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EVALUATION OF CASH COMPONENT OF WHH / GAA PROJECT No. KEN 1067

Mitigation of Drought Impact through WASH and Cash for Work in Highly Affected ASAL Areas of Eastern Kenya

Mike Brewin
Development Consultant
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mike.brewin@gmail.com

CONTENTS

1. BACKGROUND	5
1.1 Project Purpose.....	5
1.2 Operational Context	7
1.3 Purpose and Structure of this Evaluation.....	8
2. HOW THE PROJECT WORKED	9
2.1 Activity Selection	9
2.2 Targeting	9
2.3 Work Norms and Management	9
2.4 Payment and Cash Handling	10
2.5 Monitoring and Evaluation.....	10
3. METHODOLOGY	11
4. FINDINGS.....	13
4.1 Process Findings.....	13
4.1.1 Targeting	13
4.1.2 Work Norms	13
4.1.3 Remuneration and Payment Modality	14
4.1.4 Use of Cash	16
4.1.5 Co-ordination with Other Activities and Programmes.....	17
4.2 Impact Findings.....	17
4.2.1 Impact on Health	17
4.2.2 Impact on Education	18
4.2.3 Impact on Food Security	18
4.2.4 Impact on Asset Ownership	20
4.2.5 Impact on Self Esteem	20
4.2.6 Impact on Markets.....	21
4.2.7 Sustainability of Impact	22
4.2.8 Impacts on Non-Working Cash Recipients	23
5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE PROGRAMMING.....	24
ANNEX 1: DATA COLLECTION TEMPLATES.....	26
ANNEX 2: EVALUATION WORKPLAN	29

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

GAA's 'Mitigation of Drought Impact through WASH and Cash for Work in Highly Affected ASAL Areas of Eastern Kenya Project' was implemented in Mwingi District between June 2009 and September 2010 at a cost of \$1.5m. Funding was provided by the US Government's Office of Disaster Assistance (OFDA). The project's overall goal of *'supporting poor rural communities to protect their livelihoods during an acute drought, strengthen their food security and mitigate future shocks'* pursued through the objective of *'mitigating drought impacts and increasing resilience through enhanced water structures for human beings and animals, through improved hygiene practices, and through cash injections into vulnerable HH'*. Overall, 70,000 food insecure poor marginal farmers and agro pastoralists were targeted. Eighty percent of this 70,000 belonged to households where one member was able to contribute labour on one of the 58 surface water catchment structures that the project constructed, the remaining 20% received payments in the same way that workers did, but did not contribute labour because of their 'highly vulnerable' condition.

The project was implemented at a time of severe food insecurity in Mwingi – by one estimate fewer than 12% of households harvested any crops in 2009 – and one of the project's main assumptions was that WFP would play a significant part in addressing food shortages through its FFW programme and other distribution mechanisms. Indeed, according to the project document, the cash payments were intended to *'complement General Food Distribution with nutritional supplements, provide for water payments and other basic needs of HH whose livelihoods and thus purchasing power have been severely eroded'*. In the event, the WFP pipeline broke for four or five months at the height of the food crisis, resulting in many 'beneficiaries' in Mwingi not receiving any WFP food at all during this period. A major consequence of this was that GAA project participants used a larger proportion of cash for food than was originally envisaged.

This evaluation covers the cash component of the project – the focus is on how beneficiaries were targeted, work norms set and accomplished, payments were made, and, most importantly, the impact of the cash transfers on beneficiary households. The quality, appropriateness and impact of the structures themselves is not covered by this report. In the absence of a pre-intervention livelihoods baseline¹, a range of participatory evaluation tools were used to collate and measure beneficiaries' perceptions of aspects of the implementation and impact of the project. The methodology used allowed findings to be presented in terms of quantitative values, thereby allowing the reader to assess the relative impact of the project on different areas of beneficiaries' livelihoods.

Community Based Targeting (CBT) was used to select beneficiaries, and there was a widely held perception that targeting was done fairly. Existing groups were strengthened or new groups formed for the purpose of managing work inputs and the structures created; again, there was a broad consensus that these functioned well. WFP standards were used to set work norms and remuneration rates. GAA decided to set payment levels fairly low so as to maximise the number of people who could enrol on the project. While this strategy (combined with the [admittedly patchy] presence of a WFP-funded FFW programme in the area) served to maximise the number of people involved in the project, it also resulted in a fairly widely held perception that the remuneration was not sufficient for the work required. This was tempered by the knowledge that they were creating something that would benefit them in the long term, however, so the project did not experience high rates of 'drop out'.

Payments were made on a monthly basis. This suited the majority of households because the accumulated wages – normally totalling between 1,200 and 1,400 shillings depending on the amount of work done - enabled budgeting for larger items of expenditure such as school fees. Payments were made efficiently and on time, with no security incidents being reported.

¹ It should be noted that the project design was informed by inter-agency assessments by the Kenya Food Security Steering Group.

Although beneficiaries appreciated the monthly, rather than daily or weekly payment schedule because they claimed it helped them budget, almost half of the cash distributed was spent on food. This was not unexpected given the high levels of crop failure in the District in 2009 and the breakdown of the WFP pipeline; indeed, the project's objective was to ameliorate food insecurity rather than facilitate restocking or asset acquisition. Given the high price of food, particularly over the drought period, the transfer amount was insufficient to cover a normal sized households basic food needs, let alone their other essential expenditures, so most households were supplementing the CFW cash with other labour and petty trade activities. In the event it is estimated that project beneficiaries spent about 55% of their cash on maize, which, at 2009 prices, would have provided 20% of an average sized household's minimum monthly calorific needs.

Evaluation of the project's impact focussed on five livelihood-related themes – health, education, food security, asset ownership and self esteem, and the relative contribution of project and non project factors to changes in these areas. Project participants reported that they had seen improvements in all these areas over the project period – ranging from a 9% improvement in health to a 27% improvement in self esteem. Despite the relatively low levels of purchasing power that the transfer enabled, the cash transfers themselves were reckoned to have been the major reason for improvements – responsible for between 32% and 41% of the positive changes experienced. The heavy rainfall that broke the drought that had been affecting the area since 2007 also played a major part in improving household's livelihood circumstances.

Fears that an injection of cash would cause traders to hike prices proved unfounded; prices generally remained stable because of the limits on demand caused by the FFW programme and the desire of local shop keepers to retain customer loyalty rather than make a quick killing. Indeed, many shop keepers bought more stock in in anticipation of cash distribution days and offered CFW participants interest free credit in the knowledge that debts would be settled at the end of the month.

Clearly, most of the cash-related impact was transitory – food was consumed, school fees have to be paid again, etc. but it was always the intention of the cash transfer was to assist households to deal with an acute food security crisis rather than transform their lives. It is arguable that efficiency and impact could have been increased by adjusting work norms or payment rates depending on the 'vulnerability status of households, and by ensuring that workers were allowed to work 'flexitime', and it is recommended that these issues are piloted / addressed in future interventions.

Looking at the intervention as a whole, however, it is possible that the project has gone some way to achieving this 'transformation'. Although it was beyond the scope of this assessment to look at the sustainability of the impact of the project (any accurate evaluation of this must be done in 2011 anyway), beneficiaries were asked about how they perceived their future considering the water they would have access to. The unanimous response was that their lives would improve by an order of magnitude because of the economic and time-saving opportunities afforded by a ready supply of water. Whether this aspiration materialises will depend to a large degree on the weather and on the strength of the management systems that GAA have put in place over the course of the project. In the shorter term, however, it is clear that the cash element of the project had a significant and valued, albeit transient, impact on targeted households' livelihoods during a time of considerable stress and was successful in achieving its objective.

1. BACKGROUND

1.1 Project Purpose

GAA's 'Mitigation of Drought Impact through WASH and Cash for Work in Highly Affected ASAL Areas of Eastern Kenya Project' (Project number KEN1067) was implemented in Mwingi District between June 2009 and September 2010 at a cost of \$1.5m. Funding was provided by the US Government's Office of Disaster Assistance (OFDA). The project's overall goal of *'supporting poor rural communities to protect their livelihoods during an acute drought, strengthen their food security and mitigate future shocks'* pursued through the objective of *'mitigating drought impacts and increasing resilience through enhanced water structures for human beings and animals, through improved hygiene practices, and through cash injections into vulnerable HH'*. Overall, 70,000 food insecure poor marginal farmers and agro pastoralists were targeted.

At an activity level, the project aimed to achieve the following targets: -

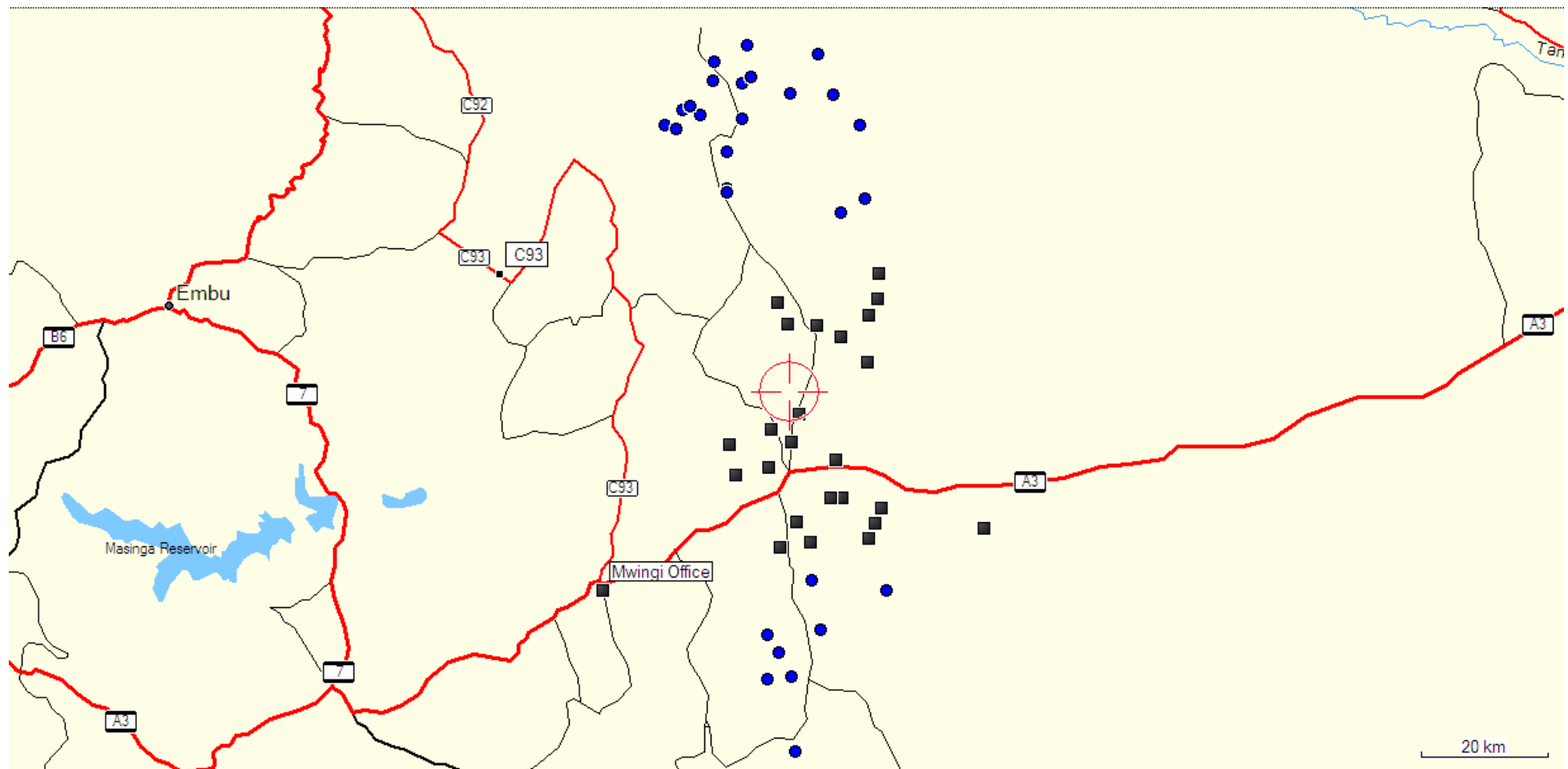
- Complete rehabilitation of 5 earth dams;
- Complete rehabilitation of 1 concrete dam;
- Complete construction of 17 new earth dams
- Complete construction of 31 sub-surface and sand dams
- Construction of 2 rock catchments
- Rehabilitation of 1 spring catchment
- Rehabilitation of 1 rock catchment
- Beneficiaries at all sites trained in M&O, O&M and hygiene promotion

A large portion of the labour necessary to build these structures was provided by local communities on a cash-for-work (CFW) basis, the intention being that, as well as developing assets of value to the community, participating households would, at least for a limited period, have an income which could be used to buy food or service other essential consumption needs. Where special skills were needed local artisans were employed, but a major factor in the choice of projects was their ability to supply unskilled labour opportunities to the local population.

Essentially, the project aimed to address communities' long-term water needs while at the same time providing some immediate assistance to stabilise household-level consumption.

Project activity sites are shown in Figure 1 on the following page.

Figure 1: Project site locations



1.2 Operational Context

Mwingi is classed as a Semi-Arid area. In 2006 the GoK² estimated that that 62% of the population of Mwingi District³ live in absolute poverty (i.e. are unable to afford their overall basic consumption needs⁴) and 58% live in food poverty (i.e. do not have the resources to purchase their minimum food requirements⁵). Given the drought that has affected the area over recent years it is unlikely that the overall or food poverty situation has improved. Indeed, a survey of the area by ACF⁶ in October 2009 found that just 11.6% of households harvested food in the previous harvest and the Kenya Food Security Network's 'March 2009 Short Rains Assessment' for 'Marginal Agriculture Districts' – in which Mwingi is included – stated that:

The 2008 short rains performed poorly, averaging 20-50 percent of normal. The rains were also poorly distributed spatially and temporally, starting and ceasing earlier than normal, especially in Mwingi district, which recorded the lowest rainfall, averaging only 10 percent of normal.

Consequently, an acute water shortage was reported in most of the districts, including Mwingi...where average distances to water for domestic use have increased from the normal 1-3km to 4-8km, while trekking for livestock use has risen from 3-5km to 8-16km.

Households in the marginal agricultural districts produce sufficient food to meet about 37 percent of the household food gap, while 59 percent is purchased. However, the assessment teams reported that on-farm production this season is expected to be insignificant, following a near-total crop failure across the districts. Absence of household food stocks is also attributed to lower output from successive poor seasons that were compounded by inappropriate agronomic practices, including the use of uncertified seed (which reduces output), and late planting and weeding. Mwingi..., where 95-98 percent crop failure was reported, (is amongst) the worst-hit...

Access to food is further undermined by the prevailing high food prices, which range between 75-125 percent (see figure 2 on following page) above normal across all districts, but are highest in Mwingi, Mbeere, and Machakos districts. High food prices are compounded by the decline in livestock prices by margins ranging from 8 to 25 percent below normal, in most parts of the districts. Already, livestock productivity has started to decline: milk production is between 50 and 75 percent of normal.

The assessment teams found that the principal coping strategies employed by most households in the marginal agricultural zone included a reduction in the frequency, size, and quality of meals, and the expanded practice of charcoal burning.

The poor rains, combined with high food prices, unstable market supplies, environmental degradation, and poverty endemic to the marginal agricultural livelihood have deepened food insecurity in Mwingi... Unless the long rains are unusually good, these areas face acute food insecurity, as the next significant harvest is not expected until March 2010.

² Kenya Integrated Household Baseline Survey (KIHBS) 2005/06

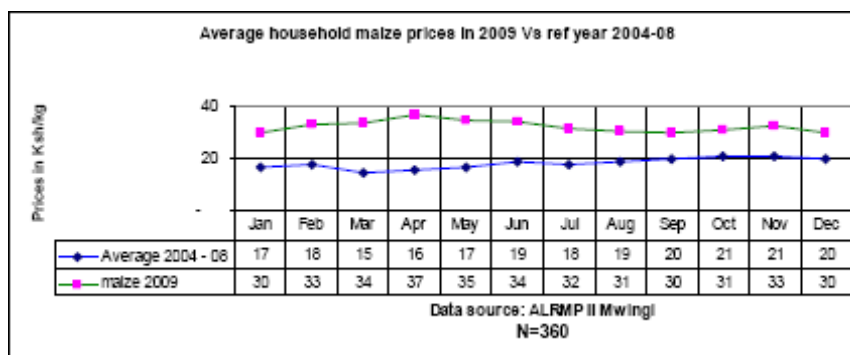
³ Since 2006 Mwingi District has been split up into a number of smaller districts (Mwingi North, West etc.). However, for the purposes of this report Mwingi District is used to refer to the area covered by the 'old' Mwingi District.

⁴ Computed as 1,562/= per adult equivalent in rural areas in 2005/6

⁵ Computed as 988/= per adult equivalent in rural areas in 2005/6

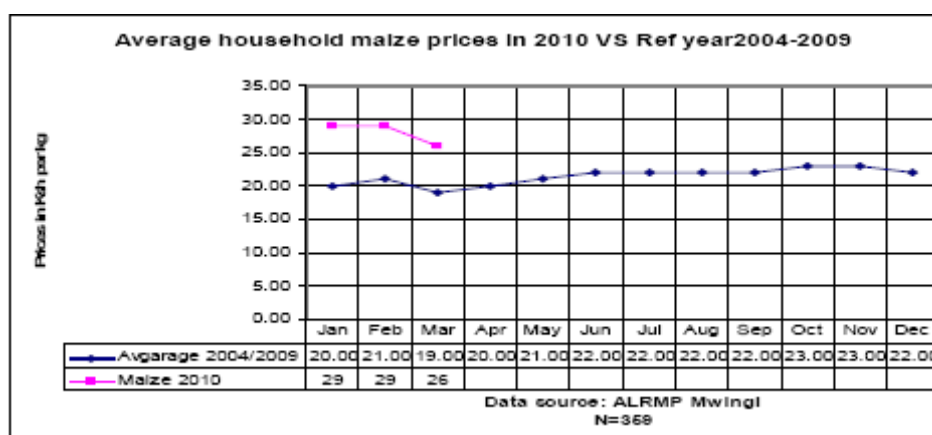
⁶ Action Against Hunger and the Government of Kenya, October 2009, Integrated Smart Survey in Mwingi District, Kenya

Figure 2: Average household maize prices in 2009 compared to average 2004 – 08 for Mwingi



Although the three-year drought broke with good rainfall in the first half of 2010 – evidenced in the falling price of maize in the area (see figure 3 below) - most climatic models for Kenya⁷ predict that temperatures and rainfall will increase but that rainfall intensity will increase. In other words, more rain will fall in a shorter period of time. The recommended adaptation and preparedness responses⁸ to this changing climatic scenario include: Switching to different cultivars, improving and conserving soils, enhancing irrigation efficiency and/or expanding irrigation, developing new crops, increasing water supply (e.g. by using groundwater, building reservoirs), improving or stabilizing watershed management, desalination, reducing water pollution, improving or developing water management and altering system operating rules, e.g. pricing policies, legislation.

Figure 3: Average household maize prices January – March 2010 compared to average 2004 – 09 for Mwingi



1.3 Purpose and Structure of this Evaluation

Clearly, GAA's interventions, which focused largely on enhancing community-level storage of and access to surface water, are highly relevant to the emerging needs of households in Mwingi District, although to assess the true impact of the infrastructure built it will be necessary to return to the sites in 2011, as at the time of this evaluation some of the structures were not complete and management committees had not put into place the spin-off activities which they hoped would generate additional income.

As such, the focus of this evaluation is on the impact of the cash-for-work component of the project: specifically, to what extent was the project successful in 'mitigating drought impacts' by increasing households' purchasing power through the provision of CFW opportunities.

⁷ See the World Bank's Climate Change Data Portal

<http://sdwebx.worldbank.org/climateportal/home.cfm?page=globeamap&undpcc=ke>

⁸ UNDP Adaptation Learning Network

The report comprises five sections. Section 1 (this section) covers the background to the project and the context and area in which it was executed. Section 2 describes the way various elements of the project such as payments, targeting etc. actually worked. The methodology and tools used to collect the data on which this report is based are explained in section 3. Section 4 covers the findings of the evaluation, and is split into two main parts, the first of which deals with findings concerning 'process', i.e. how the project worked, while the second covers 'impact', i.e. what changes took place in beneficiaries' lives as a result of the project. Finally, conclusions and recommendations are presented in section 5.

2. HOW THE PROJECT WORKED

2.1 Activity Selection

The project's objectives were twofold: to create water harvesting / storage infrastructure for communities routinely affected by drought, and to provide immediate improvements to household food security through the provision of cash (for work). So, while feasibility, local relevance and environmental considerations were taken into account when selecting interventions and work sites, the extent to which an intervention would provide opportunities for unskilled labour was also important. GAA worked together with local government bodies (particularly the Ministry of Water and National Environmental Management Authority [NEMA]) and local communities to identify suitable work projects.

2.2 Targeting

Typically, once a project had been identified, local community members would be called to a meeting and informed that there would be an opportunity for paid work, but that GAA was keen to ensure that the poorest and most vulnerable households were prioritised. To ensure this targeting objective, the community was asked to list the most vulnerable households. The poorest of these households (accounting for 20% of the total beneficiaries) were registered as non-working beneficiaries (NWB), while as many as possible of the remaining households were registered as labourers on the CFW project. WFP was also operational in the area, running a FFW project through local partner Actionaid; only households who were not registered as WFP-food recipients were eligible for registration on the CFW project.

Recognising that structures must be managed properly, GAA insisted that a management committee was formed at each site to oversee the CFW inputs and manage the assets created. In some cases – especially where old infrastructure was being rehabilitated - existing groups were co-opted to play this role; in others GAA assisted communities to form groups for this purpose, providing advice on management structure, group bylaws, registration with local authorities, etc. In all cases group membership involved the payment of a fee, ranging from 20 to a couple of hundred shillings, although in most cases non-working members were not required to pay this fee.

2.3 Work Norms and Management

For each site, GAA staff calculated how long various tasks would take, depending on the ease of the terrain, how far materials would have to be carried, etc. and prescribed daily work norms. Although WFP work norms were used as guidance, GAA staff admitted that they set payment on the low side (120/= per day) in order to spread resources as far as possible. Each worker had to complete the required amount of work in order to receive full payment at the end of the month; workers who completed less than their prescribed requirement would be paid pro-rata. In theory each working member would be able to complete his/her tasks within six hours, but as the work was task rather than time based, in practice some members were able to complete their work requirement in less than six hours,

while others took longer. Attendance records were kept and work was overseen by a Community Project Attendant (CPA) who was paid 300/= per day.

Disputes, if and when they arose, were resolved through reference to a group's by-laws, and, if necessary, through the mediation of the local chief / sub chief and GAA staff. As already mentioned, the structures created were not of a large enough size to warrant a full Environmental Impact Assessment, but GAA did involve NEMA and the relevant water authorities to assist with permissions.

2.4 Payment and Cash Handling

Beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries were paid on a monthly basis. Security of cash in transit was obviously an issue which had to be considered. GAA put in place a system whereby the project coordinator randomly chose payment sites from the list of those which required their salaries: that way the number of people who had advance knowledge of exactly when and where cash was to be distributed was minimised. Cash was transported in unmarked (i.e. not GAA) vehicles and beneficiaries were only advised that payment was to be made once cash was in transit. To minimise the risk of ghost workers being included in payments etc. staff were never allowed to supervise pay days for workers from the sites in their 'area' – this was always done by staff from adjacent areas.

In most cases payments were made at the worksite, or in the grounds of a nearby school or chief's compound if convenient. Beneficiaries were paid on a 'first come first served' basis, and were required to sign or fingerprint that they had received their cash.

2.5 Monitoring and Evaluation

The focus of project monitoring to date has been twofold: tracking changes in sanitation-related knowledge, attitudes and practices and tracking the progress of construction of the various water collection structures. This survey represents the first attempt to assess the impact of the CFW component on beneficiaries' livelihoods.

3. METHODOLOGY

As mentioned above, the evaluation focussed on the cash transfer component of the project, and within this aspect, four distinct themes were explored – a) process (i.e. the way the project worked), b) use of cash, c) changes in livelihood status over the duration of the project and the contribution of the project to these changes, and d) sustainability of the gains made. During five days in the field 12 FGDs attended by a total of 75 men and women were conducted. To test the hypothesis that there would be a difference in perceived impact depending on how much money a household earned, sites were grouped depending on whether they were 'high' or 'low' income (see table 1 below), with beneficiaries in 'low income' sites earning on average a total of 1,548/= and those in 'high income' sites earning on average 5,586/= in total over the duration of the project.

Table 1: Sites sampled for Survey				
Type of site	Name of site	Division	Number of FGD participants	Total
high income (average 5,586/=)	Kamungu	Tseikuru	7	50
	Kanako	Nguni	6	
	Kwa Mutemi	Ngomeni	6	
	Mandove	Nguni	6	
	Mauu	Nguni	6	
	Mukiye	Nguni	7	
	Mulinde	Nguni	6	
	Ukuni	Nguni	6	
low income (average 1,548/=)	Kitothyani	Nuu	6	25
	Kwa Nganga	Nuu	7	
	Mitaavo	Nuu	6	
	Usungieni	Nuu	6	

Data was collected through a Focused Group Discussion (FGD) format, but in order to arrive at some kind of quantitative assessment of impact, ranking and piling tools were used. For example, to assess beneficiaries' perceptions of various aspects of 'process', FGD participants were asked to 'vote' on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with various statements related to the issue in question. 'Voting' was done by each participant placing a stone in one of five boxes labelled 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'don't know / no opinion', 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree' in response to each question.

Use of cash data was collated by asking informants to allocate 100 beans into different piles representing different items of expenditure. Five areas of impact were assessed – health, education, food security, asset ownership, and self esteem. Changes in each over the project period were measured by asking respondents to add or remove stones from a nominal 'pre-intervention' baseline of 10. The respondent was then asked to attribute the reasons for the change by allocating 10 stones proportionally to six boxes representing the various reasons for the change in circumstances (CFW, WFP food, Casual Labour, Income from petty trade / business, Rainfall, and Other). For example, an improvement in food security due to CFW and rainfall would be indicated by adding one or more stones to the baseline of 10, and then allocating another ten stones proportionally to the 'CFW' and 'Rainfall' boxes depending on their relative contribution to the improvement.

Perceptions of sustainability were quantified by asking respondents to add stones to a nominal pre-project baseline of ten stones. They were asked to perform the exercise twice – once for the end of project and once for what they thought their situation would be in May 2011 – so, for example, a score series of 10, 13, 15, would represent a gradual improvement in a household's perceived condition.

During all FGDs, informants' responses were further probed in order to give some depth and context to the quantitative data. The formats used for the collection of all data are presented in Annex 1.

While the project's progress monitoring reports and KAP surveys are of good quality, the lack of a baseline that gave some kind of indication of beneficiaries' livelihood status before activities began precluded the use of survey techniques which rely on the measurement of variables pre and post intervention (for example, difference in the number of meals eaten daily by household members, or differences in households' dietary diversity). The consultant has substantial experience in the use of Likert scales in project evaluation, particularly in circumstances where there is no baseline data. However, it should be noted that the approach does have weaknesses including 'central tendency' and 'acquiescence' bias. In the first instance respondents try to avoid giving extreme responses and in the second they are prone to portraying the subject in question in a more favourable light. The consultant has also observed a 'consensus' bias when using this approach in a group format – i.e. less decisive group members tend to follow the responses of those who are more dominant. It is important, therefore, to keep the group size to no more than six, and to ensure a gender balance within the group involved in FGDs.

4. FINDINGS

4.1 Process Findings

4.1.1 Targeting

As already mentioned, project beneficiaries were selected through a community based targeting (CBT) process which involved community representatives drawing up lists of the most vulnerable in their area and then announcing those selected in a public forum. In some areas households who were registered on the WFP FFW scheme were precluded from joining the project.

If done in a non-transparent manner, selection of beneficiaries for any kind of transfer programme which has a limited number of spaces has the potential to cause friction within communities. GAA appears to have avoided this through a thorough approach to community sensitisation and targeting. Table 2 shows a broad consensus that the targeting criteria were understood by all in the community and that the process was 'fair'. One woman cited that fact that even though she was absent from the village (in hospital) at the time of targeting she was still selected by the community as a beneficiary as an illustration of the latter point.

Table 2: Responses to statements on aspects of targeting (percent)				
statement	response	type of site		Total
		low income	high income	
'targeting process was understood by all'	strongly agree	84	76	79
	agree	16	24	21
'targeting was fair'	strongly agree	72	88	83
	agree	28	12	17

Another important component of any resource distribution programme is a system for resolving disputes that occur during targeting or at any other point. All people interviewed for this survey agreed that the dispute resolution mechanism in place was satisfactory (see table 3 below). In most cases disputes, if they occurred, were mediated by local sub chiefs or GAA field staff, and issues concerning work norms or other 'on site' disputes were handled by the group members themselves according to the by-laws which they established for this purpose.

Table 3: Percentage of interviewees agreeing that a satisfactory dispute resolution process was in place			
response	type of site		Total
	low income	high income	
strongly agree	100	88	92
agree	0	12	8

The consultant did not find any evidence of intra community tension as a result of targeting or other aspects of the project. In once instance some people registered on the WFP FFW programme demanded to be included on the CFW project when the WFP pipeline broke, but the issue was resolved amicably within the community. It is worth noting that, although the WFP programme had its problems – largely relating to pipeline breaks – played an important role in reducing demand for spaces on the CFW project, and thereby lessening the chances of disputes and tensions over this issue.

4.1.2 Work Norms

Table 4 (below) shows that a significant percentage of beneficiaries thought that the distance they had to walk to reach the project work site was 'unacceptable' – in other words, too far. Some interviewees reported having to walk two hours each way! The 18% of people who felt

the work site was too far away had two major complaints. First, they were not allowed to do more than their daily work allocation in any one day – allowing them to have done two or more days work in any one day would have reduced the number of trips they had to make to the project site to earn their cash⁹. Secondly, their distance from the structures built meant that they would potentially derive less benefit from them once they were complete than those living in the immediate vicinity. In several instances interviewees considered that they should have been paid for the time spent travelling to and from the work site.

Table 4: Responses to statements on distance to work site and work norms (percent)						
response	Time needed to walk to work site was acceptable			The work requirements interfered with other tasks		
	low income	high income	total	low income	high income	total
strongly agree	80	44	56	88	10	36
agree	12	28	23	4	24	17
no opinion / don't know	8	0	3	8	2	4
disagree	0	20	13	0	58	39
strongly disagree	0	8	5	0	6	4

Over half of the beneficiaries interviewed agreed or strongly agreed that completing their CFW requirements meant that other tasks were left undone. Most of the people agreeing that the work interfered with other tasks reported that they did not have time to fully plant or manage their shambas, although it should be noted that in some cases GAA suspended work at the onset of the rains to allow beneficiaries the time to plant. The finding that the 'low income' group were more likely to perceive that the project interfered with their other commitments may be a result of activities not being suspended in their areas.

A couple of examples serve to illustrate the opportunity costs of the CFW project. One woman (female headed household) had no help at home and had to tend to her cattle, cook for her family, and, because of the drought affecting the area, walk huge distances to collect water, leaving her very little time for anything else. Another interviewee reported that he was unable to fulfil his communal work obligations at the local school, meaning that he was fined 100/=.

4.1.3 Remuneration and Payment Modality

A common strategy to minimise the capture of available spaces on CFW programmes is to set the remuneration rate at a fairly low level, thereby discouraging wealthier people from registering on the programme. For this reason, and to maximise the number of project beneficiaries, GAA set the daily wage rate at 120/=-, essentially meaning that more people were paid a lesser amount of money.

Given that in Mwingi daily casual labour rates range from 200/= to 350/= per day¹⁰, the findings that 40% of those surveyed felt that the remuneration offered was insufficient for the work required and 73% considered it lower than local pay rates are unsurprising (see table 5 below). The rate was also lower than the cash value of the food that WFP FFW participants were paid – calculated to be about 160/= per day¹¹. Nevertheless, several respondents

⁹ GAA intended that beneficiaries would be able to complete as much work as they wanted in any one day – enabling them to do two days' worth of work in one day if they so wished, but local management committees deemed this too complicated to administer, so this element of flexibility was lost

¹⁰ According to FGD participants. However, GAA staff report that casual labour rates at the peak of the drought were significantly lower than this.

¹¹ Under the Actionaid-implemented WFP FFW scheme, beneficiaries were paid 41kg maize, 7kg beans and 2 litres oil per for twelve days work per month digging terraces and making other

made it clear that they saw the payment as an ‘incentive’ and that it was natural that the remuneration was below market rate as they were building a structure that was for their own benefit.

Table 5: Responses to statements regarding the remuneration rate (percent)						
response	The amount I was paid was fair considering the work required			Payment was set at the local market rate		
	type of site		Total	type of site		Total
	low income	high income		low income	high income	
strongly agree	16	14	15	0	12	8
agree	20	48	39	8	22	17
no opinion / don't know	20	0	7	4	0	1
disagree	8	34	25	36	50	45
strongly disagree	36	4	15	52	16	28

Cash payments were made monthly, either at the work site or at a convenient secure location such as the local chief's camp. 95% of people found this location acceptable, with the remaining 5% considering the place too far away (see table 6). At the site itself, cash was distributed on a first-come first-served basis. Interviewees reported that they usually had to wait around 2 – 3 hours to collect cash, although in some cases it is likely that waiting times were longer, reflected in the finding that 9% of beneficiaries disagreed that the time they had to wait for payment was acceptable. The consultant heard no reports that beneficiaries had been robbed of their cash on their way home from the cash distribution site.

Table 6: Responses to statements regarding the collection of cash payments (percent)									
response	The distance I had to travel to collect cash was acceptable			The length of time spent waiting at the cash distribution site was acceptable			I felt safe transporting cash home		
	type of site		total	type of site		Total	type of site		total
	low inc	high inc		low inc	high inc		low inc	high inc	
strongly agree	100	22	48	100	46	64	100	80	87
agree	0	70	47	0	40	27	0	20	13
no opinion / don't know	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
disagree	0	0	0	0	14	9	0	0	0
strongly disagree	0	8	5	0	0	0	0	0	0

The majority (92%) of those interviewed were happy with the frequency of cash distribution, largely because receiving a lump sum enabled them to budget more easily. The remaining 8% would have preferred more frequent payments again to suit their own budgeting patterns (see table 7), although more frequent payments would have incurred higher administration

improvements to their farms. The cash value of this transfer was about 1930/= using current food prices, and more during the height of the food shortages in 2008 and 2009.

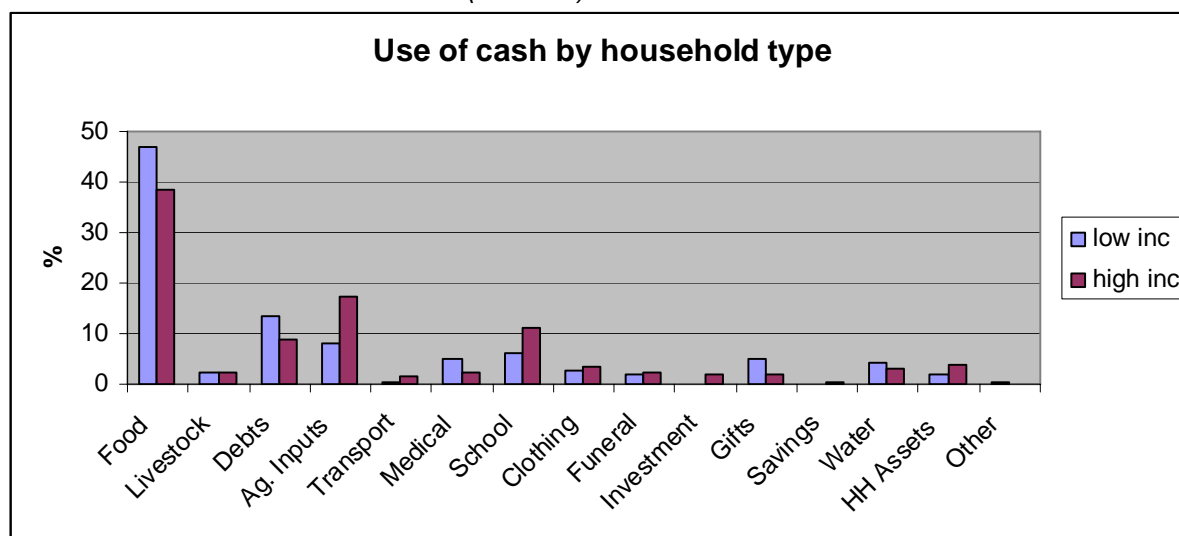
and staff costs. Basically, it is impossible to please all the people all of the time, but it seems that as far as payment frequency is concerned, GAA managed to please nearly all of the people. The consultant did not find one single beneficiary who would have preferred payment in food rather than cash.

Table 7: Responses to the statement 'the frequency of cash distribution suited my needs' (percent)			
response	type of site		total
	low income	high income	
strongly agree	76	98	91
agree	0	2	1
no opinion / don't know	0	0	0
disagree	24	0	8
strongly disagree	0	0	0

4.1.4 Use of Cash

Interviewees were asked to conduct a proportional piling exercise (using 100 beans to represent the total amount of cash they received over the project period) to show how they spent the cash they received – results are presented in chart 1 below.

Chart 1: Beneficiaries' Use of Cash (Percent)



Clear differences emerge between high and low income groups in the use of cash. Low income households tended to spend a higher percentage of the cash they received on food and debt repayments¹², while households that were paid more spent a greater proportion of their earnings on agricultural inputs and school fees. The results illustrate households' hierarchy of priorities for expenditure – food comes first, and once that has been taken care of other essentials like school fees, health care and agricultural inputs are covered.

The consultant only heard of one example of cash being wasted – by a man who spent his entire month's wages on drink. In practically all cases, though, the hunger situation was so bad that there was little disagreement within households about how cash should be used – food was the priority.

¹² most debts were accumulated by taking food on credit from shops

4.1.5 Co-ordination with Other Activities and Programmes

As already mentioned, the 'old' Mwingi District has been recently into several smaller districts under the ongoing GoK programme of decentralisation. NGOs coordinate their activities with local government through the mechanism of the District Development Committee, but the fact that, in most of the 'new' districts, the staff necessary to run this committee were not present meant that coordination was handled through the Committee that meets in 'old' Mwingi.

One of the most common complaints heard in the course of reviews of this kind of programme concerns under-coverage, i.e. portions of potential beneficiaries were excluded because of lack of spaces on the programme. One notable observation on this project is that the consultant did not here any complaints of this nature. This is probably because the project was implemented in coordination with the Actionaid / WFP FFW project and together the two interventions covered most of the vulnerable households in the area.

4.2 Impact Findings

FGDs and participatory ranking and scoring exercises were held in 'high' and 'low' income sites to ascertain the relative impact of the project on five areas of beneficiaries' livelihoods: health, education, food security, asset ownership, and self esteem.

Beneficiary informants were asked to indicate, by adding stones to or removing them from a nominal baseline, the change in their pre-project condition with regard to each of the five livelihood areas. They were then asked to allocate ten stones proportionally to six different causes of change – cash from CFW, WFP rations, income from business / petty trade, income from casual labour, rainfall and other reasons.

The impact of the cash transfers on local food prices and the perceived long term sustainability of the project were also explored using Likert scales and nominal baselines respectively.

4.2.1 Impact on Health

As was seen in section 4.1.4 on the use of cash, food accounted for the biggest item of expenditure with health coming in joint 5th place with that on water and gifts. Expenditure on both food and health have obvious beneficial impacts on household members' health status. As can be seen from table 8 below, beneficiaries deemed their health status to have improved by 9-10% since the beginning of the project; about 40% of this improvement was due to the cash, which enabled the purchase of food, healthcare and medicine. Rainfall – which resulted in improved harvests and supplies of water for humans and livestock - accounted for an estimated 26% of the improvement in households' health status.

Income from businesses (mainly selling tea and mandazi at the work sites) and remittances from family members (recorded under 'other') accounted for a total of 19% of the change.

Table 8: Perceptions of changes and reasons for changes in health status over project period							
type of site	Percentage change in pre-programme condition	Percentage contribution to change in pre-project condition					
		CFW	WFP rations	Business	Cas. Labour	Rainfall	Other
low income	+10	47	0	1	14	26	13
high income	+9	36	1	15	15	26	8
Total	+9	39	0	10	14	26	9

4.2.2 Impact on Education

In nearly all of the FGDs held during this evaluation, respondents flagged up the importance of cash for paying school expenses. Although there was some criticism that the frequency of the payment meant that cash recipients had to wait until the end of the month to clear debts that arose during the four weeks between payments, the advantage of this lump sum payment was that it was easier to pay off relatively large schooling-related bills. Overall, 9% of cash earned through CFW was used to pay school expenses, accounting for an estimated 38% of the 19% improvement in the general education situation over the project period (see table 9). Again, the importance of rainfall to improved school attendance is clear – accounting for between 21 and 31 percent of the improvement because children did not have to skip school to take animals to water or collect water for household consumption.

Cash from casual labour and business also made significant impacts on households' education situation. Table 9 (and tables 10 and 12) show that households from 'low income' project sites were far more likely than 'high income' households to have access to WFP food rations, because either they were registered on the programme for all or part of the project period or they had access to WFP food through family members or gifts.

Table 9: Perceptions of changes and reasons for changes in education status over project period							
type of site	Percentage change in pre-programme condition	Percentage contribution to change in pre-project condition					
		CFW	WFP rations	Business	Cas. Labour	Rainfall	Other
low income	+19	50	2	4	22	21	1
high income	+19	34	0	11	17	31	8
Total	+19	38	1	9	18	28	6

4.2.3 Impact on Food Security

Food purchases accounted for by far the largest use to which CFW earnings were put: overall 54% of cash was used to buy food¹³, with households from 'low income' sites spending a higher proportion of their earnings on food than 'high income' households. As can be seen from table 10 below, food FGD respondents considered that, overall, their food security situation had improved by 19%. The perceived improvement was significantly higher for 'low income' households (23% compared to 16% for 'high income' households), probably due to the WFP rations to which they appear to have had greater access; indeed, WFP rations are credited for 22% of the 'low income' groups' 23% improvement in food security status.

In 'low income' areas, CFW cash was the most significant cause of household food security improvements (42%), while in 'high income' areas, although cash was important, the chief cause of food security improvements was rainfall (31%). This is not to say that there was better rainfall in high income areas, rather it is a reflection of the fact that in these areas a lower proportion of cash was used for food purchases. It should be noted, however, that 'high income' households spent more of their cash (17% compared to 8%) on agricultural inputs, which will have had a positive impact on crop yields and, consequently, food security.

¹³ This 54% figure is derived from the 43% spent directly on food and the 11% spent on covering debts, which were largely accrued by taking food on credit from local shops.

Table 10: Perceptions of changes and reasons for changes in food security status over project period							
type of site	Percentage change in pre-programme condition	Percentage contribution to change in pre-project condition					
		CFW	WFP rations	Business	Cas. Labour	Rainfall	Other
low income	+23	42	22	2	14	21	0
high income	+16	29	1	15	15	31	9
Total	+19	32	7	11	14	28	7

There are two ways of calculating the amount of food that the monthly cash transfer (totalling about 1,440/= for each household), would enable recipients to purchase.

The first is to use the 2006 Kenya Integrated Household Baseline Survey figures and adjust them for inflation. With inflation running at an average of 15.5% per year from 2006 -2010¹⁴, each household member (adult equivalent) would require 1,728/= per month to meet minimum calorific and nutritional needs. Using this calculation, the transfer would enable households to meet about 15% of their food needs if the entire amount was spent on the range of foods that the KIHBS reckoned necessary to cover calorific and nutritional needs.

A second approach, one which probably reflects the reality of the situation in Mwingi more accurately, is to calculate the amount of maize (i.e. not a nutritionally balanced diet) that a household could purchase with their cash. The average price of maize in Mwingi in 2009 was 32.5/= per kilo (see figure 2 in section 1.2), enabling each beneficiary to buy about 44kg of maize per month if they used their entire transfer. 44kg of maize holds 155,320 calories. Assuming that each adult equivalent requires 2,250 calories daily, this 44kg of maize would cover the average household's minimum calorific needs for 11 days. However, as on average households spent about 55% of their cash on food (see section 4.1.4), one can surmise that the transfer provided each household with about six days worth of calories – or 20% of their minimum monthly needs.

Of course, some households would have been able to cover a portion of their food needs through their own production, but given the widespread harvest failure (estimated to be nearly 90% by ACF¹⁵) because of the drought that affected Mwingi and much of the rest of Kenya from 2006 to 2010, these households would have comprised a minority.

To be fair, the project's aim was to 'enhance' food security rather than make households food secure, and these enhancements are supposed to be achieved through the structures created as well as cash transfers. As mentioned earlier it is beyond the scope of this evaluation to look at the impact of the structures themselves, but beneficiaries believe that the impact will be considerable (see section 4.2.7). It is arguable, therefore, that while the food security impact of the project was not spectacular, it was significant.

¹⁴ www.indexmundi.com/kenya/inflation

¹⁵ Action Against Hunger and the Government of Kenya, October 2009, Integrated Smart Survey in Mwingi District, Kenya

4.2.4 Impact on Asset Ownership

The survey found that, over the period of the project, beneficiaries estimated that the value of their assets had increased by around 10% (see table 11 below). Although purchases of household assets, livestock and clothing accounted for only about 8% of interviewed beneficiaries' expenditure, this expenditure contributed to between a third to just over one half of the increase in value of households' assets. As would have been expected, purchases made were quite small – a few plates and kitchen implements; a chicken or maybe a goat – but given the levels of poverty prevalent in the area and the vulnerability of the beneficiaries, these were significant acquisitions for the households concerned.

As with other areas of impact, the good rainfall that Mwingi experienced from early 2010 onwards is credited with causing a significant amount of the increase in the value of assets – largely due to regenerating grazing which ensured the survival and enhanced the condition of livestock. Considering the widespread livestock deaths that the area experienced from 2006/7 due to drought, this perception is not surprising.

Table 11: Perceptions of changes and reasons for changes in asset ownership over project period							
type of site	Percentage change in pre-programme condition	Percentage contribution to change in pre-project condition					
		CFW	WFP rations	Business	Cas. Labour	Rainfall	Other
low income	+9	57	0	4	19	20	0
high income	+10	31	0	10	18	32	8
Total	+10	38	0	9	18	29	6

4.2.5 Impact on Self Esteem

One of the main differences between cash and food transfers concerns the feelings of empowerment that the transfer instils in a recipient. Evaluations of other CFW programmes by the consultant¹⁶ have found that beneficiaries value the both the responsibility of making decisions on how the cash is used and the freedom that cash gives them in terms of purchasing choices. Food transfers on the other hand, although appreciated, confer less freedom of choice. One woman recounted how she felt proud that for the first time she had used her ID card to collect some payment for something – the process made her feel that she 'counted'. Nearly every household interviewed indicated that they had gifted small amounts of cash to friends or relatives. This expenditure only accounted for 3% of the total, but the process of being able to make these gifts, however small, is central to strengthening and maintaining social capital within communities.

The results of the survey regarding self esteem are clear – overall beneficiaries reported a 27% increase in levels of self esteem since the start of the project period (see table 12). 41% of this improvement was attributed to the CFW project and 35% to rainfall, again reinforcing the importance of the end of the drought on physical and mental wellbeing. As in all other impact areas, households from 'high income' sites cite business activities as being responsible for a greater percentage in the increase in self esteem than those from 'low income' areas – a reflection of the fact that they were able to invest more and had a longer period during which they could operate their businesses (most largely depended on other beneficiaries' making purchases around the work sites).

¹⁶ E.g. Oxfam CFW programme in Turkana Kenya, 2009.

Table 12: Perceptions of changes and reasons for changes in self esteem over project period							
type of site	Percentage change in pre-programme condition	Percentage contribution to change in pre-project condition					
		CFW	WFP rations	Business	Cas. Labour	Rainfall	Other
low income	+31	41	14	3	13	30	0
high income	+25	41	0	8	6	36	9
Total	+27	41	4	7	8	35	6

4.2.6 Impact on Markets

One common objection to any scheme which injects cash into an area where markets are relatively inefficient is the risk that it may cause inflation. There is some evidence that this happened in isolated instances during the Mwingi CFW project as shown in table 13 (below), where 10% of households agreed that the increase in effective demand caused traders to hike prices, generally of staple foods like maize. In one instance the price was raised by 5/= per kilo on the day that cash was distributed, although this could have been a function of normal price increases.

In the majority of cases, however, the general perception was that prices did not increase as a result of the transfer and, in fact, over 80% of respondents reported that shop keepers anticipated the imminent spike in demand by bringing in more stocks to satisfy demand (see table 13). It is possible that the widespread FFW activity in the area helped to curb the demand from shops.

Table13: Responses to statements regarding the project's impact on markets (percent)						
response	The increase in the amount of cash in the local economy resulted in a greater supply of food in local markets			The increase in the amount of cash in the local economy resulted in an increase in the price of food in local markets		
	type of site		total	type of site		total
	low income	high income		low income	high income	
strongly agree	72	78	76	0	14	9
agree	4	6	5	0	2	1
no opinion / don't know	24	2	9	8	2	4
disagree	0	14	9	40	14	23
strongly disagree	0	0	0	52	68	63

These findings would indicate that the fear of monopolistic behaviour is often overstated. In rural communities in Kenya there may be two or three shopkeepers, each of which relies on a core clientele for business. To keep his/her clients inducements must be offered, including competitive pricing, friendly service, and often selling goods on credit. For these traders, hiking prices to make a short term gain would have lost them customers in the long run. Many beneficiaries mentioned that, because the shopkeepers knew that they were registered on the CFW scheme and would be paid at the end of the month, they were more disposed towards letting them take items on credit.

4.2.7 Sustainability of Impact

There is no doubt that the cash transfers had a significant impact on recipients' health, education (in terms of ability to pay fees and maintain attendance), food security, asset ownership and self esteem, but the size of the transfer was only sufficient to have a transient impact in these areas, it was not 'life changing'. Longer term and sustainable project impact will be bought about by the structures created rather than the cash disbursed. Although these impacts were difficult to measure during the course of this evaluation – largely because a lot of the structures were not fully completed – the consultant attempted to get an idea of the way that livelihoods would be affected in the future through the use of a scoring tool. Respondents were asked to add or remove stones from a nominal pre-project baseline, to indicate their overall wellbeing at the time of the survey (May 2010) and their predicted wellbeing in one year's time (May 2011).

As can be seen from table 14, the general outlook is pretty optimistic. All who were interviewed perceived that life is better for them now than it was before the project began, and expect that conditions will continue to improve – to the extent of being nearly doubly better than at the start of the project - over the coming year. While these findings must be treated with caution, as they are based on a general perception rather than any measurement of wellbeing indicators, it is interesting to explore the reasons behind the confidence.

Table 14: Predicted increase in livelihood wellbeing against nominal baseline of 10 for pre-intervention situation				
type of site		pre intervention	May 2010	May 2011 prediction
low income	Mean	10	16	18
	SD	0	2	3
high income	Mean	10	16	19
	SD	0	2	2
total	Mean	10	16	19
	SD	0	2	2

Two main reasons for optimism about the future emerge from all sites visited. The first is the reduction in opportunity cost of fetching water brought about by the new structures. Some households had to travel over 20km to fetch water at the height of the drought – this puts a massive strain on household labour resources, so clearly any intervention that reduces a two day round trip to a few hours is very valuable. One woman said that now the sub-surface dam in her area was in place her donkey would get a rest and a holiday!

The opportunities for Income Generating Activities that the water source presents are a second reason for optimism. The consultant saw an example of a successful group-managed vegetable plot / tree nursery, viable because of a GAA-constructed sub-surface dam, and many of the other groups interviewed for this survey expressed the hope that they would be able to pursue similar activities once their structures were complete. Some groups also envisaged using the water source to make bricks, although the environmental issues surrounding this – particularly regarding firewood needed for 'burning' bricks could be an issue. In all cases the structures' management committees foresaw income being generated by selling water to non-group members.

While all community members appreciate that a fee must be paid in order to maintain the structure, it remains to be seen how well these banded pricing and access arrangements hold up if (when) Mwingi is affected by a severe multi-year drought again. Intra-community conflict could arise, for example, if the management committee decide that there is only sufficient water for group members to use, and others must go elsewhere. Some groups

have tried to circumvent this issue by allowing others to join the group as long as they pay a membership fee. The problem is that, because the work on the structure has been done, new members cannot 'pay' by contributing labour – fees of around 1,500/= (depending on the site) must be paid in cash.

4.2.8 Impacts on Non-Working Cash Recipients

One of the attributes of the CFW project is that non-working beneficiaries were treated in the same way as working beneficiaries. As seen in section 4.1.1, fair and transparent targeting combined with synergies with the WFP Food distribution, meant that coverage of the most vulnerable was fairly comprehensive. Furthermore, non-working beneficiaries were entitled to full membership of the structures' users' groups, so in theory, should be entitled to a share of any income issuing from sale of produce or water.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE PROGRAMMING

When evaluating the overall success of the cash component of the GAA Drought Impact Mitigation Programme, it is important to consider what the project set out to achieve. The objective of the cash transfer was basically to enhance beneficiary households' food security and protect their assets during a time of acute drought-induced stress. In other words, the cash was supposed to help recipients to meet their minimum food and non-food consumption needs, not enable them to restock, save and invest (the structures built by the project and the multipliers that they should create should facilitate this). It is also important to remember that NGOs do not operate in a vacuum – there are other forces and events which influence people's lives and effect the positive and negative changes which are observable within households over the project period. In the case of this intervention, rainfall after a prolonged period of drought had a significant positive impact on all aspects of life in rural Mwingi.

This survey shows that there was a significant improvement in CFW beneficiaries' livelihood status over the project period: health was deemed to have improved by 9%, education by 19%, food security by 19%, the value of household assets by 10% and self esteem by 27%. In all cases the cash received through working on the programme was deemed to have been the main reason for improvement in these five areas – responsible for between 32% and 41% of the changes which occurred; rainfall also made an important contribution, with beneficiaries attributing it with between 26% and 35% of impact. Impacts were transient, but that is all the cash element was supposed to do. Had the evaluation found evidence of savings or large scale asset acquisition by beneficiaries, one would have to conclude that remuneration was pegged too high, and the project could have impacted on a greater number of households by reducing payment size and increasing the number of participants. In the event, this was not the case: wages were low – generally below the market rate – but sufficient to enable moderate but valued increases in food and non-food related expenditure.

From a 'process' point of view, the cash element of the project was well planned and implemented. Most of the problems which can sometimes be observed in other CFW programmes (e.g. under-coverage, disputes over inclusion within the community, security of cash in transit) were avoided through a combination of sound planning and coordination with other actors in the area – notably the Actionaid/WFP FFW effort.

There are three issues which GAA may consider looking at to increase impact on beneficiaries and/or enable more beneficiaries to be targeted. First, it may be worth piloting a system whereby labour constrained households have to do less work to earn their daily wage; this would allow them the time to complete their other duties such as child care and household chores. Second, in a variation on this first theme, wages could be set in bands – with beneficiaries from households with more members being paid more than those from households with fewer members. A third recommendation is that GAA ensure that the principle of 'flexitime' – basically allowing beneficiaries to complete two days worth of work in one day if they so wish – operates in practice. This would particularly benefit group members who have to travel long distances to reach the work site.

Actioning the first two changes would require more demographic data to be collected during the targeting process, but this is something which could be done under the auspices of CBT, as the information required would be widely known by community members. It would also necessitate coordination with other development actors in the area, particularly those operating FFW and CFW schemes, to minimise the prospect of beneficiaries shopping around for the best 'deal'. A well monitored pilot of these 'means tested' work/payment norms should yield enough evidence to make a case for or against rolling such a scheme out further and should enable GAA to communicate to donors the value of *quality* of the impact on targeted households, rather than just quantity of households covered.

GAA should look into the reasons why the third issue – that of 'flexitime' – did not function properly in this project. Most likely it was to do with the extra administrative burden that it

would place on supervisors, indicating that a solution would probably involve a combination of better training and higher remuneration for CPAs.

Finally, in about a year's time, GAA should assess the sustainability and functioning of the users groups formed for the purposes of managing the water catchment structures, with a particular focus on whether they are deriving the benefits they anticipated, and how (if at all) the wider community is benefiting from the resource and the social dynamics this is creating.

ANNEX 1: DATA COLLECTION TEMPLATES

FGD 1: Beneficiary Perceptions of Aspects of Targeting, Remuneration rates, work Norms and Cash Distribution						
Location:				# in FGD:		
				M / F FGD:		
Statement	strongly agree	agree	don't know / no opinion	disagree	strongly disagree	probe
1. The targeting process was understood by everyone in the community						problems
2. The targeting process was fair						What was unfair
3. A clear dispute resolution procedure was in place						What was it, was it used, articulate
4. The work site was within easy walking distance of my house						
5. The remuneration was sufficient for the work inputs required						What should the rate have been
6. The remuneration was equivalent to the market rate in the area						What is the local rate
7. The work requirement meant that other household tasks were not completed						What was not done
8. The programme resulted in intra-community conflict						What happened
9. The cash distribution site was within easy walking distance of my house						What is considered easy walking distance?
10. The length of time I spent waiting at the distribution site for cash distributions was acceptable						Problems etc. what was the problem
11. I felt safe transporting cash home						Any examples of where things went wrong
12. The cash distribution frequency suited my needs						What would have been more suitable
13. I would have preferred to be paid with equivalent amount of food rather than cash						
14. I had control over how the cash was used						Who took control
15. Supply of food in markets increased as a result of increased cash in system						
16. Price of food in markets increased as a result of increased cash in system						What were changes – were they seasonal or attributable to programme

FGD 2: Beneficiaries' Perceptions of Project's Impact							
Location:				# in FGD:			
				M / F FGD:			
Area of impact	% increase on pre-project condition	Percentage contribution made by project and non project factors to change in circumstances					
		Cash from CFW	WFP	Casual Labour	Business	Rainfall	Other non-project factors
Health status of HH							
Food security status of HH							
Value of assets owned by HH							
Self esteem of beneficiary							
Education of children in HH							

[illegible]

ANNEX 2: EVALUATION WORKPLAN

Evaluation of KEN 1067 Mitigation of Drought Impact through WASH and Cash for Work in Highly Affected ASAL Areas of Eastern Kenya

Proposed Work Plan

Mike Brewin, March 2010

1. Evaluation Focus

The evaluation will assess six aspects of the programme as indicated in table 1 below.

Table 1: Evaluation Focus Themes

Appropriateness	
Questions	Approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Was sufficient food and other essential goods available locally to be purchased? Were markets functioning to deliver affordable food and other essential items? Were markets accessible? Did recipients prefer cash over food? Was the impact of the work requirement on labour markets and household livelihood strategies assessed? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interviews with project staff. Key informant interviews / scoring exercises with local food traders in the communities and local authorities GAA / WFP market price data
Coverage	
Questions	Approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How were beneficiaries targeted? Was targeting perceived as fair? Did the use of cash make targeting more difficult? Were wages set at self targeting levels? Were labour poor households excluded from cash for work? What provisions were made for those unable to work? Were women able to participate? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focus group discussions / scoring exercises with members of the community and village committees In-depth interviews with households that received cash and that did not
Connectedness	
Questions	Approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How did the cash transfers interact with other forms of assistance? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Key informant interviews with GAA staff and other agencies Focus group discussions / scoring exercises
Impact	
Questions	Approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What was the effect of the income on people's livelihoods? What multiplier effects may have occurred due to the cash? What effect did the project have on local markets for food and labour? How did the work requirement impact on livelihood strategies (especially within labour poor households)? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focus group discussions / scoring exercises with members of the community and committees involved in implementation In-depth interviews with households that received cash from the project Key informant interviews with local traders and shopkeepers in the communities and local authorities

Table 1 cont...

Effectiveness	
Questions	Approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Was cash delivered in the right size of payment, place, and time for the recipients? What did people spend the cash on? What costs were borne by the beneficiary in receiving and using the cash? Did beneficiaries see payment levels as fair and adequate? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Key informant interviews with local traders and shopkeepers in the communities, and key local authorities Focus group discussions / scoring exercises with members of the community and village relief/development committees In-depth interviews of households that received cash Documentation
Efficiency and cost effectiveness	
Questions	Approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How efficient and appropriate were the delivery systems used for disbursements? What were the management costs/requirements in implementing the project? What was the total cost of the project to GAA per beneficiary? What were the external costs borne by the beneficiary? What was the total cost of comparable food aid projects per beneficiary? What limitations would there be to running the project on a larger scale? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Key informant interviews with programme and finance staff Focus group discussions with programme team Focus group discussions / scoring exercises with members of the community and village relief/development committees In-depth interviews of households that received cash from the project Documentation from the programme of cash transfers and food aid

2. Timing

Work will be executed as per the schedule in table 2 below.

Table 2: Timing of Activities

Timing	Activity	Number of days
April	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Meetings with GAA staff Nairobi and background reading 	1.5
Monday 3rd May	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Drive to Mwingi Interviews with Project staff 	1
Tuesday 4th May – Saturday 8th May	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Beneficiary interviews and focus group discussions Interviews with local authorities / other NGOs 	5
Sunday 9th May	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Return to Nairobi 	0.5
May 10th to 31st	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Further interviews with GAA staff and other NGOs implementing cash for work Presentation and discussion of initial findings with GAA staff Report writing – Final Report delivered by 31st May 2010 	9
Total Days		17