteur2	69.6	60
Moutoulou	62.5	40	Secteur3	59	68.8
Nabegyan	50	0	Secteur4	74.3	90.3
Nagsene	80	50	Secteur5	37.9	91.3
Napan	50	100	Secteur6	45.1	62.5
Noussou	50	0	Secteur7	46.5	57.1
Ouaille	100	25	**Total**	**52.1**	**49.7**
Ouedkiougo	25	100			

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

school. It is in rural villages where more had success in obtaining the PSC. Four villages (Boulma, Doure Ouaille and Rallo) had a 100 percent success rate while the highest rate in the urban areas of Sector 4, Sector 2 and Sector 1 were only 74.3 percent, 66.1 percent and 66.1 percent, respectively.

All students who had obtained the PSC and are living in seven rural villages where able to enroll in secondary schools. On the other hand, the highest enrolment rate in the urban areas was 91.3 percent (Sector 5). However, the best score in the division was in Sector 4, where 74.3 percent of students attained their PSC and of which 90 percent then enrolled in a secondary school.

When compared by area (Table 16), all villages had lesser success in the PSC (51.3%) than did the urban areas (56.9%). Moreover, less rural children were enrolled in secondary schools (44.8%) than children in the urban areas (69.5%).

Table 16. Success Rates in the PSC and Entry into First Form of Secondary School

Description	Urban sectors	Rural villages	Yako division as a whole
Graduated with PSC diploma	56.9	51.3	52.1
Enrolled in first year of Sec. School	69.5	44.8	49.7

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

Literacy

To compensate for the lack of traditional educational infrastructure, the Burkina Faso government introduced literacy centers in some localities of the country. Literacy, in effect, is another means of access to reading and writing. Generally, it benefits those who have not had the opportunity to pass through the traditional structures of learning. The survey (Table 17) has taken into account a population in the age group between 10 and 45 years old who did not attend school, or dropped out early. This fringe of the population has gone through a structure other than a formal school to learn how to read and write.

Table 17. Distribution of Literate Population According to Gender, and Village of Residence

Village	Male	Female	Total
Baskaré	78.2	21.8	100.0
Bouboulou	65.2	34.8	100.0
Boulma	65.9	34.1	100.0
Boura	67.4	32.6	100.0
Bouria	66.7	33.3	100.0
Doure	67.9	32.1	100.0
Gandado	66.1	33.9	100.0
Gobila	52.8	47.2	100.0
Golo	59.4	40.6	100.0
Gonsin	74.5	25.5	100.0
Goungha	57.4	42.6	100.0
Kabo	63.4	36.6	100.0
Kéo	82.6	17.4	100.0
Koalla	68.8	31.3	100.0
Koaltanghin	67.1	32.9	100.0
Kolbila	69.0	31.0	100.0
Lilbouré	67.1	32.9	100.0
Moutoulou	56.6	43.4	100.0
Nabegyan	78.8	21.2	100.0
Nagsene	71.2	28.8	100.0
Napan	78.3	21.7	100.0
Noussou	69.4	30.6	100.0
Ouaille	73.5	26.5	100.0

Village	Male	Female	Total
Ouedkiougo	74.5	25.5	100.0
Pelegtenga	28.5	71.5	100.0
Petit Samba	30.6	69.4	100.0
Ragounda	47.4	52.6	100.0
Rallo	30.5	69.5	100.0
Roumtenga	34.3	65.7	100.0
Sabo	39.5	60.5	100.0
Saria	32.9	67.1	100.0
Sassa	34.2	65.8	100.0
Soa	26.4	73.6	100.0
Songnaba	39.6	60.4	100.0
Tanquin	31.0	69.0	100.0
Taonsgo	39.1	60.9	100.0
Zizon	33.8	66.2	100.0
sect.1(Yako)	45.8	54.2	100.0
Sect2 (Yako)	44.2	55.8	100.0
Sect3 (Yako)	43.6	56.4	100.0
Sect4 (Yako)	40.7	59.3	100.0
Sect5 (Yako)	45.4	54.6	100.0
Sect6 (Yako)	41.9	58.1	100.0
Sect7 (Yako)	40.2	59.8	100.0
Total	**38.1**	**61.9**	**100.0**

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

The literacy rate of the above age group is 25 percent for the whole Yako Division with the following distribution: Literate men at 69.9 percent versus literate women at 38.1 percent. The disparity in gender decreases as men's literacy rate drops. Thus, the ratio of literate men to women is 5 to 1 in Keo, where the percentage of literate men is the highest in the Division (82.6%), and 1.1 to 1 in the village of Ragounda, where the percentage of literate men is the lowest (52.6%).

Literacy rates by sex and villages are quite low as indicated in Table 18.

In no village or city sector does the literacy rate of women exceed that of men. As in the case of the level of schooling, it is in urban sectors where literacy rates are the highest, going from 35.6 percent in Sector 1 to 14.3 percent in Sector 7. In rural villages, the top rates vary from 24.7 percent in Liboure, the gold panning area, to 4.9 percent in Keo. The low literacy rate may be explained by the limited number of literacy centers: There are 24 center, four of which are located in

Table 18. Literacy Rates According to Gender and Village of Residence

Village	Male	Female	Total	Village	Male	Female	Total
Baskaré	9.3	2.6	11.9	Pelegtenga	18.4	7.3	25.7
Bouboulou	9.7	5.2	14.9	Petit Samba	9.8	4.2	14.0
Boulma	9.1	4.7	13.9	Ragounda	10.3	9.0	19.3
Boura	16.6	8.0	24.6	Rallo	12.6	5.5	18.0
Bouria	9.5	4.8	14.3	Roumtenga	18.0	9.4	27.4
Doure	12.8	6.0	18.8	Sabo	16.2	10.7	26.9
Gandado	16.7	8.6	25.3	Saria	16.2	7.9	24.1
Gobila	13.5	12.1	25.5	Sassa	20.1	10.6	30.7
Golo	18.2	12.5	30.7	Soa	12.5	4.5	16.9
Gonsin	13.1	4.5	17.6	Songnaba	16.6	10.8	27.4
Goungha	3.7	2.8	6.5	Tanguin	6.0	2.7	8.7
Kabo	9.0	5.0	14.0	Taonsgo	20.5	13.0	33.5
Kéo	4.9	1.0	5.9	Tibin	12.3	5.2	17.6
Koalla	9.9	4.5	14.5	Tindila	21.2	11.4	32.6
Koaltanghin	7.3	3.6	10.8	Zizon	14.7	7.5	22.2
Kolbila	10.3	4.7	15.0	Sect.1(Yako)	35.6	30.0	65.5
Lilbouré	24.7	12.0	36.7	Sect2 (Yako)	23.3	18.2	41.5
Moutoulou	5.7	4.3	10.0	Sect3 (Yako)	33.4	25.8	59.2
Nabegyan	11.2	3.0	14.2	Sect4 (Yako)	31.1	21.3	52.4
Nagsene	6.7	2.7	9.3	Sect5 (Yako)	24.3	20.2	44.5
Napan	6.7	1.9	8.5	Sect6 (Yako)	20.1	14.5	34.6
Noussou	12.5	5.5	18.0	Sect7 (Yako)	14.3	9.6	24.0
Ouaille	13.2	4.8	18.0	**Total**	**15.8**	**9.7**	**25.5**
Ouedkiougo	13.2	4.5	17.8				

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

the Yako urban area. The low literacy rate among females could be explained by the fact that women are unavailable for their literacy classes. Literacy sessions take place during the dry season, a period when women devote themselves instead to activities related to marketing, gardening, gathering fuel wood and dried vegetables from the fields. Literacy lessons are generally taught in French or in mooré, the national language.

School dropouts

A school dropout, as the name indicates, is defined as a student who drops out of a classical educational structure without completing the program for which he registered. This phenomenon generally grafts itself into a school system and helps in evaluating its efficiency.

The survey enables one to grasp the scope of this phenomenon in the Yako Division. It reveals that the dropout rate at the divisional level amounts to 2.5 percent (Table 19). It is more pronounced among

Table 19. School Dropout Rate According to Gender and Village of Residence

Village	Male	Female	Total	Village	Male	Female	Total
Baskarè	1.2	1.3	2.5	Pelegtenga	1.8	1.1	2.9
Bouboulou	0.7	0.8	1.6	Petit Samba	1.7	0.8	2.5
Boulma	2.2	1.2	3.4	Ragounda			0.0
Boura	1.2	0.8	2.0	Rallo	0.9	0.4	1.3
Bouria	0.9	0.3	1.2	Roumtenga	0.8	0.1	0.9
Doure	6.0	2.0	8.0	Sabo	3.1	1.1	4.2
Gandado	0.3	0.7	0.9	Saria	1.0	1.0	2.0
Gobila		2.1	2.1	Sassa	0.5		0.5
Golo	1.6	0.6	2.2	Soa	1.1	0.5	1.6
Gonsin	0.3		0.3	Songnaba	0.7	0.3	1.0
Goungha	0.3	0.6	0.9	Tanguin	1.1	1.0	2.1
Kabo	0.3	0.3	0.6	Taonsgo	0.8	0.7	1.5
Kéo	1.9		1.9	Tibin	1.3	0.7	2.0
Koalla		0.4	0.4	Tindila	0.3	0.3	0.6
Koaltanghin	1.6	0.4	2.0	Zizon	0.6	0.3	1.0
Kolbila	2.6	0.6	3.2	Sect.1(Yako)	1.4	1.2	2.6
Lilbourè	0.8	0.4	1.2	Sect2 (Yako)	1.9	1.9	3.8
Moutoulou	0.4	0.3	0.7	Sect3 (Yako)	1.0	1.3	2.3
Nabegyan	1.8	1.1	2.9	Sect4 (Yako)	0.9	0.8	1.7
Nagsene	2.4	1.7	4.1	Sect5 (Yako)	6.5	4.9	11.4
Napan	1.9	2.9	4.9	Sect6 (Yako)	2.5	1.5	4.0
Noussou	0.8	0.2	1.0	Sect7 (Yako)	2.9	1.1	4.0
Ouaille	3.6	0.7	4.4	**Total**	**1.5**	**0.9**	**2.5**
Ouedkiougo	0.6		0.6				

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

the boys (1.5%) than the girls (0.9%). It is only in the village of Napan where the rate for girls is higher than that for boys. Meanwhile, the rate between genders (0.3%) is the same in Kabo and Tindila.

Survey data show that 30 (i.e., two urban sectors [Sectors 3 and 4] and 28 villages) out of 46 localities have rates below the division's over-all rate (2.5%). The 16 other localities with rates higher than the average consist of 11 rural villages and five urban sectors. The higher rates among rural and urban areas are registered by Doure (8.0%) and Sector (11.4%), respectively. The lowest dropout rates are in Gonsin (0.3%) for the rural areas and Sector 4 for the urban areas.

One can deduce that the dropout phenomenon is more prevalent in the city than in villages (five out of seven sectors versus one out of 39 rural villages), and concerns boys more than girls (1.5% for boys; 0.9% for girls). It, therefore, is a male and urban phenomenon.

The causes for abandoning school are undoubtfully many, but the reason most frequently advanced in focus group discussions as the most significant is the high cost of schooling. This was mentioned by

43-46 villages and sectors. Family chores (recognized by 40-46 villages and sectors) is the second reason for dropping out of school. Twenty-nine to 46 localities mentioned other causes: parents and students' lack of interest in schooling, students' laziness and quick gains in gold panning activities.

Summary on education

Despite the existence of a significant number of educational infrastructure in the Yako Division, the NRS is quite low (43.3%) compared to the provincial (53.0%) and regional (49.9%) rates. In addition to the urban/rural gap, discrimination is felt at the gender level. In effect, the NRS for girls is lower (35.5%) than that for boys (44.3%). On the other hand, the survey reveals that at the household level, the NRS is higher in households managed by women (45.1%) than those headed by men (34.1%). This phenomenon is remarkable at the primary level.

The division's success rate in obtaining a PSC is quite low (52.1%). Of those who passed, 49.7 percent have enrolled in secondary schools. It is in rural villages where that the highest success rates can be found.

The literacy rate is likewise very low (25%) for the whole of Yako Division. By breaking down the illiterate population by gender, one can observe that 15.8 percent of men (against 9.7% of women) have become literate. The dropout rate, which amounts to 2.5 percent at the division's level, is significant and seems to be an urban and male phenomenon. Its major causes are the cost of schooling and demands of family chores.

Food security
Availability of grain stocks at the household level

In the Yako Division, 70.5 percent of households living in rural areas keep stocks of cereals. At the village level, 15 out of 39 villages have more than 80 percent households with stocks of cereals. In Soa, every household has a stock at its disposal. However, it is not just enough to have a stock of food; such should also adequately cover the food

Table 20. Quantitative Aspects of the Food Situation in the Yako Division

Villages	Stocks of Cereals Available (% households)	Buffer Stocks of Cereals Until Next Harvest) (% household)	Number of Meals/Man/Day (average)	Number of Meals/ Woman/Day (average)	Number of Meals/ Child/Day (average)
Baskaré	62.3	81.8	1.8	2	2.6
Bouboulou	66.6	47.8	2.2	2.4	3.3
Boulma	65.3	45.0	2	2.2	3.1
Boura	80.5	7.1	2.1	2.1	3.1
Bouria	49.8	51.5	22	2.4	3.4
Doure	81.5	11.2	2.2	2.4	3.1
Gandado ´	59.3	17.9	1.7	2.2	3
Gobila	56.8	9.5	1.5	2.1	2.4
Golo	63.2	12.5	2.2	2.2	3.1
Gonsin	98.8	23.8	2.4	2.4	3.4
Goungha	93.5	15.4	1.6	2.1	2.8
Kabo	52.2	11.8	2.1	2.3	3.1
Kéo	98.6	6.8	1.5	2	2.4
Koalla	64.9	14.9	1.7	2	3.3
Koaltanghin	92.3	25.1	2	2.1	2.9
Kolbila	96.5	37.4	1.9	2.1	2.8
Lilbouré	86.8	21.6	2.2	2.4	3.1
Moutoulou	74.6	33.8	2.2	2.3	3.3
Nabegyan	58.6	21.6	2.1	2.7	3.6
Naqsene	96.8	42.4	2.4	2.5	3.7
Napan	38.8	42.1	2.1	2.2	3.5
Noussou	52.5	20.8	1.8	1.9	2.8
Ouaille	87.4	11.1	2.4	2.6	3.9
Ouedkiougo	62.3	8.1	2.1	2.3	3.1
Pelegtenga	87.4	23.4	2.7	2.5	3.3
Petit Samba	62.3	3.6	1.6	1.7	2.2
Ragounda	83.2	-	2.1	2.1	3.1
Rallo	50.9	34.1	2.2	2.2	3.1
Roumtenga	71.0	17.3	2	2.1	3
Sabo	54.5	13.3	2.2	2.5	3.9
Saria	85.4	9.3	1.4	2.1	2.9
Sassa	94.9	7.3	2	2.2	3.2
Soa	100.0	42.1	1.5	1.8	2.6
Songnaba	61.0	16.3	2	2.3	3
Tanguin	1.3	100.0	2.8	2.8	3.8
Taonsgo	72.5	20.0	2.4	2.4	3.1
Tibin	36.6	28.6	2	2	2.7
Tindila	69.1	32.9	2.1	2.2	3
Zizon	89.1	12.3	2.1	2.2	3.3
Sec.1Yako	18.5	10.2	2.2	2.1	2.3
Sec.2Yako	12.6	19.4	1.7	2	2.1
Sec.3Yako	13.6	13.2	2.3	2.3	2.1
Sec.4Yako	23.4	20.9	1.9	2.3	3
Sec.5Yako	19.5	-	2.4	2.3	2.3
Sec.6Yako	35.6	13.2	1.9	2.4	3.1
Sec.7Yako	70.8	18.3	2	2.2	3.1
Total	57.5	21.4			2.9

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

needs of the household until the next harvest season. From this point of view, only 22.5 percent of the households in the division are covered. In the village of Soa, 42.1 percent of households have a buffer stock of cereals for their food requirements (Table 20). However, out of the 39 villages in the division, 19 have less than 20 percent of households with adequate buffer stocks. This situation is quite alarming in Bouria, Napan, Ragounda, Tanghin and Tinbin, where more than 50 percent of households do not possess cereal stocks. One can thus conclude that the there is no food security in this situation.

Quantities of food consumed by the population in the division
At the division's level, the survey shows that men eat two meals per day; women, 2.2 and children, 2.9. One out of three villages in the division shows that men's consumption is below that of the division's average rate. The village of Tanghin has the highest average (2.8), and Saria, the lowest (1.4). Yako City, meanwhile, has three out of seven sectors showing men's average number of meals at lower that of the division's average. Sector 5 has the highest average (2.4) and Sector 2, the lowest (1.7).

While women's average number of meals per day is higher than that of men, 15 out of the 39 villages have their average consumption at less than 2.2 meals a day. This case applies as well to two out of the seven sectors.

Tanghin has the highest average (2.8), ahead of Sector 6's 2.4 figure. The village of Petit Samba has the lowest average number of meals (1.7). In Yako City, Sector 3 holds the lowest average (2.0).

The village of Ouaille has the highest average in terms of meals per day taken by children (3.9) while Sector 3 has the lowest (2.1). This situation is quite paradoxical since four out of seven sectors in Yako have averages lower than the division's average. One can thus conclude that households in the Yako Division do not pay a substantial amount for their children's nourishment.

Table 21. Qualitative Aspects of the Food Situation in the Yako Division

Villages	Average No. of Meals per Week	Average No. of Rice Meal per Week	Average No. of Meals with Meat per Week	Average No. of Meals with Fish per Week	Average No. of Times of Other Meals per Week
Baskaré	5.8	0.2	0.1	0.7	1
Bouboulou	5.8	0.3	0.8	1.4	2
Boulma	6.7	0.3	0.3	1.1	1.8
Boura	6.7	0.4	0.4	1.8	1
Bouria	6.5	0.4	0.7	0.3	2
Doure	6.7	0.3	0.6	1.1	2.1
Gandado	7.0	0.4	0.8	1.3	1.3
Gobila	6.5	0.1	0.6	1.5	0.8
Golo	7.0	0.7	1.0	4.6	1.2
Gonsin	6.6	0.5	0.7	2.3	1.8
Goungha	5.7	0.2	0.5	0.5	1.2
Kabo	6.8	0.5	0.7	1.6	1.8
Kèo	5.3	0.1	0.2	0.5	1.6
Koalla	5.8	0.1	0.6	1.2	1.1
Koaltanghin	4.9	0.3	0.7	1.6	2
Kolbila	6.8	0.4	1.0	1.9	2
Lilbouré	6.2	0.9	1.0	3.4	1.5
Moutoulou	6.7	0.2	0.6	2.5	1.9
Nabegyan	5.4	0.1	0.9	2.6	1.5
Nagsene	4.8	0.0	0.5	2.9	2.2
Napan	5.5	0.0	0.1	0.2	1.5
Noussou	6.1	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.7
Ouaille	6.2	0.7	0.9	4.6	1.7
Ouedkiougo	3.7	1.3	1.1	1.9	2.1
Pelegtenga	6.1	0.9	0.9	5.0	2.2
Petit Samba	6.4	0.3	0.4	1.3	1.6
Ragounda	6.7	0.7	0.8	1.8	1.9
Rallo	6.8	0.3	0.4	1.3	1
Roumtenga	6.9	0.3	0.6	1.9	1.2
Sabo	11.0	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.7
Saria	5.2	0.2	0.6	1.9	1.9
Sassa	6.4	0.8	1.0	3.3	1.7
Soa	6.9	0.3	0.3	0.2	1.5
Songnaba	6.9	1.0	1.1	2.9	1.9
Tanquin	4.9	0.7	0.7	1.7	1.4
Taonsgo	6.2	0.5	0.3	1.2	0.6
Tibin	5.6	0.5	1.2	2.6	1
Tindila	6.8	0.9	0.7	1.2	1.2
Zizon	5.8	0.1	0.2	1.4	1.6
Sec.1Yako	5.5	2.0	2.1	3.9	1.5
Sec.2Yako	6.4	1.3	1.7	3.7	0.8
Sec.3Yako	5.5	2.7	2.5	4.9	1.5
Sec.4Yako	5.8	1.3	1.3	4.5	1
Sec.5Yako	5.2	1.9	1.4	4.6	0.8
Sec.6Yako	6.7	1.1	1.3	3.9	1.6
Sec.7Yako	4.8	0.4	0.6	3.1	1.9
Total	6.1	0.8	0.9	2.6	1.5

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

Quality of food consumed

At the division's level, households consumed the tô (a paste made of flour sorghum, maize or millet) 6.1 times; other meals, 1.5 times; and rice, 0.8 times during the week (Table 21). These meals are eaten 0.9 times per week with meat, and 2.6 times per week with fish. Households in the Yako Division mostly consume the tô, other food types and rice, in that order. Rice is hardly consumed once a week, just as meat. Households consume more fish than meat. This may be partially because the division has a nearby dam where fish breeding and marketing are developed. The residents' low consumption of animal proteins is the dominant characteristic in these particular households' nutrition.

At the village level, the survey reveals that among the 24 villages whose consumption of tô is more than the division on average, there exist five villages where households consume meat at least once a week, and four villages where fish is consumed at least three times a week. Sabo holds the record in terms of highest average consumption of to per week (11 times), with hardly any fish. Ouekiougo holds the lowest average consumption of tô (3.7 times), with 1.1 times of meat, and 1.9 times of fish per week. Moreover, it is only in the villages where households consume rice at an average of once per week.

Rice consumption is more significant in the city of Yako. Households in six out of seven sectors consume rice at least once a week. Sector 7 registered the lowest consumption (0.4 times) while Sector 3 has the highest (5.5 times). All households that eat rice at least weekly also consume meat or fish at least once a week. The correlation between these variables shows that households living in semi-urban areas are distinctly better nourished. Their food is varied and rich in animal protein.

On the over-all, however, household nutrition is dominated by the tô and characterized by low animal protein intake, which has significant consequences on a child's development.

Degree of organization and access to credit

Among the population ages 10 years and above, 27.7 percent are

Table 22. Distribution of Population According to Membership in an Organization, and Access to Credit

Villages	Population Aged 10 and Above, Member of An Organization	Male Population Aged 10 and Above, Member of An Organization	Female Population Aged 10 and Above, Member of An Organization	Population Having No Access to Credit
Baskaré	50.6	62	41.8	98.1
Bouboulou	19.2	18.4	19.9	99.7
Boulma	17.3	16.8	17.7	100
Boura	28.8	25.2	32.1	100
Bouria	3.8	6.7	1.4	86.5
Doure	53.1	56.3	50.8	78.3
Gandado	35.9	33	38.3	89.4
Gobila	57.8	45.6	66.7	81.1
Golo	29.1	23.9	33.7	100
Gonsin	50.7	45.1	55.1	100
Goungha	52.6	45.9	57.7	100
Kabo	18.5	19.9	17.4	100
Kéo	76.2	78.3	74.8	81.1
Koalla	8.1	9.3	7.2	97
Koaltanghin	31.7	27.3	35.3	98.3
Kolbila	42.2	40.4	43.8	71.5
Lilbouré	26.5	23.7	28.8	93.4
Moutoulou	25.8	22.4	28.4	99.7
Nabegyan	39	41.5	36.8	82.8
Nagsene	23.5	19.6	26.4	67.4
Napan	22.7	17.5	27.1	95.9
Noussou	19.2	14.7	23.3	98
Ouaille	33.3	28	37.5	100
Ouedkiougo	34.3	33.3	35.1	100
Pelegtenga	31.9	23.4	39.1	100
Petit Samba	35.6	25.9	44	99.7
Ragounda	64	69.3	60.4	100
Rallo	24.8	25.5	24.2	100
Roumtenga	33.5	32.8	34.1	100
Sabo	38	36.9	38.9	96.4
Saria	40.7	37.3	43.6	94.8
Sassa	24.2	16.4	30.8	68.2
Soa	67.2	63.4	70.4	38.6
Songnaba	37.4	32	41.9	96.4
Tanguin	60	56.2	62.3	97.4
Taonsgo	32.8	27.9	37	96.4
Tibin	28.4	34.4	23.3	100
Tindila	25.9	20.6	30.6	82.9
Zizon	21.4	20.2	22.4	83.9
Sec.1Yako	26.7	23.2	29.5	97.7
Sec.2Yako	18.5	8.7	27.1	98.9
Sec.3Yako	10.3	8.1	12.4	100
Sec.4Yako	14.5	11.7	17.3	94.3
Sec.5Yako	13.7	19.4	8.4	99
Sec.6Yako	18.1	10.7	24.3	87.1
Sec.7Yako	26.3	11.3	39.3	98.9
Total	**27.6**	**24.5**	**30.3**	**94.2**

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May./June 2003

members of an organization. The village of Bouria has the lowest rate (3.8%) and Keo (76.2%), the highest in the division (Table 22).

All the seven sectors of Yako City show rates below the division's average, whereas 25 out 39 villages have a rate above that of the division. Sector 3 has the lowest membership rate for men (8.1%). Thus, one may deduce that the rural population has more inclination for organizing itselves than do those in Yako City.

The analysis along gender lines show women as more organized (30.3%) than men (24.5%) in the whole division. Nevertheless, in nine villages (Boura, Kaolla, Kabo, Rallo, Tibin, Nabegyan, Doure, Baskare and Ragounda), the males' rate for organization is the highest at 62 percent relative to women's 41.8 percent.

Access to Credit

A low proportion of households (5.8%) in the division has access to credit. Only five villages have an access rate higher than 20 percent: These are Soa, Nagsene, Sassa, Kobila and Doure. The village of Soa distinguishes itself as having the highest access-to-credit rate in the division that is, 61.4 percent of its households benefit from credit.

On the other hand, the survey shows that in 13 villages and Sector 3 in Yako, households do not have access at all. Sectors 5 and 7 have rates lower than the division's 5.8 percent. Only Sector 6 boasts an access rate of 12.9 percent. Credit thus seems to be relatively more accessible to the rural population (6.6%) than to those in Yako City (3.7%).

Household material and living conditions

Living conditions of household in the Yako Division were evaluated based on data collected on housing, the quality of the roof and floor of the main house, and furniture and lighting of the household.

Housing

For roofing, sheet metal (zinc) is a material that reflects more comfortable living conditions than straw or earth. Table 23 shows

Table 23. Distribution of Household According to the Nature of the Roof and Floor of the Main House

Villages	Roof of the Main House			Floor of the Main House	
	Sheet Metal	Thatch or straw	Earth	Banco	Cement
Baskarè	24.1	44.4	31.5	98.1	1.9
Bouboulou	42.8	37.3	19.9	75.6	22.2
Boulma	46.5	29.4	23.5	83.5	15.9
Boura	43.2	27.3	29.5	73.9	26.1
Bouria	30	46.9	23.2	74.9	25.1
Doure	45.1	28.8	24.5	98.4	-
Gandado	47.8	35.4	16.8	68.1	16.8
Gobila	59.5	29.7	10.8	83.8	13.5
Golo	71.1	7.9	21.1	81.9	18.1
Gonsin	43.2	18.5	38.3	85.2	7.4
Goungha	27.3	51.8	20.9	92.1	7.9
Kabo	38.4	48.6	12.6	85	15
Kéo	13.5	67.3	18.9	97.3	2.7
Koalla	31.3	54.5	14.2	95.5	3.7
Koaltanghin	29.5	33.8	36.8	92.3	7.7
Kolbila	42.5	34	23.6	70.8	26.4
Lilbourè	60.1	23.2	16.7	85.3	14.7
Moutoulou	37.1	24.3	38.3	88.2	11.2
Nabegyan	35.6	35.6	28.7	43.7	6.9
Nagsene	55.8	22.1	22.1	80	20
Napan	36.7	32.7	30.6	89.8	10.2
Noussou	34.7	60.4	5	93.1	6.9
Ouaille	44.7	35	20.4	96.1	3.9
Ouedkiougo	45.3	24.5	30.2	66	34
Pelegtenga	60.4	21.5	18.1	45.6	30.9
Petit Samba	28.3	49.6	22.1	80.4	9.4
Ragounda	39.5	47.1	13.7	96.1	3.9
Rallo	30.5	26.3	43.1	65.9	34.1
Roumtenga	40.5	42	17.1	97	3
Sabo	29.1	45.5	25.5	85.5	3.6
Saria	39.4	28.2	31.9	55.9	44.1
Sassa	64.3	2.5	29.3	82.8	17.2
Soa	12.3	86	1.8	98.2	1.8
Songnaba	41.5	23.7	34.7	86.8	13.2
Tanguin	67.1	32.9	-	88.6	11.4
Taonsgo	65.9	116	22.5	29.7	50.7
Tibin	38.4	18.6	43	71.5	20.3
Tindila	45.4	45.9	8.2	98.6	1.4
Zizon	32.1	60.6	7.3	95.6	4.4
Sec.1Yako	98.5	-	1.5	10.6	88.7
Sec.2Yako	86	4.5	9.4	51	49
Sec.3Yako	98.7	1.3	-	13.8	86.2
Sec.4Yako	92.7	1.6	5.7	19	81
Sec.5Yako	91.2	7.8	1	40.6	59.2
Sec.6Yako	77.5	4.9	17.5	49.6	50.4
Sec.7Yako	57.3	24.3	18.4	81.1	18.9
Total	54.4	26.4	19.1	68.4	29.1

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May/June 2003

that for the whole division, 54.4 percent of households have roofing of sheet metal (zinc); 26.4 percent, of straw; and 19.1 percent, of earth (bay). In other words, almost half the households sleep under unsafe roofing, especially during the rainy season. The village of Soa registers the lowest rate for sheet metal at 12.3 percent. Only eight out of 39 villages have a rate higher than that of the division. They are Nagsene (55.8%), Gobila (59.5%), Liboure (60.1%), Palentenga (60.4%), Sassa (64.3%), Taonsgo (65.9%), Tanghin (67.1%) and Golo (71.1%).

All sectors of Yako City have percentage figures for sheet metal at above the division's average. Sector 7 has the lowest rate (57.3%) and Sector 3, the highest (97.7%). Houses roofed with sheet metal (aluminium zinc) are mainly concentrated in Yako City.

For the flooring, 68.4 percent of the households in the division use *banco*; 29.1 percent, cement; and 2.4 percent, tiles.

Only well-to-do households afford to cover their floors with tiles. Meanwhile, seven out of 39 villages have households using banco for floors although these are at rates below the division's average (81.1%).

Bed types

For most people, a mat on the bare floor is obviously less comfortable than a bed with a mattress. The survey reveals that 50.1 percent of household heads in the division sleep on a mat and only 19.3 percent lie on a bed with mattress (Table 24). In the rural areas, 18 in 39 villages have a lower percentage of mat users than the average for the whole division. Baskare holds the highest percentage and Tibin the lowest. Eight villages' percentage of household heads using mattresses is higher than the average for the division. These villages are Goungha, Noussou, Nagsene, Zizon, Golo, Sassa, Tibin and Tanghin. Tanghin has the highest percentage among the villages and Keo, the lowest.

In the city of Yako, five in seven sectors have a rate of mattress users that is higher than that of the division. Sector 3 has the highest rate (49.7%) and Sector 7, the lowest (14.1%).

Table 24. Distribution of Households According to Bedding and Type of Lighting (%)

Villages	Types of beds			Types of lighting		
	Mat	Wooden Bed	Bed with Mattress	Kerosene Lamp	Flash Light	Fire Wood
Baskaré	98.1	-	1.9	9.3	75.9	14.8
Bouboulou	38.3	43.1	18	55.6	37.3	6.8
Boulma	41.8	48.8	7.6	10.6	84.7	4.7
Boura	42	46.6	6.8	54.7	34.9	9.3
Bouria	58.5	27.5	7.7	31.9	66.7	1.4
Doure	54.9	38.6	4.9	44.6	47.8	7.6
Gandado	45.9	45.9	8.3	19.8	66.7	11.7
Gobila	75.7	10.8	10.8	35.1	10.8	54.1
Golo	59.2	15.5	25.4	89	8.2	1.4
Gonsin	33.3	55.6	9.9	37	40.7	22.2
Goungha	45.5	31.3	23.1	30.2	38.8	30.9
Kabo	54.1	27.6	17.2	28.2	50.7	17.7
Kéo	62.2	36.5	1.4	16.4	47.9	35.6
Koalla	60.2	30.8	9	26.3	55.6	18
Koaltanghin	30.5	63.1	3	3.8	87.6	8.5
Kolbila	49.3	40.3	9.7	22.2	55.6	22.2
Lilbouré	38.9	46	13.1	57.6	39.4	1
Moutoulou	62.8	26.2	10.1	39.7	49.4	10.6
Nabegyan	65.5	27.6	6.9	59.8	25.3	14.9
Nagsene	32.6	40	24.2	2.1	97.9	-
Napan	54.2	29.2	10.4	40.9	56.8	2.3
Noussou	54	20	24	55	28	17
Ouaille	51.5	35	9.7	79.6	15.5	4.9
Ouedkiougo	54.7	37.7	3.8	67.9	20.8	11.3
Pelegtenga	41.2	41.9	12.8	65.8	33.6	-
Petit Samba	79.3	8.2	11.9	40.2	24	35.3
Ragounda	92.2	-	2	41.2	33.3	25.5
Rallo	30.2	67.3	2.5	52.7	34.7	12.6
Roumtenga	73	15.4	10.1	54.5	22	23.1
Sabo	49.1	34.5	16.4	49.1	34.5	16.4
Saria	54.5	41.8	2.8	42.3	43.2	14.6
Sassa	36.9	32.5	29.3	34.4	64.3	1.3
Soa	53.6	42.9	1.8	22.8	45.6	31.6
Songnaba	51.6	30.9	15.3	73.7	21.1	4.5
Tanguin	43	8.9	35.4	17.7	82.3	-
Taonsgo	47.1	31.2	18.8	86.9	10.9	2.2
Tibin	29.4	32.9	35.3	17.9	70.2	11.9
Tindila	59.2	19.9	17.4	36.6	56.6	6.8
Zizon	32.6	42.2	24.4	54.1	43.6	2.3
Sec.1Yako	42.2	1.1	40.7	61.1	1.5	-
Sec.2Yako	36.8	15	43.6	70.9	12.6	3.5
Sec.3Yako	31.5	0.5	49.7	51.5	1.3	-
Sec.4Yako	45.9	8.2	41	72.8	9.2	0.5
Sec.5Yako	64.7	2.6	18.2	75.7	3.4	0.8
Sec.6Yako	51.4	11.6	33.8	93.8	2.7	2.5
Sec.7Yako	40.2	45.7	14.1	60.5	34.3	5.2
Total	50.1	26.4	19.3	50.7	34.1	9.1

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

In conclusion, findings show that majority of household heads sleep on a mat on the bare floor, whereas it is the city folk, especially in Sector 3 and Yako City, use beds with mattresses.

Type of lighting

Electricity has not reached the division yet, and this is why only 5.8 percent of all households use it. Electric power is mainly found in Yako City, particularly in Sector 3, where 47.2 percent of households use it.

The kerosene lamp is the preferred mode of lighting in the division (50.7% of households). The flashlight comes in second place. It is used by one in three households (34.1%). Sector 6 holds the highest percentage of users of the storm lantern or hurricane lamp (93.8%), and the village of Nagsene shows the lowest (2.1%). Gobila still uses mostly fire wood for lighting.

Supply of drinking water

Water constitutes a scarce resource, and access to drinking water is a welfare or poverty criterion. Table 25 shows the division's mode of access to drinking water.

Forty percent of households in the Yako Division do not have drinking water all year round. Two out of five persons get their water supply from traditional wells (39.5%) and rivers and ponds (0.6%). In the village of Soa, 52.6 percent of households fetch their drinking water from traditional wells and 47.4 percent, from rivers and ponds.

Tap water is mainly distributed in Yako City, but only 11.6 percent of households benefit from it. One in four households (25.8%) get their drinking water from a bus well and 22.4 percent fetch theirs from the bore hole. In the villages of Baskare and Gobila, every household gets its supply of drinking water from the bus well (100%). Songnaba has the highest percentage of households that get their supply of drinking water from traditional wells.

Table 25. Distribution of Households According to a Main Source of Drinking Water

Villages	Bore hole	Bussed Well	Tap Water	Traditional Well	Others
Baskaré		100			
Bouboulou	8	30.5		61.4	
Boulma	91.2	1.8		7.1	
Boura	33	63.6		3.4	
Bouria	1.4	63.3	0.5	34.8	
Doure	84.8	12		3.3	
Gandado	5.3	41.6		53.1	
Gobila		100			
Golo		55.3		44.7	
Gonsin	63	13.6		23.5	
Goungha	48.9	10.8		40.3	
Kabo	41.2	1.7		57.1	
Kèo	50	21.6		28.4	
Koalla	14.9	33.6		51.5	
Koaltanghin	15.4	19.7		65	
Kolbila	6.3	4.2		89.6	
Lilbourè	11.1	43.9		44.9	
Moutoulou	5.2	4.9	1.1	87.4	1.4
Nabegyan	67.8	27.6		4.6	
Nagsene	95.8	4.2			
Napan	34.7	65.3			
Noussou	3	23.8		73.3	
Ouaille	19.4	13.6		67	
Ouedkiougo	17			83	
Pelegtenga	36.2	0.7		63.1	
Petit Samba	12.5	6.8		80.7	
Ragounda	19.6	56.9		23.5	
Rallo	47.9	37.7		14.4	
Roumtenga	55.4	37.2		7.4	
Sabo	32.7	65.5		1.8	
Saria		15.5		84.5	
Sassa	12.7	45.9		41.4	
Soa				52.6	47.4
Songnaba	7.8	0.4		91.7	
Tanguin	3.8	96.2			
Taonsgo	19.6	12.3		67.4	0.7
Tibin	39	50.6		10.5	
Tindila	26.1	44.9		26.6	2.4
Zizon	6.6	41.6		51.8	
Sec.1Yako	7.9	7.9	81.5	2.6	
Sec.2Yako	22.7	0.7	41.3	35.3	
Sec.3Yako	2.6	12.3	84.6	0.5	
Sec.4Yako	7.3	40.8	24.5	27.4	
Sec.5Yako	17.5	46.6	35.1	0.8	
Sec.6Yako	25.2	18.5	11.4	41.7	3.2
Sec.7Yako	30.3	69.7			
Total	**22.4**	**25.8**	**11.6**	**39.5**	**0.6**

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey. May /June 2003

Ownership of some basic goods

Means of transport and communication

As shown in Table 26, most households own a bicycle as their means of transport (1.41 per household), followed by the moped (0.36 per household). There are 26 villages where more households own bicycles than the division on average. Nagsene registers the highest average in the division: 2.66 bicycles and 1.07 mopeds per household.

Television is not yet widely used. Only 6.9 percent of households in the division own a TV. In contrast, 62.3 percent of households own transistor radios. There are 21 villages that have a percentage higher that the division's average. Paletenga has the highest rate (87.9%) and Keo, the lowest rate (35.1%) of households possessing a functional radio.

Kitchen appliances and utensils

Refrigerators are owned by urban households, mainly in Sector 3 in Yako City, where 13.6 percent own one. Moreover, this ratio is the highest in the division.

The average number of ownership of metallic pots is 3.58 per household; aluminium plates, 2.66; plastic plates, 1.8; and china plates, 0.66 per household.

Ownership of metallic pots is a sign that a household is more comfortable than those who use clay pots (or canaries) for cooking. Thirteen villages possess at least four metallic pots per household. The village of Bouboulou holds the highest average number (2.37). Only Sector 6 of Yako City has an average figure (3.59) higher than that of the division.

Each household has an average of 2.66 aluminium plates. The village of Ouaille possesses the highest average number of aluminium plates (10.12) and plastic plates (3.45). Only two villages (Roumtenga and Ouedkiougo) have at least one China plate per household. In the city, only four sectors (Sectors 1, 2, 3 and 4) own at least a China plate per household.

In conclusion, the average number of metallic pots per household

Table 26. Distribution of Some Basic Goods in Averages (%)

Villages	Bicycle	Moped	Radio	TV	Pots	Aluminum Plates	Plastic Plates	Dyed Cloth/ 6 Months	Fanci Cloth / 6 Months	Woven Cloth / 6 Months	Waxed Cloth / 6 Months
Baskaré	1.87	0.26	72.2	1.9	4.61	4.48	2.65	2.33	1.89	1.19	0.5
Bouboulou	1.6	0.31	59.5	1	5.27	1.84	0.35	0.04	2.24	0.41	0.15
Boulma	2.35	0.55	75.3	2.4	4.42	3.43	2.28	0.04	0.98	0.58	0.09
Boura	1.75	0.22	65.9	2.3	2.75	0.87	0.55	2	0.64	0.24	0.26
Bouria	1.76	0.34	58.5	1.9	4	2.11	1.14	0.48	0.56	0.09	0.1
Doure	1.7	0.29	79.9	1.6	3.11	1.96	1.33	0	1.06	0.66	0.29
Gandado	1.48	0.17	55.8	1.8	3.86	2.68	3.45	0.22	0.8	0.15	0.03
Gobila	1.19	0.38	56.8	5.4	3.08	1	0.95	0	1.08	0	0
Golo	1.89	0.52	67.1	1.3	2.87	0.64	0.63	6	1.28	0.27	0.3
Gonsin	1.75	0.4	65.4	2.5	4.37	2.74	2.77	0.37	3.05	0.01	0.68
Goungha	1.33	0.22	43.2	0.7	3.01	2.01	1.55	0.68	1.01	0.43	0.07
Kabo	1.49	0.29	55.8	1.4	4.4	2.24	1.67	0.32	1.5	0.23	0.19
Kéo	1	0.11	35.1	-	2.73	2.19	2.05	1.56	0.51	0.77	0.04
Koalla	1.66	0.19	50.7	-	3.69	5.68	1.06	0.8	0.37	0.19	0.03
Koaltanghin	1.52	0.21	63.7	0.9	4.44	3.38	1.02	0.04	0.7	0.14	0.05
Kolbila	1.82	0.31	60.4	2.1	3.03	5.7	1.66	1.33	1.52	0.26	0.4
Lilbouré	1.35	0.36	60.6	1.5	3.38	4.86	1.29	5.71	4.07	1.10	0.68
Moutoulou	1.59	0.26	64.6	2	3.8	5.62	2.22	1.5	1.63	0.43	0.12
Nabegyan	1.16	0.1	52.9	1.1	3.36	1.85	1.78	0.26	3.70	0.26	0.9
Nagsene	2.66	1.07	76.8	12.6	5.07	5.35	1.91	0.11	2.26	0.22	0.98
Napan	1.47	0.27	57.1	-	3.57	1.9	1.27	0	1.39	0	0.12
Noussou	1.31	0.23	49.5	2	4.59	3.63	2	0.35	2.16	0.41	0.18
Ouaille	1.43	0.29	67	1.9	4.79	10.12	3.45	0.15	3.46	0.1	0.4
Ouedkiougo	1.43	0.19	66	-	3.43	1.55	3.06	0	2.43	0.64	0.25
Pelegtenga	1.72	0.67	87.9	8.1	5.18	3.03	2.42	25	3.03	0.72	5.75
Petit Samba	1.22	0.19	42.2	1.7	2.37	1.32	1.15	1.62	0.84	0.07	0.18
Ragounda	1.29	0.10	68.6	-	3.35	4.22	3	0	1.08	0.88	0.02
Rallo	1.83	0.28	58.1	1.2	3.76	3.05	2.18	0	1.07	0.02	0.39
Roumtenga	1.40	0.28	54.3	1.9	3.34	1.44	1.44	2.17	0.78	0.27	0.23
Sabo	1.82	0.36	81.8	1.8	3.53	2.36	2.27	0	1.67	0.11	0.73
Saria	0.85	0.12	42.3	1.9	2.85	2.3	1.81	0.55	0.96	0.28	0.24
Sassa	1.96	0.54	71.3	7	4.64	1.05	1.55	0	3.11	0.57	2.35
Soa	1.4	0.11	57.9	1.8	3.98	2.6	2.49	0.11	0.4	0.7	0.09
Songnaba	1.43	0.26	65	3.6	3.15	1.98	1.88	2.23	1.38	0.02	0.54
Tanguin	1.81	0.53	79.7	-	4.14	2.29	1.43	0.24	1.56	0.27	0.57
Taonsgo	1.22	0.34	63	2.9	3.33	4.28	1.51	0.18	1.25	0.12	0.25
Tibin	1.81	0.28	66.3	3.5	3.57	6.66	2.6	2.46	1.41	0.12	0.52
Tindila	1.12	0.22	62.8	1.9	3.78	2.49	1.67	0.02	0.74	0.30	0.24
Zizon	1.5	0.34	64.2	-	3.17	2.61	0.99	0.28	1.12	0.23	0.09
Sec.1Yako	0.74	0.54	64.9	24.2	3.03	1.5	2.49	1.4	0.78	0.11	1.09
Sec.2Yako	1.11	0.49	55.2	15.7	3.51	2.26	1.91	1.87	0.79	0.05	1.43
Sec.3Yako	0.85	0.56	75.1	36.7	2.92	2.09	2.67	0.3	1.04	0.07	2.18
Sec.4Yako	1.1	0.55	69	20.4	3.17	1.83	2.12	0.03	1.12	0.02	1.13
Sec.5Yako	1.05	0.54	65.7	17.9	3	1.78	2.77	0.03	1.32	0.1	1.28
Sec.6Yako	1.35	0.44	62	6.2	3.59	1.39	1.44	0.27	1.31	0.08	0.47
Sec.7Yako	1.64	0.32	59.5	4.3	3.25	1.66	0.15	0.02	2.87	0.05	0.24
Total	1.41	0.36	62.3	6.9	3.58	2.66	1.8	0.3	1.42	0.24	0.67

Source: Poverty Monitoring System (PMS) Survey, May /June 2003

is relatively low in the division. A similar tendency is reflected for plates in aluminium, plastic and China.

Clothing

The survey took into consideration four types of fabric: waxed cloth, *fanci* cloth, women cloth and dyed fabric.

In the six months preceding the survey, households bought fanci cloth (1.42 per household); waxed cloth (0.24 per household); dyed cloth; and woven cloth (0.24 per household). These figures are relatively low and imply in effect, a low purchasing power among households.

During the period mentioned above, only two villages (Pelegtenga and Sassa) had households purchasing more than one fabric. Pelegtenga, a gold-washing village, had more purchases (5.75 per household). At Gobila, households bought neither waxed, woven nor dyed cloth. Moreover, it is in Yako City where households bought at least one waxed cloth. Five out of seven sectors in Yako City had a figure greater than unity ("1"): They are in Sectors 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. Sector 3 has the highest average number of waxed cloth bought per household (2.18).

Liboure holds the most significant number of fanci clothing (4.07 per household). Sixteen villages have household purchases higher than the division's average (2.87 fanci cloth per household). Eight villages did not purchase dyed fabric in the last six months before the survey. These are Gobila, Napan, Rallo, Ouekieougou, Sabo, Doure, Ragounda and Sassa. Golo holds the largest average number of dyed fabric bought per household. As for woven cloth, only two villages have a figure greater than unity: These are Baskare (1.19) and Liboure (1.10).

Conclusion

The survey in the Yako Division produced conclusive results that satisfactorily described the different facets of poverty in the 39 villages of the division, and the seven sectors of Yako City.

On the demographic level, the Yako Division in 2003 had a population of 73,290 inhabitants (34,635 men and 38,655 women)

comprising 8,454 households, of which 15.5 percent were managed by women. The following salient points characterize this population:

- *An extremely young population:* 49.3 percent of the population is less than or equal to 15 years old. Children less than five years old represent 19.3 percent of the population, which implies significant requirements for social investment, especially on health and education.

- *Large household sizes and the high proportion of dependent individuals:* These imply a need to manage numerous risks and constitute important sources of vulnerability. Given that households managed by women have a smaller size compared to those headed by men, it can be deduced that women are less vulnerable.

The survey reveals a low healthcare coverage. Only 11 out of 39 locations possess an HSPC, and distance hinders access to such. The number of times these HPSCs are frequented by the population is low because of, among others, (1) the lack of facilities in numerous villages; and (2) the high cost of health services, especially in Yako City. The morbidity rate is of great concern, and serious effort must be deployed to improve latrine use in the villages.

Despite the existence of a significant number of educational infrastructure, the NRS in the division is lower than provincial and regional rates. The NRS for girls is lower (35.5%) than that for boys (44.3%). At the household level, the survey reveals that the rate is higher in households managed by women (45.1%) than those headed by men (34.1%). The rate of success for obtaining the PSC is quite low.

The division's 25.5 percent literacy rate is very low, and the distribution rate is unfavorable to women. It can be observed that 15.8 percent of men (versus 9.7 percent of women) have effectively been taught how to read, write and calculate.

The dropout rate is quite significant and appears to be a male and urban phenomenon. Two major reasons for dropping out of school are the high cost of schooling and domestic chores.

The study also shows that there is no food security to speak of. More than two out of three households face hunger because they do not have adequate cereals stocks to tied them over until the next harvest season. The survey shows that men take an average of two meals a day; women take 2.2; and children have 2.9. The household's nutrition is mainly dominated by tô, which is characterized by low animal protein intake. This has significant consequences on children's growth and development.

The distribution of the population of those over 10 years old shows that 27.6 percent are members of an organization. Only a small proportion of households in the division have access to credit.

Meanwhile, 54.4 percent of households have house roofs made of metal sheets; 26.4 percent, of straw; and 19.1 percent, of earth. In other words, about one in two households sleeps under an unsafe roof, including during the rainy season. For flooring, 68.4 percent of the households cover it with banco; 29.1 percent, with cement; and 2.4 percent, with tiles.

The survey further reveals that in general, majority of household heads sleep on a mat on the floor. Beds with mattresses are mainly used in the city.

Electricity has not reached the countryside yet. Only 5.8 percent of households in the whole division use electricity.

Around 40.1 percent of households do not have drinking water all year round. Two out of five persons get their water supply from traditional wells and from rivers and ponds.

Most households own bicycles as a means of transportation. Meanwhile, the average number of metallic pots is relatively low in the division (3.58 per household). So is the use of aluminium plates (2.66 per household) and plastic plates (0.66 per household).

During the six month preceding the start of the survey, households purchased fanci cloth (1.42 per household); waxed cloth (0.67 per household); dyed cloth (0.3 per household); and woven cloth (0.4 per household), in this order. These figures are relatively low, and imply a low purchasing power among households.

Utilizing CBMS in Monitoring and Targeting the Poor: The Case of Barangay Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan

Celia Reyes, Kenneth Ilarde, Lani Valencia and Joel Bancolita

Introduction

The demand for information at the grassroots level stems from the call for greater transparency in governance. Such call necessitates effective monitoring and targeting of the poor, which has become a great challenge for local and national governments. The community-based monitoring system (CBMS) is one mechanism that can equip local and national governments to meet this challenge. It gathers grassroots-level information such as basic demographic variables as well as selected socio-economic data. The information generated will help not only in monitoring the welfare conditions of the people at the local level but can also be used as an instrument for effective implementation of poverty alleviation programs and interventions through accurate targeting. Selected local governments have taken the initiative of institutionalizing CBMS as a tool for better governance. The Province of Palawan is one such entity. The full implementation

of the system in the province started in January 2000. Information generated from the CBMS survey was used to facilitate the planning of programs and projects at the provincial, municipal and village levels. It was also utilized so that appropriate measures can be taken to address the needs of the province's constituents through the development of annual investment plans and preparation of socio-economic profiles.

The implementation was very successful that the province deemed it necessary to undertake a second survey, which was conducted in April 2002. The second survey followed up on the living conditions of the people in the province. It was also used to assess if the policies, programs and projects implemented to address the problems identified in the first round of CBMS survey, yielded the intended results.

The objectives of this paper are to monitor the welfare conditions of the local people, particularly the poor, and to provide an aggregate measure of poverty. The first aim examines the changes over time of the CBMS core indicators using the results from the CBMS surveys. Comparative analysis is crucial in assessing whether improvements in the living conditions of the people were achieved. Meanwhile, given the inadequacy of information, targeting the poor is undeniably a difficult task. The use of a composite index will identify who the poor really are by providing a ranking of households. Barangay Kemdeng, which is located in the Municipality of San Vicente, Palawan, is the focus of the case study.

The next part of this paper describes the physical characteristics of the *barangay*. The third section examines the different CBMS indicators reflecting the multi-dimensional nature of poverty. The fourth presents a summary of the indicators for the two years covered by the study. In the fifth part, the various indicators are combined using two approaches to come up with composite indicators. These composite indicators are then used to rank households. The next section examines the various uses of CBMS data, particularly in program design and implementation. The final part contains the conclusions and recommendations.

Physical characteristics of the Barangay

Barangay Kemdeng is one of 10 barangays in the Municipality of San Vicente, Palawan. San Vicente, located in the northwestern side of the main island of Palawan, is 186 kilometers from Puerto Princesa, the capital city. The barangay has a total land area of 4,928.10 hectares classified under four types of terrain: mountainous (70%), plain (12%), coastal (3%) and hilly (15%).

The boundaries of the barangay are Barangay Poblacion in the north, the Municipality of Roxas in the east, Barangay Port Barton in the south, and the South China Sea in the west. Six puroks—namely, Viscua, Mahayahay, Maunlad, Nagkakaisa, Maningning and Ugnayan—comprise the whole barangay, which is home to indigenous people (IP) called the Tagbanuas.

The barangay is accessible by both land and sea transportation. From Poblacion (town proper), the barangay can be reached via a 20-minute pump boat ride or a 30- to 45-minute travel by land. The only road network leading to the barangay is a graveled provincial road.

Facilities present in the barangay include a daycare center, a health center, an elementary school and a barangay hall.

Results of the 2000 and 2002 CBMS surveys
Demography

Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of Barangay Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan. In 2000, there were 135 households living in the barangay with a total population of 713 persons and an average household size of 5.3. However, these figures decreased in 2002, now down to 127 households composed of 612 persons and with an average household size of 4.8. The decrease in the number of households was due to migration: 27 households surveyed in 2000 migrated to other barangays and municipalities during the conduct of the 2002 CBMS survey. Some of these households had members working in a small-scale silicon mining business located in Purok Maunlad. The miners came from the nearby Municipality of Roxas and settled in the barangay.

Figure 1. Map of Barangay Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan
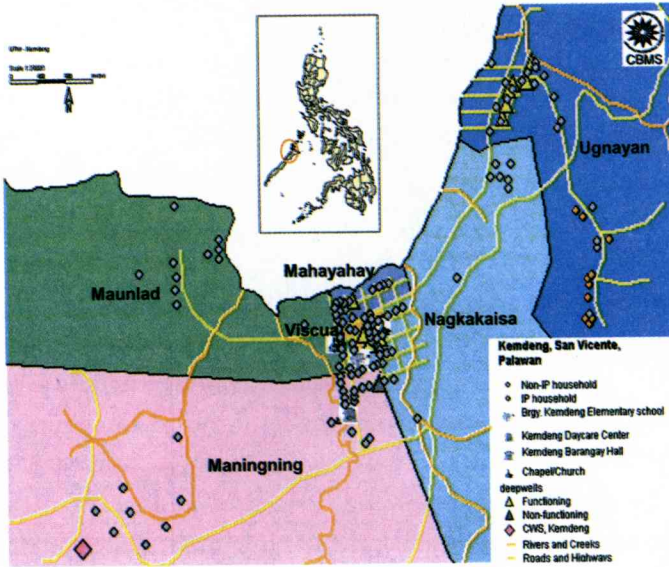
However, when mining operations ceased in 2000, they moved out of the barangay.

Meanwhile, the decrease in number of persons can be attributed to those households that did not include members who study in other locations such as Puerto Princesa City or even in Manila, or who are working as domestic helpers in Manila.

The 2000 CBMS survey results show that the highest number of households resided in Purok Maningning with 29 households, followed by Ugnayan with 28 households. In 2002, Purok Ugnayan had the most number of households with 30, followed by Purok Maningning with 27.

Meanwhile, during the two-year period, the number of IP households increased. In 2000, there were six IP households in the barangay with a population of 24 persons. In 2002, the number increased to 10 households with a population of 44 persons.

Across all purok, Purok Maningning registered the highest number of persons with 168 in 2000 and 145 in 2002. On the other hand,

Table 1. Selected Demographic Characteristics, Barangay Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Purok	2000			2002		
	Total House-holds	Total Persons	Average Household Size	Total House-holds	Total Persons	Average Household Size
Total	135	713	5.3	127	612	4.8
Mahayahay	15	88	5.9	15	84	5.6
Maningning	29	168	5.8	27	145	5.4
Maunlad	22	114	5.2	19	84	4.4
Nagkakaisa	25	153	6.1	25	123	4.9
Ugnayan	28	122	4.4	30	129	4.3
Viscua	16	68	4.3	11	47	4.3

Source of data: CBMS Surveys, 2000 and 2002

Purok Viscua recorded the lowest number of population in both survey years with 68 and 47. It is interesting to note that Purok Mahayahay and Purok Nagkakaisa registered the same number of households for 2000 and 2002 but the total number of persons drastically decreased, specifically in 2002. Purok Maunlad's population also declined significantly due to the closure of the silicon mining operation in the area.

Table 2 illustrates the population distribution with respect to gender. Over-all, there were 111 males for every 100 females in 2000. In 2002, the ratio increase to 115 males for every 100 females.

In both years, Purok Maningning had the greatest gender disparity with sex ratios of 127 in 2000 and 134 in 2002. All of the purok, except Purok Mahayahay and Purok Viscua, had more males than females.

Table 2. Total Population by Sex and by Purok, 2000 and 2002

Purok	2000				2002			
	Total Population	Sex		Sex Ratio	Total Population	Sex		Sex Ratio
		Male	Female			Male	Female	
Total	713	375	338	110.9	612	327	285	114.7
Mahayahay	88	43	45	95.5	84	42	42	100.0
Maningning	168	94	74	127.0	145	83	62	133.9
Maunlad	114	58	56	103.6	84	43	41	104.9
Nagkakaisa	153	86	67	128.4	123	69	54	127.8
Ugnayan	122	63	59	106.8	129	69	60	115.0
Viscua	68	31	37	83.8	47	21	26	80.8

Source of data: CBMS Surveys, 2000 and 2002

## Health and nutrition
Infant deaths
The 2000 CBMS survey did not indicate any infant death in Barangay Kemdeng. There were 13 male infants and 11 female infants in the barangay.

The 2002 survey recorded three infant deaths in the barangay. All infants were males and came from Purok Maunlad and Purok Ugnayan (Map 2). One cause of concern is that the two infant deaths occurred in just one household. The deaths were due to the inherently poor health conditions of the infants when they were born. Further assessment revealed that these two households had poor access to safe water and sanitary toilet facilities. One household had access to safe water but did not have access to sanitary toilet facility. The other household with two infant deaths did not have access to both these basic services.

Child deaths
Results of the CBMS surveys for both 2000 and 2002 revealed that there were no child deaths in the barangay.

Map 2. Infant Deaths, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2002
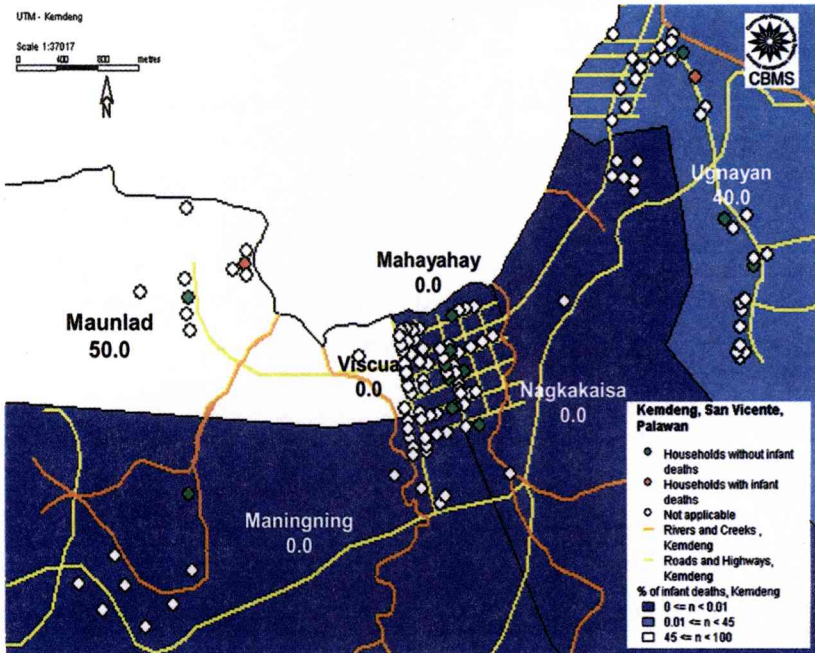
Source of data: CBMS Survey 2002

In 2000, the total number of children aged 0-6 six years old was 155, 85 of whom were males and 70, females. In 2002, there were 126 children of relevant age, 61 of whom were females. Among all the purok, Purok Ugnayan had the highest number of children aged 0-6 years old (27 children) while Purok Viscua had the least (11 children).

Prevalence of malnutrition

There were 137 children aged 0-5 years old in the barangay in 2000, 71 of which were males and 66, females. Among these children, seven (two males and five females) were in a state of severe malnutrition (second- and third-degree). No one among the IP children aged 0-5 years old was malnourished.

To address the problem of malnutrition, the barangay officials implemented a feeding program. It seems that some of malnourished children benefited from this program as their health status improved remarkably.

Only one child was unable to improve his health condition, as he remained severely malnourished in 2002. An additional five new children were also in a state of second- and/or third-degree malnutrition in 2002. All these malnourished children (Table 3)–two males and four females–live in Purok Maningning (one child), Purok Nagkakaisa (3 children) and Purok Ugnayan (2 children, one of whom was a member of an IP household).

Table 3. Prevalence of Malnutrition (2nd and 3rd Degree) Among 0-5 Year-old Children by Sex and Purok, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Sex/Purok	2000			2002		
	Number of 2nd and 3rd-Degree Malnourished Children	Number of Children 0-5 Years Old	Proportion of 2nd and 3rd Degree Malnourished Children	Number of 2nd and 3rd-Degree Malnourished Children	Number of Children 0-5 Years Old	Proportion of 2nd and 3rd Degree Malnourished Children
Total	7	137	5.1	6	124	4.8
Male	2	71	2.8	2	62	3.2
Female	5	66	7.6	4	62	6.5
Mahayahay	3	23	13.0	0	20	0
Maningning	2	30	6.7	1	24	4.2
Maunlad	1	22	4.5	0	16	0
Nagkakaisa	1	28	3.6	3	26	11.5
Ugnayan	0	18	0.0	2	26	7.7
Viscua	0	16	0.0	0	12	0

A child is considered 2nd-degree malnourished if his/her weight is £ -3SD.
A child is considered 3rd-degree malnourished if his/her weight is > -3SD £ P5.

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

The high prevalence of malnutrition was attributed to a number of reasons. Foremost among these were the preoccupation of some mothers with their work and the poor health status of some. These

situations deprived the mothers of the time to take care of their children. Another reason was that some children were unable to complete the six-month nutrition regimen due to lack of money. On closer examination, some households of these malnourished children had no access to safe water and sanitary toilet facilities. Even though other households had access to safe water, they did not have access to sanitary toilet facilities and/or safe water.

Access to basic services
Access to safe drinking water
Table 4 shows the condition of households with regard to access to sources of safe drinking water. Safe water can be sourced from the community water system, the deep well or the artesian well either for its own use or shared with other households. According to the 2000 survey, only 44 households had access to safe drinking water (32.6 percent). This figure is apparently low, and even more so in Purok Maunlad and Purok Mahayahay where only one household and three households, respectively, had access to safe water.

Table 4, Households with Access to Safe Drinking Water by Purok, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Purok	2000			2002		
	Total Households	Households with Access to Safe Drinking Water		Total Households	Households with Access to Safe Drinking Water	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	135	44	32.6	127	22	17.3
Mahayahay	15	3	20.0	15	0	0.0
Maningning	29	19	65.5	27	6	22.2
Maunlad	22	1	4.5	19	2	10.5
Nagkakaisa	25	8	32.0	25	4	16.0
Ugnayan	28	8	28.6	30	9	30.0
Viscua	16	5	31.3	11	1	9.1

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Meanwhile, results of the CBMS 2000 survey revealed a drastic downturn with only 22 out of 127 households having access to safe drinking water. Furthermore, all households in Purok Mahayahay had no access to safe water while Purok Viscua and Maunlad had only one and two households, respectively, with access. Both surveys disclosed that all IP households did not have access to safe water at all. Their main sources of water were dug wells, rivers, lakes and other bodies of water.

The drastic decline in access to safe water occurred when the three deep wells constructed in 1999 were damaged and are now inoperative, thus affecting more than 20 households. At present, these households tap lakes, rivers and other bodies of water for water (Table 5).

Table 5. Number and Proportion of Households by Source of Drinking Water, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Source of drinking Water	2000		2002	
	Number	Proportion	Number	Proportion
Community water system	0	0	2	1.57
Deep well	40	29.63	14	11.02
Artesian well	4	2.96	6	4.72
Dug/shallow well	90	66.67	92	72.44
River, lake, others	1	0.74	13	10.24
Total	135	100	127	100

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

When comparing the results of the 2000 and 2002 surveys across all purok, it is interesting to note that some of the proportions drastically declined. For example, Purok Maningning registered the highest proportion of households (65.6%) with access to safe water in 2000 but declined to only 22.2 percent in 2002. Likewise, Purok Viscua recorded 31.3 percent in 2000 and only 9.1 percent in 2002. These locations experienced a higher decline because deep wells in these locations malfunctioned (Map 3).

Map 3. Households with Access to Safe Water Brgy. Kemdeng,
San Vicente, Palawan, 2002
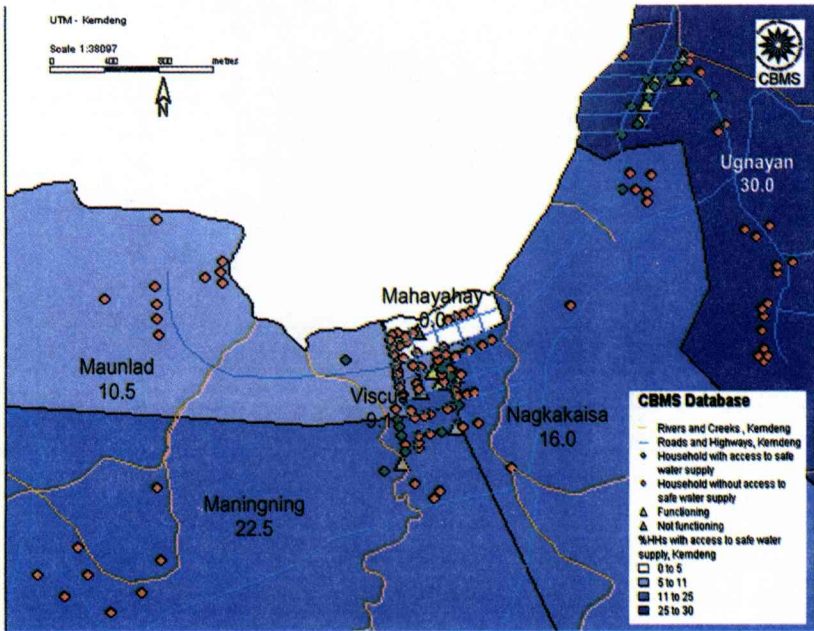
Source of data: CBMS Survey 2002

Access to sanitary toilet facility

Table 6 presents households' access to sanitary toilet facilities, which are water-sealed. These are facilities either used solely by individual households or shared with other households.

The 2000 CBMS survey indicated that out of 135 households, only 80 homes in the barangay had sanitary toilet facilities. Some households with access were recipients of the barangay program on the provision of toilet bowls.

Data on the 2002 survey revealed that the number of households with access to this facility declined considerably. In 1997, the barangay's sanitation program distributed toilet bowls to 30 households. Later, it was learned that these toilet bowls distributed were not durable. Thus, households decided to construct open/closed type toilet facilities once these free toilet bowls were damaged or broken.

Table 6. Households with Access to Sanitary Toilet Facility by Purok Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Purok	2000			2002		
	Total Households	Households with Access to Sanitary Toilet Facility		Total Households	Households with Access to Sanitary Toilet Facility	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	135	80	59.3	127	231	24.4
Mahayahay	15	12	80.0	15	6	40.0
Maningning	29	19	65.5	27	5	18.5
Maunlad	22	17	77.3	19	4	21.1
Nagkakaisa	25	15	60.0	25	9	36.0
Ugnayan	28	5	17.9	30	1	3.3
Viscua	16	12	75.0	11	6	54.6

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

In both survey years, IP households did not have access at all to this basic facility. Some IP households used the closed/open pit while others did not have any type of toilet facility at all.

Another reason for this decline is the deplorable condition of the deep wells, the main source of water in the community. Instead of maintaining their water-sealed toilet facility, which needs lots of water to clean and maintain, some households resorted to open/closed pits as their toilet facility (Table 7).

Table 7. Number and Proportion of Households by Type of Toilet Facility, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Toilet Facility	2000		2002	
	Number	Proportion	Number	Proportion
Water-sealed	80	59.26	31	24.41
Open/Closed Pit	15	11.11	76	59.84
No Toilet, others	40	29.63	20	15.75

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Table 8 affirms this observation. The number of households with access to safe water in 2000 vis-à-vis the number of households with access to sanitary toilet facilities in 2002 declined.

Table 8. Access to Safe Water and Sanitary Toilet Facility
Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

With Access to Safe Water	With Access to Sanitary Toilet					
	2000			2002		
	No	Yes	Total	No	Yes	Total
No	45	46	91	80	25	105
	49.5	50.5		76.2	23.8	
Yes	10	34	44	16	6	22
	22.7	77.3		72.7	27.3	
Total	55	80	135	96	31	127
	40.7	59.3		75.6	24.4	

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Access to electricity

The barangay council of Kemdeng operated and maintained one generator set. The facility was acquired in 1997 through municipal aid. However, due to the unit's high operation and maintenance costs, the barangay council decided to operate the facility only during public or official occasions. There were also privately-owned generators in the barangay that ran for four hours starting from 6:00 pm to 10:00 pm. Power charges depended on the number of bulbs used by the household: Php50.00 per month for a 20-watt bulb, and Php25.00 per month for a 10-watt bulb.

With private generators as the sole source of electricity, only eight households (5.9%) had access to electricity in 2000 (Table 9). In 2002, it increased to 11 households (8.7%). Purok Nagkakaisa had the most number of households—placed at three—with access to electricity. Purok Mahayahay, Maunlad and Viscua each had two households with access while Purok Maningning and Ugnayan had one household each.

Meanwhile, none of the IP households had access to electricity in both survey years.

Table 9. Households with Access to Electricity by Purok
Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Purok	2000			2002		
	Total Households	Households with Access to Electricity		Total Households	Households with Access to Electricity	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	135	8	5.9	127	11	8.7
Mahayahay	15	1	6.7	15	2	13.3
Maningning	29	1	3.4	27	1	3.7
Maunlad	22	2	9.1	19	2	10.5
Nagkakaisa	25	3	12.0	25	3	12.0
Ugnayan	28	0	0.0	30	1	3.3
Viscua	16	1	6.3	11	2	18.2

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Shelter

Makeshift housing

Table 10 shows that almost all households in the barangay were living in a non-makeshift house (i.e., described as a house with roof and walls built from pure or mixed light and/or strong materials). In both surveys, there was only one household (located in Purok Viscua) that lived in a makeshift house. This household in the 2000 survey had migrated to another place by the time the 2002 survey was made. By this time, the makeshift shelter had been occupied by a new household headed by a *palay* farmer.

Tenure status

In 2000, there were seven households classified as informal settlers in the barangay. Five of these, located in Purok Ugnayan, were all IP households. The other two informal settlers were found in Purok

**Table 10. Households that are Formal Settlers by Purok
Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002**

Purok	2000			2002		
	Total Households	Households with Access to Electricity		Total Households	Households with Access to Electricity	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	135	28	4.8	127	27	100.0
Mahayahay	15	15	100.0	15	15	100.0
Maningning	29	28	96.6	27	27	100.0
Maunlad	22	22	100.0	19	19	100.0
Nagkakaisa	25	25	100.0	25	25	100.0
Ugnayan	28	23	82.1	30	30	100.0
Viscua	16	15	93.8	11	11	100.0

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Maningning and Purok Viscua. Further analysis reveals that five of these households were classified as poor households. Of these five, two were IP households.

During the conduct of the 2002 CBMS survey, these households migrated to other places. As such, no informal settler in the barangay was registered that year.

Peace and order

In 2000, no crime was committed in the barangay. In 2002, only a few criminal cases/incidents were reported. Crimes committed were theft and physical injury, with seven persons—five males and two females— as victims. These victims came from Purok Mahayahay, Maningning, Maunlad and Nagkakaisa (Map 4). Purok Ugnayan and Purok Viscua had zero crime rate during the reference period.

Education and literacy

Elementary school participation

The barangay's elementary school is located in Purok Maningning. This school has only three classrooms. Grades I and II share one classroom.

Map 4. Victims of Crimes, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan,2002
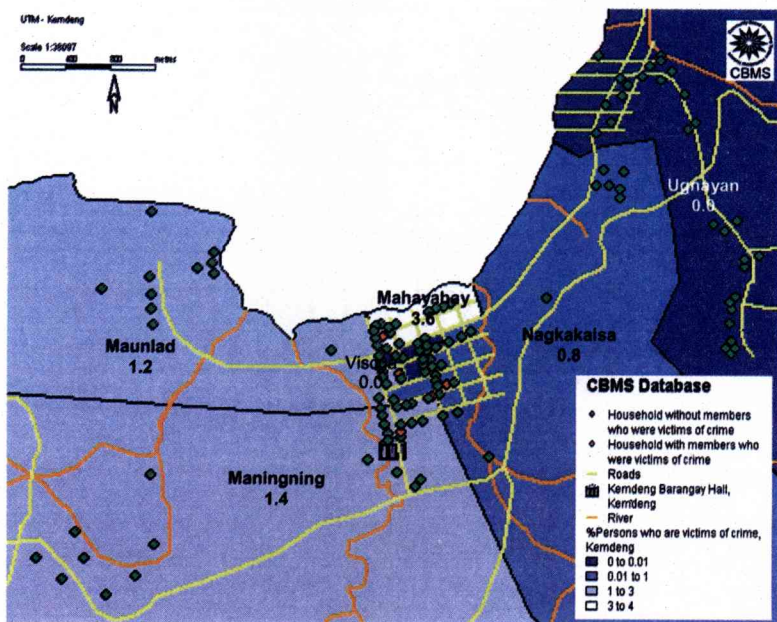
Source of data: CBMS Survey 2002

Grades III and IV are in the same classroom while Grades V and VI use the remaining room. To encourage families to send their children to school, teachers provide free lunch to the students, especially those belonging to IP families and living far from the school.

Despite this assistance, the barangay still records a low elementary school participation rate. In 2000, the rate was registered at 80.8 percent. It went down to 76.6 percent in 2002 (Table 12), decreasing by 4.2 percentage points. Among IP school age children, only two out of five attended school in 2000. In 2002, only two out of seven IP school age children attended elementary school.

A teacher noted that providing free lunch to students is not a sufficient inducement for regular class attendance as the families have difficulty meeting other expenses such as school supplies and students' contributions. Another reason cited is that some students are already working in the fields to help their families eke out a living. The teacher

Table 12. Elementary School Participation Rate by Purok Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Purok	2000			2002		
	Total Number of Children 6-11 Years Old	Children Aged 6-11 years Old Who Are Attending Elementary School		Total Number of Children 6-11 Years Old	Children Aged 6-11 years Old Who Are Attending Elementary School	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	04	84	80.8	107	82	76.6
Male	60	48	80.0	60	45	75.0
Female	44	36	81.8	47	37	78.7
Mahayahay	14	12	85.7	22	17	77.3
Maningning	27	22	81.5	28	23	82.1
Maunlad	18	15	83.3	16	14	87.5
Nagkakaisa	22	18	81.8	18	16	88.9
Ugnayan	13	7	53.8	14	5	35.7
Viscua	10	10	100.0	9	7	77.8

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

further mentioned that IP children only attend classes at the beginning of the school year.

Across all purok, Mahayahay, Viscua and Ugnayan showed a decline in participation rate, with Viscua registering the greatest drop at 22.2 percentage points. Ugnayan registered the lowest participation rate for the two-year period. Meanwhile, Purok Nagkakaisa, with nine out of 10 school-age children attending elementary school, had the highest participation rate at 88.9 percent.

Compared by sex or gender, elementary school participation rates for males and females also declined over the two-year period. Male participation rate dipped by 5.0 percentage points while female participation rate dropped by only 3.1 percentage points.

Secondary school participation
Table 13 shows that Barangay Kemdeng posted a decline in secondary school participation rate from 30.6 percent in 2000 to 27.3 percent in 2002. The very low secondary school participation rate can be attributed

to the distance of the nearest secondary school facility (located in Barangay Poblacion). The students had to travel by boat to attend high school or walk 12 kilometers since there were no public utility vehicles to Poblacion. Another reason cited was that some of the students were already working to augment their household's meager income.

Table 13. Secondary School Participation Rate by Purok
Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Purok	2000			2002		
	Total Number of Children 12-15 Years Old	Children Aged 12-15 years Old Who Are Attending Secondary School		Total Number of Children 12-15 Years Old	Children Aged 12-15 years Old Who Are Attending Secondary School	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	62	19	830.6	55	15	27.3
Male	34	12	35.3	30	9	30
Female	28	7	25.0	25	6	24
Mahayahay	7	3	42.9	5	1	20
Maningning	21	8	38.1	20	8	40
Maunlad	7	0	0.0	6	0	0
Nagkakaisa	17	5	29.4	15	5	33.3
Ugnayan	5	1	20.0	8	1	12.5
Viscua	5	2	40.0	1	0	0

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Meanwhile, improvements were noted in Purok Maningning and Nagkakaisa while a decline was registered in Purok Mahayahay, Ugnayan and Viscua. However, all school age children in Purok Maunlad did not attend secondary school at all. All IP school age children did not attend secondary school as well.

Both male and female participation rates declined. Although the dip was greater among the males, the number of those who stayed in school remained considerably higher. All the females attending secondary school were from Purok Mahayahay and Purok Maningning.

Females from the other four purok did not attend secondary school at all.

On the other hand, most of the male children of ages 12-15 years old and who attended high school came from Purok Maningning, Purok Nagkakaisa and Purok Ugnayan.

School participation

The preceding findings on elementary and secondary school participation is quite different from the school participation results among children 6-16 years old (Table 14). Over-all school participation rate remained high at 87.3 percent—nine out of 10 children with ages 6 to 16 years old were attending school. This is a marked improvement from the situation in 2000 (82.0%).

Table 14. School Participation Rate by Sex and by Purok
Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

	2000			2002		
	Total Number of Children 6-16 Years Old	Children Aged 6-16 years Old Who Are Attending Secondary School		Total Number of Children 6-16 Years Old	Children Aged 6-16 years Old Who Are Attending Secondary School	
Purok		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	178	146	82.0	173	151	87.3
Male	102	84	82.4	96	84	87.5
Female	76	62	81.6	77	67	87.0
Mahayahay	23	21	91.3	27	26	96.3
Maningning	51	42	82.4	52	43	82.7
Maunlad	27	25	92.6	24	23	95.8
Nagkakaisa	41	30	73.2	35	33	94.3
Ugnayan	20	13	65.0	24	15	62.5
Viscua	16	15	93.8	11	11	100

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Among IP children, an increase in school participation rate has also been noted although still very low. In 2000, only two out of six children attended school while in 2002, the figure was five out of 11.

Meanwhile, improvements are also noted in all the purok except Purok Ugnayan, which registered the lowest school participation rates for the two-year period. Purok Viscua registered the highest rate as all of its children with ages 6-16 years old attended school.

In terms of sex or gender, school participation rates for males and females increased during the two-year period, with the latter in much higher proportion.

Table 15 shows that children with ages 6-11 years old were still at the preparatory level (daycare, prep/kindergarten) instead of attending the elementary school. This detail may explain the disparity in the elementary school participation rate. On the other hand, some children with ages 12-15 years old were still attending elementary school instead of going to the secondary school or high school, a fact which may also explain the difference in the secondary school participation rate.

Table 15. School Participation Rate by Age Range and by Purok Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Purok	2000			2002		
	Total Number of Children 6-11 Years Old	Children Aged 6-11 years Old Who Are Attending Secondary School		Total Number of Children 12-15 Years Old	Children Aged 12-15 years Old Who Are Attending Secondary School	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	107	15	14.0	55	29	52.7
Mahayahay	22	4	18.2	5	4	80.0
Maningning	28	3	10.7	20	5	25.0
Maunlad	16	2	12.5	6	6	100.0
Nagkakaisa	18	2	11.1	15	8	53.3
Ugnayan	14	2	14.3	8	5	62.5
Viscua	9	2	22.2	1	1	100.0

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Literacy

Table 16 shows a decline of 5.2 percentage points in literacy rate in the barangay. Literacy rates for males and females also dropped,

particularly among the males. Three puroks showed a decline, with Purok Maunlad registering the biggest decrease at 10.9 percentage points. For the two-year period, Ugnayan, which is home to the IP community, registered the lowest literacy rate. Literacy rate for IP was pegged at 23.5 percent in 2000 and 20.7 percent in 2002.

Table 16. Literacy Rate by Purok, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan 2000 and 2002

Purok	2000			2002		
	Total Number of Persons 10 Years Old and Above	Literate Persons10 Years Old and Above		Total Number of Persons 10 Years Old and Above	Literate Persons10 Years Old and Above	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	504	464	92.1	413	358	86.9
Male	262	247	94.3	222	191	86.4
Female	242	217	89.7	191	167	87.4
Mahayahay	54	53	98.1	48	42	87.5
Maningning	121	113	93.4	103	94	91.3
Maunlad	80	79	98.8	59	51	87.9
Nagkakaisa	110	106	96.4	82	78	95.1
Ugnayan	93	70	75.3	93	66	71.0
Viscua	46	43	93.5	28	27	96.4

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

The decline in literacy rate can be traced to those households that did not include members who studied or worked in other places such as Puerto Princesa City and/or Manila. Another reason for this showing is the migration among households with illiterate members.

Employment
Labor force
Table 17 confirms that the labor force participation rate in the barangay declined significantly. In 2000, 65.8 percent of the barangay population aged 15 years and above were in the labor force. In 2002, the figure declined to 50.1 percent. All the purok registered a drop.

Table 17. Labor Force Participation Rate by Sex and by Purok Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Sex/Purok	2000			2002		
	Population 15 Years Old and Above	Labor Force		Population 15 Years Old and Above	Labor Force	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	427	281	965.8	413	207	50.1
Male	217	180	82.9	222	139	62.6
Female	210	101	35.9	191	68	35.6
Mahayahay	46	27	58.7	48	19	39.6
Maningning	98	59	60.2	103	45	43.7
Maunlad	69	50	72.5	59	29	49.2
Nagkakaisa	92	56	60.9	82	45	54.9
Ugnayan	89	63	70.8	93	51	54.8
Viscua	33	26	78.8	28	18	64.3

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Males compared to females had higher labor force participation rates. During the two-year period, the labor force participation rates for males declined in large proportions while the rates for the females decreased minimally.

Employment

In terms of employment, Table 18 shows an increase in the employment rate for the barangay. The employment rate of 89.7 percent in 2000 increased to 92.3 percent in 2002. Three purok registered a decline while the remaining three purok registered an increase. The IP registered a 100 percent employment rate in both survey years.

Employment for males dipped while that for the females rose, although the former was still higher in proportion. Two-thirds of the purok had more employed males than employed females.

Agriculture was the main source of employment (72.6%) in the barangay as seen in Table 19. Naturally, most of those employed/

Table 18. Employment Rate by Sex and by Purok, Brgy. Kemdeng San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Sex/Purok	2000			2002		
	Total Member of the Labor Force	Employed Persons		Total Member of the Labor Force	Employed Persons	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	281	252	89.7	207	191	92.3
Male	180	173	96.1	138	131	94.9
Female	101	79	78.2	68	60	88.2
Mahayahay	27	23	85.2	19	18	94.7
Maningning	59	51	86.4	45	42	93.3
Maunlad	50	47	94.0	28	25	89.3
Nagkakaisa	56	51	91.1	45	40	88.9
Ugnayan	63	56	88.9	51	49	96.1
Viscua	26	24	92.3	18	17	94.4

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

working were farmers, with palay as the major crop. Fishing and gathering of forest products were also among the major occupations.

Most of the males were employed in the agriculture sector while females were in the services sector. This scenario was shared by each of the purok surveyed.

Meanwhile, most of the employed indigenous people were also involved in farming. They undertook most farming activities in the upland and cleared the timberlands. These IP workers also engaged in other livelihood activities such as backyard production and gathering of forest products that include timber, honey and rattan.

Underemployment

Although the employment rate was generally high in the barangay, a huge proportion of those employed revealed their desire to seek additional work so as to augment their income (Table 20). In fact, a large increase in underemployment rate was registered in all the purok. In 2002, all employed members of Purok Mahayahay and Purok

Table 19. Employment Rate by Sector, by Sex and by Purok
Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Sex/Purok	2000			2002		
	Agriculture	Industry	Services	Agriculture	Industry	Services
Total	58.7	6.3	34.5	72.3	2.6	25.1
Male	69.4	7.5	22.5	85.5	3.8	10.7
Female	35.4	3.8	60.8	43.3	0.0	56.7
Mahayahay	56.5	8.7	34.8	77.8	5.6	16.7
Maningning	56.9	9.8	31.4	69.0	2.4	28.6
Maunlad	57.4	2.1	40.4	75.0	4.0	24.0
Nagkakaisa	62.7	3.9	35.3	72.5	2.5	25.0
Ugnayan	60.7	8.9	32.1	77.6	2.0	20.4
Viscua	54.2	4.2	33.3	58.8	0.0	41.2

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Maunlad were underemployed. Meanwhile, it is worthy to note that in both survey years, no underemployment was registered among employed indigenous people.

Across sexes, more males than females wanted more or additional hours of work.

Enabling

The poor referred to here are those who are unable to pay for their basic food and non-food needs in their daily living while the subsistence poor are those who cannot meet even their needs for food alone. To come up with the poverty and subsistence threshold for 2001 (the reference year used in computing for the 2002 incidence), official thresholds from the National Statistical Coordination Board (NSCB) in 2000 were inflated using the prevailing provincial Consumer Price Index (CPI). The figures generated were Php8,320.00 for food threshold and Php11,843.00 for poverty threshold. For the year 2000, the official poverty and food thresholds of Php11,214.00 and Php7,835.00, respectively, were used.

Table 20. Underemployment Rate by Sex and by Purok, Brgy. Kemdeng San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Sex/Purok	2000			2002		
	Total Number of Employed Persons	Underemployed Persons		Total Number of Employed Persons	Underemployed Persons	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	252	143	56.7	191	175	91.6
Male	173	100	57.8	131	124	94.7
Female	79	43	54.4	60	51	85.0
Mahayahay	23	16	69.6	18	18	100
Maningning	51	28	54.9	42	37	88.1
Maunlad	47	34	72.3	25	24	96.0
Nagkakaisa	51	24	47.1	40	36	90.0
Ugnayan	56	29	51.8	49	44	89.8
Viscua	24	12	50.0	17	15	88.2

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

To get more detailed information on income, the Provincial Government of Palawan used a different questionnaire for its 2002 CBMS survey. In the initial survey, only incomes, specifically wages and salaries and from entrepreneurial activities, were collected. In the second survey, other incomes coming from other sources as well as other receipts were added.

Poverty incidence
As shown in Table 21, the proportions of poor households in the barangay declined significantly. In 2000, six out of 10 households were not able to meet their basic needs. In 2002, the proportions declined to three out of 10 households. The biggest decline was registered in Purok Ugnayan, followed by Purok Viscua.

Similarly, there was a decrease in the proportion of poor among IP households. In 2000, five out of six households were considered poor (83.3%). In 2002, the proportion became four out of 10 households (40.0%).

Table 21. Magnitude and Proportion of Poor Households, by Purok Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Purok	2000			2002		
	Total Households	Poor Households		Total Households	Poor Households	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	135	87	64.4	127	35	27.6
Mahayahay	15	10	66.7	15	5	33.3
Maningning	29	18	62.1	27	6	22.2
Maunlad	22	14	63.6	19	6	31.6
Nagkakaisa	25	16	64.0	25	7	28.0
Ugnayan	28	21	75.0	30	10	33.3
Viscua	16	8	50.0	11	1	9.1

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Meanwhile, the analysis of 108 panel households (Table 22) reveals that more than 40 percent of those considered poor in 2000 were able to rise above the poverty line in 2002. Meanwhile, of the non-poor in 2000, only two households became poor in 2002. On the other hand, 35 households were able to stay non-poor in both survey years.

Table 22. Poverty Status of the Households Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Poverty Status	Number of Households	Proportion
Total	108	100.0
PP	26	24.1
PN	45	41.7
NP	2	1.9
NN	35	32.4

PP – Poor in 2000 and 2002   NP – Non-poor in 2000 but poor
PN – Poor in 2000 but non-   in 2002
   poor in 2002   NN – Non-poor in 2000 and 2002

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Interestingly, the chronic poor had a bigger household size than the chronic non-poor (Table 23).

Table 23. Average Size of the Households by Poverty Status Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan 2000 and 2002

Poverty Status	Mean Household Size	
	2000	2002
Total	5.6	5.0
PP	6.3	6.0
PN	6.3	5.5
NP	4.6	4.1
NN	4.1	3.4

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

The proportion of households with employed household heads was low for households considered poor in both years (Table 24).

Table 24. Household with Employed Heads by Poverty Status, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawans, 2000 and 2002

Poverty Status	Total House-holds	Households with Employed Heads			
		2000		2002	
		Number	Proportion	Number	Proportion
Total	108	106	98.1	103	95.4
PP	26	26	100.0	24	92.3
PN	45	45	100.0	44	97.8
NP	2	2	100.0	2	100.0
NN	35	33	94.3	33	94.3

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Access to safe water also seems to distinguish the chronic poor from the non-poor. Those who were poor in the two survey years had low access while the non-poor in the two survey years had high access (Table 25).

Table 25. Access to Safe Water Supply by Poverty Status Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawans, 2000 and 2002

Poverty Status	Total House-holds	Access to Safe Water			
		2000		2002	
		Number	Proportion	Number	Proportion
Total	108	34	31.5	18	16.7
PP	26	7	26.9	1	3.8
PN	45	13	28.9	6	13.3
NP	2	0	0.0	0	0.0
NN	35	14	40.0	11	31.4

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

The chronic poor registered the bigger decline in access to sanitary toilet facilities compared to the non-poor (Table 26).

Table 26. Access to Sanitary Toilet Facility by Poverty Status, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan 2000 and 2002

Poverty Status	Total House-holds	Access to Safe Water			
		2000		2002	
		Number	Proportion	Number	Proportion
Total	108	64	59.3	29	26.9
PP	26	14	53.8	2	7.7
PN	45	23	51.1	10	22.2
NP	2	1	50.0	0	0.0
NN	35	26	74.3	17	48.6

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Subsistence incidence

Meanwhile, Table 27 shows the proportion of households classified as subsistence poor. Here, a decline of 30.2 percentage points was registered from 2000 to 2002. The large decline was registered in Purok Maunlad and Purok Viscua.

Table 27. Magnitude and Proportion of Subsistence Poor Households, by Purok, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Purok	2000			2002		
	Total Households	Poor Households		Total Households	Poor Households	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	135	62	45.9	127	20	15.7
Mahayahay	15	5	33.3	15	4	26.7
Maningning	29	11	37.9	27	2	7.4
Maunlad	22	12	54.5	19	2	10.5
Nagkakaisa	25	11	44.0	25	4	16.0
Ugnayan	28	16	57.1	30	8	26.7
Viscua	16	7	43.8	11	0	0

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Among the indigenous people, two out of six households were subsistence poor in 2000; it was four out of 10 households in 2002.

Further analysis of panel households in the barangay discloses that half of the households were non-poor in both years. Only 13 households were in a state of subsistence poverty for the two years. Only two households became subsistence poor in 2002 (Table 28).

Table 28. Subsistence Poverty Status of the Households, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Poverty Status	Number of Households	Proportion
Total	108	100
PP	26	12.0
PN	45	36.1
NP	2	1.9
NN	35	50.0

PP – Poor in 2000 and 2002   NP – Non-poor in 2000 but poor
PN – Poor in 2000 but non-   in 2002
   poor in 2002   NN – Non-poor in 2000 and 2002

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Households that were non-poor in both years had smaller household sizes than those who were chronic poor (Table 29).

Table 29. Average Size of the Households by Subsistence Poverty Status, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Poverty Status	Mean Household Size	
	2000	2002
Total	5.6	5.0
PP	6.3	5.8
PN	6.7	6.0
NP	6.0	6.0
NN	4.6	4.0

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Households that were subsistence poor in both years registered the largest decline in the proportion of households with employed heads (Table 30).

Table 30. Household with Employed Heads by Subsistence Poverty Status, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Poverty Status	Total House-holds	Households with Employed Heads			
		2000		2002	
		Number	Proportion	Number	Proportion
Total	108	106	98.1	103	95.4
PP	26	13	100.0	11	84.6
PN	45	39	100.0	38	97.4
NP	2	2	100.0	2	100.0
NN	35	52	96.3	52	96.3

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Households that were non-poor in both years experienced the smallest decline in access to basic water facilities (Tables 31).

Table 31. Access to Safe Water Supply by Subsistence Poverty Status, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan 2000 and 2002

Poverty Status	Total House-holds	Access to Safe Water			
		2000		2002	
		Number	Proportion	Number	Proportion
Total	108	34	31.5	18	16.7
PP	26	3	23.1	1	7.7
PN	45	13	33.3	4	10.3
NP	2	0	0.0	0	0.0
NN	35	18	33.3	13	24.1

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Households that were subsistence poor in both years registered the largest decline in access to sanitary toilet facilities (Table 32).

Table 32. Access to Sanitary Toilet Facility by Subsistence Poverty Status, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan 2000 and 2002

Poverty Status	Total House-holds	Access to Safe Water			
		2000		2002	
		Number	Proportion	Number	Proportion
Total	108	64	59.3	29	26.9
PP	26	13	53.8	0	0
PN	45	39	48.7	5	12.8
NP	2	2	50.0	0	0.0
NN	35	54	68.5	24	44.4

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Community development

There are two associations accredited and existing in the barangay: the Kemdeng Farmers Association and the San Vicente Seed Growers Association. However, even with the presence of these community organizations, only few persons participate.

As seen in Table 33, only 19 percent of the people in the barangay were involved in community organizations during the conduct of the 2002 CBMS survey. This is actually a decrease from the 2000 figure of 31 percent. All purok, except Viscua, also experienced a decrease in community participation, with Purok Mahayahay registering the greatest dip at 22.4 percentage points. The indigenous people did not participate in community organizations at all.

Table 33. Proportion of Persons Who are Involved in Any Community Organization by Purok and by Sex, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente Palawan, 2000 and 2002

Sex/Purok	2000			2002		
	Total Population	Persons Involved in Any Community Organization		Total Population	Persons Involved in Any Community Organization	
		Number	Proportion		Number	Proportion
Total	713	219	30.7	612	116	19.0
Male	375	109	29.1	327	60	18.3
Female	338	110	32.5	285	56	19.6
Mahayahay	88	27	30.7	84	7	8.3
Maningning	168	51	30.4	145	31	21.4
Maunlad	114	41	36.0	84	17	20.2
Nagkakaisa	153	49	32.0	123	28	22.8
Ugnayan	122	31	25.4	129	19	14.7
Viscua	68	20	29.4	47	14	29.8

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Voting participation in the barangay remains high as depicted in Table 34. Except for Purok Maningning and Purok Ugnayan, all registered voters in the other purok voted in the last election. The

voting participation rate in Purok Viscua improved notably during the two reference years.

A slightly greater proportion of females, when compared to males, participated in the last election. The lone female who failed to vote was from Purok Ugnayan. On the other hand, the three males who did not vote in the last election were from Purok Maningning and Ugnayan.

Table 34. Proportion of Registered Voters Who Voted in the Last Election by Sex and by Purok, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan 2000 and 2002

Sex/Purok	2000			2002		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	98.6	97.8	98.2	97.9	99.2	98.5
Mahayahay	100	100	100	100	100	100
Maningning	100	96.7	98.3	96.2	100	98.1
Maunlad	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nagkakaisa	100	100	100	100	100	100
Ugnayan	100	100	100	93.8	96.6	95.1
Viscua	86.7	84.6	85.7	100	100	100

Source of data: CBMS Surveys 2000 and 2002

Summary of results

Different indicators show that the barangay has not been performing well. Except in the income-based measures of poverty where the barangay demonstrated an improved performance, results of other indicators worsened. The decline in poverty and subsistence incidence, however, may be largely attributed to improvements in the instrument used. A more detailed information on income was generated in the conduct of the 2002 CBMS survey.

Health and Nutrition is one area where the barangay's situation worsened. This observation is substantiated by the fact that three out of 14 infants died in 2002. This figure is quite alarming considering that in 2000, no infant death was registered. Furthermore, malnutrition remains high.

In the area of employment, even though a large proportion of the labor force is employed, underemployment is high and increasing.

The barangay also rates poorly when it comes to access to facilities. Access to safe water and sanitary toilet facilities dropped significantly during the two-year period and the figure remains very low. Safe drinking water is considerably scarce since most of the households in the barangay get their drinking water from shallow wells and other bodies of water. Sanitary toilets are also limited, as most households have no toilet facility at all while those who have, use open pits as their toilet facility. Only few households have access to electricity.

On the other hand, although the over-all school participation rate of children 6-16 years old is relatively high, elementary and high school participation rates are still low. Further examination reveals that many children are delayed in their schooling and could not catch up with their expected grade level.

Females are slightly performing better in terms of elementary school participation rate while males perform well in secondary school participation rate. Over-all school participation rate as well as literacy rate, remain high for both sexes. Still, the males are more vulnerable in the area of health while females are not performing well in the area of nutrition.

In the area of employment, more males are employed while more females are underemployed. Most males are employed in the agriculture sector while females are mostly working in the services sector.

On the part of indigenous people in the barangay, the data underscore marked improvements in employment and income-based measures of poverty. They are more marginalized in the areas of education, literacy and access to basic services such as safe water, sanitation facilities and electricity.

One notable observation on the CBMS results is that the indicators are interrelated, a fact which somehow explains some of the trends.

Table 35. Summary of Indicators, Brgy. Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan, 2000 and 2002

	Dimension		Indicator	2000	2002
A.	Health and Nutrition	1	Proportion of infant deaths	0	17.6
		2	Proportion of child deaths	0	0
		3	Prevalence of malnutrition	5.1	4.8
B.	Water, Sanitation and Electricity	4	Proportion of households with access to safe water	32.6	17.3
		5	Proportion of households with access to sanitary toilet facilities	59.3	24.4
		6	Proportion of households with access to electricity	5.9	8.7
C.	Shelter	7	Proportion of households who are formal settlers	94.8	100
		8	Proportion of households who are living in non-makeshift housing	99.3	99.2
D.	Peace and Order	9	Proportion of persons who are victims of crime	0	1.1
E.	Education and Literacy	10	Elementary participation rate	80.8	76.6
		11	Secondary participation rate	30.6	27.3
		12	School participation rate	82.0	87.3
		13	Literacy rate	92.1	86.9
F.	Enabling and Employment	14	Poverty incidence	64.4	15.7
		15	Subsistence incidence	45.9	27.6
		16	Employment rate	89.7	92.2
		17	Underemployment rate	56.7	91.6
G.	Community Participation	18	Proportion of persons who are members of community organization	30.7	19
		19	Proportion of persons who voted in last election	98.2	98.5

Use of scores in ranking households

One key issue in analyzing the various CBMS indicators is how to combine them to come up with a single indicator that will identify who among the households are the most deprived. Simply put, the problem is: Given a set of indicators, which household can be considered the poorest? Moreover, this study looks for an over-all poverty rate based on the predetermined set of indicators just like the income-based poverty incidence (i.e., how many households can be considered poor using the aggregated information). Coming up with this statistics is extremely helpful in targeting beneficiaries of a poverty

reduction program and eventually in assessing the impact of the interventions done.

One of the various ways to extract the information from the set of indicators is through a composite indicator. In this section, two methods of forming a composite indicator using the significant CBMS indicators are presented. The first is a composite indicator through the conventional way of scoring and the second is a categorically weighted composite indicator using Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA).

Composite Indicator: Brief Description

How then does one summarize the characteristics of the households using the set of categorical indicators? The terms used in this section such as poverty measure, poverty indicator and poverty rate, as well as the target units and their poverty attributes must first be defined and clarified.

The target or population units pertain to the 127 households of the 2002 CBMS survey in Barangay Kemdeng, San Vicente, Palawan. The CBMS core indicators are the households' poverty attributes or variables, each with a distinct set of categories. On the other hand, *poverty measure* and *poverty indicator* are terms to characterize each population unit. Poverty measure is a quantifier or a criterion that classifies a particular household as poor or non-poor while poverty indicator is a transformation or realization of the poverty measure (i.e., the term that apparently indicates whether a household is poor or non-poor). Poverty rate is the relative magnitude of the poor households using the poverty measure and the poverty indicator.

Thus, the poverty characteristics—poverty measure, poverty indicator and poverty rate—are interdependent and could be defined in each of the CBMS indicators. Pooling all these attributes will lead to the definition of a composite poverty measure, composite poverty indicator, and composite poverty rate of multi-dimensional poverty. This composite poverty characteristic can be viewed as a function of the set of poverty indicators—either weighted equally or differentially.

Initially, household profiles are determined according to the categories of the indicators in which they belong. From these profiles, a single poverty measure, the composite poverty measure, is derived.

Composite poverty indicator using simple scoring

As mentioned above, a composite poverty measure can be viewed as a function of the set of predetermined indicators. This section presents a conventional way of scoring, which can be characterized as a function of binary scores of welfare indicators. That is, the set of indicators is uniformly transformed and defined in a binary and unique direction of attainment such that "1" could be assigned to the population units that have attained the characteristic and "0" to the ones that have not. These scores are the profiles of the population units, and the composite poverty measure could be, intuitively and reasonably, the number of indicators a particular household has attained. Hence the name: simple scoring. Moreover, this can also be referred to as the equally weighted composite poverty measure. Table 36 lists down the indicators.

To determine how many of the households are considerably needy and which is the most needy based on the set of welfare indicators, the composite poverty characteristics must first be explained. From the binary scores, the averages across indicators are derived so that each household could have a "simple composite poverty measure." Of course, some households could not be subjected to a particular indicator. For instance, the malnourishment indicator is not applicable to households with no children ages 0-5 years old. Thus, the average is derived relative to the number of applicable indicators. Table 37 illustrates the bottom or poorest households attaining only less than half of the CBMS core indicators.

During the validation, a barangay representative verified whether most households were poor or not. Almost all of the seven households shared the same deprivations such as lack of access to basic facilities, meager income and illiteracy. Households of Nelson Yayen and Manuel Binggon attained the least of the CBMS core indicators. This means

Table 36. List of Poverty Indicators Used, CBMS Survey 2002

With child death
Income-based Poverty Indicator
Income-based Poverty Indicator (Subsistence)
With member (6-16) not attending school
With at least one member employed
With at least one member underemployed
With member (10 years old and above) illiterate
With victims of crime
Malnourishment indicator
With access to electricity
Water source
Toilet facility
Tenure Status
Construction of the house

that their households had almost the same characteristics except that the latter is the head of an IP household. These two had no young children (0-6 years old); therefore, they only attained four out of the 12 indicators. However, the barangay representative said that Nelson Yayen's household had considerably adequate income. This somehow demonstrates the ambiguity or vagueness of the poverty perception among people who mainly base poverty on money-metric measures.

The two households were followed by that of Ronie Abanes. Aside from the same deprivation, his household had been a victim of a crime. The household of Romeo Yayen Jr., aside from lacking access to facilities and having meager income, also had members who were illiterate. Also, his school-age children did not attend school and one was classified as malnourished. Luorbar Badenas had a child who died the previous year and Ricardo Padilla and Baltazar Padilla were heads of IP households but had children attending school.

On the other hand, Table 38 presents households that attained more than 80 percent of the indicators. Topping the list was Kenny

Table 37. Bottom Households that Attained Less Than 50 Percent of the CBMS Indicators, CBMS Survey 2002

Rank	ID	Purok	Household Head	Simple Composite Poverty Measure
1	74	Nagkakaisa	Yayen, Nelson	33.3
2	122	Ugnayan	Binggon, Manuel	33.3
3	63	Mahayahay	Abanes, Ronie	35.7
4	107	Ugnayan	Yayen, Romeo Jr.	35.7
5	117	Ugnayan	Padilla, Ricardo	41.7
6	32	Maunlad	Badenas, Luorbar	42.9
7	119	Ugnayan	Padilla, Baltazar	45.5

Dejosco's household, which attained all the criteria. He also happened to be the barangay captain. Rodencion Labrador was a former Municipal Council (*Sangguniang Bayan*) candidate. Meanwhile, Francisco Yayen's household met all the indicators except access to electricity. Pedro Dulgeme was a tenant/caretaker in a tourist property and his household's only deprivation was on access to electricity. Avelio Estoce had a teacher-wife and his household's only deficiencies were lack of access to safe water and underemployment.

After identifying who among the households is the poorest through the simple composite poverty measure, the next step is to determine how many are poor. This requires transforming the simple composite poverty measures derived into a simple composite indicator so that one could come up with a simple composite poverty rate. Of course, the poverty rate depends on the threshold set. The problem apparently arises in the choice of thresholds. Table 39 indicates the brackets of a simple composite poverty measure.

If one considers a household as non-poor once it has attained all the indicators, then the results would classify almost all of the households (99.2%) as poor. This definition is very stringent and entails averaging the entire threshold in each of the binary indicator, which is "1". However, if at least six out of 10 indicators must be attained to

Table 38
Top Households That Attained More Than 80 percent
of the CBMS Indicators, CBMS Survey 2002

Rank	ID	Purok	Household Head	Simple Composite Poverty Measure
111	72	Mahayahay	De Gusman, Noli	81.8
112	21	Maningning	Refianco, Mamento	81.8
113	34	Maunlad	Almoguerra, Eger	81.8
114	93	Nagkakaisa	Zabanal, Begesdes	81.8
115	100	Ugnayan	Ilavan, Agustin	81.8
116	78	Nagkakaisa	Bacul, Senecio	83.3
117	86	Nagkakaisa	Caranza, Joseph	84.6
118	95	Nagkakaisa	Vicente, Danilo	84.6
119	54	Viscua	Abique, Jesus	84.6
120	55	Viscua	Magahis, Dominador	84.6
121	56	Viscua	Abique, Remy	84.6
122	68	Mahayahay	Legaspi, Eddie	85.7
123	38	Maunlad	Estoce, Avelio	85.7
124	30	Maunlad	Dulgeme, Pedro	90.9
125	101	Ugnayan	Yayen, Francisco	90.9
126	80	Nagkakaisa	Labrador, Rodencion	92.3
127	26	Maningning	Dejosco, Kenny	100.0

be considered non-poor, then 32.3 percent would be classified as poor. This is the concept behind thresholds. This illustration shows the difficulty in identifying the optimal and rational threshold needed to come up with a single composite poverty rate that rationally discriminates the poor from the non-poor. This has brought to the fore the arbitrariness in measuring poverty.

Thus, a simplified way of scoring households to come up with a composite poverty measure and eventually, a poverty indicator, is to adopt a considerably doable, reasonable, interpretable and equally weighted procedure. Furthermore, this very practical method treats

Table 39
Brackets of Simple Scores, CBMS Survey 2002

Simple Composite Poverty Measure	Frequency	Proportion	Cumulative
>=30 to <40 percent	4	3.2	3.2
>=40 to <50 percent	3	2.4	5.5
>=50 to <60 percent	34	26.8	32.3
>=60 to <70 percent	38	29.9	62.2
>=70 to <80 percent	31	24.4	86.6
>=80 to <90 percent	13	10.2	96.9
>=90 to <100 percent	3	2.4	99.2
100 percent	1	0.8	100.0

the indicators independently; that is, weights do not change no matter how many indicators are added or removed. However, its poverty rate is arbitrary due to the non-unique choice of poverty threshold. Moreover, since the method utilizes equal weighting, the underlying "importance" of some of the indicators is ignored (i.e., if select indicators have some discriminating aspect or ability to identify the poor more than the other indicators, they are not utilized in the process). One therefore needs another method that possesses the same characteristics but eliminates arbitrariness and gives some importance to select indicators. This way, when a non-arbitrary threshold is specified and a population unit fails in an indicator, it can still be compensated due to differential weighting used.

Categorically weighted composite indicator
The method previously discussed could have made life easier for a poverty analyst. Equal and independent weights are some of the factors that make the method more doable. Although the method of extraction would make coming up with a composite poverty measure relatively more difficult, it will eliminate arbitrariness and incorporate some degree of importance to each indicator.

It is necessary to remember that the subject data is composed of

127 households, each unit has a set of poverty indicators, and each indicator has a distinct set of categories. Likewise, it must be recalled that in the first method, each of the indicators is transformed into binary indicators with uniform direction. At this stage, the indicators could be treated as raw categorical variables or transformed into more interpretable ones that possess some ordinal property such that one category is better off than the other because of the varying scores across categories and indicators. In this way, a population unit could compensate its failed indicator depending on the category it belongs. Of course, category scores must be computed using anccepted statistical technique.

The problem can be viewed as dimension reduction since despite the multiplicity of indicators, there is a single dimension—the composite poverty measure. From this dimension reduction, one-dimensional scores or weights could be derived. Since the data concerns purely categorical indicators, the most applicable dimension reduction technique is the MCA. The MCA is designed to analyze simple two-way and multi-way tables containing some measure of correspondence between the rows and columns. Thus, associations among the indicators' categorical levels are used to provide compound information about the households. This method also simultaneously uses the information and variability in each indicator; thus, the indicators are not treated independently and scoring differs across different sets of indicators and population units.

Given the CBMS core indicators and 127 households, an MCA corresponding to the Homogeneity Analysis using the Alternating Least Squares (HOMALS) procedure of SPSS is applied on the data. A series of runs is undertaken, and inclusion, exclusion and transformation of indicator variables are done to come up with a one-dimensional indicator that incorporates all contributory poverty indicators.

The goal is to come up with a set of categorical weights within each indicator, hypothetically quantifying the categories. For example, one can assign higher weights to households that obtain their drinking water from the community water system than those that get it from

artesian wells. In this context, the two separate accesses are both safe (or given a score "1" in the simple scoring method). However, they are weighed differentially.

There is no guarantee that all indicators are included in the derivation of the composite poverty measure. One or more indicators may not contribute to the over-all quality of the set of scores or would not correspond to the over-all direction of the scores. In other words, one or more indicators could be weakly associated to the set of indicators. It must be recalled that the technique utilizes underlying associations among categories across variables. Table 40 shows the

Table 40. List of Poverty Transformed Indicators Used in Extracting a Composite Poverty Measure

WCHILDD2	With child death
POVSUB	Income-based Poverty Indicator
NTSCH	With member (6-16) not attending school
W1JOB	With at least one member employed
W1UNDEMP	With at least one member underemployed
W1NTLIT	With member (10 years old and above) illiterate
WVICT	With victims of crime
WMALN2	Degree of malnourishment
WELEC	With access to electricity
WATSRC4	Water source
TOILF2	Toilet facility
TENURE4	Tenure Status
NMSH	Construction of the house

indicators that were included in the initial run.

The first MCA on the data yielded discrimination measures, eigenvalues and categorical quantifications or scores in each dimension. Eigenvalues are measures of information or variability with respect to the set of variables. The MCA produces eigenvalues in a descending

manner (i.e., where the first dimension is the highest). Discrimination measures quantify how an indicator is associated to the set of indicators or how much variability or information it explains. The whole set of indicators has a relatively low measure of information (eigenvalue) at 0.1895 with respect to the first dimension (Table 41). The highest discrimination measure is in "toilet facility." The three extremely lowest measures are in "with at least one employed member," "with child death" and "makeshift housing."

Table 41. Measure of Dispersion of Each Indicator, Preliminary CBMS Survey 2002.

Indicators	Dim. 1	Dim. 2
Over-all (Eigenvalue)	0.1895	0.1572
TOILF2	0.5823	0.5287
WATSRC4	0.3840	0.1703
W1NTLIT	0.3812	0.2585
POVSUB	0.2994	0.1394
WELEC	0.2963	0.0011
W1UNDEMP	0.2013	0.3006
NTSCH	0.1395	0.2782
WMALN2	0.0894	0.0626
TENURE4	0.0630	0.0346
WVICT	0.0178	0.0585
W1JOB	0.0045	0.1808
WCHILDD2	0.0043	0.0096
NMSH	0.0011	0.0206

Due to the relatively low discriminating power of the last three indicators, these have been deleted from the set of indicators in the final MCA. Deleting them reduces the dimension and retains as much information as possible.

Another consideration is the consistency of the direction of scores in the poverty axis or dimension to be used (i.e., with respect to the nature of categories and dimension): Do signs of scores correspond to the over-all direction of all the indicators? Since most information is in the first dimension, it would be logical to say that the single dimension to be used in computing a composite poverty measure is the first dimension. As seen in Table 42, "makeshift housing" and "with at least one employed member" do not follow the over-all ordering consistency in the first dimension with respect to the direction of poverty. For instance, there is a decreasing set of quantifications from "water sealed" to "no toilet."

A final MCA depends on the output—i.e., consistency of signs in the first dimension, and amount of information explained. The 10 indicators considerably draw higher discrimination measures as evidenced in Table 43.

Also, in Table 44, the first axis ordering consistency is also satisfied; therefore, scores uniformly conform to the direction of poverty. In the table of discrimination measures, "toilet facility" has the highest discrimination and "with victims of crime" has the lowest.

After the final MCA and a final set of scores are released, the next problem is to come up with interpretable "weighted composite poverty measure." It must be recalled that the poverty axis is the first dimension, which has the most information. Thus, the computation of composite poverty measure is based on the category quantifications/scores in the first dimension.

Table 45 contains the extraction of category weights for each indicator. Dimension 1 is the category quantification yielded by the final MCA. *Weight* is a transformation of Dimension 1, adjusting values in order to differentiate magnitudes. *Weightp* is the difference between weight and *min*, which is the minimum value of weight in each of the indicator. The ordering consistency of *weightp* with respect to the nature of the categories is apparent among the indicators. *Weightp* is the score to be assigned to households according to the category they belong. Furthermore, more discriminating variables will likely have higher

Table 42. Category Quantifications in Each Indicator, Preliminary CBMS Survey 2002

Indicator	Level	Dim 1	Dim 2
WCHILDD2	With child death	-0.49	0.553
WCHILDD2	With no child death	-0.031	0.095
POVSUB	Non-poor	0.355	-0.032
POVSUB	Non subsistent poor	-0.593	0.832
POVSUB	Poor	-1.029	-0.601
NTSCH	With members 6-16 years old not attending school	-1.007	-1.146
NTSCH	All members 6-16 years old attending school	-0.093	0.495
W1JOB	With at least one employed member	0.017	0.034
W1JOB	With no employed member	0.516	-3.377
W1UNDEMP	With underemployed member	-0.116	0.197
W1UNDEMP	With no underemployed member	1.55	-1.836
W1NTLIT	With illiterate member	-1.162	-0.997
W1NTLIT	All members literate	0.346	0.244
WVICT	With victims of crime	-0.622	1.171
WVICT	No victims of crime	0.052	-0.068
WMALN2	All children 0-5 normal	0.124	0.357
WMALN2	With children 0-5 1st degree malnourished	-0.141	-0.347
WMALN2	With children 0-5 2nd degree malnourished	-1.438	-0.346
WELEC	With access to electricity	1.791	-0.106
WELEC	With no access to electricity	-0.142	-0.011
WATSRC4	Comm water system	4.181	-3.094
WATSRC4	Deep/artesian well	0.714	-0.287
WATSRC4	Dug/shallow well, River, lake, other	-0.185	0.09
TOILF2	Water sealed – owned	1.377	-0.496
TOILF2	Water sealed – shared	1.007	0.291
TOILF2	Open/closed pit	-0.23	0.475
TOILF2	No toilet	-0.953	-1.477
TENURE4	Formal tenure	0.166	0.017
TENURE4	Own house, rent-free lot	-0.273	-0.35
TENURE4	Rent-free House and Lot	-0.609	0.392
NMSH	Non-makeshift house	0.023	-0.032
NMSH	Makeshift house	0.278	1.574

Table 43. Measure of Dispersion of Each
Indicator, Final CBMS Survey 2002.

Indicators	Dim. 1	Dim. 2
Over-all (Eigenvalue)	0.2432	0.1955
TOILF2	0.5840	0.4721
WATSRC4	0.3785	0.2272
W1NTLIT	0.3630	0.3260
WELEC	0.3007	0.0047
POVSUB	0.2919	0.1043
W1UNDEMP	0.1994	0.3805
NTSCH	0.1367	0.3254
WMALN2	0.0974	0.0537
TENURE4	0.0635	0.0126
WVICT	0.0168	0.0482

weights than less discriminating ones and hence, passing on these indicators would make households more stable. Profiles of households have been established through these scores. The composite poverty measure in each household is the average of all its scores from each indicator. The difference of this method from the previous one is now obvious—it is the differential scoring and weighting.

Since the weighted composite poverty measure has been derived, a composite poverty indicator, which involves a poverty threshold must be computed next. One must bear in mind that indicators are in raw or transformed categories. Depending on the definition of poverty in each indicator, one could assign a threshold in each indicator. For instance, a household has access to safe water if it has at least a deep/artesian well as source of water. Given the definition of poverty in each of the indicator, a threshold has been derived for each indicator. Similar to the composite poverty measure, an over-all poverty threshold of 2,284.94 is derived. This figure is the arithmetic mean of all the poverty thresholds from each of the indicators.

The weighted composite poverty measure and poverty indicator

Table 44. Category Quantifications in Each Indicator, Final CBMS Survey 2002

Indicator	Level	Dim 1	Dim 2
POVSUB	Non-poor	0.352	-0.026
POVSUB	Non subsistent poor	-0.6	0.759
POVSUB	Poor	-1.007	-0.476
NTSCH	With members 6-16 years old not attending school	-1.003	-1.284
NTSCH	All members 6-16 years old attending school	-0.069	0.501
W1UNDEMP	With underemployed member	-0.11	0.19
W1UNDEMP	With no underemployed member	1.547	-2.101
W1NTLIT	With illiterate member	-1.133	-1.103
W1NTLIT	All members literate	0.338	0.292
WVICT	With victims of crime	-0.603	1.08
WVICT	No victims of crime	0.051	-0.049
WMALN2	All children 0-5 normal	0.154	0.247
WMALN2	With children 0-5 1st degree malnourished	-0.134	-0.391
WMALN2	With children 0-5 2nd degree malnourished	-1.49	-0.488
WELEC	With access to electricity	1.804	-0.227
WELEC	With no access to electricity	-0.143	0.017
WATSRC4	Comm water system	4.214	-3.768
WATSRC4	Deep/artesian well	0.678	0.003
WATSRC4	Dug/shallow well, River, lake, other	-0.179	0.066
TOILF2	Water sealed - owned	1.372	-0.497
TOILF2	Water sealed - shared	1.013	0.236
TOILF2	Open/closed pit	-0.223	0.475
TOILF2	No toilet	-0.972	-1.354
TENURE4	Formal tenure	0.166	0.016
TENURE4	Own house, rent-free lot	-0.268	-0.201
TENURE4	Rent-free House and Lot	-0.619	0.254

Table 45. Extraction of Weights for Each of the Poverty Indicator, CBMS Survey 2002

Indicator	Level	Dim 1	weight	min	weightp	threshold
POVSUB	Non-poor	0.352	713.368	-2041.655	2755.0	
POVSUB	Non subsistent poor	-0.6	-1217.312	-2041.655	824.3	←———
POVSUB	Poor	-1.007	-2041.655	-2041.655	0.0	
NTSCH	With members 6-16 years old not attending school	-1.003	-2034.426	-2034.426	0.0	
NTSCH	All members 6-16 years old attending school	-0.069	-140.496	-2034.426	1893.9	←———
W1UNDEMP	With underemployed member	-0.11	-222.551	-222.551	0.0	
W1UNDEMP	With no underemployed member	1.547	3137.586	-222.551	3360.1	←———
W1NTLIT	With illiterate member	-1.133	-2297.787	-2297.787	0.0	
W1NTLIT	All members literate	0.338	685.773	-2297.787	2983.6	←———
WVICT	With victims of crime	-0.603	-1222.830	-1222.830	0.0	
WVICT	No victims of crime	0.051	103.698	-1222.830	1326.5	←———
WMALN2	All children 0-5 normal	0.154	312.632	-3020.740	3333.4	
WMALN2	With children 0-5 1st degree malnourished	-0.134	-271.548	-3020.740	2749.2	←———
WMALN2	With children 0-5 2nd degree malnourished	-1.49	-3020.740	-3020.740	0.0	
WELEC	With access to electricity	1.804	3658.260	-290.550	3948.8	←———
WELEC	With no access to electricity	-0.143	-290.550	-290.550	0.0	
WATSRC4	Comm water system	4.214	8545.010	-362.441	8907.5	
WATSRC4	Deep/artesian well	0.678	1375.170	-362.441	1737.6	←———
WATSRC4	Dug/shallow well, River, lake, other	-0.179	-362.441	-362.441	0.0	
TOILF2	Water sealed - owned	1.372	2781.141	-1971.060	4752.2	
TOILF2	Water sealed - shared	1.013	2054.238	-1971.060	4025.3	←———
TOILF2	Open/closed pit	-0.223	-453.183	-1971.060	1517.9	
TOILF2	No toilet	-0.972	-1971.060	-1971.060	0.0	
TENURE4	Formal tenure	0.166	336.190	-1254.873	1591.1	
TENURE4	Own house, rent-free lot	-0.268	-544.179	-1254.873	710.7	
TENURE4	Rent-free House and Lot	-0.619	-1254.873	-1254.873	0.0	←———

are now clearly established. Thus, ranking according to the composite poverty measure is possible. Table 46 shows the bottom 10 households and their respective poverty measure. The difference is evident throughout the ranking between the weighted and simple scoring. The lowest ranking is held by an IP household as well as that of Ricardo Padilla. Four out of 10 households in the bottom 10 households are identified as poorest. This is high considering that there are only 10 IP households in the barangay. Households that have attained less than 50 percent of the indicators in the simple scoring, except that of Luorbar Badenas, are a subset of this ranking.

Table 46. Bottom 10 Households Using the Derived Composite Poverty Indicator, CBMS Survey 2002.

Rank	ID	Purok	Household Head	Weighted Composite Poverty Measure
1	122	Ugnayan	Binggon, Manuel	226.4
2	117	Ugnayan	Padilla, Ricardo	324.2
3	63	Mahayahay	Abanes, Ronie	485.1
4	74	Nagkakaisa	Yayen, Nelson	492.8
5	107	Ugnayan	Yayen, Romeo Jr.	492.8
6	118	Ugnayan	Trepit, Prodencio	537.1
7	115	Ugnayan	Delos Reyes, Jaime	630.3
8	120	Ugnayan	Sabenacio, Antero	649.1
9	90	Nagkakaisa	Pefrianco, Domingo	649.5
10	62	Mahayahay	Llavan, Baltazar	688.9

Table 47 shows the better-off households in terms of the composite indicator. As expected, Kenny Dejosco, the barangay captain, made it to the top. Pedro Dulgeme, the tourist property caretaker, is in the 126th place while Rodencion Labrador took the 125th position. The entire top 10 is a subset of the households that have attained at least 80 percent of the indicators in the simple scoring section.

After identifying the poorest households, the next step is to

Table 47. Top 10 Households using the Derived Composite Poverty Indicator, CBMS Survey 2002.

Rank	ID	Purok	Household Head	Weighted Composite Poverty Measure
118	78	Nagkakaisa	Bacul, Senecio	2,121.6
119	38	Maunlad	Estoce, Avelio	2,201.1
120	95	Nagkakaisa	Vicente, Danilo	2,233.5
121	56	Viscua	Abique, Remy	2,233.5
122	86	Nagkakaisa	Caranza, Joseph	2,234.0
123	55	Viscua	Magahis, Dominador	2,234.0
124	101	Ugnayan	Yayen, Francisco	2,313.3
125	80	Nagkakaisa	Labrador, Rodencion	2,411.3
126	30	Maunlad	Dulgeme, Pedro	3,209.5
127	26	Maningning	Dejosco, Kenny	3,564.2

determine how many are considerably poor based on the set of indicators. Computed composite poverty measures are compared to the computed "over-all threshold" to derive the composite poverty indicator. At first glance, one may conclude that failing in one of the indicators will classify a household as poor but as shown a while ago, only one household has attained all the indicators. According to the composite poverty indicator, 3.1 percent of the total households in the barangay are non-poor (Table 48).

Table 49 proves that the composite poverty measure is also significantly correlated to total household income, household size and educational attainment. While the composite poverty measure increases, either the total household income, per-capita income or educational attainment also increases. Similarly, while household size decreases, the poverty measure increases.

Comparison between the two methods
Reducing the multi-dimensionality of poverty is a very complicated task. In fact, there is no unique way of coming up with a composite poverty measure, indicator and rate. One can only choose the better

Table 48. Poverty Rate by Purok, CBMS Survey 2002

Purok	Total Households	Poverty rate	
		Magnitude	Proportion
Kerndeng	127	123	96.9
Mahayahay	15	15	100.0
Maningning	27	26	96.3
Maunlad	19	18	94.7
Nagkakaisa	25	24	96.0
Ugnayan	30	29	96.7
Viscua	11	11	100.0

Table 49. Linear Correlations with the Composite Poverty Measure, CBMS Survey 2002

Variable	Composite Poverty Measure	Significance
Per capita income	0.4192	0.000
Total household income	0.3506	0.000
Household size	-0.1774	0.046
Educational attainment	0.4285	0.000

methods and compromise some factors. Here, the two methods presented are both promising.

Simple scoring presents an attractive way of targeting the problem of dimension reduction in terms of convenience and expediency since each indicator is treated independently. However, as mentioned earlier, the disadvantage of this method lies in the arbitrariness of the poverty rate computation. Also, the individual importance of each indicator is ignored when equal weighting is performed.

The categorically weighted composite indicator through MCA has almost the same characteristics as the simple scoring. However, there is a clear derivation of the set of poverty thresholds and an over-all

poverty threshold, depending on how each indicator is defined. This is not as stringent as the criterion of having to attain all indicators. Due to the nature of differential weighting, this method maintains that the more discriminating indicators will tend to weigh more than the less discriminating ones.

Uses of CBMS data

The preceding analysis has shown that the CBMS survey results can provide crucial information to support planning and project implementation at the local levels. In the case of Barangay Kemdeng, the results of the 2000 CBMS survey were used as basis in implementing projects such as the feeding program and the construction of the day-care center. Livelihood projects were also launched to address the very high poverty and subsistence incidence in the barangay.

Meanwhile, the 2002 CBMS survey affirms the need to sustain a regular source of baseline information. Frequent monitoring of the status of the households provides a clear understanding of the barangay's development status. This will allow program implementers and policymakers to fine-tune or change altogether their programs and projects if these do not yield the intended results.

Aside from providing information on household's welfare conditions at the local level, the CBMS survey results can also target beneficiaries, an important factor to local government units and program implementers. The use of the composite index, an aggregate measure of indicators that best capture poverty and its multi-dimensionality, has made ranking of households possible. This can be a potential tool for targeting the poor and will definitely aid local and national government agencies in identifying priority areas and allocating resources.

For example, implementers can use these households' ranking in identifying and targeting the beneficiaries of the Kalahi Program, the centerpiece poverty alleviation program of the national government. To date, only Barangay Kemdeng in San Vicente is covered by such program. The program started in 2001 with an initial dialogue among

local people, and national and local government officials. One of its key components, the Improved-Sigla Program loans Php250,000.00 to the barangay to defray the cost of the proposed poultry-raising project. The CBMS data can help identify which households need to be prioritized in terms of loan assistance.

Likewise, the CBMS can also share its findings with the health insurance program of the national government. Given the limited resources of the government, it must be ensured that the beneficiaries of the health insurance program are the poor, not the non-poor.

The foregoing discussions have shown that CBMS can provide the necessary information in monitoring the impact of programs meant to uplift the living conditions of the poor as well as identify households most in need of assistance.

Conclusion

The comparative analysis of data from the two CBMS surveys shows that many concerns of the community need immediate attention. Suitable interventions to the problems identified must be immediately administered. The problems are interrelated and entail appropriate courses of action. For instance, health problems may be rooted on issues of water safety and sanitation or consequently, on education, or vice-versa.

Programs on nutrition such as the supplemental feeding programs must be strengthened further and children must be carefully monitored during their critical growing-up years. Dissemination of health information to the households must also be fortified so that family heads are made aware of the procedures in responding to children's health needs.

In terms of facilities, access to safe water is the priority of the barangay. Residents had proposed that a water tank be provided for the barangay during the rainy season. Barangay officials, however, said that this is not possible since the construction of water tanks requires a huge sum of money, which the barangay lacks. Supported by the CBMS data, the barangay can actually opt to solicit funds from the

municipal or provincial government.

In terms of education, officials should exert more effort to keep children in school. Information campaigns that focus on the value of education should be launched.

Another area of concern in the barangay is the careful planning of projects. The CBMS data showed that some of the projects implemented in the barangay did not yield the intended results. One clear example is the provision of deep wells in the barangay. These facilities were supposed to address the problem of access to safe water. However, the facilities were usable for a few months but eventually bogged down, thus, wasting a lot of resources. The project on the provision of toilet bowls also met the same fate.

Meanwhile, the composite indicator has allowed ranking of households at the barangay level. This will be very helpful particularly to government agencies and other organizations with the capacity to do such analysis. Two methods were used to derive composite indices:

- Simple scoring is the most feasible as far as local government units are concerned because of its simple statistical procedure. However, weights are arbitrarily set in this technique.
- The categorically weighted composite poverty indicator derives weights from multiple correspondence analysis. The bottleneck in this technique is the few LGUs' inability to adopt even the simplest statistical software. Furthermore, this method requires rigorous training and statistical know-how due to its technically sophisticated derivation of the composite indicator. Nonetheless, it should be noted that the results obtained from this method indicate a very high incidence of poverty. Hence, further work needs to be done in this area.

References

Asselin, Louis-Marie (2002). *Multidimensional Poverty: Theory.*

Reyes, Celia M. and Kenneth C. Ilarde (1996). Are They Meeting Their Minimum Basic Needs? (A Profile of Barangay Masuso and Real de Cacarong). Research Paper Series No. 25. MIMAP-Philippines Project.

Reyes, Celia M., Kenneth C. Ilarde and Reynaldo Cancio (1996). Using MBN Indicators for Poverty Monitoring. MIMAP Research Paper Series No. 26. MIMAP-Philippines Project.

_____. "Annual Investment Plan 1999-2003." San Vicente, Palawan.

_____. "Socioeconomic Profile of Barangay Kemdeng: 2001-2003." Municipal Government of San Vicente.

Apendix A
List of Key Informants
CBMS Validation Activity: April 27, 2004

1. Glenda C. Maceda — Barangay Microscopist
2. Analeah Llavan — Day care worker
3. Dancerio Llavan — Barangay kagawad
4. Dedicacion Dacillo — Barangay kagawad
5. Procita Yayen — Barangay secretary
6. Laura Ramil — KASAMAKEN Member
7. Alicia Estoce — Teacher
8. Analiza Llavan — BEANS
9. Ma. Teresa Fabellar — Project & Evaluation Officer
10. Jovy Borres — LGU
11. Meriam Etchinique — Municipal officer, LGU San Vicente

CBMS Session 5
Update on New CBMS Initiatives

Ensuring Services to the Poor in Bangladesh: Learning From the LLPMS

···

Ranjan Kumar Guha

Introduction

All over the world, the government of each country is bound to provide basic facilities to meet its constitutional obligations. Bangladesh is not exempted from it. Its government offers a wide range of basic services for socio-economic development. Article 15 of its constitution articulates that it shall be the fundamental responsibility of the state to provide basic necessities of life including food, clothing, shelter, education and medical care; to ensure the right to employment at a reasonable wage; and to provide public assistance in cases of unemployment, illness or disability as well as in favor of widows, orphans and elderlies. Article 17 of the constitution obligates the state to provide free and compulsory education to all children to remove illiteracy. To achieve these mandates, the government renders services to the people via its line departments. In all these, poverty remains as one of the major development agenda in Bangladesh.

Poverty in Bangladesh has many routes and dimensions. Because it is multi-dimensional, poverty and its causes are difficult

to sum up. Poverty literature in Bangladesh indicates that the low economic growth, inequitable distribution of income, unequal distribution of productive asset, unemployment and underemployment, low level of human resource development, natural disaster and limited access to public services are the most important reasons of poverty in the country (GOB 1995). The services provided by government and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) aim to increase productivity, generate employment opportunities, develop infrastructure, enable people, reduce vulnerabilities, and maintain law and order. Extension services, technological transfer, training, input supply within reasonable costs in the field of agriculture and small and cottage industries, and price support are the main services geared toward increasing productivity as well as equity. For employment generation, government and NGOs grant training, credit, information, and various technological supports and services and carry out public works programs. Construction of roads, culverts, and irrigation facilities; and arrangements for electricity, and telecommunications facilities fall under the purview of infrastructural development. Providing education, and ensuring health facility, safe drinking water, and sanitation help develop the people's capacity to survive in the competitive world. Provision of safety-net programs for the disadvantaged sectors is an example of support services to reduce people's vulnerabilities.

The shape of support services also varies in relation to their nature. Some support services are directed toward individuals (e.g., safety-net programs, support under targeted poverty alleviation programs) while others are intended for the community as a whole. The support services for a community is expected to benefit all persons equally regardless of their social status but targeted services, meanwhile, are mainly for the disadvantaged sectors. Line departments of the government and NGOs offer support services through their field offices. Local governments act as catalysts since they receive the demand-based service and then deliver these to target groups. This paper describes the problems related to providing support services to the poor and explains the lessons from the Local-Level Poverty

Monitoring System's (LLPMs) experiences on servicing the poor. The observations of this author during the LLPMS fieldwork and feedback from different stakeholders are also documented in this paper.

Existing support services in rural areas

Article 16 of the Bangladesh Constitution recognizes the need to adopt effective measures in bringing about radical transformation in rural areas. Promoting agricultural revolution, providing rural electrification, developing cottage industries and other type of industries and improving education, communication and public health are measures that can remove the disparity in the standards of living between the urban and rural areas. To address these issues, as many as 22 different government departments at Upazila level provide help to the people. Services provided by some departments—e.g., the Department of Agricultural Extension, Forestry, Department of Health and Family Planning, Department of Mass Education, Non Formal Education, Department of Fishery and Department of Livestock—can significantly contribute to poverty alleviation (UNDP 1996). There are also those offered by other government departments at Upazila level such as the Bangladesh Rural Development Board, Directorate of Youth, Directorate of Social Service, Relief and Rehabilitation, Department of Cooperative, Local Government Engineering Department, Department of Women Affairs, Department of Public Health Engineering. Some NGOs also deliver services. Most do so through their extension agents. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) also finds that these departments have resources and services intended for villagers, especially the poor. However, it is often impractical and inconvenient for the government machinery to extend its services to beneficiaries due to lack of manpower, logistics support and facilities and absence of inadequate receiving mechanism. The same is true for NGOs and the private sector (UNDP 1995).

The government of Bangladesh's priority is on the delivery of services to the disadvantaged sector and over-all productivity. Primary education has been compulsory for all while government has focused

on ensuring primary healthcare with significant success. The Expanded Program for Immunization (EPI) is successful in Bangladesh. It has been widely accepted by every stakeholder in the process. Among the South Asian countries, Bangladesh had achieved a commendable success in supplying safe drinking water to rural areas (although it recently encountered problems with the presence of arsenic in water). The government has also designed some safety-net programs: i.e., The Vulnerable Group Development (VGD), Vulnerable Group Feeding (VGF), and Test Relief (TR) Food for Works Programs (FWP) to support the underprivileged people. Nevertheless, the people feel that the support services are not enough, and there is a discrepancy in the delivery of support services between rural and urban areas, and between poor and non-poor ones. The UNDP (1998) says that the poorest 10 percent in the rural areas have access to 13 percent of the total health benefits. The bottom 20 percent households have access to only 14 percent public spending on rural education while the upper 20 percent enjoy 29 percent of the service. In primary education, the top 20 percent of households get 21 percent of the benefit while the bottom 20 percent receive 19 percent of the same benefit. The support services program itself develop some problems: Although the poor gets some benefit, the actual beneficiaries are sometimes overlooked. Support services related to increasing productivity favor well-off families although the disadvantaged sector gets indirect benefit from these initiatives. The World Bank (2004) finds that too often, the services fail the poor people in terms of access, quantity and quality.

Problems of ensuring support services to the poor

Support services for the poor itself are wrought with problems in the delivery and receipt mechanism. On the delivery side, two sets of parties are very important: Service providers and local governments authorities on one end, and the beneficiaries on the other end.

Box 1. Nature of Services Provided by NBDs and NGOs at Upazila Level

Name of Department	Nature of Services	Channel of Service Delivery
Department of Agricultural Extension (DAE)	▪ Extension support ▪ Transfer of technology ▪ Imparting training ▪ Responding to problem of farmers ▪ Encouraging the use of balanced and qualitative inputsas well as the practice of crop diversification through demonstration plot	Officials, extension agents posted at Union level
Department of Fisheries (DOF)	▪ Establish demonstration plot ▪ Provide extension services to fish farm ▪ Impart training on fish culture and nursing ▪ Provide consultation service to the private farm and ▪ Biologically manage khash water bodies	Officials, extension workers and project staff posted at Upazila level
Department of Livestock (DOL)	▪ Control infectious disease of cattle ▪ Treatment of cattle and poultry birds ▪ Artificially inseminate animals ▪ Improve of local breed of cattle and poultry ▪ Impart training ▪ Transfer technology to farmers	Officials and support staff posted at Upazila level
Department of Family Planning (DFP)	▪ Encourage the practice of various contraceptive methods and provides clinical support ▪ Mobilize child immunization programs	Officials, door to door services by family welfare assistants
Department of Health (DOH)	▪ Control infectious disease ▪ Create awareness about health and sanitation	Doctors and assistant at Upazila and Union Health Center
Department of Primary Education (DPE)	▪ Distribute books to primary students ▪ Assist under food for education ▪ Ensure quality education through inspection and supervision	Officials at Upazila level and primary school teachers
Bangladesh Rural Development Board (BRDB)	▪ Support credit programs ▪ Build capacity through awareness development and impart training	Officials and field staff

Box 1 (cont'd)

	▪ Develop network of the disadvantaged	
Local Government Engineering Department (LGED)	▪ Construct physical infrastructure (school, bridge, culverts, irrigation structure etc.)	Engineers and support staff with the help of local government
Department of Public Health Engineering (DPHE)	▪ Ensure safe drinking water through sinking tube well ▪ Construct and distribute sealed latrines ▪ Construct pipe lines for water supply	Engineers and support staff with the help of local government
Department of Social Welfare (DSW)	▪ Provide support to the disadvantaged section of people ▪ Provide credit	Officials and support staff with the help of local organizations
Statistical Department (SD)	▪ Conduct census or sample survey for gathering information	Officials of Upazila level with the help of field staff
Upazila Cooperative Office (UCO)	▪ Protecting the cooperators' accumulated capital and other assets	Officials and support staff
Department of Non Formal Education (DNFE)	▪ Provide mass education services	Upazila officials in collaboration with NGO
Department of Women's Affairs (DWA)	▪ Provide skills training to women ▪ Provide credit	Field staff and training institute
Department of Youth (DYD)	▪ Provide skills training to women ▪ Provide credit	Field staff and training institute
Department of Relief and Rehabilitation (DRR)	▪ Provide direct support (cash. food) to the vulnerable people	Offical of Upazila level with the support of local government
Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs)	▪ Provide skills training ▪ Motivation and awareness building ▪ Education, primary health services ▪ Participate in income-generating activities and marketing facilities ▪ Provide credit ▪ Develop network systems among the people	Officials. field staff

Service delivery mechanism
From the side of service delivery agencies
Absence of database
The absence of a database at the local level limits the support services initiatives for the target group. It is difficult to identify the most needy as well as the nature of support services required by communities.

Weak relationship between service provider and receiver
The service receivers, especially the disadvantaged, do not feel free to get in touch with service providers. During one planning workshop organized after the pilot phase ended, a local chief executive expressed how residents always hesitate to consult the project officials regarding welfare problems despite the fact that the officials are paid to render services for such purpose. As a result, it is difficult to assess local problems and meet the communities' needs.

Lack of strong institution at the grassroots level
Extension agents also find difficulty in going to households. To them, it would have been easier to serve all members in one visit had there been a strong institution at the grassroots level. Unfortunately, a strong and healthy institution at the village level is practically non-existent.

Negligence in taking responsibility
To ensure quality services to the community, a local government would have to take ownership over such objective. On the other hand, it is impossible for line departments to ensure quality services if people at the local level do not monitor activities and provide feedback. Service delivery agencies, too, are hindered by lack of manpower and inadequate logistic services.

Mentality of the poor
In the past, service providers realized that the poor has learned to cope with living under perpetuate poverty. However, their tendencies to be conforming, fatalistic, superstitious, skeptical, ignorant and

unreceptive to change hinder them from recognizing their problems as well as taking the necessary actions to address such.

From the side of local government

Lack of coordination among government and non-governmental organizations
Key individuals at the local government level feel that they are not duly consulted on any development initiative in their locality. They do not have access to information about how many organizations are working for the development of the rural poor. Specifically, because of the number of interventions by government organizations and NGOs, activities get duplicated and overlap in the rural areas. They also report cases where one loan applicant could be granted a loan under different programs and by various organizations because there was no coordination among program overseers. Second, although selected individuals tapped by implementing agencies receive some training, how much of the gained knowledge was utilized proved to be frustrating: This was because the selection of trainees was made without considering candidates' attitude, resources and enthusiasm.

Lack of information
Local government leaders are unaware of the situations in their areas. As they are not equipped to collect information, decisions have long been based on assumption. When requested by the line agencies to identify the vulnerable persons who need the support services, the key persons of the Union Parishad sometimes single out people who already had good relations with them as the beneficiaries, leaving out the really deserving one. In that case, nepotism and favoritism get in the way of the support services programs.

Poor quality of secretarial support
The Union Parishad is also poorly equipped to provide administrative/ support services. There is only one support staff in the Union Parishad– the secretary–but such individual is unable to assist the Union Parishad in communications. Moreover, the Union Parishad members only have

a five-years tenure. Thus, if no clear support had been established with officials of the local government during this period, the union will encounter difficulties in addressing the needs of their people.

Absence of need-based support services
In the absence of a database, the Union Parishad is unable to articulate their people's demand to service providers. Thus, they could only depend on the supply-based support services of the service providers. In most cases, the support services provided by the service delivery agency do not match the requirements or the services rendered are minimal compared to the requirements.

Individualistic development mentality
People in the rural areas are becoming more individualistic than ever. In earlier days, a community's response during a crisis was the main strength of the society. Today, group cohesion and solidarity have declined. That is, a community's response in catastrophic situations remains strong but such cooperation does not extend to the individual family level. Also, while borrowing money at zero interest from the neighbors in times of emergency was common then, such is unthinkable nowadays.

From the side of service receiver
Extension agents are not responsive
Most people, specially the disadvantaged sector, complain about how unresponsive extension agents are to the needs of the poor. Agents direct their attention to serving the well-off to foster good relations for their own vested interest. During the pilot phase of the project, residents were not even aware how many extension agents were working in their locality.

Lack of quality services
People also feel that the quality of support services provided by the public sector deteriorates each passing day. Some of these public

services are on education and health. The public sector is beleaguered with frequently absent or unqualified service providers. Meanwhile, only those who have the means can avail of the more superior service quality in the private sector.

Lack of transparency and accountability
At the grassroots level people are unclear about what support services are available from the service delivery agencies.´ Thus, they do not have the clout to monitor as well as make those agencies or persons accountable.

Affinity with the power structure
Support services for the poor also suffer from local government officials' biased decisions regarding distribution of services. Many complain that those individuals with established relations with local government heads are prioritized over the services' intended beneficiaries. The government heads partially agree, defending this by saying that they had to make quick decisions regarding who should avail of the benefits in the face of meager information from where to base the selection.

Lack of flexibility in the system
The people have expressed dissatisfaction over the current service delivery mechanism. Specifically, they talked about their inability to access credit from government organizations and NGOs in times of crisis. In the end, they had to resort to borrowing from moneylenders who charge very high interest rates.

How can this gap be reduced?

It is clear from the above discussion that every party involved in the service delivery mechanism has a point to raise in this debate. Now, the challenge is how to reduce this gap. The World Bank (2004) articulates that improvements could be made if (1) the poor people could only have the voice in the policymaking process; and (2) service providers, at their end, are given more incentives to focus on the poor.

Field experiences indicate that support services would require resources from service delivery agencies. On the other hand, governments of third world countries are unable to pour adequate money to satisfy all people. In that context, the following section highlights measures that can ensure proper utilization of available resources.

Empowering the people and strengthening local governments

The people, specially the disadvantaged sector, and those from the local government must be empowered enough to make service delivery agencies as well as service providers accountable for their actions. That is, the people should be provided the necessary information and the local government should have the ability to accumulate such information. Thus, the voices of the poor should be heard and factored into the design and provision of services. That way, the whole community would have the clout to pressure service delivery agencies to provide the quality services needed by target beneficiaries.

Formulating need-based plans

Formulating local-level plans based on the actual needs of the people will help sensitize the service provider to respond according to the demands and aspiration of the people.

Introducing feedback mechanism

A feedback mechanism from the grassroots level on the quality of services, and efficiency of extension agents can help to identify the corrective measures that will make the service more efficient. Local organizations or local government at the grassroots level can be made responsible for soliciting regular feedback as well as consulting with service recipients.

Identification of vulnerable groups

Support services meant for the poor can be channeled properly if the vulnerable groups are identified. This database on such group may be

used as basis for policy decisions. If this system is introduced, local government's transparency and accountability is ensured.

Making service providers pro-poor responsive

Encouraging the service providers to design and deliver services based on the needs of the poor can help make service provision more efficient as well. Thus, a service provider should be equipped with the right information about the local area's needs. Again, the local government plays a pivotal role in achieving this goal.

Fine-tuning government organization and NGO collaboration

Poverty alleviation initiatives of government organizations and NGOs should be fine-tuned. Coordinated efforts are required to trim down overlapping tasks and misuse of resources. After potential areas for development are identified, government organizations and NGOs should then supply the services as per their areas of specialization.

Bridging the gap in information

It is clear now that lack of information is one of the major problems in service provision and delivery. Field experience shows that the nature of information on service delivery agencies, local government and receivers is wanting. For instance, participants of a past workshop identified a need for consolidated information on the education, health, productivity, and employment status of their areas. Local government authority, meanwhile need consolidate information on individual households, their problems and the potential areas of development. Service recipients need information about service providers---i.e., where they can access the services, what service are available and at what cost. Service providers, on the other hand, need a consolidated information of each sector so that they can better address the poor's needs.

The latest on LLPMS

The Local Level Poverty Monitoring System (LLPMS) was started under the Micro Impacts of Macroeconomic and Adjustment Policies (MIMAP)-Bangladesh by the Bangladesh Academy for Rural Development (BARD) and Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies (BIDS). It aims to develop a user-friendly mechanism for poverty monitoring at local level. Its pilot test was in Bangladesh, and had three major components: Participatory Poverty and Development Monitoring (PPDM); Resource Profile Monitoring (RPM); and Village Development Planning (VDP). The first two components generate the database while the third utilizes the information for preparing village development plans and programs. Local governments were involved in the whole process while trained residents handle the data collection. Data were collected by using PRA and household surveys. A village information book was prepared to incorporate the information on each household. Then, armed with the new information, a planning workshop was organized among service delivery agencies, local government representatives and villagers. Villagers were provided some information on the basis of their requirements. The BARD is now implementing the design in all villages under one union. In this next phase, a database will be developed and more meetings will be organized at the grassroots level to disseminate the findings of the next survey to the people. Based on the experiences from the pilot survey and the second phase, it can be said that LLPMS has developed a mechanism for providing support services to the poor in the following ways:

List of poor households

Through LLPMS, a village data book identifying the poor families has been produced. Thus, the local government authority now has a database that singles out prospective candidates needing support services. On the other hand, overlap and duplication of development activities can be avoided since implementers now have the database as basis for their actions.

Consolidated information

Part A of the data book contains the consolidated information on various sectors of the villages. This information can be consolidated so as to come up with the ward/union-level information.

Plan book

Based on the collected information and identified priority areas of development, functionaries of each Union Parishad can now put forth their demands to the service providers. From there, the service providers can respond accordingly and draw up a plan of action, given their limited resources.

Awareness of functionaries of the Union Parishad

After the field works were completed, the attitude of the functionaries of local governments changed immensely. In one of the PRA exercises, the chairman quipped that although he was a local resident, the information gathered through the PRA was new to him. Such new realizations on local area problems can thus be utilized to benefit the population.

Voice of the poor

Field discussions also made the local people more aware about their problems and the role service providers play in their locality . Residents now know who the extension agents of development in their area are. Residents have been requested to report inefficient service providers to their Union Parishad. That way, the feedback mechanism gives the poor a voice.

Poverty maps

The second phase attempts to explain both income and human poverty by using a map. The Natural Resources Database (NRDB) will be used to show policy planners and service providers a consolidated picture on health, education, and poverty of each ward while another map will be developed to identify every deprived family of each village.

Figure 1 shows the consolidated literacy rate of different wards while Figure 2 indicates the individual households with dropout students. Figure 1 can guide policy planners and service providers toward specific disadvantaged wards. On the other hand, the Union Parishad functionaries will be able to supply services to the target beneficiary by studying Figure 2.

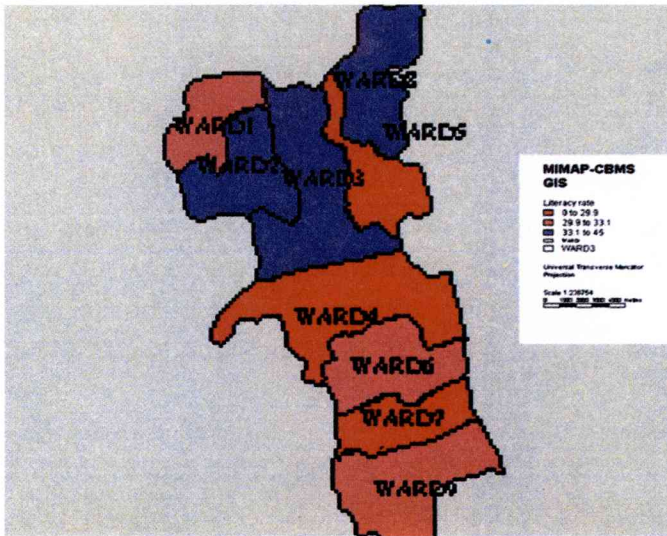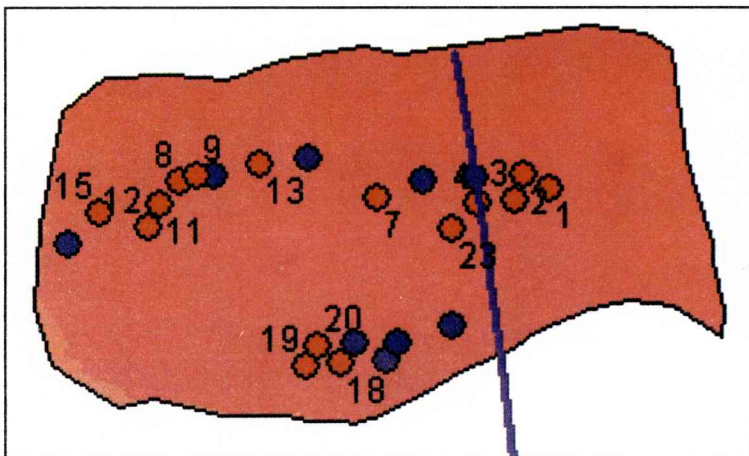Figure 1. Literacy Rate of Wards Under Muhammapur Union

Figure 2. Households With Drop-out Students in a Village

Conclusion

The LLPMS has developed a mechanism for poverty monitoring at local level that ensures participation from all stakeholders. The LLPMS system has enormous potential for its user-friendly attribute. However, such potential uses still depend on the attitude of all stakeholders and the ability of usesrs to innovate.

Early on, there used to be a feeling that the manual database developed under the pilot phase limited its potential uses. A computer-based database would have expedited its potential uses because the database designed to be used manually is time consuming. The research team of Bangladesh thus developed a simple computer-based database but was faced with a the challenge: How to transfer this knowledge to the local level.

The second phase, therefore, dealt with this challenge by developing a user-friendly database with the local people as intended users. The selected Union Parishad possessed a computer but remained under utilized due to technical manpower limitations. To overcome the problem, a young boy with very little knowledge on computer was selected as supervisor. The plan was to train and transfer the technical know-how to him. If this plan works, such initiative can turn into an innovative model where support services are provided to the poor by increasing the managerial capacity of the local government.

Finally, LLPMS does not aim to increase resources in service delivery; rather, it will aim for optimum utilization of existing resources by honing the management skils of services providers.

References

GOB (1995). "Fifth Five-Year Plan." Dhaka, Planning Commission, Bangladesh

GOB (1999). "The Constitution of People's Republic of Bangladesh." Memorandum Order. Law Justice and Parliamentary Affairs. Bangladesh

United Nations Development Programme (1996) "South Asian Poverty Alleviation Programme: Bangladesh Annual Report 1996." United Nations Development Programme: Bangladesh.

United Nations Development Programme (1998). "Bangladesh Human Development Report: Monitoring Human Development." Dhaka. United Nations Developemt Programme: Bangladesh

World Bank (2004). *Making Services Work for Poor People*. Washington. World Bank. USA

Working Toward a Commune-Based Poverty Monitoring System in Cambodia

Sophal Chan and Kim Net

Research activities
Refinements in research methodology
Enumerators

The initial idea of employing schoolteachers proved inappropriate for the project although schoolteachers had been employed to conduct the population census and general election administration in Cambodia. The CBMS survey will take around one month of full time work, making it impossible for full time teachers to free themselves up during the school period. Knowledgeable villagers and members of the Village Development Committee, which has become part of the voluntary Commune Planning and Budgeting Committee, were recruited jointly by the commune councils and the Supervisory Team. They were later trained as enumerators. Those with a good command of quantitative skills will also be trained as data processors

Initially, the village chief was not considered for any substantial role in the survey. However, after consultations with the commune councils, the study recognized that the village chief has a lot to offer and could play a role other than as interviewer. The village

chief can direct the enumerators to every house for the conduct of the household listing. He can also be asked to guide enumerators to the right households and, if necessary, make appointments on behalf of the enumerators. For these tasks, he receives a minimal honorarium as commune council members.

Pre-tests

After the discussions with the Network Leader in November 2003, pre-testing of the system instruments was adopted although it was not proposed initially. Thus, budgets were modified and timelines extended without additional costs incurred. The household questionnaire and tally sheets were developed and implemented in one village per commune as a pre-test.[1] The commune council members, village chiefs and enumerators for the pre-tested village underwent training in early February 2004 and conducted interviews with households in February and March 2004.

The first day of the three-day training dealt with the purpose of the system and every question in the questionnaire. The second day was spent on testing the questionnaire in the village. Each enumerator was required to interview two households– one small and one large– to gather experiences with respondents under different household sizes. The third day was to get feedback from the enumerators and clarify/rectify any unclear questions.

Household listing

The survey was preceded by a household listing. The enumerators and the village chief spent the first one or two days listing all households in the village according to their grouping system. In a Cambodian

---

[1] On average, a commune has six villages.

[2] In line with the Cambodian national surveys, a household is defined as a group of people who basically live and eat together. If a member has not been present in the household in the past 12 months, they are not counted as member of the household. If two families live in the same house but they have separate accounts and meals, they are counted as two households.

village, a number of groups are ordered sequentially from one side of the village to another. There can be 10 to 30 groups per village. The number of households in each group varies from 10 to 50.

The household listing exercise called for enumerators to assign an ordinal number per households from one side of the village to another. With each form now pre-printed with an ordinal number per household, enumerators then filled in the group number, house number, name and sex of household head. The ordinal number of household was the corresponding serial number of the questionnaire for the household (i.e., the ID number of the household).

The household listing exercise verified as well as updated the number of households in the village, based on the definition adopted for the CBMS system.[2] Each enumerator kept a copy of the new household list.

Depending on the size of the village, the interviews took 20 days to 30 days for a village. The enumerators worked reasonably well under the supervision of a commune council member and the provincial partner, who reported directly to the Supervisory Team. The village chief gave enumerators geographical guidance and assisted in making appointments. At the end of March 2004, a meeting with all the enumerators, village chiefs and commune council members was conducted to solicit their experiences during the pre-tests.

Data processing

A format for data entry was developed and printed. In most of the communes, the commune council members did the manual data entry themselves. However, in two communes, the enumerators were knowledgeable enough to perform the manual data entry themselves. The data collected in the pre-tests were computerized for verification purposes. If the accuracy of the manual processing is found to be too low, computerizing the data entry process at the provincial level was an option.

Research/policy studies

As a pilot study, the project needed to consult with local institutions, especially the commune councils, on certain details. The main purpose is to establish a system that is financially feasible and sustainable. The enumeration fee was therefore jointly decided by the Supervisory Team and commune councils. Every question in the questionnaire was also reviewed with the help of the commune council.

Workshops/conferences/consultation meetings

The national seminar entitled "Working Towards a Commune-based Poverty Monitoring System in Cambodia" was held on 27 November 2003. The draft design of the project was presented to gather inputs from relevant stakeholders. The seminar received useful contributions from the participation of Dr. Celia Reyes, CBMS Network Leader, and Dr. Vou Tuan Anh, Vietnam's CBMS Leader. The presence of H.E. Chhay Than, planning minister, and H.E. San Sy Than, general director of the National Institute of Statistics, showed that the project has national support as well. In their respective speeches, the dignitaries said they highly appreciated the initiative to pilot the CBMS in Cambodia and pledged full support for it. The workshop was attended by some 60 stakeholders from government, donor agencies, non-government organizations and commune councils.

Other mobilization activities

Meetings and consultations with prospective donors (WFP, GTZ and the Asian Development Bank) and government agencies (NIS and PMATU) were held to discuss their potential support to the system and project expansion. The ADB and WFP expressed interest in employing the system in their large programs. However, actual support or application of the system would likely materialize only after the pilot project have been determined.

The NIS has particularly expressed interest to adopt the CBPMS into its regular structure and program. The NIS is willing to offer an office for the project, an act that reflects its national plan to strengthen

the statistical systems at the local levels. The NIS is expected to take over the initiative from Cambodia Development Research Institute (CDRI) once the pilot project is completed successfully. If this is effected, such would be a milestone as it takes the project one step closer to eventual nationwide CBMS. Should the project proved convincing, more resources from other agencies can be expected to mobilize and expand the project's coverage.

Publications

No publication has been produced except for the final CBMS design submitted to network leader. A final report on the CBMS Network will be also produced as a CDRI working paper. For communes, a "Commune Poverty Report" will be produced for both their planning purposes and public/donor's consumption.

Upcoming activities of the project

The full survey started in early May 2004 and was expected to be completed no later than mid June 2004. Three or four commune council members acted as enumerators' supervisors. In turn, the provincial partner help supervise both enumerators and commune council members. Members of the Supervisory Team also spot-check the quality of the survey. Members of the Supervisory Team are expected to make two visits during the whole survey period.

The plan also includes forwarding the village questionnaire to the village chiefs. As per schedule, the village chiefs had been expected to fill it out in early June 2004 under the supervision of the commune councils.

Once the household questionnaire is completed, training will be given on how to enter data manually Into tally sheets. The process will take about three weeks. Then, training on how to analyze data will be provided to either enumerators or commune councils. Each commune has large calculators for the manual calculation. The most challenging effort will be in determining the poverty line for each commune and

the proportion of poor households in villages and commune. Such will be done based on consumption expenditure per-capita.

Given the data gathered, commune councils will then be trained to write a "commune poverty report." The Supervisor Team will work closely with the commune council members on the draft, which will then be reviewed by the whole commune council. After this primary report is completed, a workshop at the district level will be conducted to present the findings, solicit peer reviews, and disseminate the CBPMS to other communes within the districts.

The updated timelines for the rest of the project's activities is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. List of Activities

Activities	New Time/Deadlines
I. Development of a CBMS	August - September 2003
a. Review of existing monitoring systems	September 2003
b. Draft design of the proposed system and discuss it with prospective partners	
c. Partnership establishment	September - October 2004
d. National workshop to discuss design	27 November 2003
e. Phase I report writing and final design submitted	16 February 2004
II. Pilot-Test of the System	
a. Development of data collection and processing tools	January 2004
b. Networking with key persons in pilot sites	Ongoing
c. Pre-test of census in one village in each of the six communes	02 February - 15 April 2004
d. Conduct of training of enumerators and data processors for full CBMS in the selected communes	1 - 10 May 2004
e. Conduct of survey	10 May - 18 June 2004
f. Consolidation and processing of data	21 June - 30 July 2004
g. Analysis and reporting writing by commune councils	2 - 31 August 2004
h. Analysis and validation of survey results	16 - 31 August 2004
i. Report writing by Supervisory Team	1 September - 20 October 2004
j. Local seminar in Kratie province	03 November 2004
k. Local seminar in Battembang province	05 November 2004
l. National Seminar in Phnom Penh	18 November 2004
m. Final Report to MIMAP - CBMS Leader	10 December 2004

Problems encountered and recommendations

By and large, the project has been going well without major problems. It helped that the CBMS network leader provided flexibility to the project by adding a pre-test and a subsequent time extension without additional costs. All communes strongly supported the system, thanks to the tremendous collaborative efforts of the Supervisory Team.

One main challenge faced by the project is the change in its leadership. However, as outlined below, a plan has been made to ensure a smooth transition and successful completion of the project. Beside this challenge, four other pitfalls deserve mentioning here:

First, as expected, gathering information about income and expenditure of households was difficult. Interviewees either tried to hide their monthly income or could not recall their monthly or annual income.

Second, manual data processing can be too difficult for certain villages where human resources are relatively weak. It remains to be seen whether the data can be entered into the computer at the provincial level. The answer will be known when the data from the pre-tests have been computerized and analyzed.

Third, the recruitment of enumerators could have been done better. Since the commune councils were to be entrusted to implement and own the system, they were given the responsibility to identify potential candidates from the villages. Deciding on the candidates was then made with the Supervisory Team. In the end, the pool of candidates proved to be limited and a number of candidates had to be turned away. A better way would have been to post an announcement posted at the schools or other communal places.

Fourth, the enumeration fee is critical. It should be a level that is not so high. Neither should it be too low that it cannot win the commitment of enumerators over the quality of the interviews. The current rate is based on the number of questionnaires filled out. It is 1,000 riels ($0.25) per questionnaire/household, which takes one hour to complete on average. An enumerator earns 6,000 riels ($1.50) per day on average. In comparison, an average wage for unskilled labor is

$1 per day. A small number of candidates declined the rate. There were temptations to raise the remuneration but project leaders decided against it as the cost involved will lower the likelihood of replicating the system.

Community-Based Monitoring System in Lao PDR

··

Samaychan Boupha

Introduction

·Thirty-two percent of Laotians is estimated to live under the poverty line (results from LECS 2002-2003). For Lao PRD, however, poverty is complex and can be viewed from many perspectives. Given the Lao multi-ethnic culture, poverty refers to those families that have been stricken by misfortune and/or are the least well-off in a given community.

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 that can be used to identify strategic approaches to poverty reduction. For this reason, its government prefers to stress the improvement of livelihoods, focusing on people-centered, participatory development.

The government's poverty eradication objective is in line with its goals of overcoming its Least Developed Country status by the year 2020. In June 2001, the government issued Instruction Number 010/PM, which identified poverty criteria and clarified the modalities for the preparation of an operational poverty eradication program. Based on this policy, National Growth Poverty Eradication Strategy (NGPES) was developed. In 2003, Lao PDR

finalized the NGPES plan and then proceeded with the implementation of its programs. The Department of Planning is the central/leading agency for the NGPES implementation. Meanwhile, the National Statistical Center (NSC) is responsible for poverty analysis and monitoring of the NGPES as well as the Economic –Socio Development Plan.

Monitoring in Lao PDR follows a bottom-up approach (i.e., from the community to the national level) and this is based on the data collection process of the NSC. Results are still far from the targets. Learning from the past experiences, three possible obstacles could have affect the implementation:

- Human resource, including capacity;
- Financial support; and
- Technical issues (e.g., questionnaire design, methodology, organization in the data collection process).

During the 1990s, poverty analysis and monitoring were drawn heavily from the Lao Expenditure and Consumption Survey (LECS), which takes placed every five years. The monitoring of poverty, however, was not progressively in placed. The annual assessment did not exist at all.

For an appropriate monitoring of the NGPES implementation, NSC will strengthen the linkages between quantitative and qualitative analyses, building on three steps:

- Poverty monitoring of households via village-level statistical data;
- Quantitative poverty monitoring using the household's consumption expenditure survey; and
- Qualitative poverty monitoring using participatory methods.

Justification for CBMS in Lao PDR

Lao PDR is currently implementing the decentralization policies as well as poverty eradication programs. One of the main objectives for decentralization is to ensure that people are directly involved in the

decision-making process and responsible for their own development. The district assemblies have been charged to identify problems and development issues within their communities and to develop mechanisms for solving them. However, in practice, the bottom-up approach was not widely implemented, and involved very little analysis of priorities and perceptions of the people in the communities.

The bottom-up approach in planning and policy formulation requires community–based data collection and monitoring. Thus, it is the Community-Based Monitoring Poverty System (CBMS) that can support the implementation of data collection via the "village book" and can gather other additional poverty-related information/indicators. The CBMS aims to provide information at grassroots level on a timely basis to policymakers. This is hoped to complement the efforts of the decentralized system and help local people directly involved in deciding what policies best address their needs. If adopted, the CBMS will supplement the existing system of data collection at the village level. Here, the NSC will then take lead in the research, design and introduction of CBMS. On a medium- and long-term basis, this can be extended to the rest of the country through the NGPES and the decentralization program.

Objectives
The proposed objectives of the CBMS – Lao PDR are as follows:
- To develop and design the household's questionnaire for collecting information that will support the existing village book;
- To select other appropriate indicators for commune-based poverty monitoring and analysis on top of existing indicators already determined in the village book. Also, to offer communities some simple and easy-to-collect socio, economic and poverty indicators of the prevailing standards of living;
- To provide practical scientifically generated data to local authorities for their effective planning, monitoring and evaluation of development projects. Also, to furnish policy-

makers with data to be used for prioritization of projects, among others;

- To build the capacity of selected local authorities in data collection and the research skills of NSC's staffs;
- To strengthen the coordination efforts between NSC and local authorities as well as among local authorities themselves; and
- To produce reports based on the CBMS results.

The project will be implemented over a period of 24 months in three phases. Phase 1 is for six months (from March 16 to September 2004). Phase 2 will be from October to March 2005 (Pilot) while Phase 3 will last for 12 months (from April 2005 to March 2006).

On-going activities

Activities	Status/Output	Remark
1. Has designated responsibility to the team members, including local team members	Draft letter of the notification from NSC and respective local governors.	
2. Review existing poverty monitoring system based on the village book.	First draft report (in Lao version) circulated for comment.	The english version will be produced after the local-language report isfinalized.
3. Review participatory tools in monitoring and evaluating the poverty	(Under review)	A technical report will be produced in both Lao and English versions.
4. Draw up the list of indicators and variables on poverty analysis and monitoring (These are in addition to the factors already identified in the village book).	Tentative list has been set up by NSC's project team.	The discussion on the final list of indicators will be during the National workshop (June – July 2004).
5. Define two CBMS sites for the pilot phase.	The sites: * Savannakhet Province * Saravan Province The selection of Districts - Nong District - Tumlan District and village for the project site will be defined in this June	

Other activities under Phase 1 (Target: before September 2004)

1. Design and develop a questionnaire for the pilot CBMS;
2. Organize consultation workshops with institutions or agencies concerned;
3. Identify the NSC's research team and other institutions needed to assist in the effective implementation of the pilot CBMS; and
4. Draft the project's progress report.

Community-Based Monitoring System: A Pilot Implementation in Pakistan

Durr-e-Nayab

Introduction

Poverty encompasses an inability to satisfy basic food and non-food needs, lack of control over resources, lack of education and skills, poor health, lack of shelter, poor access to water and sanitation, vulnerability to violence and crime and lack of political freedom. This cycle of poverty is perpetuated when the decision-making process excludes the most vulnerable from the equation. It is thus important to have an updated data that will help gauge the current state and changes in poverty, analyze the impact of poverty reduction policies and design and refine strategies for poverty alleviation.

In Pakistan, data on different facets of poverty are traditionally acquired from national surveys, mainly the Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES) and the Pakistan Integrated Household Survey (PIHS). Data available from these sources can at times be too aggregated at the national, provincial or district level to be of sufficient use to local governments. There is a need for more disaggregated information at the local level to diagnose poverty, identify problems and ways to reduce them, monitor the impact

of any developmental project in the community and aid the policy-making process at all administrative levels. The Community-based Monitoring System (CBMS), which is currently in its pilot stage in Pakistan, can fill this void.

This paper is divided in four parts:

- Part I gives an overview of the state of poverty in Pakistan and the existing poverty monitoring systems.
- Part II discusses the rationale for having a community based monitoring system in the country and ways to institutionalize it.
- Part III deals with the CBMS pilot test in two rural settings of Pakistan and focuses on the selected indicators, field methods and survey tools.
- Part IV gives a summary of the selected socio-economic indicators of the villages in one of the piloting sites.

Poverty in Pakistan and current monitoring system

Poverty in Pakistan shows no consistent trend. The early 1990s experienced a retarding trend in poverty compared to the late 1980s, but it began to rise again in mid 1990s and has been increasing ever since.

Different definitions of poverty, indices used and methodology employed have given varied estimates of poverty. However, there is considerable agreement over this V-shaped trend in poverty levels over the years. Table 1 explicitly shows that the increase in poverty has been mainly confined to rural areas. In the late 1980s, similar levels of poverty were prevalent in urban and rural areas of Pakistan, a trend that changed after the mid-1990s, with poverty increasing in rural areas alone. This trend is depicted by poverty indices of rural and urban areas over a decade's time (1990-1991 to 2000-2001). While poverty reduced by 3.9 percent in urban areas, there was a whooping 13.7 percent increase in rural poverty in the same period.

Currently, poverty indices in Pakistan, as noted by the Planning Commission in its Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), are

calculated by adopting an official poverty line based on a norm of 2,350 calories per adult per day. The caloric norm for urban areas is set at 2,150 calories per capita per day while that of rural areas is 2,450 calories. The poverty line drawn on minimum caloric requirement of 2,350 calories (at the national level) is equivalent to a monthly expenditure of Rs. 748 per capita in 2000-2001. Using the same procedure, estimates of poverty were calculated for previous years as well (Table 1).
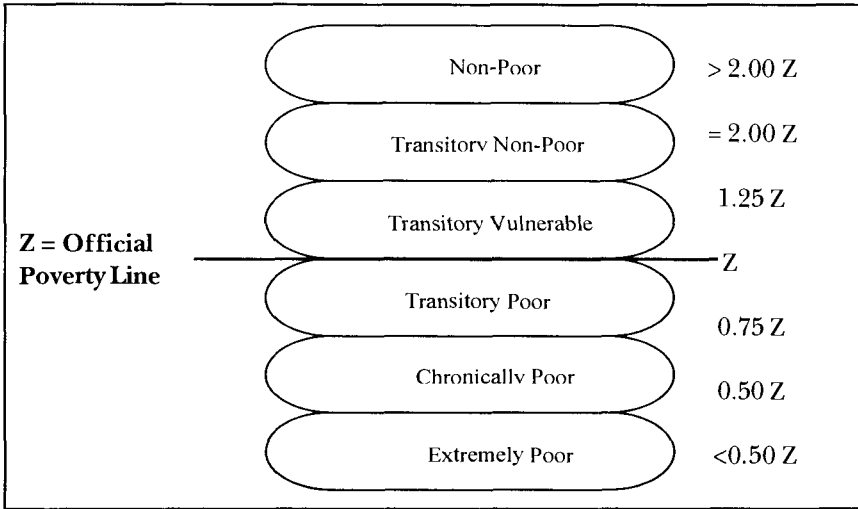
Table 1. Trends in Poverty

	1996-1987	1987-1988	1990-1991	1992-1993	1993-1994	1996-1997	1998-1999	2000-2001	2003
Pakistan	29.1	29.2	26.1	26.8	28.7	29.8	30.6	32.1	31.8
Urban	29.8	30.3	26.6	28.3	26.9	22.6	20.9	22.7	22.4
Rural	28.2	29.3	25.2	24.6	25.4	33.1	34.7	38.9	38.7

Source of data: Finance Division 2003.

There is a growing realization that a single line is not enough to differentiate poor from non-poor in Pakistan. This has led to the use of a classification given originally by McCulloch and Baulch (1999), who divided the whole population into consumption expenditure-based groupings. The six-band spectrum, as also used by Hussain (2003) and Khan and Hussain (2003), disaggregate poor and non-poor on the transition probability of their moving from one band to another. Figure 1 shows this poverty spectrum, dividing population into: extremely poor, chronically poor, transitory poor, transitory vulnerable, transitory non-poor and non-poor based on a group's relative position with the poverty line.

The relatively poor state of the rural population is also evident from other measures of poverty, including the food poverty measure. Although these are where food is produced, rural areas of Pakistan have a higher prevalence of food poverty than urban areas, as can be seen in Table 2. Food poverty has increased monotonically in rural

Figure 1. Poverty Spectrum

areas since 1992-1993. While such is also increasing in urban areas in the late 1990s such is at a comparatively lower level than their rural counterparts. Other factors of income such as income distribution

Table 2. Trends in Food Poverty: 1986-1987 to 1998-1999 (in %)

Years	Pakistan	Rural	Urban
1986-1987	26.9	29.4	24.5
1987-1988	26.4	29.9	22.7
1990-1991	23.3	26.2	18.2
1992-1993	20.3	22.5	16.8
1993-1994[a]	20.8	24.4	15.2
1993-1994[b]	23.6	26.3	19.4
1998-1999	32.6	34.8	25.9

Source: Human Conditions Report 2003. a and b calculated for the same year, i.e., 1993-1994 from different sources

also have poorer statistics for rural areas than for urban areas (Appendix 2).

The discussion so far throws light on over-all poverty at the national and rural/urban level. Education and employment status, along with the presence or absence of landholding, is premised to be an important factor in a household's well-being. If one looks at statistics at the household level, one finds that the proportion of households below poverty line is bigger in cases where the household head is illiterate, has no landholding and is working as an employee (Table 3). Households with heads having college education have the lowest rate of being poor (1%), be it at the national, rural or urban level. Likewise, households with heads who are employers have the smallest probability of being poor (0% to 1%) at the national, rural and urban level in

Table 3. Incidence of Poverty by Characteristics of Head of Household 1996-1997

Characteristics of Head of HH	Pakistan		Rural		Urban	
	% of Population	% of Poor	% of Population	% of Poor	% of Population	% of Poor
Highest Education Level Achieved						
Not literate	58	72	66	77	39	59
No formal education	2	2	2	1	2	3
Primary	14	13	14	12	15	18
Middle	7	6	7	5	10	9
Matriculation	10	4	7	3	16	8
Intermediate	4	1	2	1	7	1
College	5	1	2	1	11	1
Employment Status						
Not working	16	16	16	16	17	14
Employer	2	1	2	4	0	1
Self-employed	41	37	47	26	40	26
Employee	41	46	36	54	42	59
Land Ownership (hectares)						
No land owned	77	82	68	76	98	98
0-0.4	5	5	8	7	0	1
0.5-1	4	4	5	6	0	0
1.1-2	4	2	5	3	0	0
2.1-4	4	3	6	4	0	0
>4	6	4	8	5	1	0

Source: Human Condition Report 2003

Pakistan. These findings strengthen the already established importance of education as an agent of change and development.

The above discussion relates poverty directly with selected socio-economic facets of a household. Other indicators related to human existence also suggest that living standard of most people are low. Poor health indicators and non-availability of water and sanitation facilities amply reflect this notion of poverty in the population. Some examples are:

- Infant mortality rate of 88 and 65 (per 1,000 live births) in rural and urban areas of Pakistan, respectively, in 2000-2001.
- Child immunization coverage of 43 percent in urban and only 22 percent in rural areas in 2000-2001.
- Child mortality rate of 24.3 (females) and 15.1 (males) per 1,000 live births in the period 1997-2000.
- 34.7 percent and 43.1 percent of children less than 5 years old with stunted growth in urban and rural areas of the country, respectively, in year 2001-2002.
- Prevalence of anemia among 24 percent to 32 percent of lactating women in the reproductive age group in 2001-2002.
- 86 percent and 55 percent deliveries taking place at home in rural and urban areas, respectively, in 2000-2001.
- Maternal mortality rate estimated to be 340 per 100,000 births in year 1998.
- Only 53 percent of rural households had safe drinking water in 2001-2002. The proportion for urban areas was 83 percent.
- Only 27 percent households in rural areas had drainage and sanitation facilities in year 2001-2002. Urban areas are doing somewhat better with 59 percent possessing the same facilities.
- 57 percent of the country's population was still illiterate in 2002. Rural females had a literacy rate of only 21 percent compared to 56 percent among their urban counterparts. However, both lagged behind men, who had a literacy rate

of 51 percent and 72 percent in rural and urban areas, respectively.

All the information given above leave no ambiguity about the state of poverty in the country although noticeable is the absence of specific information about local populations that is needed for the success of any program. This is where CBMS can aid policymakers and involve a community in planning their development.

Rationale for CBMS in Pakistan

Before discussing why the CBMS should be implemented in Pakistan, it would be useful to briefly explain the administrative structure of the country. It would also help to understand how the system can be operationalized at the community level in Pakistan. Figure 2 shows the administrative structure of Pakistan, which has four provinces divided into 105 districts, which are further divided into progressively smaller sub-divisions of *tehsils*, Union Councils, revenue villages and settlements.

In August 2002, the government of Pakistan promulgated the Local Government Ordinance, whereby administrative powers were devolved to lower administrative levels. Under this devolution plan, budget allocations are the responsibility of district, tehsil and Union Council Administrations. This new set-up requires formation of neighborhood/village councils in urban and rural areas as well. Among the many functions of the union administration, the important ones are as follows (National Reconstruction Bureau 2004):

- To consolidate village and neighborhood development needs, prioritize them into union-wide development proposals and make recommendations to the district government or tehsil municipal administration;
- To identify deficiencies in the delivery of services and make recommendations for improvement to the tehsil municipal administration.
- To register births, deaths and marriages, and issue certificates.

Figure 2. Administrative Structure of Pakistan
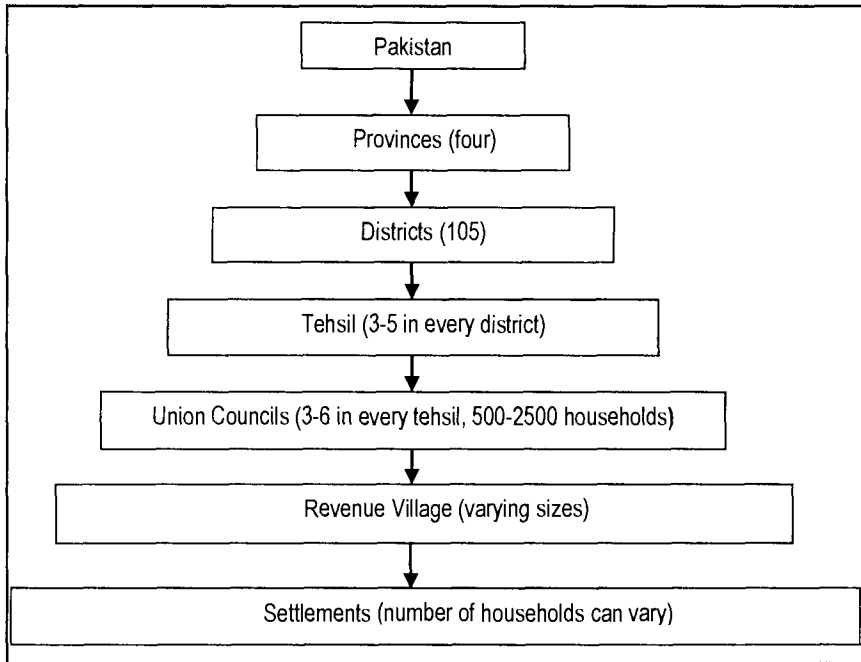
- To disseminate information on matters of public interest.
- To provide and maintain public sources of drinking water, including wells, water pumps, tanks, ponds and other works for the supply of water.
- To regulate grazing lands.
- To cooperate with the public, private or voluntary organizations engaged in activities similar to those of the union.
- To assist the village/neighbourhood councils in the union to execute development projects.
- To collect and maintain statistical information for socio-economic indicators.

Likewise, the village/neighborhood councils, under this plan, are to assist the Union Council Administration in carrying out these functions as well as to take steps in improving the security of its

population and to organize sports, cultural and recreational activities. Collecting socioeconomic data and selecting sites for the muncipal services, in cooperation with Union Council Administration are important roles for village/neighborhood councils.

To compile and consolidate the data collected by the Union Council and the village/neighborhood councils, the National Reconstruction Bureau (NRB) has developed the National Reconstruction Information Management System (NARIMS). The primary focus of NARIMS is to store, transform and display spatial data for:

- Financial management;
- Planning and development purposes;
- Evaluation of existing schemes; and
- Performance incentives.

The CBMS fully complements the devolution plan, as envisaged in the Local Government Ordinance, by decentralizing the information collection procedure and evolving a community-based monitoring system. The CBMS indicators found relevant during the pilot test can be incorporated in the information to be collected by the Union Councils and village/neighborhood councils, making the whole exercise more beneficial for need assessment, and planning, monitoring and evaluation of poverty reduction projects. The benefits of this CBMS-NRB partnership include:

- Facilitates policy planning and budget allocations through reliable and updated data and improves allocative efficiency.
- Encourages community participation in any program by increasing the capacity of the local community for data collection, processing and analysis.
- Develops a poverty monitoring system through local institutions.
- Monitors progress on core indicators that impact on the lives of the people.
- Helps direct Rural Support Programs (RSPs) to those who need help the most.

- Collects data for research purposes at the smallest geopoliti-
  cal level.

Field methods of piloting in Pakistan
Locale

Two Union Councils on Punjab province were selected to pilot the CBMS in Pakistan. The NRB was part of the consultative group that decided the locale of the study. As NRB is involved in the implementation of the devolution plan and in constant contact with the local administration, it made sense to involve them from very start of the project. Sustainability of the CBMS after the pilot phase was a major concern. This was the basic motivation behind the decision to involve the Union Council Administration in it. As stated earlier, the Union Council Administration is bound to collect socioeconomic data. It is assumed that the training and experience gained by the Union Council personnel the CBMS pilot test would not only help them deliver their job more efficiently but also help sustain the CBMS once the pilot phase is over.

After extensive consultations with the NRB, project members eventually selected districts Rawalpindi and Toba Tek Singh as the CBMS pilot-test sites. The two districts are on the opposite ends of the Human Development Index (HDI) in the Punjab province.[1] Rawalpindi district belongs among the well-districts while Toba Tek Singh is included in the deprived districts. From these districts, one Union Council each was nominated by the district *nazim* to carry out the CBMS pilot study. Dhamial Union Council (for Rawalpindi District) and GB 485 (for Toba Tek Singh District) were further identified as the districts to conduct the studies. At the time of this writing, work was about to begin in the Dhamial Union Council, which includes 11 villages (Table 4).

---

[1] See Hussain A. 2003 *Pakistan: National Human Development Report 2003. Poverty, Growth and Governance.* United Nations Development Programme.

Table 4. CBMS Observatories in Rawalpindi District:Villages in Union Council Dhamial

1.	Mohra Barian
2.	Mohra Chhapar
3.	Mohri Ghazan
4.	Jorian
5.	Dhamial
6.	Kotha Khurd
7.	Mohra Faqiran
8.	Banda Nagial
9.	Dhok Abdullah
10.	Hayal Dhamial
11.	Ranial

Indicators at the household level

To obtain the village profile, indicators that are part of the NARIMS were included in the CBMS questionnaire. A relatively comprehensive addition was made to the NARIMS list of indicators. Poverty indicators that were found to be significant in prior surveys--- including MIMAP, Pakistan Socioeconomic Survey and Pakistan Rural Household Survey, were also accommodated after a sifting process. Refinements in the final selected indicators could be made later but in the CBMS pilot phase, all indicators that can affect the poverty status have been included in the questionnaire. Table 5 presents the list of indicators that are included.

Three questionnaires were devised to collect the relevant information, with one for the females, one for the males and one for over-all community information. After the pilot phase, decision would be taken regarding the possible consolidation of female- and male-specific questionnaires into one. For the sake of interest in the gender dimension, certain sections such as household health, were included in both sex questionnaires; the rest of the questionnaire contain specific questions or questions depending on the sex of respondents.

Table 5. Indicators included in the CBMS Pilot Study

Indicator	Definition
1. Age and sex composition of the population	
2. Marital status of the population	
3. Education	
i. Primary enrolment rate	Number of children (6-12 yrs) attending primary school
ii. Secondary enrolment rate	Number of household members (13-16 yrs) attending secondary school
iii. Basic literacy	Number of family members 10 years and above who are able to read and write
iv. Vocational training	Kind and duration of vocational/technical training
4. Employment and income	
i. Employment	Number of persons, 15 years and above, working for pay, profit or family gain
ii. Unemployment	Number of persons, 15 years and above, not working but looking for work
iii. Underemployment	Number of employed persons, 15 persons or more, wanting more hours of work
iv. Household above poverty line	Household income judged against the nationally set rural poverty line
5. Health	
i. Infant mortality	Number of deaths of children under one year old per 1,000 live births
ii. Child mortality	Number of deaths of children 1-5 year old per 1,000 live births
iii. General state of health	Incidence of illness in last 12 months and nature of illnesses reported
iv. Number of births attended by trained professional	
v. Child immunization	Coverage of immunisation of children under 5 years of age
vi. Coverage of antenatal care	Receiving medical care during last pregnancy by women
vii. Coverage of post-natal care	Receiving medical check up within 6 weeks of delivery for a woman's last birth
ix. CPR	Proportion of women, aged 15-49 years, using contraceptives
6. Nutrition	
i. Prevalence of malnutrition	Lack of sufficient food intake, as in less than 3 meals per day per person
7. Security	
i. Crime incidence	Number of victims of crime by type of crime
ii. Action by law enforcing agencies against reported crimes	

Table 5 (cont'd)

8. *Housing and sanitation*	
i. Type of house ownership	Ownership differentiated into basically owned or rented
ii. Type of house construction	That is material used in house construction
iii. Percentage of households having access to toilets	
iv. Percentage of households having access to sewerage facility	
v. Garbage collection method from households	Proportion of households getting their waste collected by municipal authority/local collection system/private system
9. *Political participation*	
i. Number of eligible and registered voters and those actually voting	
ii. Presence and participation of/in village organization	Number of households involved in at least one village organization
iii. Accessibility of public representatives	Number of times public representatives visited the village and the ease people had in approaching them

Indicators at the village level

To assess the services and infrastructure available in the community, and to get the village's over-all profile, several indicators were included in the pilot survey, including:

- Educational facilities, including primary, middle, secondary and post-secondary educational facilities;
- Health facilities;
- Avaiable services, e.g., police station, post office, bank, transport facilities, gas, electricity, telephone, etc.;
- Road network available to the community;
- Water supply facility;
- Garbage and waste disposal;
- Incidence and type of crimes committed; and
- Presence of village organizations.

Survey Tools

As stated earlier, questionnaires were the main tools of data collection.

Initially, the plan was to formulate two questionnaires (that is, one for the households and one for the community), but since many questions were related to women only (such as antenatal and postnatal care), three questionnaires were finally made for the pilot phase of CBMS. Questions that are found to be useless after the pilot phase or difficult to administer would be dropped or altered. Likewise, questions could be added in the current questionnaire if the situation demands so.

The data collected would be entered and processed in Excel software. While the original survey design expected data entry and processing to be done at the Union Council level, non-availability of computers had altered the plan. Now, the Pakistan Institute of Development Economics (PIDE) will computerize the data itself as well as provide training to willing community members, in an effort to improve local capacity. Computerized data will be transfered to the concerned district administrator, as they have the computer facility and can maintain the information of the Union Councils located in their jurisdiction.

Selection of field enumerators

Enumerators and field monitoring team members were selected from the local community. The PIDE team would supervise the pilot phase but local monitoring teams have also been tapped to watch the progress of the survey. The selected local enumerators and monitoring personnel include:

- Members of the Union Council Monitoring Committee;
- Members of local health and education departments, mainly lady health visitors and teachers;
- Local youth volunteers.

Field processes

At this stage, attention shifts to the district administration level. Presentations were made to the District *Nazims* (head of the district administration)and other officials of the two selected district administrations (District Rawalpindi and Toba Tek Singh) in early May

2004, explaining the purpose, methodology and benefits of the CBMS. Once these things were clear, consultations were held to decide the exact survey site.

The Union Council Administration was also consulted in the selection of the field monitoring teams and enumerators. As they know the village population and its capacity, they were in a better position to nominate these personnel.

The survey team from PIDE, on the other hand, only acted as trainers and supervisors on the quality of collected data. Although the nomination of these people was done by the Union Council Administration, the final selection was the prerogative of the PIDE team. Selection was also based on the objectives of the study and the level of skills needed to achieve these successfully. Interviews with the nominated people were conducted and qualified individual were included in the final field team composed of five male and five female enumerators each in both Union Councils. Then, a training was conducted for one week to acquaint the new enumerators on the questionnaires and educate them on field ethics.

Sustainability of CBMS

Efforts also focused on honing the local population's skill so they could continue the data collection process once the pilot phase is over. Closer collaboration between the administration and the community is the first pre-requisite for sustaining the system. The people are hoped to   be more involved once they realize that they would benefit from better planning and implementation of developmental projects and would have a voice in the program priotization process. At present, these ideas are being imparted to the people employed in the survey, as was also done during the training phase. This exercise is proposed to be done annually, ideally before the budget time when most financial decisions are made.

Socioeconomic characteristics of villages in Dhamial Union Council

At the time of this writing, the census on selected indicators was about to begin in the Dhamial Union Council of the Rawalpindi District. As results of the census are not available yet, one can, for the meantime, refer to the only information available with the Union Council Administration---the 1998 census---as no survey has been conducted in the area since then.

Population

As Table 6 shows, Union Council Dhamial has a total population of approximately 21,500, with males outnumbering females by 107 males for 100 females. During the CBMS pilot study, it would be interesting to uncover the reasons for this poor sex ratio. In demographic literature, child mortality and infant mortality are mentioned as major contributors to differences in population gender-wise, and both these mortality indicators are among the focus of this pilot study.

Table 6. Population of Villages in Union Council Dhamial

Villages	Total Population	Males	Females	Sex ratio
Dhamial	1,745	898	847	106.02
Mohra Barian	2,661	1,367	1,294	105.64
Mohra Chappar	1,347	713	634	112.46
Mohri Ghazan	2,341	1,198	1,143	104.81
Jorian	1,912	991	921	107.6
Kotha Khurd	3,989	2,093	1,896	110.39
Mohra Faqiraan	1,361	684	677	101.03
Banda Nagial	1070	524	546	95.97
Dhok Abdullah	562	315	247	127.53
Hayal Dhamial	1917	966	951	101.58
Ranial	2512	1,301	1211	107.43
Total	21,417	11,050	10367	106.59

Age structure

Age structure of a population has important implications on policy planning, especially those pertaining to employment, education and health. Available information shows that almost half of the population is less than 18 years of age, indicating a young population (Table 7). The number of currently married women in their reproductive ages impacts on the health delivery system. In these 11 villages, more than 15 percent of the population have women in this category.

Table 7. Age Composition: Number and Percentage of Person 18 Years and Above and Currently Married Women Aged 15-49 Years of Age

Villages	_> 18 years	%_> 18 years	15-49 women	%15-49 women
Dhamial	935	53.58	244	13.98
Mohra Barian	1317	49.49	406	15.26
Mohra Chappar	673	49.96	209	15.51
Mohri Ghazan	1188	50.74	353	15.08
Jorian	992	51.88	279	14.59
Kotha Khurd	2020	50.64	634	15.89
Mohra Faqiraan	648	47.61	218	16.02
Banda Nagial	590	55.14	168	15.7
Dhok Abdullah	274	48.75	82	14.59
Hayal Dhamial	1062	55.4	305	15.91
Ranial	1465	58.32	366	14.57
Total	11164	52.13	3264	15.24

Education

The literacy indicators of the Union Council are better than the overall figures for the Punjab province (46.6% for the population 10 years old and above). Its proximity to a big urban center could be one reason. Table 8 shows that most of the villages in the Union Council are around one-third literate, with a few having a literacy rate of approximately 50 percent. Differentiation could be found between the level of

educational attainment of males and females in the 11 villages, with males being more likely to be educated than the females.

Table 8. Literacy Rate in Population Aged 10 Years and Above and Educational Attainment by Sex

Villages	Literacy Rate (%) in 10+ Population	% Educated Up to Under Grade 10		% Educated Up to Grade 10 and Over	
		Males	Females	Males	Females
Dhamial	70.2	17.2	12.5	9.9	7.1
Mohra Barian	69.6	13.9	10.5	9.9	6.1
Mohra Chappar	58.9	17.4	8.5	5.9	2.5
Mohri Ghazan	64.7	12.9	9.1	10.3	6.5
Jorian	66.4	14.9	8.3	7.3	2.6
Kotha Khurd	74.5	17.9	12.5	12.2	7.3
Mohra Faqiraan	66.8	13.7	9.6	8.5	4.8
Banda Nagial	46.5	16.5	8.8	5.1	1.2
Dhok Abdullah	53.4	16.7	5.9	5.2	1.4
Hayal Dhamial	54	15.8	8.7	6.7	2.7
Ranial	53.9	16.2	8	5.9	1.6

Household size and housing characteristics

The average household size in the survey villages ranges from 7.0 to 6.3 persons per household. The over-all average for the Punjab province is 6.9, which is not much different from the average household size of these villages.

Majority of houses in the 11 survey villages are made of bricks (called *pacca* in local terminology), with a few of semi-bricks or mud (Table 9). Electricity is available to majority of the houses. However, availability of potable water is uncommon. With the exception of three villages, potable water is a rare commodity. In some, the proportion of households having potable water is less than 2 percent.

The above profile of the villages in one of the CBMS pilot sites

shows a dire need for development projects on education, health and utility services. Employment figures are not yet available but the CBMS survey should be able to assess the status of employment, unemployment and under-employment in the villages from hereon.

Subject to the success of the CBMS pilot survey in two selected Union Councils, this system may be replicated in other areas of the country, thus fulfilling the demand for household-based information at the national level and helping to identify eligible beneficiaries.

Table 9. Household Size and Housing Characteristics

Villages	Type of House Structure			Housing Facilities	
	Total Houses	Bricked (%)	Semi-Bricked (%)	% With Potable Water	% With Electricity
Dhamial	253	89.7	10.3	46.2	97.2
Mohra Barian	386	97.7	2.3	4.1	93.5
Mohra Chappar	186	89.2	10.8	8.1	76.9
Mohri Ghazan	347	90.5	9.5	7.2	93.4
Jorian	275	86.9	13.1	0.4	80.7
Kotha Khurd	602	100	0	6.6	96.3
Mohra Faqiraan	205	98.5	1.5	8.8	89.3
Banda Nagial	148	92.6	7.4	1.4	79.7
Dhok Abdullah	86	100	0	0	96.5
Hayal Dhamial	304	97	3	32.9	86.8
Ranial	377	92.8	7.2	44.8	86.7

References

Finance Division (2003). *Economic Survey 2002-2003*. Government of Pakistan, Islamabad.

Hussain, A. (2003). *Pakistan: National Human Development Report 2003*. UNDP.

Hussain, N. and M A Khan (2003). "Poverty in Pakistan: Going Beyond the Line." In *Pakistan: National Human Condition Report 2003*.

Hussain, T. (2003). "Poverty Reduction Policies: Some Lessons." In *Pakistan: National Human Condition Report 2003*.

McCulloch, N. and B. Baulch (1999). *Distinguishing the Chronically from the Transiting Poor: Evidence from Rural Poor*. Institute of Development Studies.

National Reconstruction Bureau (2004). Website of National Reconstruction Bureau: www.nrb.gov.pk.

PIDE (2001). *Pakistan Socio-economic Survey* (PSES). Pakistan Institute of Development Economics, Islamabad.

Appendix 1. Poverty Transition Between 1998-1999 and 2000-2001

Income class in 1998-1999	Total	Percent with Income 2000-2001					
		< 0.50 z	0.50-0.75 z	0.76-1.00 z	1.01-1.25 z	1.26-2.00 z	>2.00 z
		A	B	C	D	E	F
A	100	**43.2**	17	13.3	10.7	12.9	2.8
B	100	29.1	**17.5**	11.2	16.7	21.5	4
C	100	28.5	14.8	**9.1**	19.4	24	4.2
D	100	19.2	10.7	12.3	**23.4**	25.2	9.3
E	100	8.4	7.6	10.7	15.4	**37.7**	20.2
F	100	1.3	1.6	3.8	5.6	28.8	**58.9**
ALL	100	19	10.4	10.3	14.9	27	18.4

Source: PIDE 2001 Pakistan Socio-Economic Survey (PSES).
Note: Shaded figures in bold represent the segments of population not making any transition, upward or downward.

Appendix 2. Income Distribution by Region

Years	Area	Household Income Share		Ratio of Highest 20% to Lowest 20%
		Lowest 20%	Highest 20%	
1990-1991	Urban	5.7	50.5	8.8
	Rural	6.0	47.4	7.9
1992-1993	Urban	6.1	48.9	8
	Rural	7.0	44.8	6.4
1993-1994	Urban	6.7	47.1	7
	Rural	7.4	43.1	5.8
1996-1997	Urban	7.6	47	6.2
	Rural	7.3	49.3	6.7
1998-1999	Urban	6.0	50	8.3
	Rural	6.9	46.8	6.8

Source: Finance Division [2003] Economic Survey 2002-2003. Government of Pakistan.

.

CBMS Session 6
Institutionalization and Management Issues

Can Community-Based Poverty Monitoring Become a National System?

··

Vu Tuan Anh

Introduction

Poverty alleviation activities need to be undertaken with a clear understanding of characteristics of the poor, causes of their poverty and where they are located. One needs also to know the progress of poverty-oriented policies, programs and projects in terms of their impacts, effectiveness and efficiency. The poverty monitoring system aims to satisfy these demands.

Popular poverty monitoring systems

There are two types of data that may be used for poverty monitoring: monetary and non-monetary. Monetary data generally come from household budget surveys, household income and expenditure surveys or living standards measurement surveys. The most common is the household living standard measurement survey (LSMS), which is based on incomes and consumption levels. The LSMS provides general information on the situation of the people in the whole country as well as in each region. Its data allow one to estimate the poverty level of inhabitants in urban and rural areas. However, this survey has some disadvantages:

- Information from the survey mainly serves the work of the central government agencies and researchers because the LSMS indicators reflect the general situation of the whole country and large areas (urban-rural sectors, large regions). The survey sample does not represent provinces and social groups by occupation and ethnicity.
- These surveys are expensive and are generally carried out once every five years. Income, consumption and expenditure are affected by season, climate and many other unexpected factors, which call for judgment unless the survey covered the entire year.
- Local people's participation in collecting and analyzing information is very limited. The analysis technique is too complicated for them, and the result of nationally sampled survey is too general for them to use in daily local management.
- The result of data processing is released after a long period (1-2 years).
- The LSMS cannot supply a list of address and names of poor households in each area nor information about poverty in a locality. As a result, they do not meet the information requirements of each area.

While much progress has been made in measuring and analyzing poverty in monetary terms, efforts are needed to measure and study the other non-monetary dimensions of poverty. Although LSMS collects and presents indicators that reflect consumption of such social services as education and healthcare, there is still a need to assemble comparable and high-quality social indicators for education, health, access to services and infrastructure, social equity, etc. So too is the need to develop new indicators for tracking other dimensions---for example, risk, vulnerability, social exclusion and access to social capital.

To complement monetary data surveys, participatory methods are more commonly used for poverty assessment. In participatory poverty assessment (PPA), people are interviewed on their basic needs, their

individual opinions and assessment on the life situation, poverty problems and their requirements for policies. Participatory survey methods illustrate the nature of risk and vulnerability, how cultural factors and ethnicity interact and affect poverty, how social exclusion sets limits to people's participation in development and how barriers to such participation can be removed.

The Community-Based Poverty Monitoring Systems

The community-based poverty monitoring system (CBPMS) addresses the need for up-to-date data on living status in localities by frequently collecting data. There are some characteristics that make CBPMS different from the LSMS:

- While the whole process of data collection, processing and use in LSMS is conducted by highly qualified personnel, the CBPMS involves the participation of communities in the collection and primary use of data. Communities have good understanding of the living conditions of poor households. They can be directly involved in analyzing the poverty causes of each household, and guarantee the transparency and democracy in implementing policies and using resources for the poor. The local people participate in discussion on poverty reduction activities in their commune and village, therefore enhancing their ability to decide on their community's affairs. On the other hand, by taking part in poverty monitoring, they can easily gauge the success of supporting policies and ensure that the government's support goes to the right targets effectively.
- The CBPMS uses relatively simple indicators that the local communities can understand and use easily. Complicated indicators might be computed and aggregated, but with assistance from external (i.e., non-community member) experts in the later phase of the analysis.
- The CBPMS can be conducted at different administrative levels–from villages to provinces–depending on how the

management of poverty reduction activities is decentralized. Local communities can conduct CBPMS frequently.

- The CBPMS can combine quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection at one time due to its limited scope and simple sampling structure while the LSMS is solely quantitative in nature and needs to be complemented by other qualitative surveys (such as the PPA).

- Based on community participation, CBPMS is a low-cost and easy-to-sustain system. The expense incurred is not huge because it uses local human resources and integrates the poverty monitoring activity into responsibilities of local authorities and social organizations.

With CBPMS, poverty monitoring process can become decentralized, locally appropriate and flexible to meet local demands.

Concerns about CBPMS

Despite the above-mentioned advantages, concerns remain over the CBPMS's quality and capability. Below are some of the questions posed:

Does the set of simple indicators satisfy the needs of policymakers?

The set of CBMSP usually includes relatively simple indicators of basic needs. It reflects such aspects of living standard and poverty as food security, housing, education, health and security. Monetary indicators such as income and expenditures are excluded from this set because of the difficult in collection and complicated calculation process. Thus without these indicators, one cannot define poverty rate (based on monetary poverty line) nor compute for other indicators of poverty and social inequality.

Does the participatory data collection meet the quality requirements? Can local communities properly process and analyze the collected data?

People in local communities, especially in poor regions and where ethnic minorities live, have a low level of education and few experiences in data collection, processing and analysis. Despite the simplicity of data and indicators, errors in survey process might misrepresent the areas' poverty status.

Can results of CBPMS in different localities be linked and integrated in a national database? Or can CBPMS extend its scope and become a national system?

CBPMS can be implemented successful in separate localities. The problem is how to compare and link the localities and create a database at higher administrative levels (e.g. district, provincial and national), if indicators are not comparable in term of their content and time.

The CBPMS in Vietnam

The past pilot implementation of CBPMS by Micro Impacts of Macroeconomic and Adjustment Policies (MIMAP)-Vietnam in some communes showed that basic data about socioeconomic situations in general and the poverty scenario in particular are very helpful to the work of local officers and non-governmental organizations. Data are systematized at village and commune levels and can be used immediately by local people in their development planning and poverty monitoring for years.

However, the study also acknowledges certain concerns about CBPMS. The following solutions have been implemented to improve the quality of data collection and to pave the way for CBPMS as a poverty monitoring method at different administrative levels or better yet, on a national scale.

Types of survey

Sample surveys cannot identify the address of the poor. To be able to identify poor households, CBPMS in Vietnam implemented two types of surveys in two stages:

- In the first year, a census on the socioeconomic picture of the community will be conducted. Here, poor households will be identified via the survey and the participatory assessment of the living standards. Besides the poverty lines (national and local), the communities will also use other criteria of basic needs and households property in identifying the poor households. A list of the poor households will be reported to the higher administrative levels and kept at the communities. Households with "poor" status will receive support from government's poverty reduction programs and from the community.

- In the next years, sample survey will be conducted to monitor the annual changes. The list of poor households will be reviewed and amended.

Qualitative and quantitative methods are combined in the survey. Aside from structured interviews, other methods to be employed are group discussions, interviews with key informants in communities (to explore the causes of poverty, and requirements of communities and the poor).

Set of indicators

- In questionnaires, two sets of indicators have been defined: (1) core indicators, which apply nationwide; and (2) local indicators, which are suitable to local area and used to present the situation in specific localities. While the set of core indicators is the same for all localities, the local indicators and qualitative information are designed to focus on the local contexts. For example, cultivation land per capita is a national indicator but for mountainous areas, there is a need to add the

indicators of forestry land and barren land. For plain areas, there is an indicator on paddy land. Such indicators are needed when assessing the economic situation of households in that area.

- Poverty is a multi-dimensional phenomenon. Therefore, in the experimental CBPMS in Vietnam, poverty is comprehensively reflected through a set of indicators on the basic needs of households (e.g., food security, clothing, accommodation, transportation, access to education and health services, women's position in social activities of community). In Vietnam, the government uses per-capita income as a key measure of poverty.

- The CBPMS also has to collect information for the income calculation. As a result, CBPMS supplies both basic needs and income indicators. Although this makes the survey more complicated, CBPMS becomes more useful for both local and national monitoring purposes.

- The design of survey tools has to take into account not only knowledge levels of local people but the availability of data processing equipment and software at localities. This is the big difference with the national surveys. In the latter, the surveyors and the data processing staff are skilled experts and well trained in handling modern technology. They also have the time to engage in deeper analysis of the data.

Data gathering process and analysis

Local people conduct the surveys themselves. To maintain the quality of data collected, "external people" (government officers and researchers) intervene in the first stages to provide survey training, guidance and supervision.

Data processing and analysis

There are still two stages of data processing. First, localities process the collected data manually and get some simple indicators such as

poverty rate, types of housing and percentage of households getting support from poverty alleviation programs and policies. Results from these are used instantly in developing local plans and poverty reduction programs. At the next stage, deeper data processing and analysis is conducted by external staff (national experts and researchers), who often are adept with dealing with more complicated indicators and information.

The collected data are computerized at the provincial level. In the next years, these will be computerized at the district level. The plan also include providing local areas with simple software data processing.

Institutionalizing and building a national CBPMS

The CBPMS is institutionalized with a top-down approach. Departing from the approach used for the National Programme for Hunger Eradication, Poverty Reduction, and Job Creation (HEPR)-which requires data for monitoring poverty as well as the HEPR impacts on the nationwide scale—a national poverty observatory system (POS) was established this time. This system consists of dozens of communes-observatories all over the country. Since 2003, POS and CBPMS have been implemented in the Hatay Province (with 30 communes-observatories) and the Yenbai Province (with 10 commune-observatories).

Different questionnaires were developed for these two provinces. Both share the same core set of indicators, which will be linked to the national system of indicators.

In the coming years, other provinces will be encouraged to establish their POS and implement the CBPMS. Results of annual poverty monitoring at provincial level will be reported to the HEPR. All provincial poverty observatories will play two roles: (1) To supply data for national poverty monitoring system; and (2) To provide information for provincial needs.

Field Visits in CBMS Sites

$\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots\cdots$

Introduction

A regular part of the general assembly of the Community-Based Monitoring System (CBMS) Network is a field visit to local communities in the conference's local host country. The visit is specially arranged, in partnership with the CBMS-researchers from the host country, for members of the Poverty and Economic Policy's (PEP) CBMS subnetwork to learn from the experiences of other CBMS sites. Aside from a field visit in the CBMS sites in Sengal, the host country, members of the CBMS Network, likewise, visited the CBMS sites in Burkina Faso, another CBMS site in Africa.

In Senegal

In Senegal, the visit took place in the community of Tivaouane on June 19, 2004. The community's implementation of the CBMS as well as the analysis and usage of the data on the community's living conditions were the focus of the presentation and discussion during the field visit.

Tivaouane is one of the three CBMS sites in Senegal. The CBMS work is done by the Observatory under the supervision of the Center for Applied Economic Research (CREA), which in turn coordinates the entire CBMS work in Senegal.

Before the presentations started, the prefect of the Department of Tivaouane, Gormack Sene, formally welcomed the PEP's CBMS Subnetwork members and invited policymakers from India,

Nepal, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Laos, Thailand, Philippines, Vietnam, Cambodia, Canada, Benin, Burkina Faso and Ghana.

During the actual presentation, Municipal Counsellors Omar Ba and Gallo Mbengue, both from the Observatory, discussed the analysis of data. The former described the organization and content of the database, which had been divided into four sections: Households, Individuals, Children and Migration. These sections, in turn, contained data concerning the households and their members, anthropometric measurements of children aged 3 to 59 months, and former members of the households who have migrated in the past five years. Mr. Mbengue, on the other hand, presented the principal results from the household surveys on demography, education, health and employment. What stood out as the central element of the Observatory's work is its continuous study and monitoring of the household living conditions.

The Honorable Mayor El Hadj Malick Diop, meanwhile, presented the possibilities offered by the information and data collected from the community survey. He said that the data bank provided their commune with a number of planning tools at their disposal such as in the preparation of the commune investment plan and urban plan.

The presentation was followed by an open forum. Everyone agreed on the importance of good and reliable data. However, it was also mentioned that while it was good to have data at one's disposal, the knowledge on how to use them was, of course, better. There was therefore a need for a reinforcement of the capacities of the heads of bureaus of the Observatory on the optimal usage of the acquired information.

Present during the welcome ceremonies and meeting werethe city quarter delegates and departmental heads (on education, health, fight against poverty officials, regional development agencies and others), directors of grassroots community organizations (cultural and athletic associations, women's advocacy groups, savings and debt cooperatives and others) and partners in development (a representative from the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)).

In Burkina Faso

After the PEP Network's general meeting in Senegal, delegates of the CBMS network proceeded to Burkina Faso to see the implementation of CBMS sites in the villages. The delegation was accompanied by the Secretary General of the Province and representative of the High Commissioner, Josephine Apiou, visited the CBMS site in Yako, in Passore Province, Burkina Faso.

The group was welcomed at the High Commission by the highest administrative authorities of the Province, including the mayor of the city, Honorable Nanema Edouard.

They were briefed by Mr. Ramde Tanga, Centre for International Studies and Cooperation (CECI) representative, on the operations of the CBMS in Yako. This was followed by a field visit to two of Yako's villages.

Traditional chiefs and presidents of the Village Development Committees (VDC) then explained the activities of the CBMS in their respective villages, the establishment of the CBMS and the role of the residents in data-gathering. According to the VDC heads, these data served as eye-openers because they now had full information on the exact number of people living in each village, number of households, food security per household, infrastructure and social services, among others. Such data would be useful in the planning of village developments. Each VDC would now know the information can be useful when seeking for help from the administrative authorities and non-government organizations (NGOs) to solve their social problems, poverty issues and living conditions.

The VDC officials also showed the delegation the drawings made by the villagers of Kabo and Llbourne themselves, which represented the data gathered from the pilot surveys. The drawings and the translation of information in Moore, a local language, were helpful in that they are better understood by the populace, most of whom were illiterate.

The delegation proceeded to Sector 1, where officials likewise

briefed them on the CBMS operations and presented some data from household and community surveys, which were depicted by drawings.

What lessons can be gained from the field visit? One is that the entire population, including administrative and traditional authorities have all been mobilized for the CBMS project. This system has been well-received in the Department of Yako. Two, the drawings done by villagers are useful in presenting the performance indicators of each village and sector. The drawings enable both the literate and illiterate residents to better understand situations in their communities. This is deemed important given that more than 90 percent of the village population are illiterate.

Directory of Participants

• •

Bangladesh

1. **Ranjan Kumar Guha**
   Position: Assistant Director
   Institution: Bangladesh Academy for Rural Development (BARD)
   Mailing Address: BARD, Kotbari, Comilla,Bangladesh
   Phone Number: +88-081-76424-8(Office; +88-081-69305(Res.)
   Fax Number: +88-081-68406
   E-mail :   rkguha@hotmail.com

2. **Ibrahim Khalil**
   Position: Upazila Nirbahi Officer
   Institution: Upazila-Daudkandi
   Mailing Address: Dist. Comills, Bangladesh
   Phone Number: +880802355422
   Fax Number: 880-2-8353716
   E-mail :   index@mtlbd.net

Benin

3. **Marie Odile Attanasso**
   Position: Enseignant Chercheur
   Institution: CEFORP/UAC
   Mailing Address: 03 BP 2200 Jericho, Cotonou
   Phone Number: 95 52 06 / 30 07 70
   E-mail :   mattanasso@yahoo.fr

Burkina Faso

4. **Prosper Somda**
   Position: Enseignant-Chercheur
   Institution: CEDRES/ Université de Ouagadougou
   Mailing Address: 04 Ouaga 04. Burkina Faso
   Phone Number: 226-78 827016 (portable); 226-50 343234 (home)
   Fax Number: 226-315549
   E-mail: prosper.somda@univ-ouaga.bf; psomda@yahoo.fr

5. **Moumouni Zida**
   Position: Agent de Bureau Départemcnt de Yako (Yako Officer)
   Institution: Département de Yako/Provincedu Passoré
   Mailing Address: Préfecture de Yako Burkina Faso
   Phone Number: 226-50-540025

Cambodia
6. **Kim Net**
Position:	CBMS Researcher
Institution:	National Institute of Statistics
Mailing Address:	Monivong Blvd, Ministry of Planning Building, National Institute of Statistics
Phone Number:	+855 16770769 (mobile)
Fax Number:	+855 23 21 36 50
E-mail:	khieusary@forum.org.kh

7. **Try Sothearith**
Position:	Deputy Director
Institution:	Department of Demographic Statistics, Census and Survey of the National Institute of Statistics (NIS), Ministry of Planning
Mailing Address:	Ministry of Planning Bldg., National Institute of Statistics Monivong Blvd., Phnom Penh, Cambodia
Phone Number:	85512585865/85516555507
Fax Number:	85523213650
E-mail:	sothearith_t@yahoo.com

Ghana
8. **Felix Ankomah Asante**
Position:	Research Fellow
Institution:	Institute of Statistical Social & Economic Research (ISSER), University of Ghana
Mailing Address:	Institute of Statistical Social & Economic Research (ISSER), University of Ghana, P. O. Box LG 74, Legon, Accra, Ghana
Phone Number:	+233-24-635190
Fax Number:	+233-21-512504 / 500937
E-mail:	fasante@hotmail.com

9. **Mohammed Ali Amadu**
Position:	Development Planning Officer
Institution:	Dangme West District Assembly
Mailing Address:	P.O. Box DD 38 Dodowa
Phone Number:	+233-024-4270344

Indonesia
10. **Sudarno Sumarto**
Institution:	The SMERU Research Institute
Position:	Director
Mailing Address:	Jl. TulungAgung 46, Menteng Jakarta Pusat 10310
Phone Number:	62-21-31936336
Fax Number:	62-21-31930850
E-mail :	ssumarto@smeru.or.id

India

11. **Smitha Aravind**
Institution:	Centre for Development Studies
Position:	Project Assistant
Mailing Address:	Centre for Development Studies (CDS) Project Residence,
	Chekkumkku, Paralikinnu Road 673121
	Wayanad, Kerala, India
Phone Number:	91-4936-286908
E-mail:	smithaarvind@hotmail.com

Lao

12. **Samaychanh Boupha**
Position:	Director General
Institution:	National Statistical Center,
	Committee for Planning and Cooperation
Address:	Luangprabang Road, Vientiane, Lao PDR
Phone Number:	856-21-214740
Fax Number:	856-21-242023
E-mail:	nscsamay@laotel.com

13. **Sithon Nantharath**
Position:	Deputy Director
Institution:	Planning and Cooperation of Savannaket Province
Address:	Planning and Cooperation Office Savannaket Province
Phone Number:	856-041-215042/856205541408
E-mail:	syacms2@laotel.com

Nepal

14. **Shiva Prasad Sharma**
Position:	General Secretary
Institution:	National Labour Academy (NLA)
Mailing Address:	GPO Box 11242, Kathmandu, Nepal
Phone Number:	977-1-4255908 (Office)/977-1-431304 (Res)
Fax Number	977-1-4248073
E-mail:	nla@mail.com.np

15. **Basant Raj Gautam**
Position:	Undersecretary
Institution:	Ministry of Local Development
Mailing Address:	Ministry of Local Development, Pulchok, Lalitpur, Nepal
Phone Number:	977-1-5525992 (Office); 977-1-4370798 (Res)
Fax Number:	977-1-5534076
E-mail:	monitoring@mld.gov.np; mld@rciw.wlink.com.np

Pakistan

16. **Durr-e-Nayab**
Institution:	Pakistan Institute of Development Economics
Position:	Research Anthropologist
Mailing Address:	Pakistan Institute of Development Economics, Quaid-e-Azam University, PO Box 1091, Islamabad, Pakistan
Phone No:	92-51-9206610-20/22/27
Fax Number:	+92-51-9210886
Email:	nayab@isb.comsats.net.pk; pide@isb.paknet.com.pk

17. **Syed Mashir Hasan Naqvi**
Institution:	National Reconstruction Bureau (NRB) Government of Pakistan
Position:	Consultant
Mailing Address:	National Reconstruction Bureau, Cabinet Block, Prime Minister's Secretariat, Islamabad, Pakistan
Phone No:	92-51-9205133 (o) 95-51-333; 5135843 (mobile)
Email:	mushir_naqvi@yaho.com

Philippines

18. **Ponciano S. Intal, Jr.**
Position:	Executive Director
Institution:	Angelo King Institute for Economic and Business Studies
Mailing Address:	Rm. I-1015, 10th Floor, Angelo King International Center Estrada cor. Arellano Sts., Malate, Manila 1004 Philippines
Phone Number:	(632) 5245333 or 5245347
Fax Number:	(632) 5245347
E-mail:	intalp@csb.dlsu.edu.ph

19. **Celia M. Reyes**
Position:	CBMS Network Leader
Institution:	CBMS Network Coordinating Team Angelo King Institute for Economic and Business Studies
Mailing Address:	Rm. I-1016 10th Floor, Angelo King International Center Estrada cor. Arellano Sts., Malate, Manila 1004 Philippines
Phone Number:	(632) 5262067
Fax Number:	(632) 5262067
E-mail:	reyesc@csb.dlsu.edu.ph; creyes@mail.pids.gov.ph

20. **Anne Bernadette E. Mandap**
Position:	Research and Administrative Officer
Institution:	CBMS Network Coordinating Team Angelo King Institute for Economic and Business Studies
Mailing Address:	Rm. I-1016 10th Floor, Angelo King International Center Estrada cor. Arellano Sts., Malate, Manila 1004 Philippines
Phone Number:	(632) 5262067

Fax Number: (632) 5262067
E-mail: mandapa@csb.dlsu.edu.ph

21. Kenneth C. Ilarde
Position: Research Officer
Institution: CBMS Network Coordinating Team
     Angelo King Institute for Economic and Business Studies
Mailing Address: Rm. I-1016 10th Floor, Angelo King International Center
     Estrada cor. Arellano Sts., Malate, Manila 1004 Philippines
Phone Number: (632) 5262067
Fax Number: (632) 5262067
E-mail: ilardek@csb.dlsu.edu.ph

22. Joel E. Bancolita
Position: Database Management Specialist
Institution: CBMS Network Coordinating Team
     Angelo King Institute for Economic and Business Studies
Mailing Address: Rm. I-1016 10th Floor, Angelo King International Center
     Estrada cor. Arellano Sts., Malate, Manila 1004 Philippines
Phone Number: (632) 5262067
Fax Number: (632) 5262067
E-mail: bancolitaj@csb.dlsu.edu.ph

23. Winifredo Balce-Oco
Position: Municipal Mayor
Institution: Municipal Government of Labo, Province of Camarines Norte
Mailing Address: Municipal Hall LGU Labo, Camarines Norte, Philippines
Phone Number: (054) 5852044
Fax Number: (054) 5852319

Senegal
24. Momar Ballé Sylla
Position :   Conseiller auprès du Directeur
Institution: Direction de la Prévision et de la Statsitique
     (Crea/MIMAP/Sénégal)
Mailing Address: BP 116 Dakar RP
Phone Number: 221/8249265, 221/6349632
Fax Number: 221/8249004, 221/8251979
E-mail: bmsylla@hotmail.com

25. Mamadou Moustapha Thiam
Position :   Enseignant-Chercheur
Institution: CREA/Université Cheikh Anta Diop Dakar
Mailing Address: Zone A Villa No 32, Dakar
Phone Number: (221) 6394992
E-mail: moust@refer.sn

. . . .

26. **Dib Niom**
    Position :   Responsable sous-secteur Lutte contre la pauvreté
    Institution: Député à l'assemblée Nationale
    Mailing Address: BP 86 Place Soweto, Dakar
    Phone Number: (221)8233171/8204643/5784737
    E-mail: dibniom@hotmail.com

27. **Thierno Seydou Niane**
    Position :   Coordonnateur
    Institution: Cellule de Suivi du Programme de Lutte contre
                     la Pauvreté/MEF
    Mailing Address: BP 116 Dakar RP
    Phone Number: (221) 889 21 66
    E-mail: tsniane@yahoo.fr

Sri Lanka
28. **Markus Mayer**
    Position: Coordinator Poverty and Social Policy Research
    Institution: IMCAP Program - Faculty of Arts - University of Colombo
    Mailing address: University of Colombo, PO Box 1420, Colombo 3, Sri Lanka
    Phone: 94-1-2553188/94-71-2769656
    Fax Number: 94-1-2500452
    Email: imcap@eureka.lk

Vietnam
29. **Vu Tuan Anh**
    Name of Institution: Vietnam Institute of Economics
    Position: Senior Researcher
    Mailing Address: 477 Nguyen, Trai Str., Thanh Xuan District Hanoi, Vietnam
    Phone Number: (844) 903 259 254
    Fax Number: (84) 4 55 23 059
    E-mail: vsed@hn.vnn.vn; vtanh@yahoo.com

30. **Vu Van Toan**
    Institution: Vietnam Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs
    Position: Deputy Director of the Managing Office of the National
                     Program for Hunger Eradication, Poverty Reduction and
                     Job Creation
    Mailing Address: 2 Dinh Le Str. Hoan, Kiem District, Hanoi, Vietnam
    Phone Number: (84) 49362932/(84)913092004
    Fax Number: (84)45523059
    E-mail: toanxdgn@cardvn.net

Thailand
31. **Oraphin Mathew**
    Position: Chief of Statistical Techniques Group
    Institution: Statistical Policy and Techniques Bureau, NSO

Mailing Address:	National Statistics Office, Larnluang Rd., Bangkok 10100
Phone Number:	662 2825862
Fax Number:	6622811691
E-mail:	oraphin@nso.go.th

32. **Chalermkwun Chiemprachanarakorn**

Position:	Statistician Level 8
Institution:	Social and Economic Statistics Bureau, NSO
Mailing Address:	National Statistics Office, Larnluang Rd., Bangkok 10100
Phone Number:	662 2810 333 ext.1203
Fax Number:	662 281-8617
E-mail:	kwunny@nso.go.th

IDRC-Canada

33. **Martha Melesse**

Position:	Program Officer
Institution:	International Development Research Centre (IDRC)-Canada
Mailing Address:	250 Albert St., PO Box 8500 Ottawa, Canada K1G 3H9
Phone Number:	613-236-6163 Ext. 2016
Fax Number:	613-567-7748
E-mail:	mmelesse@idrc.ca

34. **Brent-Herbert Copley**

Position:	Director, Social and Economic Equity
Institution:	International Development Research Centre (IDRC)-Canada
Mailing Address:	250 Albert St., Ottawa, ON Canada K1G 3H9
Phone Number:	613-236-6163 Ext. 2322
Fax Number:	613-567-7748
E-mail:	bherbert-copley@idrc.ca

35. **Raman Sohal**

Position:	Research Associate, MIMAP
Institution:	International Development Research Centre (IDRC)-Canada
Mailing Address:	250 Albert St., Ottawa, ON Canada K1G 3H9
Phone Number:	613-236-6163 loc. 2307
Fax Number:	613-567-7748
E-mail:	rsohal@idrc.ca

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.

Inquiries regarding the network may be sent through:

CBMS Network Coordinating Team
Mailing Address: Angelo King Institute for Economic and Business Studies

Room I-1016 10th Floor Angelo King International Center
Estrada corner Arellano Avenue
Malate, Manila 1004, Philippines

Telephone Number: (632) 5262067 **(direct)** /5245333 **(trunkline)**
Facsimile: (632) 5262067
Email: ceyesc@dls-csb.edu.ph • mimap@dls-csb.edu.ph