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IMPACT EVALUATION

Evaluation of the Impact of Food for Assets on Livelihood Resilience in Uganda (2005 – 2010)

A Mixed Method Impact Evaluation

Vol II - Annexes

January, 2014

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Commissioned by the
WFP Office of Evaluation

Report number: OEV/2013/007

WFP World Food Programme wfp.org

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Annex 1: Summary Terms of Reference - Evaluation of the Impact of Food for Assets on Livelihood Resilience - Phase II (Uganda) 2013

Subject and Focus of the Evaluation

Foods for Assets (FFA) programmes form one of WFP's largest areas of investment over time. Measured by food tonnage, and level of direct expenses between 2006-2010, FFA programmes were the second largest of WFP's food distribution modalities, after General Food Distribution.

FFA programmes are intended to restore or build specific assets that contribute to livelihoods improvement, resilience and food security. Typical examples include rebuilding infrastructure, supporting access to markets, restoring the natural resource base, or protecting the environment, and reclaiming marginal or wasted land among others. Many FFA interventions also aim to reduce risk and increase the capacity of households to manage shocks.

Some FFA activities aim to improve impoverished and depleted natural environments by arresting soil erosion, reducing floods, increasing moisture into the soil profile, improving water management, and increasing vegetation cover, thus enhancing the land's capacity to withstand stresses without losing productivity. By improving the environmental base upon which many people depend for agricultural and forestry related livelihoods FFA can help strengthen the ability of food-insecure people to manage future risks and withstand shocks. If applied at a significant scale, FFA may also contribute to reduce climatic risks or foster adaptation of communities to climate change induced effects.

Not all food transfers conditional on work can be considered to be asset building. Some do not create durable productive assets, but rather address the immediate food insecurity of the participants by providing food for a non-asset producing activity.
Some FFA activities may focus on lighter activities or simple repair of assets (such as in the case of low-technology, low-risk interventions. Where higher –technology, higher risk interventions are planned, more sophisticated and integrated approaches are needed that bring in the necessary technical capacity on the ground.

FFA in Uganda

WFP has been present in Uganda since 1963 with both humanitarian and development operations but it is over the last decade that it has embarked on more development oriented agenda.

Many parts of Uganda are prone to natural disasters like drought which are increasing in frequency and scale compounded by soil degradation. Internal skirmishes (such as cattle raiding) are still occurring. This, significantly affect the productivity of households, their livelihoods and ability to cope with shocks. Rural people depend for their food and income on fragile livelihoods, such as subsistence farming and/or daily agricultural wage labour or fishing. Between 2002 and 2011, FFA took place under 3 Protracted Relief and Rehabilitation Operations and 2

Country Programmes designed to support communities to mitigate the effects of natural disasters and increase the long-term resilience of vulnerable people.

Objectives of the Evaluation

The evaluation serves both accountability and learning purposes. The main objectives are to:

- Evaluate the outcomes and impact achieved so far (intended or unintended) by FFA on livelihood resilience;
- Identify changes needed to enable fulfilment of the potential impact of FFA on livelihoods resilience;
- Provide information about how FFA activities can be better aligned with new policies and guidance.

This evaluation is one in a series of five country evaluations to be carried out from 2012-2014.

The evaluations will assess the medium term impact (impacts seen after 5-7 years) of past WFP operations where Food for Assets activities aimed to maintain or recover livelihoods and build livelihood resilience. In these evaluations impact is defined as the "lasting and/or significant effects of the intervention – social, economic, environmental or technical – on individuals, gender and age-groups, households, communities and institutions. Impact can be intended or unintended, positive and negative, macro (sector) and micro (household)." The evaluations will focus on creation or recovery of natural resource assets (soil, water, agricultural and forests) but also recognize the contributions of infrastructure and access assets to livelihoods resilience.

Users of the Evaluation

Key stakeholders include those directly involved in the design and implementation of FFA projects including the FFA participants themselves. The Government of Uganda at the national and sub-national level is one of the key partners with WFP in the planning and implementation of FFA interventions. In addition, a large number of cooperating partners, UN agencies such as FAO, and internation and national NGOs work together with WFP to implement FFA activities, provide agricultural inputs and technical assistance. Donor agencies that support FFA activities have a direct interest in the findings of the evaluation.

Evaluation Questions & Methodology

The following three main evaluation questions will be addressed by the evaluations:

- **Question 1:** What positive or negative impacts have FFA activities had on individuals within participating households and communities?
- **Question 2:** What factors were critical in affecting outcomes and impact?
- **Question 3:** How could the FFA activities be improved to address findings emerging from the analysis in Key Questions 1 and 2?

The impact evaluation takes a mixed method approach. The four main components are:

- Quantitative survey of impacts at the household and community level;
- Qualitative assessment of impacts at the household and community level;
- Technical appraisal of assets and associated biophysical changes;
- Social and institutional analysis of networks and linkages.

Secondary data e.g. national household level surveys, census data and WFP monitoring data on inputs and activities will be used to complement primary data collected.

Roles and Responsibilities

The evaluation team, from the firm IOD-PARC includes both internationally and nationally recruited members and has a strong technical background in conducting independent evaluations of this nature. The team is complemented by a local company that will conduct the field surveys.
The evaluation is funded and managed by WFP's Office of Evaluation. Elise Benoit is the WFP evaluation manager for the evaluation in Uganda, and Jamie Watts is the WFP senior evaluation manager for the series of 5 evaluations.

Timing and Key Milestones

Inception mission: 18th-23rd Feb 2013
Evaluation mission: 25th March – 26th April
Reports:

- Draft evaluation report available for comment by August 2013.
- The Summary Evaluation Report will be presented to WFP's Executive Board in February 2014.

Findings will be actively disseminated and the final evaluation report will be publicly available on WFP's website.

Annex 2: Evaluation Matrix

Sub-question	Indicators	Benchmarks	Source(s) / tools
Question 1: What was the WFP FFA programme in Uganda?			
Alumni group interviews (national semi-structured interviews)	Why; what; where; when; how; who with; who for; who without; who not for; etc		PRRO and CP programme documents and budget revisions
Comparison of 1.1. and 1.2	Why; what; where; when; how; who with; who for; who without; who not for; etc		Alumni group interviews (national semi-structured interviews)
1.3 Reasons for variation between design and implementation of the Theories of Change	Drivers of change, responsiveness and timeliness of adaptations, assumptions that had to be modified		Comparison of 1.1. and 1.2
Question 2 What positive or negative impacts have FFA activities had on (individuals within) participating households and host communities?			
2.1a To what extent are created assets functioning today?	Do the assets exist, in what form? Comparison of assets to technical standards.	WFP FFA guidance 2011: Rapid technical reference & toolkit for FFA (Annex D1 of FFA Manual)	Verification protocol
2.1b To what extent did assets function for their intended purpose when constructed?	The original intended purpose of each asset. Most significant changes recalled by original beneficiaries.	Reconstructed theories of change in case histories	Verification protocol and HH P1 and P2 surveys
2.2a What bio-physical outcomes (i.e. erosion, water availability, flooding, and vegetation cover, production from agriculture or forestry) have been associated with the assets developed?	Most significant changes estimated by current users (livelihood assets) Most significant changes estimated by technical observer (infrastructure assets) Effective lifespan of the asset	Menu citing primary categories of FFA activity purposes, WFP FFA guidance 2011: Module C, page 5	HH P2 survey Verification protocol FGD
2.2b What socio-political outcomes (protection, security, accompaniment) have been associated with the assets	Qualified most significant changes estimated by original beneficiaries. Effective lifespan of the asset-in-context.	Reconstructed theories of change in case histories	HH P1 survey

Sub-question	Indicators	Benchmarks	Source(s) / tools
developed?			
2.3a What effects have the biophysical outcomes had on land productivity?	Qualified most significant changes estimated by technical observer Estimated linkage to P4P, NAADS, NUSAF and complementary FAO activities (inc. FFS).	Reconstructed theories of change in case histories	Verification protocol and FGD
2.3b What effects have the socio-political outcomes had on governance, disaster preparedness, and adaptive capacity.	Qualified most significant changes recalled by original beneficiaries	Reconstructed theories of change in case histories	HH P1 survey
2.4 What effects have the bio-physical and socio-political outcomes had on the food security and livelihoods of households and communities?	Household asset score Community asset score Quantified most significant change reported by users	WFP FFA guidance 2011: Annex E1 Case histories contextual data on livelihoods and food security	HH P2 survey FGD
2.5 How were impacts distributed among different beneficiary groups (IDPs, refugees, hosts, returnees, wealth groups in Karamoja), and between men and women?	Number of assets and quality (intended and current purposes) Access and control of transfers, assets, & income/consumption Workload (construction) Workload and costs (maintenance) Relationships		FGD HH P1 survey HH P2 survey
2.6a What effects did FFA outcomes have on women and girls, including distribution of workload, access and control of resources, and empowerment?	Change in access and control of resources Change in protection Change in workloads Change in level of voice and influence	Enhanced Commitments to Women NUSAF PWP design review	FGD HH P1 survey HH P2 survey
2.6b What effects did participation in FFA have on women including the effects of workloads, access to food/income, and participation in decision making.	Access, control and distribution of food rations Effects of workload on women Change in level of voice and influence	Enhanced Commitments to Women	HH P1 Survey

2.7 To what extent did FFA activities and the assets built through FFA affect the resilience of communities and households in terms of livelihoods and coping with shocks.	Coping strategies index Qualified most significant change recalled by beneficiaries	WFP FFA guidance 2011: Annex E1 Vulnerability to Resilience framework Joint Regional Resilience Concept: UNICEF, FAO, WFP	HH P2 survey FGD
2.8 To what extent did the benefits of FFA interventions have an impact on other, non-participant communities and institutions?	Changes in conditions of land owners Changes in presence and capacity of local government Number and quality of assets transferred out of treatment areas	NUSAF PWP design review	FGD HH P2 Survey
2.9 What were the main costs related to asset development, including opportunity and maintenance costs?	Extent of maintenance reported Actual maintenance costs, who contributes What beneficiaries were unable to do whilst undertaking FFA, and what this meant Effect on livelihood programmes with lower levels of transfers	NUSAF PWP design review	Verification Protocol HH P1 survey
2.10 To what extent were FFA activities designed to minimise maintenance costs and develop ownership.	Appropriateness of design Link to skills training Participation of people and institutions Level of handover to sustainable structures	WFP FFA guidance 2011 NUSAF PWP design review	Verification protocol Community profile
Question 3: What factors were critical in affecting outcomes and impact?			
3.1 Planning and design processes	Technical materials and expertise available at the time Power of selection and approval of activities (level of participation) Power of selection of participants (targeting) Mechanisms for operationalizing Enhanced Commitments to Women Protection from violence and abduction Presence and legitimacy of local governance institutions	WFP FFA guidance 2011 NUSAF PWP design review	FGD LC Interviews National interviews HH P1 survey
3.2a Strategic context	National policies and agreed strategies Regional conflicts Coherence with WFP global strategy		Programme docs Secondary data National interviews

	Local governance capacity Political economy		LC interviews
3.2b Tactical and operational contexts	Security and violence levels, access to land and night commuting Coordination mechanisms/ plans Shocks during implementation Type, capacity & connectedness of complementary activities		Operational reports Secondary data National interviews
3.3a Intensity of treatment	Duration of WFP operations and localisation of presence Level of FFA compared to FFL, FFH, FFE, humanitarian NFIs, and P4P Concentration of FFA activities in time/space Concentration of rations in time/space		Verification protocol Secondary data (WFP)
3.3b Implementation issues and adaptations	Size of FFA project groups Ration value compared to recommended, other rations, cash and vouchers, and market prices for labour Timing of activities relative to seasonal calendars Household size/ sharing of food		HH P1 survey LC interviews Project reports
3.4 Organisational capacity and performance	Human resources Funding levels and types International support provided to CO Engagement with national institutions, policies and mechanisms		Secondary data National interviews
Question 4: How can FFA design be improved to address findings?			
4.1 Contexts of acute vulnerability & dynamic complex emergencies	WFP FFA guidance 2011 V2R framework		
4.2 Contexts of chronic vulnerability, especially Karamoja	NUSAF 2 menu of activities WFP FFA guidance 2011 V2R framework		

Annex 3: Team members, Quality Assurance and Timeline of Activities

The Team

The team was composed of four consultants – Julian Gayfer (Team Leader), Joseph Barnes (Senior Evaluator), Agnes Kayondo (Evaluator) and Virginia Nkwanzi (Evaluator) supported by Ipsos a research organisation based in Uganda.

Timeline of Activity

Activity	Date
Inception Mission	Feb 18th – 22nd
Inception Report	March 1st (draft submitted) March 15th (revised submitted)
Planning and background work for verification survey	w.b. March 4th& March 11th
Preparation for piloting of village case approach	w.b. March 11th
Verification exercise	w.b. March 18th for 3 weeks (including analysis)
Pilot to test village case study idea	March 19th – 26th
Fieldwork on detailed village case studies In country debriefing Evaluation Team analysis – main lines (in-country) Continue analysis and drafting of report Present Emerging Findings to WFP (video conference) Submit draft zero evaluation report	w.b. April 8th – 26th April 26th April 27th – 29th May 17th June June 28th

Quality Assurance

Key elements within the quality assurance steps undertaken by the evaluation team included training of all field staff, including a briefing from WFP Uganda prior to the first verification field work. This training included discussion concerning ethical behaviour during the evaluation. Wherever feasible to do so, researchers identified key informants and asset locations in collaboration with the longstanding national/ staff/ national alumni group, WFP SO staff, and local authorities.

The field research was rolled out iteratively, allowing methods to be tested and adapted. This was overseen directly by Joseph Barnes, one of the international team members, who worked alongside the second week of the verification mission (24-29 March) to prototype the community case study tools. Following the initial verification missions we reviewed the sample frame for community case studies, assessed how to best sample cases in order to fulfil the Evaluation Matrix, and suggested and any substantive changes to the approach WFP Office of Evaluation.

Data was scanned and reviewed in real time and overseen and cleaned by a dedicated Ipsos data manager, Virginia Nkawazi. Agnes Kayondo, based in Kampala, has provided additional oversight and maintained ongoing communication with the WFP

Uganda alumni group to ensure that the emerging trends are reliable given their experience of working in the focus area. Emerging findings have already been communicated to the senior programme team in WFP.

WFP has developed an Evaluation Quality Assurance System (EQAS) based on the UNEG norms and standards and good practice of the international evaluation community (ALNAP and DAC). It sets out process maps with in-built steps for quality assurance and templates for evaluation products. It also includes checklists for feedback on quality for each of the evaluation products. EQAS has been systematically applied during the course of this evaluation and relevant documents have been provided to the evaluation team.

Annex 4: People Met

People Met by Team Leader at Inception meeting (06-02-13) in Rome

Name	Affiliation
Niels Balzer	Policy Officer, PSC
Scott Ronchini	Programme Officer, ODXP
Volli Carucci	Programme Advisor, ODXP
Randal Purcell	Sr. Advisor PSC
Richard Choularton	Sr. Policy Officer PSC

People Met in country [to be completed]

Name	Affiliation
Albert Mulli	Programme Development Manager, ACTED
Amos Mwesigye	WFP
Andrew Okello	WFP
Anna Knutzen	UNICEF
Charles Abula	Image Consultant, 2008 WFP FFA in Northern Uganda Impact Evaluation
Charles Iballe	WFP (COMPAS/ logistics)
Christine Wright	CO Rep, ACTED
Daniel Molla	WFP: Assessment Monitoring and Evaluation Unit
Dianna Darsney de Salcedo,	Vulnerable Population Unit Leader, USAID
Dorothy Nabiwenba-Bushara	WFP
Emmanuel Kailie	Country Director, ASB
Nghania Frehd	OPM: Monitoring & Evaluation Specialist
Geoffrey Ebong	WFP
George Osege	Programme Soroti Field Office, ASB
Gilbert Buzu	WFP
Pius Ojara	DFID: Northern Uganda lead
Howard Stanten	DFID: Climate change Adviser
James Muwonge	Director of Socio-econmic Surveys, UBOS
Irene	UNICEF
James Robert Okoth	National Programme Manager, DDRU
James Muwonge	Director of Socio-econmic Surveys, UBOS at UBOS
Jeff Mungu	PO VAM Field Oper, DRR &EP
Josephine Etima-Ocilaje	Ocilaje, WFP
Jowan Robina	Director Finance, ASB
Joyce Achom	WFP
Judith Kiiza	Pipline Programme
Laurence Oroma	USAID
Mario Samaja	SRCoord, DDRU.
Michael Dunford	WFP: DCD- OIC
Nelson Okao	WFP
Patricia Eiyo-Elotu	WFP
Paul Mbaka	WFP
Rachael Waterhouse	DFID
Sarah Laugton	WPM: Head of Programme Unit
Timothy Lubanga	OPM: Assistant Commissioner for M&E
Vera Meyer	WPM: Head of Food and Nutrition Security Sub Unit

John Alinaitwe	OPM: Refugee Desk Officer, Arua Regional Office.

Debrief Participants

Name	Affiliation
Abdirahman Meygag	Sr Regional Programme Advisor
Agnes Kayondo	IE FFA Evaluation team
Amos Mwesigye	PO, Assessment Monitoring and Evaluation Unit (and IE-FFA CO focal point)
Charles Abola	IE FFA Evaluation consultant
Darryl Miller	Head of Assessment and M&E, a.i.
Dorothy Nabiwemba	SPA, Assessment, Monitoring and Evaluation Unit
Geoffrey Ebong	PO, Partnership and Policy
Hamidu Tusiime	PO FNSA sub-unit
Helen Wedgwood	OEV Director
Jamie Watts	OEV
Jean Noel Gentile	OSZPR
Jesse Wood	Regional Donor Relations Officer
Michael Dunford	Deputy Country Director
Nathan Mayende	IE FFA Evaluation IPSOS
Nicholas Lakwonyero	PO, Food and Nutrition Security Sub-Unit
Patricia Colbert	OMG
Richard Choularton	OSZPI
Robin Landis	Regional Info & Knowledge Management Officer
Rosie Bright	Regional Country Strategies Officer
Ross Smith	OEV
Sally Burrows	OEV
Sarah Laughton	Head of Programme
Scott Ronchini	OSZPR
Simon Dradri	Regional Market Analyst
Stella Ogalo,	PO, Food and Nutrition Security Sub-Unit
Vera Mayer	Head of FNSA sub-unit
Volli Carucci	OSZPR

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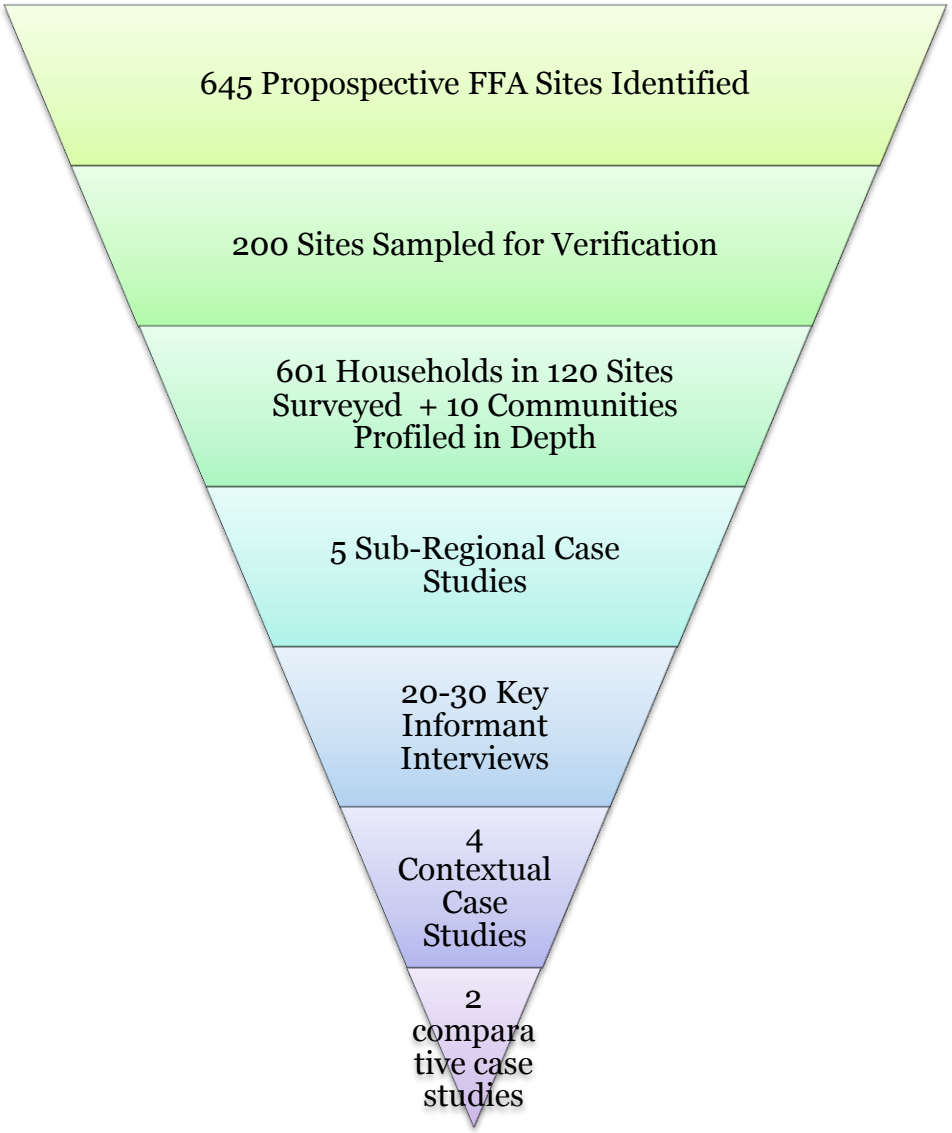
Annex 6: Evaluation Methodology

Methodology Overview



Description of data collection tools and methods used in the evaluation

Method and sample size	Description
Asset Verification and Assessment 200 sites / 646 identified possible sites 90% confidence	Survey teams will visit a random sample of 200 sites based on WFP records of FFA distributions and estimated assets types (derived from WFP staff and local government recall). This will be used to identify which assets are where. The asset will be photographed, the location plotted, and an asset assessment will be undertaken based on the WFP FFA Manual standards (for natural resource assets) or the NUSAF 2 standards (for infrastructure assets). Based on these standards, the asset will be allocated a group of fuzzy-set scores (5-95) for the following aspects: Siting of the asset in relation to the landscape and population Design of the asset in relation to quality standards Current state of repair of the asset overall Connectedness of the asset to other surrounding assets (social services and markets for infrastructure), other natural resource assets The asset verification process will generate a final sample frame from which case studies will be developed.
Community Profile 10 communities (average 2 per sub-region)	A stratified sample of two communities per sub-region will be developed based on the distribution of asset types, intensity of WFP FFA and the four meta-contexts used by the evaluation. Community Profiles will be developed based on the Enhanced Community Asset Score from the WFP FFA Manual, secondary data analysis, Key Informant Interviews with local councils, Community Focus Group Discussions, and institutional analyses.
Household Survey (P2) 600 households (based on 5 per asset for sub-sample of 120 verified assets) (average 120 per sub-region) 99% confidence	For a sample of verified natural resource assets, a household survey will be undertaken using the Enhanced Household Asset Score from the WFP FFA Manual, Annex E1. This will be the main quantitative data-gathering tool. Households will also be interviewed and asked to provide demographic data and to identify the most significant livelihood and social changes (both positive and negative) resulting from the asset. Where possible, these changes will be quantified. Overall, it is estimated that 600 households surrounding 120 assets will be surveyed. Selection of households will be made using a randomly selected transect walk. P2 represents the second population group (ex-post) in Real World Evaluation. Where the household was also present during the construction of the asset, the protocol for Household Survey (P1) will also be used.
Community Focus Group Discussions 20 FGD in 10 communities (average 2 per sub-region)	In each community that has been profiled, there will be two Focus Groups convened from 1) community leaders, and 2) representatives of women and youth associations. Focus Groups Discussions will provide insight into the causal mechanisms for impacts on livelihoods, food security, and resilience. Using process tracking, they will actively explore alternative explanations for changes, in addition to FFA. The use of twin focus groups will allow insights to be triangulated and to assess differences in the experience of FFA impacts across different gender groups.
Semi-structured interviews with LCs	During the asset verification process, enumerators will work with local councils to identify where assets may be located. This will provide the opportunity to undertake short interviews that will be

	used to address contextual and implementation issues, in addition to building up an institutional analysis.
Institutional Analysis	Institutional analyses of where other agencies have worked will be based on the Guatemala model and built up using several layers of data: Secondary analysis of humanitarian cluster records and agency evaluations Semi-structured interviews with WFP partners Investigations during focus group discussions, local council interviews, and household surveys.
Household tracking and interviews (P1) Minimum 2 per community	The community focus group discussions will be used to identify the possible locations of displaced peoples who had originally participated in FFA activities. Where possible, a small *n* sample of these households will be tracked and interviewed to understand the experience of implementation and the nature the impacts on their households. The interviews will be based on the V2R framework for resilience. P1 stands for the primary population (mid-term) in Real World Evaluation.
Semi-structured interviews and secondary data analysis at the national level	Contextual case studies will be built up using a combination of qualitative recall, quantitative analysis, and fuzzy-set indicators for the following factors: Security Shocks Intensity of WFP operations Level of population movement Level of coordination Intensity of complementary activities Penetration of national governance capacity Key Informant Interviews and secondary data will also be combined to address lessons for the future, and will consider the implementation of FFA using the OECD DAC criteria: effectiveness, efficiency, relevance, sustainability, coverage (including equity), connectedness, and coordination (including partnership).

Annex 7: Fuzzy Set Indicators and Process

Evaluation Design

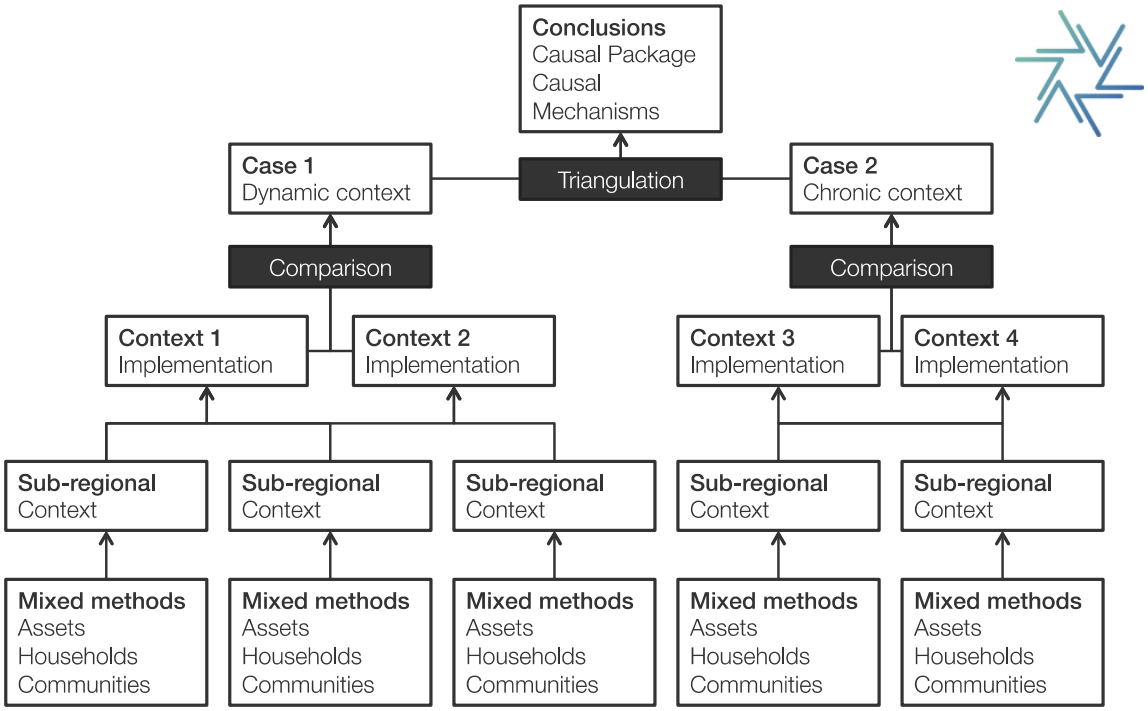
The methodological design of this series of Impact Evaluations is grounded in Mill's method of difference: assessing different effects across time and between treatment and comparison groups. There are a number of confounding factors in Northern Uganda, however, that preclude the credible use of Real World Evaluation techniques based on an analysis of difference:

- The majority of FFA projects were implemented in the context of conflict, with no baseline data (or even records of where assets were constructed);
- Many households were displaced, traumatised and practising extreme coping strategies at the time FFA was implemented, there were large external forces (such as peace settlements) that created enormous changes in livelihood strategies;
- Communities that reside in the area where assets are sited are likely to be substantially different from the original beneficiaries due to the return of displaced people and refugees, and there is no reliable means of identifying comparison groups who did not receive assistance;
- Many of the IDP camps and refugee camps that were centres for FFA activities no longer exist, and assets may still have achieved the desired impacts even if they no longer exist.

It is proposed that a more appropriate theory-based design, in this context, is to develop a set of cases that enable across-case comparison based on Mill's method of agreement. This will use separately developed cases from four different historical and geographical contexts to triangulate analyses of causal processes and mechanisms. Combined with the random-stratified sampling of community, household and asset-level quantitative and qualitative data from the standard methodology, this will allow the 'causal package' of the observed situation to be identified, and an analysis of the extent to which FFA was a necessary and sufficient part of this package to be made.

In essence, the comparison with a non-treatment group in the standard methodology will be substituted by a comparison across four different archetypal cases. An additional consequence of this approach is that mixed methods will be used to undertake within-case analysis and triangulation will be undertaken across multiple cases, rather than the standard single-case design in which qualitative and quantitative streams are processed separately and then triangulated.

Adaptation of the standard methodology for cross-case comparison



Using assets as the entry point, field teams identified current stakeholders in assets and undertook household surveys and interviews based on best practice techniques for participation. A sub-set of assets were sampled for deeper case studies, with community focus group discussions used to gain perspectives on the history and impact of FFA from community-level stakeholders.
Sub-regional cases were systematically built-up by drawing on these different sources of information and range of perspectives.

Data

The asset verification data and household survey data was reviewed. Not all asset locations had corresponding household surveys. There were also household surveys done in locations where there was no corresponding asset verification data. This data was discounted. Analysis was done only of assets where there was at least one corresponding household survey. This was done to ensure a complete and comparative analysis could be done of the full data sets.

The outcome indicator was determined as the current state of repair of the asset. Indicators thought to be affecting the current state of the asset were devised. For each asset the following data were collected and coded:

Indicators

Outcome indicator

- Current state of repair of an asset.
  The data was taken from the Asset Verification Data collected by Ipsos Uganda. Each asset was given a score of 0-100, with 100 being the highest score an asset could obtain.

Indicators thought to affect the outcome indicator

The following data were all taken from Asset Verification Data collected by Ipsos Uganda:

- Design of the asset
  This was determined by taking an average of the scores for the Siting of an Asset and the Design of the Asset. The final score was between 0-100 with 100 being the highest.
- Connectedness of an asset
  The score is between 0-100, with 100 being the highest.
- Ownership index
  This was made of three parts:
  - Have assets been adapted / extended by locals? Yes was coded as 1 and No as 0.
  - Is there a functioning user group with responsibility for the management of the asset? Yes was coded as 1, No was coded as 0.
  - How was the decision to build the asset made? Local Initiative was coded as 3, Government Initiative was coded as 2, Joint Initiative was coded as 2 and External Initiative was coded as 1.
- Who uses the asset
  School Use was coded as 2, all other Uses were coded as 1.

The following data was all taken from the Household Survey Data collected by Ipsos Uganda:

- Setbacks / Problems Index
  This contained two elements:
  - Was there a setback in getting the food from the WFP-FFA Intervention? Yes was coded as 1, No as 0.
  - Did you encounter problems in the construction of the asset? Yes was coded as 1, No as 0.
- Capacity Index
  This was composed of four indicators:
  - Did you receive Technical Assistance?
  - Did you receive Technical Training?
  - Did you receive Literacy Training?
  - Did you receive Disaster Preparedness Training?

  Yes was coded as 1; No was coded as 0.
- Inputs Index
  This was composed of three indicators:
  - Did you receive tools and equipment?
  - Did you receive seeds?
  - Did you receive cash / money?

  Yes was coded as 1; No was coded as 0.
- Access to basic services Index
  This was composed from the data for whether the household received other forms of assistance. Any assistance received (water/infrastructure/social infrastructure/waste management/housing/other) was coded as 1. If no assistance was received it was coded as 0.

There were often several household surveys from the same village. In order to get one score for the above indicators taken from the household survey data, the mean score for each village was taken and multiplied by 100 to get a percentage for each of these indicators.

Indicators from other sources:

For these four index, there is one score per region. All assets within a region were given the same score. These index vary only by region.

- Security Index
  This data was taken from the Fewsnet reports for the period 2005-2011.
  - The number of LRA incidents were counted
  - The number of Other security incidents were counted
  - These two figures were totalled to give the security index.

  The higher the score, the worse the security level.

- Natural Resource Livelihoods Index
  This data was taken from the *2009 Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Analysis* and contained three parts:
  - % of households with cattle
  - % of people saying NOT Constrained market (lower food in mkt yr on yr) (this is 100 - % of people say the market is constrained)
  - % of own food production as food source
  - These three percentages were averaged to give an overall % score. The higher the score the better.

- Vulnerability Score
  This data was taken from *2009 Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Analysis and DHS* and contained three parts:
  - % HHs that are asset poor
  - % women who don't know how to prevent HIV (this is 100 - % of women who do know how to prevent HIV)
  - Crude mortality rate. This was multiplied by 100.

  The three scores were averaged to give an overall score out of 100. The higher the score, the worse the vulnerability.

- Shocks Index
  This data was taken from the Fewsnet reports for the period 2005-2011.
  - The number of physical shocks was counted
  - The number of health shocks was counted
  - The two figures were totalled to create the Shocks Index

  A higher number of shocks is worse.

Analysis

The data analysis was done using fuzzy set Qualitative Comparative Analysis (fsQCA). fsQCA software was employed to undertake this. This type of analysis requires that variables are calibrated. With dichotomous data in QCA, cases are given either a 1 to denote presence, or a 0 to denote absence, of a condition. In fuzzy set QCA (fsCQA) however, cases are assessed for their degree of membership within a condition, to enable a score between zero and one. To establish fuzzy set scores, conventional variables must be calibrated. Calibration requires that variable measure conform to external standards, unlike uncalibrated measures, where variable values are taken in relation to one another. Calibration draws on theoretical and substantial knowledge to produce a fuzzy set score that relates to the degree of membership in a set. To generate these scores, you just first specify the threshold for full membership of the condition (which gets a fuzzy score of 0.95), full non-membership (fuzzy score 0.05) and the cross-over point (fuzzy score 0.5) where the condition is as much present as it is absent.

The calibration scores used in this analysis are shown in the table below.

INDICATOR NAME	Full-Membership	Justification	Mid-point	Justification	Full non-membership	Justification
Current state of repair score of the asset overall (0-100)	75	Calibrated during Gulu workshop with enumerators	40	Calibrated during Gulu workshop with enumerators	20	Calibrated during Gulu workshop with enumerators
Design of asset score (0-100)	75	Calibrated during Gulu workshop with enumerators	40	Calibrated during Gulu workshop with enumerators	20	Calibrated during Gulu workshop with enumerators
Connectedness score of the asset to other surrounding assets (0-100)	75	Calibrated during Gulu workshop with enumerators	40	Calibrated during Gulu workshop with enumerators	20	Calibrated during Gulu workshop with numerators
OWNERSHIP SCORE (5=highest, 1=lowest)	3	The design of the programme was for a managing committee, and joint selection, anything more is extra.	2	The natural midpoint	1	Denotes external design with no current community involvement.
Who uses the asset(s)? (0-worse, max=2)	2	Denotes school use, which qualitative interviews suggest has a higher level of community involvement	1.5	Natural midpoint	1	Denotes use by others
How is the asset ownership? (Household asset=1, Group or community asset=0)	1	Private ownership is more likely to be maintained	0.5	Natural midpoint	0	Community ownership is likely to lead to tragedy of the commons
Capacity Index (%)	50	Projects were all intended to have technical assistance and training.	25	Denotes half level of designed inputs.	0	Denotes no capacity building.
Inputs Score (%)	66	Programme theory suggests that more inputs should lead to higher quality assets.	33	Natural mid point	0	Programme theory suggests that more inputs should lead to higher quality assets.

INDICATOR NAME	Full-Membership	Justification	Mid-point	Justification	Full non-membership	Justification
Setbacks/Problems score (%)	75	If ¾ of households are experiencing set-backs then the programme is likely to have significant challenges.	40	Calibrated to be consistent with other indicators.	20	A minimum level of problems can be expected for at least a quintile of households
Access to basic services (%)	80		55		33	
Security Higher is worse	36	Karamoja is UN Security Phase 3: relocation. Has other violent incident score of 36	6	UN Security Phase 2 likely to be declared if there is serious threat of incident. Assume 1 violent incident per year enough	0	All of Uganda is Security Phase 1.
Natural resource livelihoods (0-100) higher is better	50		40		20	
Infrastructure	70		40		10	
Shocks Higher is worse	18	One major natural shock and 2 major health shocks per year likely to overwhelm coping capacity	6	One major shock per year likely to highly stress vulnerable communities	0	No shocks
Vulnerability (0-100) Higher is worse	50		30		20	

For each of the four data sets (Acholi, Karamoja, Teso and Lango, Westnile) a separate analysis was done.

The coded data was entered into the fsQCA programme as well as the calibration threshold scores. The software uses these thresholds to convert indicator values into fuzzy membership scores, using transformations based on the log odds of full membership.

Before undertaking the analysis, the data was checked for any necessary conditions. Some of the regions produced necessary conditions and were discluded from the subsequent analysis of sufficiency:

Necessary conditions discluded from analysis:

- Acholi - Shocks index
- Karamoja - Vulnerability, Security index, Shocks index
- Teso and Lango – Design of asset, connectedness of asset
- Westnile – no necessary conditions

The software analysed the data (with any necessary conditions removed) to produce a truth table, which displays all the possible combinations of causes leading to the outcome, the current state of repair. The truth table lists all the logically possible outcomes, which is 2^k, where k is the number of causal conditions. There are fourteen indicators in this analysis, resulting in 2^{14} configurations - a total of 16,384 paths to the outcome. Each case is now considered as a configuration – a combination of the characteristics selected – and the software reports how many

instances there are of each configuration. Since there is limited diversity in social phenomena, it was expected that there would be many configurations of which there is no empirical evidence. This study produced instances of thirteen configurations. The configurations for which there are no instances can be deleted from the truth table, thereby excluding them from the minimisation procedure.

The software requires that level of consistency desired be stated. The raw consistency level, indicates whether the membership score on the outcome is consistently higher than the membership score of the causal combination, as well as taking into consideration the strength of the membership scores. Stronger membership scores present more relevant cases. Ragin (2008b:78) suggests a consistency cut-off above 0.9. In the success column, a one is placed beside cases that meet the consistency threshold and a zero by those that do not. In this analysis, various consistency thresholds were tried: Acholi 0.95 and 0.9; Karamoja 0.9; Westnile 0.90 and 0.85; Teso and Lango 1.00.

The truth table was then ready for the standard analysis, when the minimisation process occurs. The minimisation process uses the techniques of prime implicants and De Morgan's Law to generate the solutions. The software can produce three solutions: a complex, a parsimonious and an intermediate solution. The three solutions generated represent configurations that are deemed to be sufficient for the outcome to occur and each is based on different assumptions.

The three solutions follow different assumptions: the parsimonious solution, allows all counterfactuals, both "easy" and "difficult" ones, and so may deliver an explanation that is unrealistically parsimonious. The intermediate solution incorporates only "easy" counterfactuals, and is the simplest to interpret. Counterfactuals are useful when there is limited diversity. The distinction between "easy" and "difficult" counterfactuals concerns whether a counterfactual that is assumed to be redundant is included or excluded from the solution. When there is a configuration that is known to produce a successful outcome, and a redundant counterfactual is included in the combination on the conjecture that this will still lead to the outcome, this is considered an "easy" counterfactual. A "difficult" counterfactual is the inverse – an assumed redundant condition is removed from a configuration known to lead to the outcome, under the notion that outcome will still occur. The best approach to interpreting the results is to view them on a continuum, where the complex solution is at one end, the parsimonious at the other end, and the intermediate solution somewhere in between the two. Here the intermediate solutions constitute subsets of the parsimonious solution and supersets of the complex solution.

Except for the Karamoja regional analysis, the software was unable to produce anything but a complex solution. **This suggests that there is no common pattern leading to a good or bad state of repair of an asset.** The output states the coverage and consistency of each solution. Coverage is similar to statistical variance and can be thought of more as a measure of sufficiency whie consistency relates more to necessity. Coverage is the proportion of the total number of cases covered by the causal expression. It is the proportional measure of the extent to which the solution "explains" the outcome and is similar to variance in regression analysis. Consistency and coverage often work against one another so that a combination with a high consistency may have a low coverage and vice versa.

Annex 8a: Summary Report for WFP FFA Asset Verification Exercise

1.0 Introduction

IODPARC contracted Ipsos Uganda Ltd to conduct an evaluation of assets created a within the confines of the WFP FFA activities. Ipsos is pleased to submit this summary report of the findings of the evaluation phase of the survey. The findings explained in this report and outlined in a detailed excel spreadsheet (available on request) are geared towards one main objective, which is, verifying the existence and condition of assets created within the framework of the WFP FFA programs. Within this main objective, three main activities were carried out. These are outline below:

1. Ascertaining the existence and condition of the assets created by WFP in northern Uganda as part of its FFA programs.
2. Gaining an understanding of the collaboration between WFP and local communities and beneficiaries, and the perceptions by current beneficiaries of the assets.
3. Extracting a sub-sample of 120 asset sites from the total verified locations where further survey shall be conducted.

The second activity which concerns gaining information from stakeholder was limited in the sense that the survey confined the acquisition of such information to one respondent per asset and that this information (though aimed at augmenting data collected on the physical situation and condition of the asset) was however not as exhaustive as could have been. This point is elaborated upon in the limitations section of this summary report.

The information collected was used to select 120 asset sites for household interviews. Also included in the 120 asset sites are 10 sites where focus group discussions shall be held with key informants. The purpose of the focus group discussions with be to gain in-depth knowledge on the WFP FFA activities. This point is however discussed and explained in the inception report for the FFA impact evaluation survey submitted to WFP by IODPARC.

2.0 Methodology

2.1 Sampling design and procedure

The current impact evaluation survey required to evaluate the impact of assets which can be proven as existing on the ground. At the onset, IOD PARC had a foggy idea of which assets existed where. The only point that could be verified was the fact that food was distributed to certain villages. Some of this could have been within the premises of Food for Assets, Food for Work, Food for Education or simply food distribution to vulnerable communities. Verification needed to be carried out to determine which of the mentioned food distribution activities ended up in the creation of physical assets. From the distribution data, it emerged that food had been distributed to about 645 villages in Northern Uganda. We determined to select a sample of these for verification.

Taking the 645 villages as our universe, we targeted a sample of 200 villages/ sites for verification as representing the whole. SThis gives us 90% reliability overall,

z=1.645 (Total of 191 villages from the calculation. Selecting 200 increases our precision of achieving the desired 90% reliability). Villages for verification were selected using the the Probability proportional to size (PPS) technique. The PPS technique ensures that villages that had higher WFP activities (measured in mt of food delivered to the village) stood a higher chance of being included in the sample. The distribution is therefore representative of WFP activities. It was the assumption of the sampling methodology that such a distribution will also fall out natural across sub-regions such that regions with more WFP activity would have more villages in the sample. The final list of enumeration areas (villages) for the verification exercise is included as one of the attachments *(Enumeration Areas for Verification.xlsx)*.

2.2 Target respondents

This enumeration exercise targeted assets as the basic unit of observation. We however needed responses from key informants with knowledge about the assets' creation and use. Most of those interviewed during the verification of assets included teachers and head teachers of institutions with FFA assets, Local council officials, local residents in areas with FFA assets and the users of such assets among others. For each asset evaluated, we interviewed a respondent who possessed information on the asset.

2.3 Data Collection tools

The main tool for data collection was the field checklist which also contained questions to respondents. This was derived from the inception report under *"Protocol 1: Asset Verification and Assessment"*.

2.4 DATA collection Methods

The main methods for data collection were observation of the physical assets and face to face interviews with informants concerning the assets.

2.5 Limitations of the survey

The impact evaluation survey commissioned by WFP to IODPARC has specific timelines within which deliverables are to be submitted. The verification exercise was included as a phase that would justify the impacts of the assets evaluated. This inclusion limited the survey in terms of time. The asset verification exercise did not therefore have all the time to assess and verify the existence of all assets in all the enumeration areas. Effort was made to find as many assets as possible within each enumeration area but the mention limitations considered did in a way limit the overall time that could be spent in a particular enumeration area. This also limited the amount of time that could be spent interviewing informants about the verified assets and thus the shortness of the survey tool.
Despite this limitation, the exercise managed to gather enough information from the enumeration areas to facilitate the selection of the desired 120 asset sites as well as give information on the location, condition, and use attributes of the assets found.

3.0 Summary of findings

Asset categories in the sub-regions
The following is a summary of the asset types found according to sub-region;

Acholi

In Acholi region sub-region, natural resource assets were the most seen. Out of 92 asset sites verified, 37 were composed of natural resource assets. These mainly included school and community woodlots. The infrastructure assets observed were teachers' houses and rural/ feeder roads. In addition, other assets in Acholi include water tanks, boreholes, and fuel efficient stoves among others.

Karamoja

As was the case in Acholi, majority of the assets observed and assessed in Karamoja were natural resource based most notable being school woodlots, community woodlots and water ponds/ dams. The infrastructure assets were mainly rural/ feeder roads and teachers' houses. Other assets observed in Karamoja were energy efficient stoves, building equipment and utensils for the school feeding programs.

Westnile

Infrastructure assets were the most observed in the Westnile sub-region. These include teachers' houses, feeder roads, household huts, school stores and latrines. Natural resource assets mainly comprise school and community woodlots while other assets were school equipment, building equipment, farming equipment and feeding utensils for the school feeding program.

Teso and Lango

The Teso and Lango sub-regions were considered as one sub-region for the sake of this verification exercise because we had a smaller sample for the combined areas. Apart from fish ponds, other assets observed as similar to what was observed in the other sub-regions.

Annex 8 contains *FFA Assets Verification Data.xlsx* which contains a complete breakdown of the assets verified in each sub-region.
From the findings of the verification exercise, 120 asset sites were selected and are targeted for the household survey. A list of the proposed areas is attached *(Annex 8bHousehold Survey data).*

Use and maintenance of the assets

The decision to set up assets was mainly found to be a WFP initiative in consultation with local communities. Most of the assets are community assets used and maintained by the local communities. School based assets are generally maintained by funds and/ or manpower from the school. This would include school monies (PTA and UPE funds) and students weeding and pruning woodlots. For community assets, funds are generally not collected from the communities for maintenance unless local government and other non-governmental organizations contribute. Such resources ordinarily face the tragedy of the commons where everyone uses the resource but no one is specifically tasked to maintain it. Adoption of technologies observed in the creation of the assets was not wide spread.

Annex 8b Summary of Quantitative Data

Classification applied of FFA generated assets in Uganda (2005-2010)

Natural resource asset	
Agricultural rehabilitation/ improvement	Land cleared/ opened
	Crop cultivation
	Crop multiplication
	Fish multiplication centres
	Fish ponds (water ponds – except Karamoja)
	Water Ponds (livestock/ irrigation)
	Demonstration gardens – *by implication may be 1-2 seasons only*
Watershed management/ development	Community woodlots
School enhancement	School woodlots
Infrastructure asset	
School enhancement	Teacher house construction
	Classroom rehabilitation
Rural roads (connectivity)	Community roads, feeder roads
Other	
Community capacity building	Vocational training conducted
Other	Fuel efficient stoves
	IDP/ community buildings (not schools); latrines, kitchens, health posts, water tanks, market shelters

Source: Verification survey

FFA Verification Data

Asset name or description * Asset Category * Sub-region Crosstabulation

Sub-region	NATURAL RESOURCE ASSETS			INFRASTRUCTURE ASSETS			OTHER ASSETS		
		Count	Percent		Count	Percent		Count	Percent
ACHOLI	Community gardens	2	5%	Borehole	1	2%	Bakery	1	2%
	Community woodlots	1	2%	Latrine	2	5%	Counseling centre	1	2%
	Crop cultivation	1	2%	Rural roads / feeder	7	16%	Fuel efficient stove	3	7%

	Crop multiplication	1	2%	Teachers' houses	3	7%	Grinding machine	1	2%
	School woodlots	11	23%				Grinding mill	1	2%
	Water ponds/dams	1	2%				Kitchen stores	1	2%
							Saucepans	1	2%
							Spades, hoes	1	2%
							Water tank	5	11%
45		***17***	***38 %***		***13***	***29 %***		***15***	***33 %***
WESTNILE	Community woodlots	3	5%	Classrooms	2	3%	Household hut	3	5%
	School woodlots	10	16%	Girls' latrines	1	2%	Iron sheets	1	2%
				Girls' shelter	2	3%	Other structures	1	2%
				Grain mill house	1	2%	Saucepans	3	5%
				Latrine	1	2%	School equipments	2	3%
				School kitchen	1	2%	School tools/equipment	2	3%
				School latrine/ bathroom	5	8%	Water tank	6	10%
				Staff latrines/bathroom	2	3%			
				Staff toilets and batharoom	1	2%			
				Staffroom	2	3%			
				Teachers' houses	13	21%			
62		***13***	***21%***		***31***	***50 %***		***18***	***29 %***

KARAMOJA	Community gardens	2	4%	Latrine	1	2%	Building equipment	2	4%
	Land cleared / opene	1	2%	Rural roads / feeder	1	2%	Food distribution shelter	1	2%
	School woodlots	12	27%	School kitchen	2	4%	Food stuff	1	2%
	Tree seedling	1	2%	School store	1	2%	Fuel efficient stove	5	11%
	Water ponds/dams	4	9%	Teachers' houses	7	16%	Kitchen	1	2%
							Utensils	1	2%
							Water tank	2	4%
45		***20***	***44 %***		***12***	***27 %***		***13***	***29 %***
TESO & LANGO	Fish ponds	1	6%	Rural roads / feeder	1	6%	Class floor maintenance	1	6%
	School garden	1	6%	School garden	1	6%			
	Community woodlots	1	6%	Teachers' houses	3	18%			
	Fish ponds	1	6%	Teachers' houses	4	24%			
	School woodlots	3	18%						
17		***7***	***41%***		***9***	***53 %***		***1***	***6%***
TOTAL									
169		**57**	**34 %**		**65**	**38 %**		**47**	**28 %**

Current state of repair of the asset overall 0-100 * Asset Category * Sub-region Crosstabulation

Sub-region		NATURAL RESOURC ASSETS		INFRASTRUCTURE ASSETS		OTHER ASSETS		Total
ACHOLI	Low (score less than 50 points)	1	2%	1	2%	1	2%	3
	Medium (Score above 50 but less than 75 points	7	16%	5	11%	5	16%	17
	High (Above 75 points)	9	23%	7	16%	9	18%	25
	Total	***17***	***39%***	***13***	***27%***	***15***	***34%***	***45***
WESTNILI	Low (Score less than 50 points)	1	2%	1	2%	5	8%	7
	Medium (Score above 50 but less than 75 points	8	13%	19	31%	10	16%	37
	High (Above 75 points)	4	6%	11	18%	3	5%	18
	Total	***13***	***21%***	***31***	***50%***	***18***	***29%***	***62***
KARAMOJ	Low (Score less than 50 points)	3	7%	1	2%	2	4%	6
	Medium (Score above 50 but less than 75 points	8	18%	2	4%	2	4%	12
	High (Above 75 points)	9	20%	9	20%	9	20%	27
	Total	***20***	***44%***	***12***	***27%***	***13***	***29%***	***45***
TESO & LANGO	Medium (Score above 50 but less than 75 points	0	0%	2	12%		0%	2
	High (Above 75 points)	7	41%	7	41%	1	6%	15
	Total	***7***	***41%***	***9***	***53%***	***1***	***6%***	***17***
TOTAL	Low (Score less than 50 points)	4	2%	2	1%	7	4%	13
	Medium (Score above 50 but less than 75 points	23	14%	28	17%	19	11%	70
	High (Above 75 points)	30	18%	34	20%	21	13%	85
		57	**34%**	**65**	**38%**	**47**	**28%**	**169**

Connectedness of the asset to other surrounding assets (social services and markets for infrastructure), other natural resource assets 0-100 * Asset Category * Sub-region Crosstabulation

Count						
Sub-region			Asset category			Total
			Natural resource assets	Infrastructure assets	Other assets	
Acholi	Connectedness of the asset to other surrounding assets (social services and markets for infrastructure), other natural resource assets 0-100	Low (score less than 50 points)	1	2	1	4
		Medium (score above 50 but less than 75 points)	7	4	5	16
		High (above 75 points)	9	7	9	25
	Total		17	13	15	45
Westnile	Connectedness of the asset to other surrounding assets (social services and markets for infrastructure), other natural resource assets 0-100	Low (score less than 50 points)	0	5	7	12
		Medium (score above 50 but less than 75 points)	7	18	9	34
		High (above 75 points)	6	8	2	16
	Total		13	31	18	62
Karamoja	Connectedness of the asset to other surrounding assets (social services and markets for infrastructure), other natural resource assets 0-100	Low (score less than 50 points)	1	0	2	3
		Medium (score above 50 but less than 75 points)	11	3	3	17
		High (above 75 points)	8	9	8	25
	Total		20	12	13	45
Teso	Connectedness of the asset to other surrounding assets (social services and markets for infrastructure), other natural resource assets 0-100	Medium (score above 50 but less than 75 points)	1	0	0	1
		High (above 75 points)	2	3	1	6
	Total		3	3	1	7
Lango	Connectedness of the asset to other surrounding assets (social services and markets for infrastructure), other natural resource assets 0-100	Medium (score above 50 but less than 75 points)	1	2		3
		High (above 75 points)	3	4		7
	Total		4	6		10

Have assets been adapted or extended by local people? With other support? * Asset Category * Sub-region Crosstabulation

Count						
Sub-region			Asset category			Total
			Natural resource assets	Infrastructure assets	Other assets	
Acholi	Have assets been adapted or extended by local people? With other support?	No	7	4	10	21
		Yes	10	8	5	23
	Total		17	12	15	44
Westnile	Have assets been adapted or extended by local people? With other support?	No	4	18	9	31
		Yes	8	13	9	30
	Total		12	31	18	61
Karamoja	Have assets been adapted or extended by local people? With other support?	No	5	1	5	11
		Yes	15	11	8	34
	Total		20	12	13	45
Teso	Have assets been adapted or extended by local people? With other support?	No	1	1	1	3
		Yes	2	2	0	4
	Total		3	3	1	7
Lango	Have assets been adapted or extended by local people? With other support?	Yes	4	6		10
	Total		4	6		10

Who uses the asset(s)? * Asset Category * Sub-region Crosstabulation

Count						
Sub-region			Asset category			Total
			Natural resource assets	Infrastructure assets	Other assets	
Acholi	Who uses the asset(s)?	School	13	0	8	21
		Not in use	0	0	2	2
		Local community	2	8	3	13
		Group members	1	0	2	3
		Headteacher	0	1	0	1
		Household members	0	1	0	1
		Teachers	0	1	0	1
		School staff	0	1	0	1
	Total		16	12	15	43
Westnile	Who uses the asset(s)?	School	8	9	4	21
		Not in use	0	0	1	1
		Church	1	0	0	1
		Local community	2	1	0	3
		Community members and the school	1	0	4	5
		Female pupils	0	2	0	2
		Household members	0	0	3	3
		School management	0	0	2	2
		Teachers	1	17	4	22
		School staff	0	2	0	2
	Total		13	31	18	62
Karamoja	Who uses the asset(s)?	School	9	4	11	24
		Not in use	0	1	1	2
		Local community	7	1	0	8
		Community members and the school	3	0	0	3
		Group members	1	0	0	1
		Household members	0	1	0	1
		School management	0	1	0	1
		Teachers	0	4	0	4

Count						
Sub-region			Asset category			Total
			Natural resource assets	Infrastructure assets	Other assets	
		Pregnant mothers,lactating mothers and children below 2years	0	0	1	1
	Total		20	12	13	45
Teso	Who uses the asset(s)?	School	1	1	1	3
		Not in use	1	0	0	1
		Community members and the school	1	0	0	1
		Teachers	0	2	0	2
	Total		3	3	1	7
Lango	Who uses the asset(s)?	School	1	1		2
		Local community	0	1		1
		Community members and the school	1	0		1
		Group members	1	0		1
		School management	1	0		1
		Teachers	0	4		4
	Total		4	6		10

Is there a functioning User group with responsibility for management of the asset? * Asset Category * Sub-region Crosstabulation

Count						
Sub-region			Asset category			Total
			Natural resource assets	Infrastructure assets	Other assets	
Acholi	Is there a functioning user group with responsibility for management of the asset?	No	11	5	11	27
		Yes	6	7	4	17
	Total		17	12	15	44
Westnile	Is there a functioning user group with responsibility for management of the asset?	No	3	5	8	16
		Yes	9	25	10	44
	Total		12	30	18	60
Karamoja	Is there a functioning user group with responsibility for management of the asset?	No	4	3	1	8
		Yes	16	9	11	36
	Total		20	12	12	44
Teso	Is there a functioning user group with responsibility for management of the asset?	Yes	3	3	1	7
	Total		3	3	1	7
Lango	Is there a functioning user group with responsibility for management of the asset?	No	2	1		3
		Yes	2	5		7
	Total		4	6		10

How is the asset ownership? * Asset Category * Sub-region Crosstabulation

Count						
Sub-region			Asset category			Total
			Natural resource assets	Infrastructure assets	Other assets	
Acholi	How is the asset ownership?	Household asset	0	1	1	2
		Group or community asset	17	11	14	42
	Total		17	12	15	44
Westnile	How is the asset ownership?	Household asset	0	10	4	14
		Group or community asset	13	21	14	48
	Total		13	31	18	62
Karamoja	How is the asset ownership?	Household asset	0	2	0	2
		Group or community asset	19	9	9	37
		Mixed (household and group asset)	1	1	4	6
	Total		20	12	13	45
Teso	How is the asset ownership?	Household asset	0	1	0	1
		Group or community asset	3	2	1	6
	Total		3	3	1	7
Lango	How is the asset ownership?	Household asset	0	1		1
		Group or community asset	4	5		9
	Total		4	6		10

Household Survey Data

Previous Target Community

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Refugees	32	5.3	5.3	5.3
	Internally Displaced	11	1.8	1.8	7.2
	Transition	20	3.3	3.3	10.5
	Locals	538	89.5	89.5	100.0
	Total	601	100.0	100.0	

Current User/ Beneficiary Community

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Refugees	13	2.2	2.2	2.2
	Internally Displaced	8	1.3	1.3	3.5
	Transition	17	2.8	2.8	6.3
	Locals	563	93.7	93.7	100.0
	Total	601	100.0	100.0	

Sub-region

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Acholi	182	30.3	30.3	30.3
	Lango	58	9.7	9.7	39.9
	Teso	25	4.2	4.2	44.1
	Karamoja	161	26.8	26.8	70.9
	WestNile	175	29.1	29.1	100.0
	Total	601	100.0	100.0	

Current Sub-county * Sub-region Crosstabulation

Count							
		Sub-region					Total
		Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja	WestNile	
Current Sub-county	abim town council	0	0	0	5	0	5
	Abim town council	0	0	0	3	0	3
	Abim Town council	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Abim Town County	0	0	0	1	0	1
	acholi	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Acholi bur	3	0	0	0	0	3
	Acholi Bur	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Acholibur	7	0	0	0	0	7
	Agora	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Agora. Kilak	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Agore	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Ajia	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Ajia sub county	0	0	0	0	2	2
	alerek	0	0	0	5	0	5
	Aloi	0	5	0	0	0	5
	Aloi.	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Anyiribu	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Anyiribu	0	0	0	0	3	3
	Anyirivu	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Anyirubu	0	0	0	0	1	1
	ariwa	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Ariwa	0	0	0	0	3	3
	ARIWA	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Ariwa sub county	0	0	0	0	1	1

Count							
		Sub-region					Total
		Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja	WestNile	
	Aroi	0	0	0	0	6	6
	At	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Atanga	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Atiak	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Atiak sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Atik	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Atika	2	0	0	0	0	2
	ATKA	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Attiak	3	0	0	0	0	3
	Attiak sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Barr	0	6	0	0	0	6
	Bata	0	18	0	0	0	18
	Beleafe	0	0	0	0	8	8
	Biba sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Bibia	3	0	0	0	0	3
	Bileafe sub county	0	0	0	0	4	4
	Bileafe subcounty	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Bobi	9	0	0	0	0	9
	Bobi koro Abili	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Bobi sub county	4	0	0	0	0	4
	Coner kilak sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	corner kilak	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Dokolo	0	7	0	0	0	7
	dzaipi	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Dzaipi	0	0	0	0	2	2
	DZAIPI	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Dzaipi sub county	0	0	0	0	1	1
	dzapi	0	0	0	0	1	1
	gulu mun	1	0	0	0	0	1
	hdhd	0	0	0	0	1	1
	itula	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Itula	0	0	0	0	2	2
	ITULA	0	0	0	0	3	3
	itula subcounty	0	0	0	0	1	1
	kaabog east	0	0	0	1	0	1
	kaabong	0	0	0	1	0	1
	kaabong east	0	0	0	6	0	6
	Kaabong East.	0	0	0	2	0	2
	kacheri	0	0	0	4	0	4
	Kacheri	0	0	0	4	0	4
	Kaicheri	0	0	0	2	0	2
	Kal centre	1	0	0	0	0	1
	kalaki	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Kalaki	0	0	10	0	0	10
	kalamadi	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Kalapata	0	0	0	5	0	5
	kaperikira	0	0	1	0	0	1
	karenga	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Karenga	0	0	0	3	0	3
	Katikekile.	0	0	0	4	0	4
	katine	0	0	2	0	0	2
	Katine	0	0	8	0	0	8
	kawalakol	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Kawalakol	0	0	0	5	0	5
	Kawlakol	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Kerenga	0	0	0	1	0	1
	kilak	4	0	0	0	0	4
	Kilaki	0	0	1	0	0	1

Count							
		Sub-region					Total
		Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja	WestNile	
	koro	7	0	0	0	0	7
	Koro	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Koro sub county	2	0	0	0	0	2
	labo	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Laguti	3	0	0	0	0	3
	Laguti sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Lakwana Opit	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Lamogi	1	0	0	0	0	1
	lamogi_parabong	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Lapul	3	0	0	0	0	3
	Lapul sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Lira Pa Lou	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Lira palow	1	0	0	0	0	1
	lira palow primary school	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Lira palwo	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Lira Palwo	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Lobalang	0	0	0	1	0	1
	lobalangit	0	0	0	3	0	3
	Lobalangit	0	0	0	3	0	3
	Lobalangith	0	0	0	2	0	2
	logiri	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Logiri	0	0	0	0	5	5
	Logiri	0	0	0	0	2	2
	logre sub county	0	0	0	0	2	2
	looro	0	0	0	2	0	2
	Looro	0	0	0	3	0	3
	loroo	0	0	0	2	0	2
	Loroo	0	0	0	6	0	6
	Loroo.	0	0	0	2	0	2
	lotuke	0	0	0	2	0	2
	Lotuke	0	0	0	3	0	3
	Lupal	1	0	0	0	0	1
	mor	0	0	0	2	0	2
	morulem	0	0	0	13	0	13
	Morulem	0	0	0	1	0	1
	nakapelemoru	0	0	0	6	0	6
	Nakapelemoru	0	0	0	3	0	3
	nakapelimoru	0	0	0	3	0	3
	Nakapelimoru	0	0	0	2	0	2
	Nam okora	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Nam-Okora	3	0	0	0	0	3
	Nam-okora sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Namokora	1	0	0	0	0	1
	non	0	0	0	1	0	1
	nyakwae	0	0	0	4	0	4
	Nyakwae	0	0	0	8	0	8
	nyakwayi	0	0	0	3	0	3
	odupi	0	0	0	0	6	6
	Odupi	0	0	0	0	10	10
	ODUPI	0	0	0	0	6	6
	odupi sub county	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Odupi sub county	0	0	0	0	1	1
	odupi subcounty	0	0	0	0	2	2
	ofua	0	0	0	0	3	3
	Ofua	0	0	0	0	1	1
	OFUA	0	0	0	0	2	2
	ofua subcounty	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Ofua Subcounty	0	0	0	0	1	1

Count							
		Sub-region					Total
		Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja	WestNile	
	Ogue	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Ogur	0	14	0	0	0	14
	Ogut	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Okollo	0	0	0	0	4	4
	OKOLLO	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Okolo	0	0	0	0	3	3
	okolo subcounty	0	0	0	0	4	4
	Olilim	0	4	0	0	0	4
	Olilim.	0	1	0	0	0	1
	omianyima S/C	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Omiya nyima	1	0	0	0	0	1
	omiyanyima	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Opit	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Oriama	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Oriema	0	0	0	0	1	1
	owiny julu	1	0	0	0	0	1
	owiny julu pabbo	1	0	0	0	0	1
	pabbo	4	0	0	0	0	4
	Pabbo	3	0	0	0	0	3
	Pabbo sub county	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Pabo	5	0	0	0	0	5
	Pabo sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	paboo	8	0	0	0	0	8
	Paboo	5	0	0	0	0	5
	pabor	0	0	1	0	0	1
	pachara	0	0	0	0	3	3
	Pachara	0	0	0	0	1	1
	PACHARA	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Pachio	1	0	0	0	0	1
	padar town council	1	0	0	0	0	1
	pader sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Pader sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Pader sub county corner kilak	2	0	0	0	0	2
	pader town council	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Pader Town council	1	0	0	0	0	1
	padibe	1	0	0	0	0	1
	padibe T/c	1	0	0	0	0	1
	padibe T/C	1	0	0	0	0	1
	padibe town council	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Padibe town council	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Padibe Town council	1	0	0	0	0	1
	padiber east	1	0	0	0	0	1
	paicho	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Paicho sub change	1	0	0	0	0	1
	paipir	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Pajulu	0	0	0	0	5	5
	Pajulu	0	0	0	0	1	1
	pajulu sub county	0	0	0	0	1	1
	pakwach Tc	0	0	0	0	1	1
	paloga	3	0	0	0	0	3
	Paloga	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Paloga subcounty	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Paluga	1	0	0	0	0	1
	panyagara	0	0	0	1	0	1
	panyangara	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Panyangara	0	0	0	2	0	2
	papil	1	0	0	0	0	1
	parabong	1	0	0	0	0	1

Count							
		Sub-region					Total
		Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja	WestNile	
	parabongo	1	0	0	0	0	1
	pasara	0	0	0	0	1	1
	patiko	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Patiko	1	0	0	0	0	1
	patongo p/s	1	0	0	0	0	1
	patongo town council	1	0	0	0	0	1
	patongo Town council	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Patongo town council	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Patongo Town Council	1	0	0	0	0	1
	pawel	1	0	0	0	0	1
	pawel Angany	1	0	0	0	0	1
	pece	2	0	0	0	0	2
	pece Division	1	0	0	0	0	1
	pece sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	pugwinyi	1	0	0	0	0	1
	pugwinyi sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Puranga	2	0	0	0	0	2
	purong sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	purongo	3	0	0	0	0	3
	Purongo	1	0	0	0	0	1
	purongo sub county	1	0	0	0	0	1
	purungo	2	0	0	0	0	2
	rachkoko	0	0	0	1	0	1
	rassia	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Rengen	0	0	0	3	0	3
	Ribo	0	0	0	0	2	2
	rigbo	0	0	0	0	9	9
	Rigbo	0	0	0	0	12	12
	RIGBO	0	0	0	0	3	3
	Rigbo sub county	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Rigbo subcounty	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Rikitae	0	0	0	1	0	1
	rupa	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Rupa	0	0	0	15	0	15
	Rwot Obilo	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Rwot Obilo	1	0	0	0	0	1
	south division	0	0	0	5	0	5
	sub county	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Teso	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Uleppi	0	0	0	0	7	7
	Ulleppi	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Uriama	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Uriama	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Uriema	0	0	0	0	1	1
	vepi	0	0	0	0	1	1
	westnile	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total		182	58	25	161	175	601

Asset type associated with this interview * Sub-region Crosstabulation

Count							
		Sub-region					Total
		Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja	WestNile	
Asset type associated with this interview	Land cleared / opened	3	0	0	2	1	6
	Crop cultivation	6	0	1	1	3	11
	Crop multiplication	11	0	0	4	1	16
	Fish multiplication	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Fish ponds	0	11	7	0	0	18
	Water ponds/dams (livestock and irrigation), including valle	0	0	0	29	0	29
	School gardens	1	3	0	4	0	8
	Community gardens	4	0	0	12	2	18
	School woodlots	68	19	0	19	15	121
	Community woodlots	6	0	0	20	13	39
	Other Natural Resource asset	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Classrooms	0	0	0	0	9	9
	Teachers' houses	14	12	15	9	81	131
	Rural roads / Feeder roads	25	5	0	39	4	73
	Vocational training	1	0	0	0	6	7
	Fuel efficient stoves	0	0	0	8	0	8
	Community buildings	2	0	0	0	1	3
	Water tanks	4	8	2	1	1	16
	Other Specify	2	0	0	0	2	4
	Bakery	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Baking Oven	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Borehole	11	0	0	0	0	11
	Building Equipment	1	0	0	0	1	2
	Building Material	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Cassava processing machine	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Cooking utensils	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Erosion control	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Girls' latrine	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Girls' shelter	0	0	0	0	3	3
	Girls' shelter and latrine	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Grinding machine	1	0	0	0	1	2
	headmaster's office, store and staffroom all on one block	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Household hut	0	0	0	0	6	6
	Community Latrine	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Nursery bed	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Saucepans	0	0	0	0	4	4
	Sawing machine	0	0	0	0	1	1
	School equipments	0	0	0	0	1	1
	school kitchen	2	0	0	1	0	3
	School Latrine	3	0	0	0	8	11
	School Store	1	0	0	5	2	8
	school store and kitchen	1	0	0	2	0	3
	Soil erosion control	0	0	0	2	0	2
	Teacher's Latrines	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Tools and Equipment	3	0	0	0	0	3
	Training Center	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Vegetables cultivation	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Weighing machine	2	0	0	0	0	2

Count							
		Sub-region					Total
		Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja	WestNile	
	Kitchen	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Kitchen and Store	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total		182	58	25	161	175	601

Respondent's gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	387	64.4	64.4	64.4
	Female	214	35.6	35.6	100.0
	Total	601	100.0	100.0	

Asset type associated with this interview * Respondent's gender: Crosstabulation

Count				
		Respondent's gender:		Total
		Male	Female	
Asset type associated with this interview	Land cleared / opened	6	0	6
	Crop cultivation	7	4	11
	Crop multiplication	7	9	16
	Fish multiplication	0	1	1
	Fish ponds	10	8	18
	Water ponds/dams (livestock and irrigation), including valle	17	12	29
	School gardens	6	2	8
	Community gardens	7	11	18
	School woodlots	80	41	121
	Community woodlots	23	16	39
	Other Natural Resource asset	1	0	1
	Classrooms	8	1	9
	Teachers' houses	85	46	131
	Rural roads / Feeder roads	47	26	73
	Vocational training	4	3	7
	Fuel efficient stoves	7	1	8
	Community buildings	1	2	3
	Water tanks	12	4	16
	Other Specify	3	1	4
	Bakery	0	1	1
	Baking Oven	0	2	2
	Borehole	8	3	11
	Building Equipment	2	0	2
	Building Material	1	0	1
	Cassava processing machine	0	2	2
	Cooking utensils	1	0	1
	Erosion control	1	0	1
	Girls' latrine	1	0	1
	Girls' shelter	3	0	3
	Girls' shelter and latrine	1	0	1
	Grinding machine	0	2	2
	headmaster's office, store and staffroom all on one block	1	0	1

Count				
		Respondent's gender:		Total
		Male	Female	
	Household hut	4	2	6
	Community Latrine	2	0	2
	Nursery bed	1	0	1
	Saucepans	3	1	4
	Sawing machine	0	1	1
	School equipments	0	1	1
	school kitchen	1	2	3
	School Latrine	9	2	11
	School Store	6	2	8
	school store and kitchen	3	0	3
	Soil erosion control	1	1	2
	Teacher's Latrines	1	0	1
	Tools and Equipment	3	0	3
	Training Center	0	1	1
	Vegetables cultivation	0	1	1
	Weighing machine	0	2	2
	Kitchen	2	0	2
	Kitchen and Store	1	0	1
Total		387	214	601

Most Significant Change Resulting from participating in the FFA project * Sub-region Crosstabulation

Count							
		Sub-region					Total
		Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja	Westnile	
Most significant change resulting from participating in the ffa project	Good housing was provided/shelter / accommodation	4	5	7	3	47	66
	Increased savings/income	0	0	0	3	1	4
	Earn income/improved welfare/reduced poverty	17	0	3	5	6	31
	Improved standards of living	7	1	1	3	5	17
	Provided food/improved feeding	34	6	1	49	18	108
	Increased access to clean water	7	3	2	4	3	19
	Rural development	5	1	3	1	6	16
	Easy access to other villages, markets/health centre/ social	14	1	0	7	2	24
	Easy access to firewood/fuel	3	1	0	1	1	6
	Acquired technical skills like building, brick laying, fish	10	11	0	15	25	61
	Acquired leadership and mobilisation	0	2	0	2	3	7
	Increased on enrolment of children in school/increased acce	0	1	0	6	4	11
	Provision of shade	1	1	0	0	1	3
	Improved health	0	0	0	1	1	2
	Trees act as windbreakers	2	1	0	0	4	7
	Availability of fish	0	1	1	0	0	2
	Self reliance/people are independent	1	0	1	1	0	3
	Climate change/good weather/modified the climate/contributed	3	1	0	5	9	18
	Locals are happier/comfortable	0	0	1	0	2	3
	Reduced late coming of teachers	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Improved security/protection/brought peace/reduced crime rat	2	0	0	1	1	4
	Reduced absenteeism of teachers/increased attendance of teachers	1	1	1	0	2	5
	Unified people/formed groups	8	0	0	6	5	19
	Improved education levels/improved performance/reduced illit	1	2	0	1	4	8
	Provision of timber	2	4	0	0	1	7
	Improved agricltuture/farming	0	0	0	6	1	7
	Improved sanitation/hygiene	1	0	0	0	1	2
	Worsened health conditions	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Improved communication	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Improved nutrition/balanced diet	1	3	2	2	1	9
	Eased work/cooking	2	0	0	1	1	4
	Distribution of seeds	1	0	0	2	0	3
	Land was utilised	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Beautification of area (woodlots, gardens)	2	0	1	0	0	3
	Motivated people to work harder/adapted the culture	3	0	0	8	2	13
	Increased crop yields	3	0	0	5	0	8
	Created jobs/opportunities	2	0	0	1	0	3
	Population increase/growth	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Increased school drop outs	0	0	0	0	1	1
	No change/impact/none	42	12	1	20	16	91
Total		181	58	25	161	175	600

Most Significant Change As a result of the asset created (Please clarify what asset respondents are referring to) * Sub-region Crosstabulation

Count							
		Sub-region					Total
		Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja	Westnile	
Most significant change as a result of the asset created (please clarify what asset respondents are referring to)	Good housing was provided/shelter / accomodation	11	4	1	4	45	65
	Increased savings/income	0	0	0	5	0	5
	Earn income/improved welfare/reduced poverty	6	3	1	9	5	24
	Improved standards of living	5	1	0	0	5	11
	Provided food/improved feeding	13	3	3	10	3	32
	Increased access to clean water	14	7	0	25	2	48
	Rural development	5	4	1	0	7	17
	Easy access to other villages,	24	5	2	38	5	74
	Easy access to firewood/fuel	10	1	0	3	1	15
	Acquired technical skills like building, brick laying, fish	5	1	1	7	9	23
	Increased on enrolment of children in	0	0	1	1	4	6
	Provision of shade	3	1	0	2	1	7
	Improved health	1	1	1	0	3	6
	Trees act as windbreakers	0	3	0	3	2	8
	Availability of fish	0	4	1	0	0	5
	Self reliance/people are independent	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Climate change/good	10	5	2	10	12	39
	Locals are happier/comfortable	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Reduced late coming of teachers	0	0	0	1	3	4
	Improved security/ protection/brought peace/reduced	0	0	0	1	2	3
	Reduced absenteeism of teachers/increased attendance of teachers	1	1	1	0	14	17
	Access to medicinal herbs	1	0	0	0	1	2
	Unified people/formed groups	3	0	1	0	3	7
	Improved education levels/improved	6	2	2	2	11	23
	Provision of timber	5	0	0	1	5	11
	Improved sanitation/hygiene	5	0	4	1	7	17
	Energy conserved	0	0	0	3	0	3
	Improved communication	0	0	0	2	0	2
	Improved nutrition/balanced diet	1	3	0	4	0	8
	Eased work/cooking	3	0	0	0	0	3
	Distribution of seeds	1	0	0	2	1	4
	Soil erosion controlled	1	1	0	2	0	4
	Land was utilised	3	2	0	0	3	8
	Beautification of area (woodlots,	0	2	0	2	3	7
	Motivated people to work	3	3	1	0	1	8
	Created disunity/conflicts among	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Increased crop yields	1	0	0	3	0	4
	Created jobs/opportunities	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Population increase/growth	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Don't know	0	0	0	0	1	1
	No change/impact/none	39	0	0	19	15	73
	142	0	0	1	0	0	1

Count							
		Sub-region					Total
		Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja	Westnile	
Total		182	58	25	161	175	601

Most Significant Change In relation to your livelihood * Sub-region Crosstabulation

Count							
		Sub-region					Total
		Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja	Westnile	
Most significant change in relation to your livelihood	Good housing was provided/shelter / accomodation	6	8	3	3	9	29
	Increased savings/income	2	0	2	1	0	5
	Earn income/improved welfare/reduced poverty	10	8	0	6	15	39
	Improved standards of living	17	4	3	3	3	30
	Provided food/improved feeding	28	4	1	35	17	85
	Increased access to clean water	11	1	0	4	2	18
	Rural development	2	0	0	0	1	3
	Easy access to other villages,	17	3	2	11	5	38
	Easy access to firewood/fuel	9	1	0	2	3	15
	Acquired technical skills like building, brick laying, fish	5	5	1	15	17	43
	Increased on enrolment of children in	2	0	0	0	7	9
	Provision of shade	4	0	0	2	2	8
	Improved health	8	1	3	7	5	24
	Trees act as windbreakers	1	2	0	0	0	3
	Availability of fish	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Self reliance/people are independent	3	1	0	2	0	6
	Climate change/good weather/modified the climate/contributed	1	0	1	6	2	10
	Locals are happier/comfortable	1	1	0	1	7	10
	Improved security/protection/brought peace/reduced crime rate	2	1	0	0	0	3
	Reduced absentism of teachers/increased attendance of	0	0	3	2	16	21
	Unified people/formed groups	5	3	0	0	2	10
	Improved education levels/improved performance/reduced illit	4	3	0	1	8	16
	Provision of timber	0	1	0	0	4	5
	Improved sanitation/hygiene	1	3	4	3	0	11
	Energy conserved	0	0	1	1	0	2
	Access to fresh air/oxygen	3	0	0	1	1	5
	Saved time (efficient charcoal stoves	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Improved nutrition/balanced diet	0	1	0	2	0	3
	Eased work/cooking	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Distribution of seeds	0	0	0	27	1	28
	Soil erosion controlled	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Land was utilised	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Improved privacy and convenience	0	1	0	0	1	2
	Beautification of area (woodlots,	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Motivated people to work	1	2	0	2	0	5
	Increased crop yields	1	0	1	4	0	6
	Created jobs/opportunities	1	0	0	0	1	2
	Improved on moral values	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Don't know	0	0	0	0	1	1
	No change/impact/none	36	2	0	19	42	99
Total		182	58	25	161	175	601

Most Significant Change For the women in your household * Sub-region Crosstabulation

Count							
		Sub-region					Total
		Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja	Westnile	
Most significant change for the women in your household	Good housing was provided/shelter / accomodation	3	1	0	5	7	16
	Increased savings/income	0	1	2	4	4	11
	Earn income/improved welfare/reduced poverty	9	0	2	9	4	24
	Improved standards of living	3	0	0	4	4	11
	Provided food/improved feeding	10	9	5	43	14	81
	Increased access to clean water	4	2	2	7	6	21
	Rural development	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Easy access to other villages, markets/health centre/ social	8	2	1	4	2	17
	Easy access to firewood/fuel	12	4	2	8	11	37
	Acquired technical skills like building, brick laying, fish	6	4	1	5	7	23
	Acquired leadership and mobilisation skills	1	0	0	1	0	2
	Increased on enrolment of children in school/increased acce	1	0	0	0	1	2
	Provision of shade	0	1	1	2	0	4
	Improved health	1	2	1	4	3	11
	Trees act as windbreakers	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Availability of fish	0	1	1	0	0	2
	Self reliance/people are independent	4	0	0	6	0	10
	Climate change/good weather/modified the climate/contributed	0	0	0	2	0	2
	Locals are happier/comfortable	0	0	2	4	5	11
	Improved security/protection/brought peace/reduced crime rat	9	0	0	3	4	16
	Reduced absentism of teachers/increased attendance of teach	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Access to medicinal herbs	1	0	0	1	0	2
	Unified people/formed groups	11	2	0	5	2	20
	Improved education levels/improved performance/reduced illit	1	2	1	2	2	8
	Provision of timber	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Improved agriclture/farming	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Improved sanitation/hygiene	1	2	0	3	1	7
	Energy conserved	0	0	0	3	0	3
	Saved time (efficient charcoal stoves and saicepans)	0	1	2	3	0	6
	Improved nutrition/balanced diet	2	4	0	3	0	9
	Eased work/cooking	5	1	0	1	0	7
	Distribution of seeds	0	0	0	3	2	5
	Improved privacy and convenience	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Motivated people to work harder/adapted the culture	2	1	0	5	2	10
	Increased crop yields	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Created jobs/opportunities	4	0	0	1	5	10
	Don't know	0	1	0	2	6	9
	No change/impact/none	82	17	2	15	78	194
Total		181	58	25	160	175	599

A spreadsheet containing all quantitative data can be found in the dropbox folder here:
dropbox/IEFFAUganda/ER/Annex6bSummaryofQuantitativeData

Perceptions of Most Significant Change in relation to livelihoods			Most Significant Change to the women	
Direct Benefits (21%)	14%	Provided food	14%	Direct Benefits (17%)
	7%	Technical skills	4%	
Economic Benefits (19%)	7%	Increased Savings or Income	6%	Economic Benefits (11%)
	5%	Improved Standards of Living	2%	
	6%	Access to Markets and Services	3%	
	<1%	Rural Development	<1%	
Social Sector Benefits (21%)	3%	Clean Water	4%	Social Sector Benefits (11%)
	6%	Improved Sanitation, Health and Hygiene	3%	
	6%	Teacher Housing	3%	
	1%	Increased Enrolment of Children in School	<1%	
	3%	Increased Attendance of Teachers	<1%	
	3%	Improved Education Performance	1%	
Community Cohesion Benefits (6%)	1%	Self Reliance	2%	Community Cohesion Benefits (12%)
	2%	Optimism	2%	
	<1%	Improved Security	3%	
	3%	Group mobilization/organization/motivation	5%	
Environ-mental Benefits (14%)	2%	Trees as Windbreakers or Shade	1%	Environ-mental Benefits (9%)
	2%	Modified the Local Climate	<1%	
	<1%	Soil Erosion Controll	–	
	<1%	Land reclamation	–	
	<1%	Beautification	–	
	3%	Firewood	6%	
	<1%	Fish Availability	<1%	
	5%	Access to Seeds	1%	
	1%	Increased Crop Yields	<1%	
	–	Access to medicinal herbs	<1%	
	–	Improved agricltuture/farming	<1%	
Household Benefits (1%)	<1%	Job Opportunities	2%	Household Benefits (6%)
	<1%	Improved Privacy	<1%	
	<1%	Improved Nutrition/diet	2%	
	<1%	Saved cooking time & energy	3%	
Other (17%)	17%	No Change/Impact/Don't Know	34%	Other (34%)

Annex 9: Narrative and Key Trends within the Sub Regions

Karamoja

Karamoja is home to 1.2 million people. UNDP's development index puts Karamoja as one of the world' poorest places (UNDP, 2007). Malnutrition in the region is the highest in Uganda, adult literacy rates across the district ranged between 8% and 22% in 2007 while the Ugandan average is 50-60%, and over 80% of Karamoja's population live below the poverty line In four of the five districts in Karamoja, completion rates for primary education range from 6 to 10%. In Abim, the one district with higher completion rates, there is a 33% gender disparity (IOD PARC, 2012).

The circumstances of Karamoja appear to be quite distinct from other parts of Northern Uganda. The region is seen to have special development needs and relatively inexperienced and under-resourced local level political leaderships and structures. Cattle rustling, marginalization and the proliferation of small arms in the northeast of the country (despite disarmament efforts) have continued to constrain development in Karamoja.

This semi-arid region forms part of a broader cluster of neighbouring pastoral and agro-pastoral areas, which include north-western Kenya, south-eastern Sudan and south-western Ethiopia. The region is prone to increasingly frequent and severe natural disasters, especially droughts, in part as a result of climate change. There are high levels of variability in the climatic cycle, leading to unpredictable rainfall patterns. This variability creates problems for both major livelihood strategies practiced in Karamoja: pastoral cattle-keeping and rain-fed agriculture.

Recurrent shocks caused by frequent drought, ongoing/continuing violence, severe environmental degradation, poor infrastructure, high poverty rates and weak agriculture have eroded people's capacity to cope and left them structurally vulnerable to hunger. As a result, relatively small shocks can lead to high levels of acute under-nutrition. Drought in 2007 led to rates of global acute malnutrition (GAM) in Moroto and Nakapiripirit districts exceeding the critical threshold of 15% (IOD PARC, 2012).

There is a significant gender dimension to the experience of, and vulnerability to, poverty. Agriculture is associated with women and girls, cattle herding to men and boys. Polygamy is widespread and each wife is expected to support her own household. Household livelihoods do not provide women with sufficient access to food to meet the needs of their young children at the early stages of life. As a result of these challenges, stunting rates are well above 30% in most districts, and over 80% of children and 50% of women in Karamoja suffer from anaemia. In such a drought prone area accessing water, and firewood as the main source of energy and as virtually the only means for poor women to earn cash, places a significant workburden on women and their children. Conflict and insecurity are both significant features of the Karamoja context. The local practice of cattle 'sharing' involves violent raids to steal livestock from other groups. This has been exacerbated in the past decade by organised commercial raiding.

Karamoja was also adversely affected by the effects of the civil war that ranged across Northern Uganda between 1986-2006.

Since 2008, disarmament and a transition to recovery programming have been implemented through the Karamoja Integrated Disarmament and Development Programme (KIDDP) 2007-2010. This medium-term framework harmonized the various interventions by the Government and its development partners. The livelihood component of the KIDDP is implemented through the Karamoja Action Plan for Food Security (KAPFS). The sustainable development of Karamoja has been guided by the Peace, Recovery and Development Plan (PRDP) for Northern Uganda.

Acholi

Acholi region in northern Uganda comprises the districts of Gulu, Padar, kitgum, Amuru, Agago, Lamwo and Nwoya. The region as a whole, and certain districts, particular Gulu, Padar and Kitgum, experienced ongoing violence as a result of the LRA from the 1980's onwards. Acholi is a semi arid region in Northern Uganda near the border with Sudan. Like the rest of Northern Uganda Acholi is underdeveloped in terms of infrastructure and services, but Acholi (along with Teso and Lango districts) prior to the 1980s was a productive agricultural region known as the granary of Uganda. It remains a predominantly agricultural and pastoral economy that was decimated by conflict and insecurity. However, with livestock ownership rising from 19% in 2005 to 50% in 2008, as IDP's return to their original homelands there is evidence of agricultural activities being resumed (WFP CSVP, 2005; 2009)

The LRA originated in Acholi district and this region suffered severe and ongoing violence, abductions and insecurity for decades. Over 80% of the population of Acholi was forcibly resettled into IDP camps to avoid violence, with this reaching 93% of the population in Gulu, Padar and Kitgum. The risk of abduction in Acholi was also higher than in any other region, 25% of households in 2004 reporting the abduction of a family member, some 5 times the rate of abduction in other regions. By 2008 this had dropped to 14% of households, but returning child soldiers who had experienced violence and sexual abuse have faced particular problems in returning to their lives before the conflict, women and girls face unique challenges in returning to civilian life and they may also be returning with children of their own. Regions in Acholi have however set up peace committees and a dispute resolution and reintegration process for returning combatants based on tribal/ traditional justice systems.

Following the peace agreement in 2006 Acholi remained, until recently, a region with the highest number of people still in IDP camps. The ongoing violence, and the real risk it may reignite, kept many people from returning to their homes; in 2008 across Northern Uganda 31% of people were living in IDP camps, however for Acholi this number was 81% (OCHA 2005-2010). While this figure has substantially reduced particular challenges remain in bringing agriculture land back to productivity and to rebuild infrastructure and services. With regard to healthcare Acholi has poor services, largely due to limited healthcare provided to IDP camps. However, for those who move back to their original homelands they may find no healthcare or services to support

them, so the situation will take some time to improve. However Acholi, has seen a 10% reduction in poverty in the 5 years following the end of the conflict and Acholi has an HDI index between 0.4 and 0.5 (UNDP, 2007).

Teso and Lango

Teso and Lango are located in North Eastern Uganda. The people of Teso and Lango are agro pastoralists, who share with the Karomojan's cultural links to cattle herding, which has contributed to inter clan violence as a result of cattle rustling from Karamoja in particular. The climate is hot and humid, with areas of wetland making Teso and Lango susceptible to flooding, as well as drought. Floods in 2007 affected 50,000 households, while drought in 2008 would indicate the effects of climate change are having a detrimental effect in this region, as well as throughout Uganda.

Along with Acholi, Lango and Teso were considered to be productive agricultural areas prior to the war but displacement, insecurity and environmental have had a significant impact on the regions.

In addition to general insecurity for decades, in 2003 the LRA moved into Teso, resulting in a major population displacement with hundreds of thousands of people leaving their homes. However, from 2004 onwards the IDPs started to return to their homes, a trend that has continued. Priorities for the WFP have been to provide support for IDPs, returning IDPs, school children, those with HIV/Aids and people involved with post conflict asset creation.

Parts of Lango and Teso also experienced adduction of family members, and of children, by the LRA with Lango which borders Acholi experienced the second highest rate of families reporting the abduction of family members in Uganda, at 5.1% in 2004, reducing to 4.2% in 2008. While in Teso 1.4% of families reported abductions in 2004, reducing slightly to 1.3% in 2008 (OCHA 2005-2010).

There remain problems with basic social services and healthcare, including access to water and sanitation and basic infrastructure.
From 2004 to 2008 the percentage of people living below the poverty line decreased by 12-14%, with just over 50% of the population in both regions being defined as living below the poverty line, compared to 65% in 2004(WFP CSVP, 2005). This would indicate that the communities in these regions are recovering from the effects of violence and insecurity as a result of LRA activity, but are still experiencing poverty and shocks. However, the nature of the shocks may have moved away from war and insecurity, to environmental/ climate shocks and cattle rustling, compounded by a lack social services and infrastructure.

West Nile

West Nile is located in the North West of Uganda sharing a border with Sudan and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). While most of the population is engaged in agricultural activity productivity is low due to a combination of poor soils, reliance on

rain fed agriculture and environmental degradation, however it too was a high producing agricultural region prior to the 1980s. Environmental shocks remain a high risk and West Nile has experienced both floods and drought in recent years. West Nile has also been susceptible to disease outbreaks such as cholera, meningitis, West Nile fever and malaria.

The political instability in neighbouring Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and South Sudan has led to a significant number of refugees seeking asylum and assistance in West Nile over the years. Refugees from Sudan and Rwanda are also hosted in settlement site/ IDP camps in the sub-region.

In addition, West Nile like most of Northern Uganda also suffered LRA attacks which resulted in local and refugee populations being displaced, most recently in 2003. Having to provide for displaced local people, and international refugees, in a region which has received limited support from international actors, has placed a strain on services and resulted in environmental degradation, particularly in the areas around IDP camps. While most of the displaced local population has returned to their original homes, there has been a limited return of refugees from outside of West Nile due to ongoing insecurity in the DRC in particular (OCHA, 2005-2010). There are also continued influxes of new refugees as violence flares in the DRC. As other regions of Uganda are recovering from a decade's long war, West Nile still suffers the effects of war, albeit from refugees and IDPs from neighbouring countries.

Access to healthcare and social services remains poor, with staffing levels low and services for IDPs highly variable. There has however, been a reduction in the number of people living below the poverty, which stood at 65% of the population in 2004, and reduced by 6% to 59% of the population in 2008 (WFP CSVP, 2005). This modest decrease shows an improvement from the pre 2006 time period, but also illustrates the ongoing impact of international refugees and the challenging security situation on its borders that continue to hamper the recovery of West Nile region.

Data gathered from secondary sources by the evaluation team during the inception mission phase

Annex 10: Detailed Collation on Secondary data on Sub Regions

FOOD FOR ASSETS EVALUATION, UGANDA

DESK REVIEW REPORT

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1. LIVELIHOOD TYPES IN EVALUATION REGION

Table 1: Main Livelihood Activities Engaged in by Households in Northern Uganda

Year	West Nile	Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja
2005	*Madi* Agro brewers 32%, Agro laborers 18%, Fisher, hunters and gathers 18%, agro pastoralists 9% (CFSVA), Arua Agriculturalists 34%, Ago labourers 20%, Agro traders 11%, agro pastoralists 11%	0-5% Agriculturalists, agro artisans, 0-5%, brewers, agro laborers, agro traders, employee agriculturalists, agro pastoralists, pastoralists, hunters fishers and gatherers, remittance dependants, 50.1-100%food aid dependants Marginal livelihood 87%	Agriculturalists 41%, Marginal Livelihoods1 16%, Agro laborers 16% 20.1-30% food aid dependants	Agro laborers 30%, Agro brewers 26%, Agriculturalists 20%	Pastoralists 12%), Agriculturelists17%, Agro traders 18% , agro-brewers 41% (2005)
2009	87.1% Agriculture (including crop sales), 10.4% livestock, 34% unskilled wage labor, 3% skilled labor, 5.5 salaries and wages, 14.5 brewing, 22.5% petty trade, 1.1% commercial activity, seller	71.7% Agriculture (including crop sales), 2.4% livestock, 52.5% unskilled wage labor, 2.6% skilled labor, 5.6 salaries and wages, 23.5 brewing, 10.3% petty trade, 0.6% commercial activity, seller	84.3% Agriculture (including crop sales), 1.6% livestock, 32.4% unskilled wage labor, 5.8% skilled labor, 6.8 salaries and wages, 6.3 brewing, 9.6% petty trade, 1.9% commercial activity, seller	68.8% Agriculture (including crop sales), 12.2% livestock, 50.5% unskilled wage labor, 4.3% skilled labor, 5.9 salaries and wages, 16.5 brewing, 14.7% petty trade, 1.5% commercial activity, seller	60.9% Agriculture (including crop sales), 25.6% livestock, 40.2% unskilled wage labor, 0.3% skilled labor, 3.2 salaries and wages, 18.9 brewing, 3.3% petty trade, 3.9% commercial activity, seller

Data Sources: Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Analysis (CFSVA) Uganda 2005 and 2009 by WFP

1 Marginal Livelihoods means very small incomes, little diet diversity, food aid and main food source

2. COMMON SHOCKS/HAZARDS

Table 2: Common Shocks and Hazards

Year	West Nile	Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja
2004	92.4% h/hs affected by shock 57% drought, 11.5% rebels, 9% other shocks 5% heavy rainfall 3.7% medical expenses	98.8% h/hs affected by shock 69.5% rebels and raids 17.2 inability to work in fields 5.6% drought/famine	88.7% h/hs affected by shock Cattle rustling affecting (Lira and Kitgum) 37.6% rebels and raids 19.9% drought and famine 14.1 inability to work in fields	95.4% h/hs affected by shock Cattle rustling (Katakwi and Kumi) 30.5% rebels and raids, 31% droughts and famine, 13% medical	98.8% h/hs affected by shock 46.6 raids, 43.5 droughts, cattle rustling, climate change and environmental degradation leading to food shortages and increased pressure on land and water (NUS 2004)
2005	Droughts in previous year (50.1-100%) High Food Prices (10.1-20%) Crop Pests and Diseases (5.1-10%) Insecurity 0-5% (CFSVA 2005)	Droughts in previous year (10.1-20%) High Food Prices (30.1-50%) Crop Pests and Diseases (5.1-10%) Insecurity (50.1-100%) (CFSVA 2005)	Droughts in previous year (30.1-50%) High Food Prices (20.1-30%) Crop Pests and Diseases (5.1-10%), Insecurity (30.1-50%) (CFSVA 2005)	Droughts in previous year (50-100%) High Food Prices (10.1-20%) Crop Pests and Diseases (5.1-10%), Insecurity (30.1-50%) (CFSVA 2005)	Droughts in previous year (50.1-100%), High Food Prices (30.1-50% Crop Pests and Diseases 10.1-20%, Insecurity (50.1-100%) (CFSVA 2005)
2008	88.7% h/hs affected by shock 79.9% drought, 6.2 other harvest loss, 5%loss of cash income, livestock ,food stocks or hh assets	97.6% h/hs affected by shock 21.9% drought, 11.1% other harvest loss, 33.4% loss of cash income, livestock, food stocks or hh assets,9.1% famine	92.9% h/hs affected by shock 58.3% drought, 5.8 other harvest loss, 19.9% loss of cash income, livestock, food stocks or hh assets,9.2% high unplanned expenses	95.8% h/hs affected by shock 44.8% drought, 7.4% loss of cash income, food stocks or hh assets, 35.4 high unplanned expenses	20.7% h/hs affected by shock 4.6% loss of cash, 70% famine NUS 2008

2009	Drought/ poor rains (causing h/hs not to have enough food) Not enough money to buy food from markets CFSVA 2009	Not enough money to buy food from markets (42%) Food very expensive	Drought/ poor rains (causing h/hs not to have enough food) Food very expensive	Drought/ poor rains (causing h/hs not to have enough food)	Drought/ poor rains (76%) Food very expensive Insecurity (94% h/h in Moroto), 54% in Kaabong and Kotido, conflict and raiding in the previous year reported by 60 and 67% h/hs in Kaabong and kotido. Looting of assets

Data Sources: Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Analysis (CFSVA) Uganda 2005 and 2009 by WFP

The Northern Uganda Survey (2004 & 2008), by Uganda Bureau of Statistics and the Economic Policy Research Centre

- Common shocks/ hazards in Karamoja in 2008 and 2009 (source: FAO (2010) Baseline Livelihood Profiles of Karamoja.

    - Inter ethnic conflicts
    - Livestock diseases
    - Drought
    - Human diseases
    - Crop Pests
    - Insecurity (road ambushes and indiscriminate killings)

- The Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS) for 2005/6 collected information on household shocks that occurred within 5 years prior to the survey. Table 3 shows the number of households that reported the occurrence of shocks and the following graph the median duration by type of most serious shock.

Table 3: Households Reporting the Occurrence of a Shock Within the last Five Years

	National	Northern region	Eastern Region
Occurrence of shock (2005/6	65.7%	88.7%	63.6%

Table 4: Median Duration in Months of Most Serious Shock

	National	Northern region	Eastern Region
Drought	4	4	4
Civil Strife	9	9	6
Pest attack	5	3	4
Livestock epidemic	3	3	2
Robbery and Theft	2	1	2
Others	4	6	3

3. ABDUCTIONS AND DISPLACEMENT

Table 5: Proportion of Households Reporting Disappearance/ Abduction of Its Members 2004/2008 by Sub-Region

Year	Acholi	Lango	Teso	West Nile	Karamoja	NUSAF Region
2004	25.8	5.1	1.4	2.6	0.4	6.6
2008	14.8	4.2	1.3	0.4	0.5	4.7

Source of data: The Northern Uganda Survey (2008), by Uganda Bureau of Statistics and the Economic Policy Research Centre

- The following data labeled tables 2 & 6 is drawn from the *State of the Uganda Population Report, 2008 by the Population Secretariat, GoU*. It shows the number of people that have been in IDP camps in northern Uganda.

Table 2: IDP Camps indicating population sizes in Northern Uganda

Districts	Total number of IDP camps	Total persons	Total households
Lira	42	351,020	70,455[43]
Pader	31	349,538	n.a
Kitgum	21	331,167	n.a
Apac	18	107,130	n.a
Gulu	52	460,226	118,338
	164	1,599,081	

Source: World Food Program Food distribution lists (September 2005-May 2006)

Table 6: IDP Population Distribution in the districts of Northern Uganda

District	Population	Camps	IDPs	Night commuters	% Displaced
Apac	683, 993	16	94,988	NA	14%
Gulu	475,260	42	505,443	18,187	93%
Kitgum	286, 122	18	267, 078	15,711	93%
Lira*	757, 763	43	279,091	NA	37%
Pader	293, 679	30	395,107	NA	93%
Katakwi	-	52	88,623	NA	
Adjumani[1]	-	NA	41,005	NA	27%

*Source: OCHA Gulu, Kitgum, Lira; IOM, *MSF puts the % displaced at 83%*

4. FOOD SECURITY

Table 6: Level of Food Insecurity in the Evaluation Sub Regions

Year	West Nile	Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja
2005	Adjumani and Moyo Food Insecure 7%, Highly Vulnerable 34%, Moderately Vulnerable 32%, Food Secure 27% Arua: =]5%, HV 34%, MV 26%, FS35% FCS: Adjumani, Moyo (vpoor 26%,40% Borderline, 49% fairly good, 7% good) Arua: (Vpoor 20%,Borderline 31%, F good 43%, gd 7%)	33% FI households, 38 highly Vulnerable, mv12% Fs 17% Consumption profile: very poor 29%, Borderline 29%, Fairly Good 40% good 2%	12% Food Insecure, Highly vulnerable 37%, Moderately vulnerable 20%, Food secure 30% (CFSVA) ; FCS vpoor 12%,Borderline42%, FGd 31%, gd 15%	3% Food Insecure, 53% Vulnerable, Moderately vulnerable21%,Food secure23% FCS very poor 16%, Borderline 55%, FGd 17%, gd 13%	FS 18%, hv46%, MV 18%, Food insecure18% Food consumption profile: very poor 34, Borderline 30, fg 28, 8 good

2009 (data collected 2008)	*1.1 food insecure, 13.2 Moderately food insecure* *Food Consumption Score*: poor (1.1%); borderline (13.2%); Acceptable (85.7%)	*2.2 Food Insecure, 36.2 moderately food insecure* *Gulu Food Consumption Score*: poor (1.3%); borderline (36.7%); Acceptable (61.9%) Amuru poor (4.2%); borderline (44.6%); Acceptable (51.3%)	*1.6 Food insecure, Soroti 7.2 food insecure* *Lira*:poor (1.0%); borderline (26.8%); Acceptable (72.2%) Apac poor (2.2%); borderline (16.2%); Acceptable (81.6%)	Teso 5.3% FI *Food Consumption Score Soroti*: poor (7.2%); borderline (35.7%); Acceptable (57%)	Food insecure 20.4%, Moderately Food insecure 38% *Food Consumption Score Abim* poor (9.6%); borderline (39.7%); Acceptable (50.7%) *Food Consumption Score Kotido*: poor (16.7%); borderline (44%); Acceptable (39.2%) *Food Consumption Score Kaabong*: poor (16%); borderline (42%); Acceptable (42%) *Food Consumption Score Moroto* poor (30%); borderline (42%); Acceptable (27.2%)

Data Sources: Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Analysis (CFSVA) Uganda 2005 and 2009 by WFP

*According to 2009 CFSVA 6.3% Ugandans had poor food consumption and 21.3% had borderline consumption

Table 7: Level of Food Insecurity in the Evaluation Regions 2012

Indicator	Northern	Eastern	National
Food Consumption Score	Poor food consumption 6.2%, borderline 15.8%	Poor food consumption 3.8%, borderline 20.4%	4.7% poor, 15.6 borderline food consumption
% of the Population that is energy deficient	58.9%	43.3%	47.6%
% of households with low dietary diversity	35.3%	36.6%	38.7%

Data Source: Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Analysis (CFSVA) Uganda 2013 by WFP (draft report)

5. HEALTH AND MALNUTRITION LEVELS

Table 8: Sub Regional Nutritional Status (stunting wasting) of children 6-59 months

Indicator	Madi	Arua	Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja
Stunted (%)	26	32	26	17	18	23
Wasted (%)	6	8	14	7	12	18

Source: CFSVA 2005

Table 9: Sub Regional Nutritional Status (stunting, underweight and wasting) of children 6-59 months (%), 2006

Indicator	Uganda	Eastern Region	Northern	West Nile	Karamoja	IDPs
Stunted (%)	38	36	40	38	54	37
Wasted (%)	6	3	7	8	11	6
Under weight (%)	16	11	22	17	36	20

Source of Data: State of the Uganda Population Report, 2008

Eastern: Kaberamaido, Kapchiorwa, Bukwa, Kayakwi, Amuria, Kumi, Bukedea, Mbale, Bududa, Manafwa, Pallisa, Budaka, Sironko, Soroti, Tororo and Butaleja
North: Apac, Oyam, Gulu, Amuru, Kitgum, Lira, Amolatar, Dokolo, Pader, Kotido, Abim, Kaabong, Moroto, and Nakapiripirit (include both settled and IDP Populations)
Karamoja: Moroto, Kotido, Abim, Kaabong, Nakapiripirit
DP: IDP camps in Apac, Oyam, Amuru, Kitgum, Lira, Amolatar, Dokolo, and Pader districts
West Nile: Adjumani, Arua, Moyo,Koboko, Nyadri-Terego, Nebbi and Yumbe

Table 10: Nutritional status (stunting, underweight and wasting) of children 6-59 months (%)

Indicator	Uganda	Eastern Region	Northern
Stunted (%)	34	37	31
Under weight (%)	16	16	17
Wasted (%)	5	5	7

Data Source: CFSVA 2013

Table 11: Incidence of GAM and SAM in Selected Northern Uganda Districts

Districts	Global Acute Malnutrition	Sever Acute Malnutrition
Gulu and Amuru	3.1%	0.4%
Lira	7.1%	0.8%
Apac and Oyam	4.6%	0.9%

Data Source: Northern Uganda Agricultural Recovery Programme NUARP: An Identification Study Vol 2 Background Information Final Report EU 2007

6. LITERACY RATES

Table 12: Literacy Rate for Population ages 18 years and above

	2002/3		2005/6		2009/10	
	%	Standard Error	%	Standard Error	%	Standard Error
Uganda	67.6	0.70	69.4	0.55	72.56	0.62
Northern Region	52.50	1.84	58.9	1.09	63.86	1.39
Eastern Region	59.24	1.08	63.8	1.08	67.52	1.10

Source of Data: Uganda National Household Surveys (2002/3, 2005/6, 2009/10) by Uganda Bureau of Statistics

7. POVERTY

Table 13: Population living below the Poverty Line

	Population Living Below the Poverty Line		
	2002/3	2005/6	2009/10
National	37.7	31.1	24.5%
Northern	63.3	60.7	46.2
Eastern	46.0	35.9	24.3

Source of Data: Uganda National Household Surveys (2002/3, 2005/6, 2009/10) by Uganda Bureau of Statistics

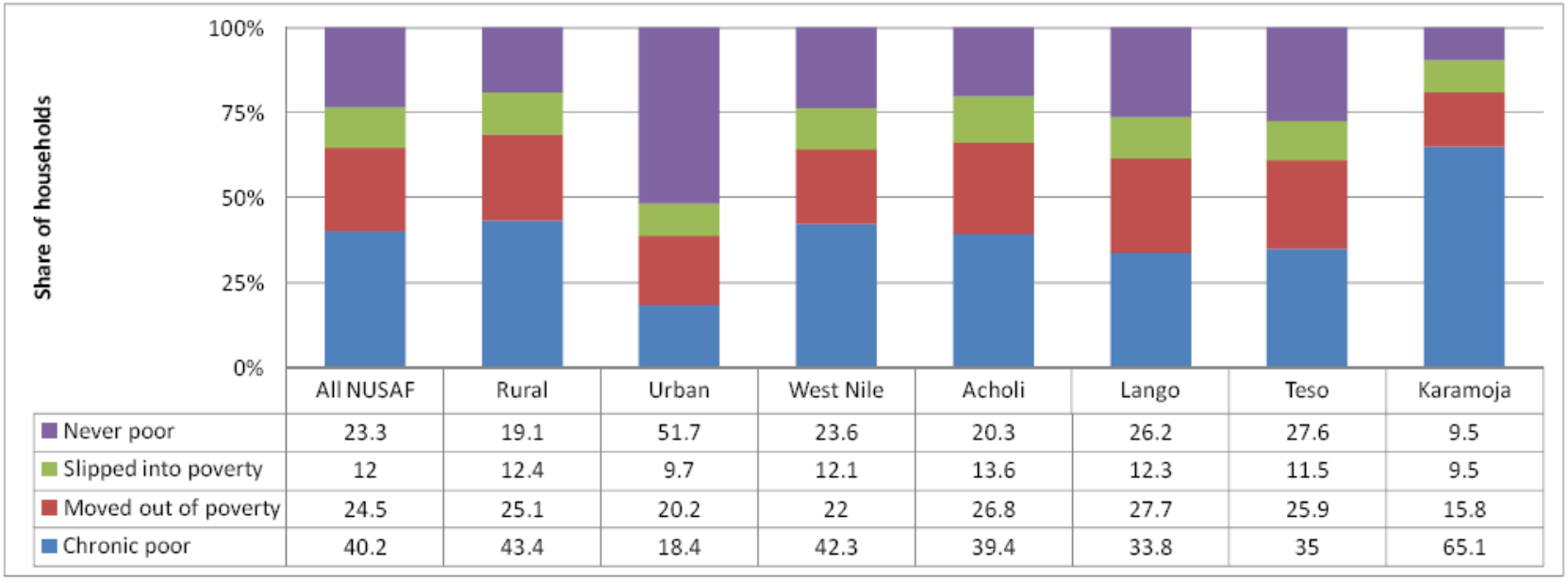
Table 1: Measures of poverty and human development in Uganda and the Northern districts

	Number of individuals (mill)	Poverty headcount (%)	Poverty gap (%)	Gini-coefficient	Number of poor individuals (mill)	Life expectancy (years)	Adult literacy (%)	Gross enrolment rate (%)	GDP index	Human Development Index
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
Moroto	182,689	88.7 (1)	44.9 (1)	0.35 (8)	161,990 (8)	32.9 (3)	13.1 (2)	44 (2)	0.282 (1)	0.216 (1)
Nakapiripirit	149,770	86.1 (2)	40.9 (2)	0.42 (1)	128,922 (10)	51 (11)	21.6 (3)	45.5 (3)	0.382 (8)	0.37 (3)
Kitgum	240007	77.8 (3)	33 (3)	0.36 (5)	186,677 (7)	29.1 (1)	57.1 (7)	142.5 (9)	0.392 (12)	0.439 (5)
Pader	317,499	75.8 (4)	32.1 (4)	0.42 (2)	240,505 (5)	36.6 (4)	52.9 (5)	159.4 (13)	0.329 (4)	0.469 (7)
Adjumani	143,884	68.2 (5)	25.7 (6)	0.36 (6)	98,071 (12)	47.9 (10)	61.7 (9)	77.2 (4)	0.387 (10)	0.479 (8)
Gulu	355,082	67.1 (6)	25.8 (5)	0.37 (4)	238,296 (6)	30.9 (2)	54 (6)	145.4 (11)	0.349 (6)	0.43 (4)
Nebbi	370,919	65.1 (7)	23.6 (7)	0.34 (9)	241,283 (4)	40.3 (5)	61.7 (8)	133.4 (7)	0.404 (13)	0.505 (9)
Yumbe	236,470	62.9 (8)	23 (8)	0.32 (11)	148,811 (9)	46.5 (9)	52 (4)	105.2 (6)	0.32 (3)	0.458 (6)
Moyo	182,205	62.2 (9)	22.4 (9)	0.34 (10)	113,295 (11)	52.7 (13)	69.5 (13)	77.8 (5)	0.334 (5)	0.506 (10)
Lira	663,944	56.1 (10)	19.3 (11)	0.36 (7)	372,406 (2)	41 (6)	65.5 (12)	144.3 (10)	0.389 (11)	0.524 (12)
Arua	741,248	54.2 (11)	19.3 (10)	0.41 (3)	401,534 (1)	45.4 (8)	62.1 (10)	157 (12)	0.377 (7)	0.551 (13)
Apac	676,982	51.3 (12)	16.7 (12)	0.32 (12)	347,292 (3)	41 (7)	63.6 (11)	134.2 (8)	0.385 (9)	0.508 (11)
Kotido	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	51.6 (12)	8.4 (1)	26.8 (1)	0.286 (2)	0.292 (2)
Central	4,836,527	19.6	4.8	0.38	948,927	52.7	80	117.5	0.525	0.637
East	5,868,844	38.4	11.1	0.36	2,253,049	52.7	64	125	0.443	0.582
North	4,838,669	64.8	23.6	0.31	3,134,974	45.9	59	114.4	0.373	0.499
West	5,932,945	19.3	4.5	0.34	1,147,432	48.1	67	113.2	0.478	0.563
Uganda	21,476,985	31.1	8.7	0.408	7,484,382	50.4	69	118	0.466	0.581

Data sources: Columns A – E = 1999-2005 Poverty Maps for Uganda by UBOS, World Bank, IFPRI. Data refer to 2005/6 for rural areas; Columns F- J = Uganda Human Development Report 2007 UNDP. Data refer to various years.

Notes: Numbers in brackets refer to ranks from worst to best score. n/a = no data available. See sourced publications for details on methodology.

Figure 1: Poverty dynamics in areas of the Northern Uganda Social Action Fund (NUSAF), 2004-2008



	All NUSAF	Rural	Urban	West Nile	Acholi	Lango	Teso	Karamoja
Never poor	23.3	19.1	51.7	23.6	20.3	26.2	27.6	9.5
Slipped into poverty	12	12.4	9.7	12.1	13.6	12.3	11.5	9.5
Moved out of poverty	24.5	25.1	20.2	22	26.8	27.7	25.9	15.8
Chronic poor	40.2	43.4	18.4	42.3	39.4	33.8	35	65.1

Data sources: Panel data from presentation by EPRC and Cornell University on Northern Uganda Social Action Fund.

8. ACCESS TO SERVICES

Effect of the War on Health Services

"In Northern Uganda, the social services delivery system including, health, education, etc, has suffered the inadequacy of human resource and dilapidated infrastructure. It has been difficult to recruit and retain doctors, nurses, midwives and other Para medics in the health sector in northern Uganda. The health service in Gulu operates at 50 per cent of qualified staffing levels. As a result, it is not possible to keep many health units open on a continuous basis". (Source: State of the Uganda Population Report, 2008)

"*Nationally, access to health care stands at 72% however, only 49% of the rural populations have access to health care4. The situation is worst in northern Uganda where less than 30% of the population in the Acholi sub region lives within 5km of a functional health facility. In Gulu and Kitgum districts, 52% and 65% of health facilities located outside the camps respectively are non-functional. In Lira and Amolatar districts only 86% and 33% of HC II respectively are functional. As IDPs move from camps with relatively better health services to their original homelands where services are inadequate, access to good quality health care has further reduced.*" *(Source: WHO Emergency and Humanitarian Action Uganda, 2009)*

Table 14: Access to Safe Drinking Water by region (%)

Region	2001	2005/06	2009/10
Eastern	58	63	76.5
Northern	51	51	65.7
Uganda	56	59	68.9

Source: UNHS 2005/06 and 2009/10

9. HOUSEHOLD CONSUMPTION AND EXPENDITURE

Table 15: Average, Monthly H/H Consumption and Per Capita Expenditure by Residence and Sub Region

Sub Region	Per H/H	Per Capita Consumption Expenditure
West Nile	69,700	17,500
Acholi	69,200	15,300
Lango	67,800	15300
Teso	87,000	18700
Karamoja	62,200	13000
NUSAF Region	72,800	16,500

Source: NUS 2004

Table 16: Share of H/Hs Consumption Expenditure by Item group and by Sub region

Sub Region	Food	Education	Rent, Fuel and Power	Health	Transport	Other
West Nile	72.7	1.0	10.5	4.8	5.0	6.0
Acholi	66.6	0.7	12.2	12.2	2.6	5.6
Lango	67.8	0.7	13.8	7.7	3.8	6.2
Teso	67.5	0.9	11.3	8.7	5.4	6.2
Karamoja	74.9	0.7	11.8	3.5	4.1	5.0
NUSAF Region	69.4	0.8	11.8	7.6	4.4	5.9

Source: NUS 2004

Table 17: Consumption Expenditure per Household by Region

Region	**Per H/H**		
	2002/03	**2005/06**	**2009/10**
Eastern	112,084	129,099	193,400
Northern	72,880	80,616	150,200
Uganda	136,468	152,068	232,700

Source: UNHS 2005/06 and 2009/10

Table 18: Household Expenditure on Food (% of Food Expenditure by Stratum)

Sub Region	**2005**	**2008 (per capita fd expenditure**	**2012**
West Nile	60.1-65	65%	
Acholi	65.1-70%	52.7	
Lango	60.1-65%	61.5	
Teso	50.1-55%	49.5	
Karamoja	65.1-70%	Moroto 67, Kotido 85 (64.3% all Karamoja)	
Northern Uganda			56%
Uganda			51%

Data Source: CFSVA 2005, 2009 & 2013

10. LAND USE AND AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

Table 19: Human and Land Resource Base in Northern Uganda

Parameter	Lango	Acholi	Teso	Northern Uganda Total/Average	Uganda
2005 population (000)	1,572	1,151	1,363	4,087	27,208
No of Hh (000)	297	219	239	756	5,266
Average hh size	4.8	5.0	5.0	4.9	4.6
Total area (sq km)	13,742	28,279	12,864	54,885	241,551
Arable Land Area (Sq Km)	8,963	11,375	6673	27,011	51,049
Average Arable Land per hh (ha)	3.0	5.2	2.8	3.6	1.0
Land under cultivation per h/h	0.8-1.6	0.6-1.0	0.3-0.8	0.5-1.2	0.4-0.8
Population density (persons per sq km)	119	39	111	73	124

Source NUARP 2007

Table 20: Major Agricultural and Related Enterprises in Northern Uganda (Lango, Acholi, Teso)

Cereals	Roots & Tubers	Pulses	Oil Crops	Cash Crops	Horticultural Crops	Emerging Crops
Millet Sorghum Maize	Cassava Sweet potatoes	Beans Pigeon Peas Soya Beans Cow Peas	Ground nut SimSim	Cotton Sunflower	Fruits Vegetables	Up Land Rice Oranges Green Grams
Livestock						
Cattle	Goats	Sheep	Pigs	Poultry (local Chickens)	Fishing in Swamps, rivers and lakes	Aquaculture
Other Major Livelihood Activities and Emerging Enterprises						
Quarrying	Pottery	Charcoal burning	Petty Trade	Hiring labour	Brick making	Local beer brewing

Source: NUARP 2007

Table 21: Livestock* Ownership By Strata (% of Households) (CFSVA 2005, 2009, 2013 Reports)

Sub Region	2005	2009	2012
West Nile	75% Madi, 60% Arua	72%	
Acholi	19%	50%	
Lango	53%	78%	
Teso	58%	82%	
Karamoja	53%	51%	
Northern Region	-	-	82%
Eastern Region	-	-	83%
Uganda	52%	65%	68.8%

CFSVA 2005, 2009 & 2013

*Types- Chicken ducks other, sheep goats and pigs; cow, Bull, Oxen, and Donkey and Camels

Table 22: Livestock Population for Selected Districts in Northern Uganda Pre and After LRA and Karamajong attacks (000)

Livestock	**Lira**		**Gulu**		**Kitgum**		**Katakwi**	
	Pre LRA	**2007**	**Pre LRA**	**2007**	**Pre LRA**	**2007**	**Pre LRA**	**2007**
Cattle	80	45*	130	9	170	10	176	85*
Goats	240	55		78	200	8	193	100
Sheep	25	15		15	10	0.5	80	50
Pigs	12	7		9	0.1	3.5	30	20
Chicken	600	162		180	500	120	360	150

NUARP

*Increase in cattle population attributed to restocking by some NGOs in Lira and NUSAF in Katakwi

Table 23: Total Area of Major Crops by District (Ha)

District/ Sub Region	Plantain Bananas	Finger Millet	Maize	Sorghum	Rice	Sweet Potato	Irish potato	Cassava
Amuria	23	3,819	2,798	14,699	613	6,173	0	15,641
Katakwi	0	4,236	883	17,169	105	5,014	0	12,051
Soroti	0	10,430	15,439	18,087	2,017	12,744	0	30,951
Sub Total Eastern*	65,502	86,911	388,763	101,646	36,034	159,946	1270	342,387
Abim	0	356	644	824	0	415	0	163
Kotido	0	4,620	8,052	19,313	0	0	0	0
Moroto	0	161	3,755	14,290	0	79	0	0
Nakapiripirit	60	319	16,505	67,085	0	387	0	287
Kaabong	0	2,146	9,975	15,894	0	42	0	700
Adjumani	110	819	10,654	3,754	534	6,032	0	8,648
Nebbi	2882	352	12,698	3,545	148	2,172	354	45,342
Moyo	133	140	5,830	3,093	54	4,144	0	5867
Yumbe	176	1,128	11,507	7,245	581	7,128	0	19773
Arua	1302	5,168	6,663	9,094	231	5,137	75	28,326

District/ Sub Region	Plantain Bananas	Finger Millet	Maize	Sorghum	Rice	Sweet Potato	Irish potato	Cassava
Amuru	0	8,073	6,259	8,825	7,771	4,444	0	7,992
Apac	1,498	9,969	52,269	3,119	514	3,864	0	42,836
Amolatar	207	5,016	5,731	1180	0	1,256	0	7,865
Dokolo	109	7,742	15,428	5,309	595	2,967	0	8,918
Gulu	186	7,868	7,533	7,382	2,941	3,028	0	10,964
Kitgum	89	15,437	9,656	24,746	659	2,267	0	6,747
Koboko	936	254	3,341	1,747	358	1,244	0	6,930
Lira	883	19,682	21,002	19,448	6,703	3,769	48	17,417
Nyadri	82	1106	6207	7373	684	4279	0	25,085
Oyam	435	5,634	20,910	3,662	1,104	3,748	117	20,083
Pader	106	9,607	13,161	22,404	3,036	4172	0	6442
Sub Total Northern	9,194	105,657	247,780	249,332	25,913	60,574	594	269,885
Uganda	915,882	249,990	1,014,259	399,255	75,088	440,253	32,760	871,387

*Including other districts in the region not listed in the table

Source: Uganda Census of Agriculture 2008/09, UBOS

Table 24: Total Area of Major Crops by District (Ha)

District/ Sub Region	Beans	Field Peas	Cow peas	Pigeon Peas	Ground nuts	Soya	Simsim
Eastern	108,107	8,013	12,977	877	122,405	7,282	15,318
Northern	146,704	29,068	9,351	28,785	136,894	26,197	158,765
Uganda	617,521	43,835	23,818	29,801	345,234	36,448	175,599

Source: Uganda Census of Agriculture 2008/09, UBOS

Table 25: Over View of Agricultural Interventions by NGOs and Humanitarian Organisations in Northern Uganda 2007

ANNEX 3: OVER VIEW OF AGRICULTURAL INTERVENTION BY NGOS AND HUMANITARIA ORGANISATIONS

Theme	Organisation	Area of operation
Agricultural extension	ACDI/ VOCA, ASB Uganda, CRS – Uganda, CRWRC, GOAL, SOCADIDO, World Vision,	AMURIA, AMURU, APAC, GULU, KATAKWI, KITGUM, OYAM, PADER
Agro Forestry	CRWRC	GULU, KATAKWI
Animal Health	CRWRC	APAC, GULU, KATAKWI
Animal traction / draught power	FAO, CRS – Uganda, CESVI, CRWRC ACF – USA CoU – Northern Uganda, GOAL	AMURIA, AMURU, APAC, GULU, KATAKWI, KITGUM, OYAM, PADER
Aquaculture	FAO, WFP, CRWRC	AMURIA, GULU, KATAKWI, KITGUM, OYAM, PADER
Cassava / Sweet Potato planting material distribution	FAO, CRWRC	AMURIA, AMURU, APAC, GULU, KATAKWI, KITGUM, OYAM, PADER
Community Based Technology centers	SOCADIDO	AMURIA, KATAKWI
Cooperative farming / storage / marketing	CESVI	APAC, OYAM, PADER
Demonstration farming/	International Medical Corps, Mercy Corps,	KITGUM, PADER
Energy saving technologies	FAO, ACF – USA,	AMURIA, AMURU, GULU, KATAKWI, KITGUM, OYAM, PADER
Farmer field schools	FAO, CRS – Uganda	AMURIA, AMURU, GULU, KITGUM, PADER
Feeder road construction	WFP	GULU, KITGUM, PADER
General input distribution	CoU – TEDDO, FAO, Fida International, SOCAIDIDO, ICRC, WFP, GAA, AVSI, IRC, Food for The Hungry, World Vision, CESVI, GOAL	AMURIA, AMURU, APAC, GULU, KATAKWI, KITGUM, OYAM, PADER
Income generation activities	FAO, ACDI/ VOCA, ACF – USA	AMURIA, AMURU, GULU, OYAM
Infrastructure / general inputs through VfW	ASPS RALNUC	APAC, OYAM
Marketing of farm produce	CRWRC, CRS Uganda	APAC, GULU,
Natural resource conservation / Environmental issue	NRC	AMURU, GULU, KITGUM

Theme	Organisation	Area of operation
Processing of Agric. Produce	FAO, CESVI	AMURIA, AMURU, APAC, GULU, KATAKWI, KITGUM, OYAM, PADER
Seed Fairs / Vouchers	ACDI/ VOCA, CRS – Uganda, Save The Children, ACF – USA, Food for The Hungry	AMURU , GULU, KITGUM, OYAM, PADER
Seed multiplication	FAO, ACDI/ VOCA, NRC, WFP, Mercy Corps	AMURIA, AMURU, GULU, KITGUM
Small ruminants projects	FAO, ACDI/ VOCA Save The Children, ACF – USA CRS Uganda	AMURIA, AMURU, GULU, KATAKWI, KITGUM, OYAM, PADER
School gardening	WFP	PADER
Training (general)	SOCADIDO, NRC	AMURIA, AMURU, GULU, KATAKWI, KITGUM
Tree planting / Forestry	FAO, WFP, ACDI/ VOCA	AMURIA, AMURU, GULU, KATAKWI, KITGUM, OYAM, PADER
Tree nursery establishment	WFP, GOAL	AMURIA, AMURU, GULU, KATAKWI, KITGUM, PADER
Source: FAO Food security Database		

Source: Northern Uganda Agricultural Recovery Programme NUARP, An Identification Study Vol 2 Background Information Final Report EU 2007

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Annex 11a: Changes in FFA 2002-2010 Conceptualisation

Table 26: Changes in conceptualisation and use of FFA by WFP Uganda, 2002-2010

Year	Main assumptions	Main strategies using FFA	Predominant intended FFA outcome	Primary adaptations
2002	IDPs would begin to return over 3 year period, starting in the West [C, D] Numbers of refugees would remain stable, with incremental improvements to self-sufficiency linked to land allocations [C]	Stabilise returning populations by facilitating resettlement. [D] Enable refugees and returnees to become self-reliant. [C, D] Ensure environmental protection from school feeding [C, D]	Self-reliance through the creation of assets in settlements or in the early stages of resettlement [D] Stimulating diverse means of support for women's families [C, D]	The IDP population tripled to 1.6 million, and drought affected 536,000 people in Karamoja region. [C] FFA was used to support IDPs in and around camps as their ability to produce food declined as a result of limited access to cultivatable land [D]
2005	Solution to South Sudan and North Uganda conflicts, with gradual repatriation of refugees and return of IDPs [C, D].	Incentivise return through FFA (in return areas) and FFT (in camps) [C, D]	Human and physical assets that can support recovery of livelihoods [C, D]	IDP populations remained in camps with limited access to their homes. Deforestation reached critical levels. [D] Instability in neighbouring countries led to large numbers of refugees in West. [C] Recurrent drought and violence in Karamoja. [C]

Year	Main assumptions	Main strategies using FFA	Predominant intended FFA outcome	Primary adaptations
2008	New settlement patterns and livelihood strategies in Northern Uganda [D] Fluctuating numbers of refugees [C] Continued flood and drought cycles in Karamoja [C]	Support IDPs voluntary choices about their location [D] Promoting greater self-sufficiency wherever people were [C, D] Protect natural resources in Karamoja [C]	Strengthen household livelihoods for self-reliance [C, D] Support establishment of community services, infrastructure and natural resources [C, D] Develop Government capacity [C, D]	Floods in North Uganda forced redirection of resources to emergency [C]
2009	WFP can use purchasing power to drive productivity gains in Northern Uganda [D] Climate Change requires assistance in Karamoja to be framed by DRR [C]	Underpin structured demand and market support to enhance production [D] Disaster preparedness, mitigation, and recovery in Karamoja [C]	Market-oriented Public Works Projects structures that once constructed are relatively simple to maintain will enhance productivity gains [C] Household productivity increases to address chronic food insecurity [C, D] PSNP could deliver assets that prepare Karamoja for climate change whilst addressing immediate food gaps [C]	Integration with (NUSAF) 2 [C] Broad social protection agenda [C]

Note: [C] Chronic context, [D] Dynamic context
Source: compiled by the authors from WFP programme documents

Annex 11b FFA 2005- 2010 worksheet

Excel worksheet (FOOD FOR ASSETS 2005-2010.xls). File Available on request from OEV Unit

Annex 12: Case Study - Acholi

Theories of Change

FFA was primarily orientated at war-caused issues. Targeting and participation were based on self-selection and family structures in order to assist marginally food insecure to restart family farms.

The conditional transfer modality was selected as a means to begin addressing dependency and free-riding that had developed in camps. It was a contrast with general food distribution and intended to re-instill a culture of work. The design of FFA in terms of community participation was influenced by experiences of NUSAF and the difficulties experienced by communities in meeting their contributions.

The potential negative effects of establishing an expectation of being paid to participate in knowledge transfer or community projects does not appear to have been a significant consideration. The immediate need was to draw down the level of humanitarian support.

Food was intended to act as a safety-net for people who were moving off of general food distribution to return to villages, or who were receiving smaller rations. It also sought to mitigate the opportunity cost of returning to land and to meet the gap between camp rations and the first harvests.

Assets were mostly intended to mitigate the effects of other activities, or to enable the return process. For example, school feeding was delivering a lot of food into camp areas, but the demand for fuel wood was both contributing to degradation and placing wood-collectors at risk.

"The need to create this road by then was more of security and easy movement of the soldiers. But as I talk now the road is very important not only to this community but to the entire area because it provides access to many service centers like the health Centre, schools, connecting people to markets, to other communities and also to other neighbouring districts within the region."
R9 Pabbo

"these woodlots were for security purposes because they provided fire wood for the people … They saved them from moving long distances in search for firewood where they could be abducted by the rebels "
R3&R5 Bobi

Asset function and outcomes

Assets

The verification process found 45 assets2. 16 of these were natural resource assets (mostly school woodlots - 10), 13 were infrastructure assets (mostly roads - 7), and 15 were other assets (mostly water tanks - 5).

2 The data was incomplete for one asset, so the analysis is based on 44

Table 1 – Surviving assets[3]: findings on siting, design, connectedness, functionality & spill-over

ACHOLI	War-caused issues - SN support to RET - SN; self-selection / HH targeting; NUSAF style community participation							
		Assets TOTAL	NR TOTAL	% Tot Assets	INFASTRUCTURE TOTAL	% Tot Assets	OTHERS TOTAL	% Tot Assets
		44	16	*36.36%*	13	*29.55%*	15	*34.09%*
			No. of Assets	*% ofNR assets*	No. of Assets	*% ofNR assets*	No. of Assets	*% ofNR assets*
Sited	Very good	56.66%	9	*59%*	8	*58%*	8	*53%*
	Good	43.34%	7	*41%*	5	*42%*	7	*47%*
	Poor	0.00%	0	*0%*	0	*0%*	0	*0%*
Design	Very good	42.86%	8	*47%*	4	*33%*	7	*47%*
	Good	47.68%	8	*53%*	7	*50%*	6	*40%*
	Poor	9.45%	0	*0%*	2	*17%*	2	*13%*
Connected	Very good	56.86%	8	*53%*	8	*58%*	9	*60%*
	Good	35.73%	8	*47%*	3	*25%*	5	*33%*
	Poor	7.41%	0	*6%*	2	*17%*	1	*7%*
Spill/over	extended User	52.00%	0		0		0	
	Group	39.07%	6	*35%*	8	*58%*	4	*27%*
Status	Very good		2	*11%*	2	*16%*	6	*40%*
	Good		10	*65%*	5	*42%*	3	*20%*
	Poor		4	*24%*	5	*42%*	6	*40%*

NB – 45 asset found, analysis done on 44 only
Source: Assets verification – April 2013

As illustrated in Table 1, over half of all assets were very well sited, with 59% of natural, 58% infrastructure, and 53% of other assets were very well sited. No assets were poorly sited.

53% of natural resources, 58% of infrastructure, and 60% of other assets were very well connected to the landscape or services. However, 6% of natural resources, 17% of infrastructure and 7% of other assets were weak in terms of connectedness.
In terms of design quality, 47% of natural resources, 33% of infrastructure, and 47% of other assets were very well designed. No natural resource assets were poorly designed, but 17% of infrastructure and 13% of other assets had poor quality designs.
The current condition of assets varies more widely. 65% of natural resources, 42% of infrastructure, and 20% of other assets are in good condition. Yet, 24% of natural resources, 42% of infrastructure, and 40% of other assets are currently in a poor state.

Of the surviving assets, local people have adapted or extended 52% of assets and 39% still have functioning user groups (35% natural resources, 58% infrastructure, 27% other assets).

3 The analysis is based on 44 assets for which information is complete

Most current users are school-related (56%). 37% of users are local community or community group members, 2% are private households, and
5% are not in use.

An analysis of fuzzy set indicators found no reliable patterns in terms of necessary or sufficient conditions for an asset to be functioning today, reflecting the complex and dynamic set of influences in Acholi.

In general, it is recalled that FFA activities were well linked to local government plans. Indeed, WFP provided no technical supervision or engineering inputs (such as culverts). The only contribution of FFA was in terms of labour. As a result, activities could not progress until a complete plan had been established to source all required inputs. Paper copies of project proposals reviewed in WFP sub-offices suggest that this was a thorough process, and there is no evidence of systemic shortfalls in completing activities.

Field teams seem to have relied heavily on the FFA guidelines and feedback from reviews of project proposals. There was also a heavy – and probably unrealistic – reliance on technical assistance from local government experts. WFP field teams lacked quality assurance for technical activities. As a result, WFP staff themselves suggest that technical quality was often insufficient to address the identified problem. By comparison, Care (2006/07) did labour-based opening of roads, with shaping by professional equipment and engineers (albeit, at a much smaller scale).

Some informants cited demonstration centres that have degraded into bushland as examples of poor quality. However, to a large extent these assets were not intended to be sustained. The poor condition of some infrastructure assets, such as roads, is of greater concern. To some degree this may have been avoided by drawing on traditional mechanisms for maintaining community footpaths that allocate sections to individual households enforced through bylaws administered by LC1s4.

Outcomes

Households mainly consumed the food aid distributed through FFA (76%). Only 7% was sold or bartered. 6% was used for seed, whilst 9% was given away and 1% was lost. When asked about the most significant change they experienced as a result of participating in FFA, 77% of people reported impacts, the most common of which were improved access to food (19%) and improved income (9%).

The perception of WFP field staff is that participation in FFA was the first time many communities significantly re-engaged with producing assets or working in groups. Unlike general food distribution, there were no significant food distribution issues due to FFA being built on community and a spirit of opportunity. In relation to this perception, 7% of participants reported impacts relating to groupwork, culture or self-reliance. In terms of other intended benefits, 5% of people reported changes in terms of technical skills gained, and 3% in terms of increased access to fuel or construction wood.

4 The first level of political representation at the community level: fines of chickens of goats are levied on households who do not maintain their sections of footpath and these are used to pay replacement workers.

Significant changes as a result of the assets created were reported by 79% of people. This included access to markets or services (13%), increased income or food availability (10%), enhanced access to clean water (8%), and improved access to wood (also 8%). Only 1.6% of respondents combined reported reduced soil erosion, increased crop yields, or improved nutrition as impacts.

A tree nursery was established in Gulu to distributed seedlings and establish school or community woodlots. For many of the woodlots, the potential long-term benefits of income generation or fuel wood provision are yet to be realised. Pupils are still required to bring wood to school whilst the teachers use the woodlot to meet their needs. The closure of the WFP school feeding activity has precluded follow-up on this issue.

The standards for woodlots seem to have been based on how much land could be provided and managed. This normally resulted in 1-2 acres, with some nearby to the nursery up to 7 acres selling timber - but not yet happening. Although all woodlots have now been handed over, schools suggest that a need remains to increase size of woodlots to 6, and add fencing.

Teachers' houses were supported in partnership with UNICEF and community contributions. When faced with demands for payment for community contributions, WFP worked with local leaders to mobilising local workers using traditional mechanisms. This is reported as marking a transition point for moving away from handouts.

During the early return phase, WFP invested in multiplication of cassava, opening and planting 50 acres near Pabbo for 12 months. The community cut stems freely for their own gardens, and these were well accepted by the community. At that time, many ended up being planted too late in the season, however, most key informants agree that the cassava grown in Acholi today is a direct result of WFP multiplication and NAADS.

Qualitative evidence suggests that FFT was interpreted rather broadly in the realities of the transition period. WFP staff recall support to rehabilitating local institutions and the provision of a resettlement package to accompany returnees as being labeled as FFT. This may well have been appropriate at the time, especially considering the challenge of reintegrating returning abductees into communities. However, the flexible interpretation of FFT labeling makes it extremely difficult to now trace the effect of these investments.

Pabbo Case Study: As a result of the opened land and the cassava multiplication garden, a very big cassava garden was created by Lunyeko Kunen group. This did not only provide food and money from the sale of cassava especially by the group members but also provided food to the other community members who come to work on the farm during times of harvesting the cassava. This group because of their success in cassava cultivation has attracted other services such as the bore hole that we talked about was lobbied by this group.

"The woodlots provide firewood for use at home and the school, timber that is sold as a building material to bring income to the school and also acts as a wind breaker, the kitchen house and saucepans facilitate the school feeding program,

the borehole and tap water provide water for use at home and around the school and some is sold which generates income which is used to maintain the m when they break down."
R1 Bobi

"the mobile toilets always get full which is costly to maintain they and some times they are stolen by selfish individuals and the woodlot is running out of trees due to over exploitation."
R6 Bobi

"And also increase on the training because they have forgotten all that they learnt in the previous trainings."
R7 Bobi

Productivity and Food Security

In response to questions about the most significant changes on their livelihoods, 80% of respondents reported impacts. For 15% of people this was in terms of improved food availability, 9% in terms of access to markets and services, 9% in terms of welfare, and 5% in terms of increased income. There are some extreme examples, such as Bungatira Primary School that has been estimated to have earned over 50m UGX from their woodlot (20,000 USD).

Productivity is generally perceived as increasing year-on-year. The long fallow period created by the LRA insurgency has left the land more fertile with high phosphate levels, but land is closed over with bushes and trees and requires opening. At the same time, loss of animal traction has made this extremely difficult for many households, who cannot afford the capital investment needed to clear land.

Traditionally, the Acholi have practiced crop rotation among widely spaced gardens. However, the reduction in open land and increasing disputes over land ownership has limited this. Fertiliser is still only required during droughts, but the failure to restart traditional land management techniques is likely to put pressure on this in the future. This is likely to be compounded by the small scale of restocking and land opening programmes. The FFA programme does not appear to have considered this scenario.

Since the 2005-2010 period, prices in the markets are reported to have stabilised. A major source of demand has also emerged in terms of Southern Sudan. This has driven demand for Acholi production, especially in areas close to the border. However, weak marketing structures mean that the Sudanese effect may have increased food insecurity at the same time as driving up productivity. Few wholesalers are based in Northern Uganda, with most crops being purchased directly by buyers based in Kampala or Juba. As many small farmers become more market-focused, lack of on-farm storage, low value addition and few cooperatives mean that farmers often sell low-value crops during a glut; and weak bookkeeping skills mean that many risk selling at a loss.

As a result, district officers report that food insecurity remains a major challenge. Several are developing bylaws to force all households to grow cassava as a food

security crop (the strongest market is for rice). Compounding the challenge is the perception that hunger season is traditional. Saving is a major challenge, then, and there appears to be little work being done in the area of food budgeting or asset management.
A compounding factor is the transition from traditional granaries to storage in sacks. Camp life started a trend of using plastic bags to store crops because of security and ease of storing food at home. Many farmers are not rebuilding granaries because of fear of theft. Food insecurity is intensified due to the ease of selling bagged grains to Sudanese and Kampala traders. There is also a gender element to this: a man could not open the granary without the permission of his wife, but sacks stored remotely are easy to sell without consultation. ACDI-VOCA are now trying to reactivate granary culture.

"But as per now, we are into serious cultivation and even started restocking. I can see the interest of the Government and most NGOs in helping us the people of Acholi especially through the program of NAADs and other program of the NGOs that is now helping us restock by distributing goats and oxen and also supporting farming by distributing seeds and some support the elderly by opening up land for cultivation using tractors. "
R7 Pabbo

"Always, the food given depending on the size of the household can take 1month because we did not feed on the given food alone, we also had other food alternatives to supplement whatever we could get from WFP."
R1 Pabbo

Gender and Equity

Asset ownership is 95% held by the community or groups, with 44% of beneficiaries being the community or community groups, and 49% being related to schools. The remaining 5% of beneficiaries are individual households. Maintenance is funded for 81% of assets, with the largest source being school fees (16%).

Despite the commitment to women's participation, 45% of women report no significant change for women from FFA. Of those who experienced changes, 7% reported easier access to fuel wood as being most significant, whilst 6% found that unifying people in groups was important.

Women's participation was actively promoted by WFP projects, and there is evidence that it was considered in the design of all activities. Indeed, more women were reported as working on FFA than men. Despite this, worknorms were not varied for different gender groups, leading to no difference in the work for men and women, elderly and youth. WFP staff members were aware of this, and using camp leaders to target housholds (rather than individuals) was intended to mitigate this through allowing for the flexible distribution of work demands.

One issue that FFA may have contributed to both positively and negatively is child protection. Local government specialists note a large increase in child abuse due to camp culture, excessive drinking and the immunity of public officers (including soldiers and teachers). Children were often lured into abuse by gifts of food, and were often left in camps for their safety whilst parents attempted to reestablish farms. FFA

activities may have kept children away from their parents for this reason. Nevertheless, any activities that reduced hunger or sped up the reestablishment of homesteads are likely to have reduced the opportunity for abuse. The protection of FFA participants was considered by WFP (such as soldiers guarding participants during work), however, wider family protection does not seem have been a feature of the programme design.

"For the rest we did the same work men and women did the same work, you are just given measurement and you are paid after you have completed your quota. There was nothing like gender into it."
R9 Pabbo

Risk and Adaptation

People who were displaced into camps lost many of their original seeds, such as cassava and maize. This was replaced by improved varieties advised by local government and FAO experts that are fast growing and intended to reduce hunger. Communities and NGOs report a number of issues that have since emerged with this choice of species.

Traditional varieties were long-lasting and could be kept in the garden for 3-4 years as a source of food security. Farmers report that the improved varieties are more susceptible to disease and weevils, do not germinate after the second season, and rot if they are not harvested and stored properly. In 2011/12, casava disease affected mostly the improved varieties. As a result, people are questioning the quality of improved varieties (they are also bitter) and are actively trying to reestablish local species.

The same dilemma can be found in the move towards a market-orientated food security system that WFP's P4P programme is partly premised on. Old hunger strategies included leaving crops in the field. Storage in sacks has led to a higher risk of infestation unless implemented well. Support services are available, but interviewees suggest that many vulnerable people have an inferiority complex and do not even attempt to access help. Whilst commercialization does offer the possibility of higher long term income (and thus security), it seems to have contributed to short term vulnerability significantly enough to lead several sub-counties to introduce bylaws promoting food security crops.

"Sometime the cassava gets rotten when it's harvested in large quantity since it's hard to get the market to sell them."
R3 Pabbo

Costs

Governance

Communities recall that most assets were decided by WFP (53%), with 29% decided by schools or communities, 14% jointly, and 4% by others. This perception runs counter to WFP's paper records in sub-offices that clearly record conversations with

communities and leaders around self-selection of assets through community mobilisers. It may, however, also reflect the observation that the menu of FFA activities often limited the final asset to something that was not one of the community's original priorities.

WFP staff acknowledge that in some cases FFW school woodlots were triggered by WFP, especially near the end of the 2005-2010 period when the vision expanded under some programme staff to use tree planting projects as a means of providing schools with sufficient income to be self-contained.

The relative homogeneity of assets is a feature that WFP field staff consistently account for as the result of community demand, rather than a limited menu. In some cases, the need to carefully justify projects may have contributed to this, as some assets are perhaps easier to identify and design than others.

Communities report that the other major agencies supporting infrastructure were Oxfam, Red Cross and World Vision. Also significant in this area were ACTED and USAID, with Amref, Nudeli and Mercy Corp featuring significantly. 9% of households interviewed received assistance with social infrastructure (schools and health clinics).

In 2005, more than 300 organisations were operating from Gulu, including UN, INGOs, LNGOs, CSOs, and CBOs. Gulu district government was working, but nearly all sub-county administrations were displaced into camps. There is almost universal acknowledgement of the pivotal role that OCHA played in managing the coordination during the emergency phase: operating through the District Disaster Management Committee.

Coordination appears to have been focused primarily on information sharing to avoid duplication, rather than developing synergies or joint planning. The scale of the coordination challenge meant that most work was done in committees, and WFP participated actively in these structures. Nevertheless, there were hundreds of programmes running in parallel in a highly insecure context.

The Peace Accord led to the dismantling of the humanitarian cluster system, and eventually the consolidation of the District Disaster Management Committee into the District Reconciliation and Peace Team. This is still influential, but by most accounts the high level of coordination disappeared during transition. Instead, significant government is given to NUSAF and NAADS, both of which are continuously cited at sub-county level as major contributors to the recovery.

Few partners are seen to have followed people to resettlement sites, and most that did were infrastructure based. Humanitarian partners who had operated in the camps left with the reduced funding available after 2006/07, many to Karamoja. Indeed, WFP field staff members recall donors putting pressure on WFP to also withdraw as the food security situation stabilized.

During the FFA programme, schools and other institutions acted as delivery partners, with WFP rarely interacting with communities directly. This work seems to have been largely coordinated well with the districts. Community facilitators worked with communities to create proposals that WFP and local government reviewed.

Final agreement was negotiated based on what resourcing WFP had and which other partners were on board.

World Vision were the biggest partners in terms of scale, Save the Children in education, ICRC in WASH and livelihoods, UNICEF through districts, and Care was also working on roads. In period subsequent to this evaluation, ACTED has built on WFP's interventions, especially around roads and FAO with DANIDA are reported as having undertaken conditional transfers based on vouchers.

There is evidence that in the field, FAO and WFP staff collaborated on many occasions. For example, FAO helped to deal with a cassava disease outbreak that was severely affecting WFP's programming. Nevertheless, field staff members summarize the situation as "WFP & FAO have corporate tension. Some people work very easily in the field, some take on the corporate tension and are hard to work with." This view is not just held in the field, one of WFP's major donors indicated the frustration about the state of the partnership with FAO.

From the interview material gathered for this evaluation, there appear to be two significant contributing factors to this dynamic. The first is that FAO have access to better technical staff, but WFP have the capacity to deliver simpler programmes at far greater scale. In a transition scenario, such as Acholi, the demand for seed multiplication, for example, was very large and very urgent. Not all technical experts feel comfortable with the compromises that responding to this situation can demand.

The second factor seems to be an inherent incompatibility between the design of FFA and Farmer Field Schools (FFS): both flagship programmes for the two agencies. The conditional transfer of FFA creates a work incentive that undermines voluntary participation in FFS in the locations where the programmes overlap. At the same time, FFA has a far wider coverage and there was a strong case for using conditional transfers to support the return. Despite the clear frustration created by this dynamic in both agencies, it does not appear to be openly discussed or to have a roadmap for resolution.

"The community access road; was done away back when some of us were still in camps. I remember when the soldiers use to accompany people from the camp as they go to dig the road. All this decision was made by the WFP staffs and the community leaders."
R5 Pabbo

"We talked to our community leaders who sought for help and later WFP came in to intervene and donated help which also opened way for other organizations to come in so the decision of where the assets were to be set was largely influenced by our community leaders."
R9 Bobi

Hazards and Uncertainty

Since the return began in 2006, the issue of land conflicts has emerged as a significant problem – especially for the most vulnerable members of society. Land did not have a monetary value until people living in areas around camps realized that they could rent access to IDPs. This situation was driven by three main factors:

No clear land titling from the pre-conflict period;

Unclear boundaries because of overgrown fields and loss of local knowledge; and
Phased return to villages, meaning that early-returners could occupy land.

Land access remains a major challenge, with organisations such as Acholi Leaders' Peace Initiative, Feeder Uganda, and CRR working on mediating disputes. Local government staff report that the land court system takes 3-5 years to resolve a dispute, often meaning that people take matters into their own hands and use violent mean to exercise control over an area of land.

"some people failed to return especially in some areas not in our village here because they lost their land by the period that people were in the camps, some relatives came and took other peoples land especially for those who lost their parents during the war and they find that there is no need to come and struggle with your either uncle or relative"
R10 Pabbo

In addition to land disputes, new hazards have emerged as a result of increased movement of cattle and centralized efforts to restock. These include outbreaks of foot and mouth and swine fever that even affected livestock provided through NAADS.

Organisation

Of the households surveyed, 28% report no setbacks in the implementation of the project. Among the 72% households reporting experiencing a setback, 35% related to long delays in getting the food and 19% travelled long distance to get the food. These figures need to be caveated by two potential factors: 1) FFA was a new modality for participants and the perception of delays may relate as much to issues of communication and expectation as to actual delays; and 2) there was a lot of food distribution in the area, some linked to FFA and much linked to GFD – WFP had over 700 FFA distribution points and so the perception of distance may also be linked to recall of other food aid.

In Acholi, 10% of respondents were unable to complete household, farm or paid work as a result of participating in FFA: meaning that 90% had the full amount of spare labour required.

WFP developed a reputation for working well with the sub-county structures, even where these were displaced or poorly functioning. In general, communication with communities appears to have been directed through district and local government structures, or NGO partners. Community Facilitators acted as the main interface between WFP and communities, with WFP staff tending to visit at the launch of a project and during a handover involving district and/or sub-county staff.

Groups of stakeholders view the success of this system differently. Many suggest that it worked well, and strengthened the presence of local authorities even where they did not have the capacity to act. Informants tend to recall WFP's launch of projects more clearly than the handover. There was also the suggestion that the use of local authorities resulted in sustainability plans for assets being exclusively based on

government taking over projects (such as roads) rather than using traditional community systems of asset-maintenance.

The primary role of WFP field staff seems to have been project coordination, training, and negotiating contextually appropriate work norms. This relied on strong relationships with local partners, who recall frequent staff changes in WFP as often affecting rapport with their organisations, especially in terms of the 'language' used by individuals to describe what they wanted.

Changes in rules and reporting formats caused gaps for local organisations, who found it hard to believe that the WFP field staff were subject to demands from HQ or CO that were deemed to be inappropriate to the Acholi context. It was noted, however, that there is little structural difference between WFP and the other big agencies, and that the main differentiating factor is different personalities at different times.

Despite relatively infrequent interfacing with local NGOs and a tendency to issue instructions rather than engage in dialogue, NGO representatives note that FFA built the capacity of the oragnizations that implemented it – in terms of resourcing, staff and experience. WFP was seen as having strict reporting requirements that were hard to meet for CSOs, but taken as a positive challenge. No members of the Gulu NGO Forum had ever reported negative incidents involving WFP. Defining partnership roles was recalled as a critical factor for success, and is one area that could have been strengthened.
Some interviewees noted that project management committees where designed in reflection of WFP's hierarchical organisation, and that this may not be the most effective solution. It was suggested that moving towards flat collaborative structures with different-but-equal roles had proven to be more effective in other projects, avoiding the tendency for project management committees to issue instructions to the community rather than participate in action themselves.

WFP staff members in Acholi appear to have been comfortable with FFA as a way of working, understanding it as a core WFP modality. Sub Office staff reported a positive outlook to FFA, because it gives field staff the opportunity to practice project development, demonstrate initiative, and innovation. They reported gaining significant satisfaction and pride from implementing because of seeing improvement in project development, community relations, and their understanding of the context over time.

Communication, a common theme in the findings at community level, also emerged as a source of uncertainty for field staff. Sub-Office teams noted that the country vision depends primarily on the background of the Country Director rather than a WFP organisational vision. Field staff remain uncertain as to why FFA was stopped in 2010, or why funding was discontinued for an innovative campaign for packed-lunches that replaced the school feeding activities in Acholi.

"Actually they [WFP] were so fast in delivering services that even what they have done could not be easily noticed and associated with them."
R8 Pabbo

Recommendations

A number of recommendations emerged from interviewees, which are captured here as an additional set of insights.

Community engagement emerged as an issue for many people. Investing in the relationship with communities is seen as critical to the success of FFA. Specific ideas included:

- Building capacity of local communities in regard to the choice of assets and modalities of implementation to ensure ownership
- Paying attention to issues of mutual interest among community members
- More flexibility and time to listen to locals around their interests
- Be very clear about conditions
- Building on existing community efforts in order to make them more sustainable
- Having community liaison personnel that are expert at community work and who can talk to communities nicely, even when giving bad news
- Staff able to communicate in the language of the community
- Seeking feedback from the communities for purposes of future programming
- Utilising local structures, including traditional ones, for ownership and sustainability
- Value and appreciate existing cultural structures of administration before creating own structures
- Early sensitisation of communities on the need to avoid expecting handouts
- Holding community feedback sessions where WFP gives feedback to communities and helps to address challenges through dialogue.

Other recommendations that emerged from the field include:

1. Seeking a balance between improved and local seed varieties – do not disregard wider factors of traditional crops, such as seeds that do not reproduce after a few years in new varieties;
2. Placing emphasis on quality assurance for longevity of assets created like roads, teachers houses, etc;
3. Linking FFA more closely to, and continuing, the school feeding project.

It should also be noted, that local interviewees suggested that FFA should not just be borrowed from the Northern Uganda experience and planted into another context, such as Somalia. The importance of redefining the design of implementation for the local context is seen as being of vital importance.

Annex 13: Case Study - Teso & Lango

Theories of Change

FFA was introduced to Teso and Lango at a time when many people were displaced and in camps, but starting to undertake the return process. Within the camps, relief and emergency interventions were meeting the immediate needs of the most vulnerable, but this was seen as an unsustainable and temporary solution. FFA was designed to absorb the spare labour of families in camps to begin a transition back to more sustainable livelihoods.

The logic for undertaking FFA was multifaceted. FFA activities were intended to meet gaps identified during the implementation of food for education and health programmes, such as firewood shortages around camps. The process of conditional transfers was also intended to restore dignity by moving way from handouts. Communities selected assets and able to demand payment based on work done. There was also an intention that bringing people together into groups would help to encourage cohesion in the face of the psychological effects of camp life and the daily struggle with neighbours over limited resources.

Most of the assets in Teso and Lango focused on the return. Movement was very restricted and so many teachers did not attend schools. The construction of teachers' houses was intended to match with complementary education interventions undertaken with other partners and meet demands from communities. Fishponds were sited near to markets and in places where there were no lakes or rivers to supplement nutrition and generate income. Many roads were impassable, restricting access to social services. Food security and nutrition became difficult to distinguish outside of the camps, with increasing production in return areas seen as the answer for both.

FFA thus had the dual purpose of bridging the immediate hunger gap and enabling the reestablishment of livelihoods. Conditional transfers are seen as having been the appropriate response by all interviewees – moving people gradually away from handouts that were the norm in IDP camps. WFP seems to have been one of very few agencies that undertook conditional transfers, with many relief NGOs continuing general distributions until they closed their operations.

Within the camp setting, many channels for transfers to IDPs were opened, such as paying people to attend camp management meetings. As a result, the culture of being paid to participate in community activities is not unique to the FFA modality, and the long-term challenges of transitioning communities back to voluntary developmental activities cannot be linked solely to the use of conditional transfers. Nevertheless, multiple interviewees noted the importance of limiting the use of this modality to times when other opportunities are missing in order to minimise later effects on dependency.

In fact, FFA was intended to help people reengage with livelihood opportunities (such as income generation) and community contributions to schools (before going into camps communities mobilised to build teachers' houses). Projects also included cassava multiplication, intended to replace lost cuttings with fast-yielding varieties that could more quickly close the hunger gap faced by returnees.

Asset function and outcomes

Assets

There were 17 assets verified from the period 2005-2010: 7 natural resources (including 3 school woodlots), 9 infrastructure assets (including 7 teachers' houses), and 1 other asset (class floor maintenance, excluded from the quantitative analysis due to low representativeness).

All the natural resources were very well sited, as were 78% of infrastructure assets. None were poorly sited. Connectedness was also strong, with 71% natural resources very well connected and 78% infrastructure very well connected.

Design quality was a little more varied, with 43% of natural resources and 44% of infrastructure very well designed, whilst 33% of infrastructure was poorly designed. As a result, 29% of natural resources and 44% of infrastructure is currently in a very good condition (as is the classroom floor). 29% of natural resources are in poor condition, but no infrastructure is. 82% of assets have been adapted or extended by local people, and the same number have a functioning user group (natural resources 71%, infrastructure 89%).

The main users of assets are teachers (35%) and schools and management (35%). 12% of users are community groups, 12% are mixed, and 6% of assets are not in use.

WFP implemented several projects with partners, including World Vision, Africare and CIDI. Most projects were implemented once people had left camps, when the emphasis shifted from getting-by (e.g. grinding mills in camps) to income generation (e.g. fish ponds). Community project management committees oversaw activities in an attempt to self-monitor assets and support quality.

Community mobilisers tried to identify participants with prior knowledge of the asset in question and made sure that they were included in the project management committee. Technical inputs were also sought from district staff, and WFP employed an engineer to assist with teachers' houses.

WFP field staff recalled the FFA guidelines at the time as focusing chiefly on worknorms: "[they] did not have a lot of science, because at the end of the day [the] criteria were fairly basic". This matched with the view that FFA was primarily intended as a channel for feeding people not reached by relief. WFP field staff understood the basics of FFW, but technical quality relied on individual interpretation of guidance, community knowledge, and external experts. FFT entirely relied on technical service providers for quality, with WFP only providing a supporting role.

Outcomes

74% of food aid rations were consumed directly by households. Of the remainder, 10% was shared, 8% used for seed, 6% sold or bartered, and 2% lost. Teso and Lango was the only case study in which the size of the ration was raised as an issue, by both government and WFP field staff. They suggested that it inadequately reflected the

level of work that was expected of people: a feeling that was perhaps framed by the GFD that was being distributed at the same time.
Household interviews found that 84% of respondents experienced a significant change as a result of the conditional transfer, with the most frequent impact cited as improved access to food or nutrition (14%) and the technical skills that were acquired (13%). Only 1% reported increased self-reliance as the most significant outcome.

In terms of the assets created, nearly all surveyed households reported significant impacts. These were highly diverse, with the most common being improved climate (8%), improved access to markets and services (8%), improved access to clean water (8%), and improved availability of fish (6%). The most infrequently reported impacts related to social aspects of group work.

FFA support to the excavation of fishponds started in some areas around 2006. In many cases, WFP was supporting the enlargement of existing ponds from 200m^2 to 1,000m^2. The results appear to have been mixed. For example, NAADS constructed a fish hatchery next to one pond that is still in use. But, despite a strong market demand for fish the challenge of common ownership, theft and constrained supplies of affordable fishponds have resulted in many being totally destocked.

When they were functioning, fishponds were appreciated for providing both food and income (that was used to give petty employment to pond keepers and pay school fees). Although many of the WFP ponds now act only as water sources, NAADS staff members have started copying the approach in recent years and sensitising communities to fisheries as a livelihood option.

In terms of woodlots, there appears to have been clusters of different species, such as pine and teak, planted mainly according to what was available. The main aim of woodlots was to address environmental degradation around camps, and host communities continue to value them: continuing management of these assets through either sub county or school administrations.

Since their establishment, woodlots are reported as having acted as windbreaks, providing shelter to schools, and as demonstration sites for the community. The main outstanding demand was that more nurseries could have been established at sub-county level to meet local needs, rather than relying on a few big mother nurseries. This would have also helped to overcome the limited scale of many woodlots (approx. 1.5 acres).

Teachers' houses remain a popular asset, and there is still outstanding demand for more. It is, however, difficult to untangle the impacts of teachers' houses from the myriad of other education interventions. It is also noticeable that communities have not improved upon these assets since the withdrawal of FFA, leaving many houses unplastered. Depletion of local grasses is also making it more difficult to reroof buildings.

Roads are seen to be successful in their continued use and maintenance, but have been subject to changes in community expectations around payment for maintenance rather than the traditional systems of community management. The roads also enabled new settlement areas to be established and NGOS, such as Oxfam and ICRC, to deliver services in very rural areas.

WFP field staff the FFA cassava multiplication sites – none of which now exist – as having had sustained impact by successfully making the transition from communal gardens to private homesteads. They also indicate that many of the FFA buildings are still in use hosting basic social services.

One impact that was only mentioned in Teso was the long-term use of seeds and tools that were given as part of FFA. It was noted by partners that WFP seedlings were rarely stolen (a good sign in terms of community ownership), and that FFA tools have since been distributed to households and then loaned to community works such as latrine construction.

Productivity and Food Security

The peace that followed disarmament in Karamoja has also affected Teso and Lango, with more activities taking place across the border areas. Within this context, households reported a wide range of impacts from FFA in relation to livelihoods. These included improved accommodation (13%), enhanced income (10%), improved sanitation (8%), and improved standards of living (8%). Improve availability of fish or firewood was only cited by 1% of households as the most significant change.

Since 2006, the major reported factor affecting productivity is freedom of movement due to improved security. Farmers are also starting to restock the animals that they sold or lost when moving into camps, although most households continue to rely on hand hoes rather than animal traction for ploughing. In the areas visited, most households are producing on 2 acres of land, with oxen and machinery required to open up the 4-6 acres that many could potentially cultivate.

Although the limited capacity to open land is constraining many farmers to largely subsistence production, local government staff members suggest that there is an increasing orientation towards market production, with a subsequent diversification in crop varieties. Some farmers are now specialising in enterprises such as apiary, piggery, or cash crops. This is complementing the new traction animals that are slowly being acquired. Income is said to have slightly improved and stabilised around rice, maize, soya and sunflowers.

Women dominate productive capacity, with some interviewees estimating they do 80% of garden work. For this reason, women's project groups are said to be more successful than men's or mixed groups. As with our Karamoja findings, this situation is said to be slowly changing as more men get involved in market-orientated agriculture.

Increased levels of production and incomes have been linked to an increase in the enrolment rates for girls in primary education. However, despite the Universal Primary Education policy, up to 100 learners per school drop out in order to avoid the 2,000 UGX (0.77 USD) exam fees, suggesting that many communities are still economically vulnerable.

Factors that are reported as significantly impacting production include flood-drought cycles in Lango and the improvement in the timeliness of NAADS inputs over the

past 3 years in Teso. NAADS is given a large amount of credit by many interviewees as being the main source of agricultural support. NUSAF and the Plan for the Modernisation of Agriculture are also frequently cited.

Effective marketing remains a major challenge in all areas, including those close to Soroti. There is an unmet need for collective marketing and a lack of storage options that lead to poor price performance for many farmers.

Gender and Equity

Most assets in Teso and Lango are community-owned, including 100% of natural resources and 78% of infrastructure. The main beneficiaries are related to schools, including students (53%) and teachers (12%). 12% of beneficiaries are community groups, 6% individuals, and 11% mixed assets. 6% of assets are unused.
Maintenance funds are raised for 76% of assets, the main sources being PTA funds (41%) and by selling outputs from the asset (18%).

Households reported that 76% of women experienced significant impacts from assets, the most frequent being improved access to food (17%), easier access to firewood (7%) and acquiring technical skills (6%).
WFP is reported to have encouraged the participation of women, and there is strong documentary evidence at sub-office level to confirm this. Women were targeted based on their central role within the home, and perceptions that they are at a lower risk of spending resources outside of household needs. NGO partners were recalled as emphasising WFP's enhanced commitment to women during distributions.

Part of this strong emphasis on women was related to the targeting of FFA at household-level. With many polygamous families in Teso, it was felt that encouraging women to register for FFA would ensure that all children got fed, not just the primary household.

The experience of women varied significantly across asset types. Labour intensive projects, such as pond excavation, had lower participation of women than agricultural projects. Each task was estimated to be 4 hours work, with participants choosing when they worked. Everyone did the same tasks, including women, men, young people and older people. The perception of observers is that the primary burden of FFA on women was not, however, the work itself, but the time that was no longer available to them for domestic or other farm work.

Traditionally, women produce the bulk of food, but men control all productive assets. Women utilise the land with the permission of men, who are mostly engaged in production entirely orientated towards the market rather than the household. Although women harvest, men control the stores of crops and the management of income generated from the sale of farm produce. The consequences of this role arrangement include gender-based violence and food shortages resulting from mismanaged selling (often to pay for alcohol).

FFA did not fundamentally challenge or move on these gender roles, but it did involve women in non-traditional roles (such as road construction) and this is said to have continued. In combination with the wider experience of camp life, this also

demonstrated to women that they are capable of running a homestead independently.

The reorientation of men towards the cash-based economy has had significant gender implications. Women can still be mobilised to volunteer on community projects, but they are infrequently supported by their menfolk. Men are increasingly returning to agriculture, but are seen to have surrendered the responsibility for food production to women.

A major gender consideration that was not explicitly addressed in FFA was the impact of the conflict on youth, few of whom want to return to agriculture. Many young people have not experienced employment or completed their education, and they also had the experience of being in the militia.

Risk and Adaptation

There is traditionally a long dry spell in large parts of Teso and Lango. Despite this, households tend only to save for seed, preferring to sell excess harvest to invest in village savings and loans. This means that many tend to sell when the market is lowest.

Local NAADS staff report that farmers appreciate all the support that they receive, but that there are so many demands on their limited resources that few move towards self-sustainability. This is compounded by a continued belief in rain fed agriculture being subject to acts of god, rather than risks which can be managed.
The main coping strategies continue to be cutting down on meals, selling women's labour in neighbouring districts, and brewing homemade alcohol for sale. New adaptation strategies have also emerged, including Savings and Credit Cooperative

Organisations, reverting to reinforced traditional hut construction (that is more resistant to flooding), shifting planting periods from April to June, diversifying across crops and livestock, and planting fast maturing varieties. Some communities even used the return period to relocate their gardens out of flood plains.

Most farmers now have three main sources of resistance to drought or flooding: cassava, traditional granaries, and village savings and loans. Despite this, most interviewees estimated that the majority of households probably only have 6 months worth of reserves and there has been very little change in the level of savings.

Governance

Households reported the main source of support received in terms of infrastructure came equally from WFP, UNICEF, World Vision, and Youth with a Purpose. 10% of households reported receiving assistance with social infrastructure (schools, health clinics, water, etc).

During the relief period (up until 2006) coordination was regular and well attended by agencies. Joint food security assessments conducted by WFP, FAO, OCHA, Government, ICRC and ACTED formed the basis of sector coordination. Interventions were designed by agencies based on the areas of responsibility identified through this process. WFP facilitated joint assessments using its vehicles.

The clear coordination was not continued once OCHA withdrew, with respondents suggesting that no single agency is spearheading coordination and that district governments (through the district disaster management committees) do not have the capacity. As a result, many organisations are unclear about the priorities of government – with each agency engaging authorities only in relation to their own projects.

The design of FFA, undertaken during the period of strong inter-agency coordination was based on three main inputs: a) the joint identification of needs coordinated by OCHA, b) gaps identified in WFPs other programming, and c) community facilitators identifying the priority needs of communities that corresponded with WFP's mandate.

The work of community facilitators is well documented at sub-office level, with project proposals developed with community groups. The dialogue with communities would create an emerging group that agreed on priorities and wanted to work on FFA together. Community facilitators and WFP field staff then attempted to identify partners to be included in project implementation.

One of the challenges noted by WFP field staff is the difference between an external assessment of people's needs and the needs that households themselves most acutely feel. For example, accessing improved varieties of cassava – an activity implemented by WFP to address food insecurity – was often felt by people as being less important than restocking their cattle – an important source of cultural status as well as livelihood. Furthermore, NGO and government interviewees suggested that many people see all projects as inherently external; and that ownership of information is low.

Households surveyed reported that 31% of assets were decided primarily by the community or school either independently or jointly with WFP. Over half (53%) of assets were decided by WFP alone. These reveal that, despite the use of community facilitators, issues of ownership were a challenge for FFA. In one district, the Government reported that fishponds were chosen by communities because they were the easiest activity, payment could be accessed most quickly, and the amount of land needed was minimal.

Implementation of FFA required, and contributed to, partners, including local government. In many cases, early FFA efforts were constrained by the availability of partners and inadequate resourcing at the sub-county and district levels – particularly in responding to emergencies, such as flooding. Despite these gaps, since 2006 there has been a steady investment by government in recruiting new staff and opening new offices. At the same time, however, coordination between partners has dropped significantly.

The majority of projects in the sub-region, and not just FFA, are said to focus on short-term targeting rather than long term transformation. Food production remains a major focus for many organisations and social issues such as gender are largely absent. Although WFP wound down its FFA operations in 2010, the agency was credited by local government with having long-duration interventions and working closely with government structures.

Hazards and Uncertainty

In the time under review, hazards have changed: cattle theft has almost stopped and gun violence has reduced significantly – but people's livelihoods are threated by inflation and high costs of education. Rainfall patterns are seen to becoming highly unpredictable by all observers, and lack of reliable advice or guidance is disrupting production.

As security have improved, so there has been an increase in the movement of cattle. This has brought with it threats such as foot and mouth disease. Land conflict frames most of the problems and often affects government institutions such as schools and health centres. The coverage of health facilities is low, and HIV has emerged as a major source of livelihood vulnerability.

Organisation

24% of interviewed households reported by setbacks to implementation, whilst 28% were unable to complete other farm, household or paid work whilst participating in FFA. In 17% of interviews, a delay in getting food rations was reported, 15% had to walk long distances to get rations, and 5% reported difficulty in arranging child care as a significant problem.

Despite implementing FFA with very few human resources compared to the scale of the programming, WFP were seen as a timely and reliable partner by farmers. This was largely because funds were already secured to implement FFA projects when they were discussed – whereas most agencies undertook consultation prior to fundraising that created a time lag in implementation.

WFP's main partner was government, and most of the time the agency was reported as consulting with all necessary authorities before implementing any activity. WFP also provided transport – which was seen as useful – to government, but some administrative issues with intimidating waivers and non-provision of ballistics vests to government staff in WFP cars created tensions.

FFA was implemented through partners because sub-office staff were limited in their number and restricted in their movement. Using partners was seen as successful in terms of engaging necessary technical resources, but proved to be a challenge in terms of maintaining relationships with communities: who felt it took much longer to solve problems compared to direct implementation.

In addition to technical skills, partners provided important local language abilities and insights into the dynamics on the ground. They were also able to use and report on resources more effectively than districts for assets such as teachers houses. No matter which partners were available, however, the role of WFP field staff was essential in terms of quality assuring project design and implementation. Despite this, there seems to have been no structured training, mentoring, or other learning programme in place to orientate incoming staff.

Field staff report having to find their own mentors – sometimes other WFP staff and sometimes partners' staff members – to orientate them on how to implement FFA. Field monitors working on FFA reported that it was hard to find a willing alternate in

the sub office because of the level of work needed to calculate each FFA activity separately. This led to a loss of institutional memory when people moved on. Field staff also recall that the only pressure placed on them from the Country Office level was to move tonnage of food, rather than on the quality or ownership of what was created.

Recommendations

A number of interviewees and other respondents from Teso and Lango made recommendations for future FFA:

1. If sustainability is an objective then it should be clearly stated and defined up front in a project;
2. Increase the time invested in dialogue with communities before creating assets so that they better appreciate and own the choices that they make;
3. People need to be guided on their needs and not just asked;
4. Worknorms should be gender sensitive;
5. Assets should be conflict-sensitive and acquisition of assets should not create conflict in communities;
6. Continuous sensitisation about gender roles in production, including encouraging female ownership of assets;
7. Combine woodlots with energy-saving stoves to address multiple dimensions of the same challenge;
8. Encourage all partners to undertake joint planning and resource sharing at the district level;
9. Rehabilitation should start when people are still in camps, sensitising them for the return and to develop strategies for re-establishing livelihoods.

Annex 14: Case Study - Karamoja

Theories of Change

WFP has been at the forefront of large-scale attempts to address the reliance of communities on emergency assistance. Around 2005, FFW was targeted to anyone that was interested in participating, by 2011 FFA was only being targeted at vulnerable households with spare labour capacity.

It was recalled that the targeting process created a lot of tension, but that WFP won some key political and administrative advocates through its emphasis on self-sufficiency. Some observers suggest a significant decrease in the levels of casual labour, suggesting that FFA and NAADS are successfully engaging spare labour capacity.

This history affected the initial acceptance of FFA among the population. It was less accepted in 2005 than in later years because the same participants also had access to GFD. Increased felt-need for productive assets, as people have moved into isolated resettlement areas, has also changed the understanding of FFA from being a food transfer to being a source of livelihood support.

Although demand for extension services has increased, communities are said to still not feel ownership over government provision of education, health and agriculture: with low levels of voiced demand making sustainability a key challenge. The value of the transfer remains an important feature, with market prices for the food ration outstripping the value of cash-transfers where these have been used by WFP or others. According to interviewees, the ration of maize, cooking oil and beans is unlikely to have displaced any local produce, which is mostly sorghum.

The selection of assets both pre- and post-targeting appears to have been driven primarily by community demand for activities available to them on the FFA menu. As with other sub-regions, the logical chains of causation for assets are largely only very direct, although different assets are likely to have the desired outcomes over shorter or longer time periods. An example of a near-term intended outcome is ponds providing drinking water for cattle in the lean season, whilst an example of an asset with a long-term intended outcome is woodlots.

The focus on woodlots was driven because, around 2006, many children were identified as missing up to 60% of schooling days as they worked to collect firewood. High levels of insecurity had led to the establishment of large Manyattas as people sought safety, and this led to concerns about deforestation as well as the environmental impacts of school feeding. The main species to be planted was acacia due to it being fast-growing. As a result, firewood was already being harvested from 2007 onwards.
By comparison, water ponds were intended to address a strongly felt need of the community by providing drinking water for animals. However, these were reported as being treated as belonging to WFP, and communities most often expected WFP to follow-up with desilting.

Unlike the other sub-regions, market penetration is very low in Karamoja, and so roads were mainly constructed to help link people to services. Some interviewees

recall this as being primarily an initiative of WFP, with many roads reverting to footpaths or lacking on-going maintenance.

WFP field staff report that significant lessons have been learnt in terms of improving the timing of activities according to the calendars of target populations; and that the design of FFA improved significantly once Manyattas were seen as having internal variations in vulnerability rather than being homogenous units.

Asset function and outcomes

Assets

The verification process found 45 assets from the period 2005-2010. Of these, 20 were natural resources (including 12 school woodlots), 12 were infrastructure (including 7 teachers houses), and 13 were other types of asset (including 5 fuel efficient stoves).

Most assets were well sited, with 45% of natural resources, 75% of infrastructure and 69% other assets recorded as very well sited. Poorly sited assets accounted for 15% of natural resources, 8% of infrastructure, and 15% of other assets.

40% of natural resources, 75% of infrastructure, and 62% of other assets were very well connected to the landscape or services. Only 5% of natural resources and 15% of other assets were poorly connected.

Design quality was not as strong as connectedness, but most assets were of sufficient design quality. 25% of natural resources, 42% of infrastructure, and 54% of other assets were very well designed. By contrast 25% of natural resources, 58% of infrastructure, and 23% of other assets were poorly designed.

The current condition of assets, particularly infrastructure, was found to be less satisfactory than other factors considered in the asset verification. Some assets remain in very good condition, including 20% of natural resources, 25% of infrastructure, and 31% of other assets. However, 35% of surviving natural assets, 67% of infrastructure, and 38% of other assets were found to be in poor condition.
Of the identified assets, 76% have been adapted or extended by local people, and 82% have a functioning user group (80% of natural resources, 75% of infrastructure, and 92% of other assets).
The main users of assets are linked to schools (64%, including 11% used by teachers or school management). Community groups use 20% of assets, and individuals 4%. Of the remaining assets, 7% are used jointly f=by school and community and 5% are no longer used by anyone.

An analysis of fuzzy set indicators provided a complete solution in Karamoja – the only case study to do so. The main factors that were present when assets were found to be in good condition were: 1/ good design, 2/ strong connectedness, 3/ capacity building activities, 4/ inputs (tools/seeds/etc), 5/ access to basic services (health/education/water), 6/ a good livelihood base, and 7/ good infrastructure (roads/communications/etc). For good quality assets, implementation set-backs (e.g. delays in distribution) were a factor that was found to be consistently absent. It was

also found that varying levels or types of ownership were associated with both good and bad outcomes.

The short-term design of assets was emphasised by some NGO partners – including those who have been in Karamoja for as long as WFP has. This was especially noted in relation to woodlots. The scale of woodlots – mostly around 2 acres – was considered to be too small (10 acres was recommended by Oxfam). WFP had been planting gum trees, but only from an environmental point-of-view, and without exploring options for income generation by developing links to gum markets.

This near-term planning also resulted in a gap in addressing the culture of growing trees, as woodlots were not part of a package of interventions (traditionally, there is no concept of trees being something that humans can plant or manage). However, the promotion of agro forestry did encourage replication by NGOs, including Caritas, who saw it as having potential for sustainability if wider issues of associating community work with payment could be overcome.

It was noted that many of the NGOs that opened offices since 2007 have begun to replicate FFA activities that, in 2005, were only undertaken in Karamoja by WFP, Oxfam and ADRA. The main differentiating factor with WFP is its unique ability to deliver new types of activity at scale.

The main FFA activities recalled by interviewees are valley dams, tree planting, and community access roads. The ambition of assets was constrained by the funding window available, with projects needing to be completed within a distribution cycle. The quality of assets was seen to be closely linked the level of inputs that were invested.

There was a strong sense from partners that communities prioritised and planned assets. However, the menus were found to be fairly restricted compared to the activities most demanded by local leaders – who were generally more interested in the assets provided by NAADS (especially with the scope of NAADS limited to a few households. In recent years, the NUSAF 2 menu has been expanded to include drought-resistant napier grass and dry-land farming techniques, including micro-ponds.

Outcomes

In terms of the food ration, 90% was reported as consumed by households, 4% used as seed, 4% sold, bartered or shared, and 2% lost. 88% of households reported significant impacts from the food transfer. The most frequent (30%) was improved availability of food, 9% reported the technical skills they acquired as being most valuable, and 5% reported a change in work culture.

The twin outcomes of security-of-labour and income generating assets were noted by partners, but government sources also recall that FFA sometimes led to people concentrating on FFW rather than working in their own gardens.

The majority (88%) of respondents reported significant changes as a result of assets themselves, with 23% identifying easier access to markets or services as the biggest outcome. 16% reported improved access to clean water as the major contribution, 6%

that the climate had improved, and 6% food availability. In some cases, such as climate, this perception is likely to represent a correlation more than causation.

There is little doubt about the direct impact of roads – often in the forms of short links or footpaths. Oxfam note that they have been significant in extending services to communities, including education staff reaching schools, food deliveries, and security personnel for protection. Community access roads have supported the demand for resettlement as conflict over existing lands and less insecurity has driven people to seek larger land for production in virgin areas. Once constructed, most roads have been distributed between district and sub-county responsibility. Nearly all roads are reported as being still in use, although most lack bridges and culverts.

WFP piloted cassava in Karamoja, most of which initially failed because of disease. However, this initial project set the scene, in terms of population mindset, for NGOs to pick up more successfully. In other cases, nursery beds have been planted around the water ponds that were constructed with FFA.

Some unexpected outcomes were negative, the one example being the construction for dams to store rain for the dry season leading to the flooding of manyattas because of several seasons of heavy rain. In response to this, Caritas is now experimenting with subsurface and sand dams. Community access roads may also be contributing a growing level of deforestation due to charcoal production, whilst natural sources of grasses are being depleted as people build homesteads in resettlement areas.

Productivity and Food Security

Food insecurity reached a peak in 2007, with a combination of drought and insecurity confining people to small areas of cultivation. General productivity has improved in the sub-region since that time, aided by increased security, land opening, and changes in the Karamajong culture to make ploughing with animals acceptable.

With this change has also been a noticeable increase in male labour spent on agriculture, although the vast majority of work is still done by women. Several seasons of good rains, increased literacy and market information, and government programmes have also helped. The major outstanding challenges include petty theft of animals and underperforming cattle markets.

Within this context, 88% of respondents reported significant changes resulting from FFA assets, including improved food availability (22%), improved access to seed (17%), technical skills gained (9%), and improved access to markets and services (7%). Respondents suggested that the shift to more sedentary lifestyles (because of loss of cattle and disarmament) has also increased the value placed on long-term fixed assets. The communities have also learned more about what they want from projects.

The initial FFA activities are recalled as having a wide range of purposes, with little coherence in planning, design or implementation. High value crops and diversification have begun to change this, shifting agriculture closer towards being a business option. Nutrition, however, is still not a strong value among households.

Traders still fear travelling to Karamoja, there is a need for road projects to be accompanied with information and marketing components if they are to contribute to productivity. Good rains in last three years have been very important to production, but the market in Karamoja is still small and the sub-region has limited access to other markets. Much of the millet and groundnuts grown for the market is stored for long periods whilst trying to access other markets: an inefficiency that may in fact increase resilience to short-term shocks by creating a food bank.

Although improved security has made more land available, household capital constraints limit people's capacity to open land. The danger of exhausting these newly opened green belts – many of which had been abandoned in the post-Amin violence – is only just starting to be raised as an issue. NUSAF2 has started introducing strip planting and leaving trees in fields in the past year; there is also the possibility that access to more land will enable traditional mechanisms of rotation cropping to be reintroduced.

Despite the relatively fertility of the green belt areas, interviewees sugges that production has been primarily built on three consecutive years of good rains and no drought for five years. Reliance on hand hoes limit productivity even where households have access to a lot of land. Many return areas do not have food stock for the first years, and there is a very low level of support for resettlement areas from NGOs and few government services (many areas are too sparsely populated to be constituted as parishes).

"These assets targeted the community of Nakapelimoru but as we talk now, the access road is benefiting almost the entire district and even some people from the neighboring district of Moroto now uses the road including some people from Kenya."
Kotido R7

"Water ponds are linked to vegetation growing because of the available water to irrigate the garden and also the ponds have attracted bee keeping around the surrounding area of the ponds and each bee hive is for a group of ten people in the community."
Kotido R10

Gender and Equity

Asset ownership is largely communal, with 95% of natural resources, 75% of infrastructure, and 69% of other assets being held by community groups. 68% of beneficiaries from the assets are linked to schools (57% benefiting school students), 16% are community groups, 7% cattle keepers, and 7% mixed. Karamoja is the only sub-region where mothers were identified as a specific beneficiary group (2%).
Maintenance funds are being raised for 75% of assets, the largest contributions being sourced through school fees (14%) and WFP's ongoing programmes (11%).

Agriculture and manual labour – including house construction – are traditionally seen as part of women's role in Karamoja (the male role is to maintain cattle herds). There is a slow blending of gender roles with men starting to get involved in agriculture as it has become a source of tradable goods and as draught-ploughing has created a bridge between cattle-keeping and agriculture.

All interviewees noted that women largely undertook FFA activities, whilst decision-making is general and includes both men and women. Despite bearing the largest burden of work, Karamoja reported the highest level of impacts for women, with 91% identifying a significant change in their lives. The most common impacts were improved access to food (27%), improved income (6%), improved access to firework (5%) and improved access to clean water (5%).

Respondents noted that although women are doing most of the work in FFA, income from FFW is easier than the alternative sources and the assets are solving women's problems, including firewood collection and fencing timber. Both of these aspects are ultimately easing the burden on women.

"What I see as a woman is that most women who are involved in this kind of work usually take on domestic tasks like washing clothes, cooking, or fetching water and the money raised is used to acquire essential household needs like salt …. We are also involve in some petty trade as a coping strategy in response to some of the environmental shocks that always affects our major economic activity of agriculture and livestock keeping. "
Kotido R9, 10.

"Participation at the community level involved both able women and men and they were all paid equally and doing the same work. "
Kotido R11

"Most men sell the food and use it for alcohol; it's always the women who take most of the food home. No, even some women sell off the food and drink with alcohol. "
Kotido R7

Risk and Adaptation

Karamoja has witnessed a large shift in the attitudes of people to agriculture as the population has adapted to a long period of cattle loss caused largely by raiding, disarmament, and theft. There has been an attempt by authorities to increase resilience by encouraging short-growing crops like Cowpeas. However, this does not fully make-up for the loss of risk mitigating distributed grazing areas that people traditionally used to spread their exposure.

Governance

Communities recall that the main initiative for assets mostly came from either schools and communities (40%) or WFP (39%). In 14% of cases they recall it being a joint initiative, and in 7% of cases via other donors. Communities in Karamoja thus feel their level of self-determination as higher than elsewhere.

The extension of government presence has been significant in the period considered by this evaluation. Major changes since 2007 have included strengthened local structures, recruiting of more qualified civil servants, and a strong focus on Karamoja from the central Government. FFA activities 2005-2007 were rarely included in local development plans, today they are. Many skills trainings and increased funding to government has also come through NGOs.

Starting in 2006, a large number of NGOs and development partners halted their emergency operations in Acholi and switched attention to Karamoja. Prior to this, WFP and Oxfam are reported by several sources to have been the only agencies operating at scale in Karamoja. Despite this increase, targeting based on sub-regions has led to uneven distribution of assistance as reactively better-off parts of Karamoja have received less attention, even though they fall far below national averages for aspects of vulnerability.

There are different perceptions about the consequences of the large increase in NGOs since 2007. In positive terms, multi-year funding and deep field presence overtook piecemeal funding of small projects. Many NGOs are seen to have brought uniform projects and duplication of beneficiaries, but at best they have also innovated and introduced new technologies and business practices in a bid to be relevant.

According to interviewees, none of these changes has seriously impacted on the relevance of WFP's comparative advantage in FFA: achieving sub-region-wide scale and reinforcing local government structures instead of having large staff-related costs. Indeed, as with Acholi, the scale of WFP's operations compared to everyone else makes the concept of duplication fairly academic. The importance of long-term support to local governance structures – building on incremental improvements in capacity – was also emphasised. Practical examples of this include Abim District often going to WFP when they need help with planning data because the quality is better than their own sources.

Institutionally, the main infrastructure providers according to households are ACF and World Vision. Other important sources of support are Goal, ACTED, district local government, the Red Cross, and International Aid Services. 17% of surveyed households received assistance with social infrastructure (schools-health clinic), with the main providers in 2005-2010 being UNICEF (health and education support) WFP (school and health feeding) and Save the Children (alternative basic education). WFP's main partners on FFA grew from the Straight Talk Foundation in 2006 (implementing woodlots) to include World Vision, Caritas and ADRA by 2009. In 2006, most potential partners had only 1-2 staff in the sub-region and were very cheap but inefficient because of this low capacity. Since 2010, there are partners available with very high levels of capacity and networks right down to village level – exceeding WFP's own capacity.

As the number and strength of NGOs and CSOs has grown, so has the desire of the political leadership to exert local control – driven by increasing levels of community feedback and a tradition among NGOs of direct implementation (without districts). This has also affected WFP because of its partnerships – even though it has been at the forefront of attempts to engage and work with district authorities.

"The decision to put these assets in place was made by the community members including the local leaders and staffs from WPF, or world vision. The WFP staffs came up with a list of activities and in consultation with the community they told us to choose five projects to be implemented in this village. We chose five projects in order of priority but we were only given three. About the other two, we are still waiting for them."
Kotido R9

"These NGOs just do their things in their offices and just bring and give us and since we are always at the receiving end, we just say yes whether we as a community were consulted or not but what I know the community consultation that is always done is done when everything has been streamed lined from their offices, we are just to accept."
Kotido R5

Hazards and Uncertainty

The most frequently cited emergent hazard since the reduction in insecurity is HIV/AIDS. Different informants variously explained this as being caused by businessmen, NGOs, or increased numbers sex workers in the growing towns. There appears to be little clear data available on the spread of HIV into rural areas, with low levels of education and literacy being seen as significant sources of vulnerability.

Natural hazards remain an ever-present threat in Karamoja. A weak savings-culture and increasing reliance on rainfed agriculture lead most interviewees to believe that Karamoja would not be able to cope in a forthcoming drought year. People are still said to see floods and droughts as acts of god, rather than hazards that can be mitigated or planned for. Some districts are pushing for cassava growing as a food security crop, but express increasing concern about soil erosion.

Another threat to emerge as security has increased is uncontrolled bush fires as people clear grasslands. Inability to control these once started are said to be destroying homesteads over a 1km from the original source.

Organisation

In 2005, WFP was operating largely in a capacity vacuum in Karamoja, with overstretched staff and few partners (except Oxfam). Different district departments had various levels of functioning, with the most support not always coming from the departments most directly concerned by FFA activities. This gives some context to reports by households that 87% experienced some implementation setbacks, including delayed food distributions (52%) and long distances to distribution points (8%). However, 83% of households did not mention FFA as significantly interrupting their normal farm, household or paid work.

After 2010, WFP moved to implementation of FFA through partners, who are said to be better able to provide community mobilisation and training. It is suggested that assets built under NUSAF 2 are performing much better as a result. Partnerships have had implications for communications, however, with the chain of accountability and feedback between communities and WFP lengthening. In some cases this just leads to a slight delay in messaging, in others it can contribute to allowing confusion to go unresolved, such as current uncertainty about what is happening to school feeding.

Sometimes, mixed messages around WFP projects were also cited. For example, one government source relayed a story of FFA implemented without school feeding: communities were dismayed that they were being told children should go to school instead of tending to cattle, only to find no food in the school to replace the milk they used to drink from cattle, plus the new need to collect firewood and pay for materials.

The main advantage that FFA has had in relation to communication is time. Respondents noted that the consistency of FFA has helped to slowly sensitise community mindset, and needs to programmed for the long-term. Many beneficiaries are still wedded to reliance on relief, and none of the other agencies working on transition programmes offered an easy solution to this making the shift to development. This continuous engagement is seen to be particularly important in relation to introducing concepts from climate science to manage the risks of rainfed agriculture (the concept of a rain maker is common in many communities).

Recommendations

Many interviewees offered recommendations for FFA in the future. These included:

1. Diversify the menu of assets in response to NGOs taking up many of the original activities, which often do not meet the first preference of the community;
2. Expanding the menu of income generating assets;
3. Programming FFA to work in combination with school feeding;
4. Empowering communities to negotiate and procure inputs on their own behalf as a way of delivering better value and timeliness;
5. Strengthening the complaints structure for projects, which are currently based on no written agreement/contract with participants that would form a basis for a community member to pursue a complaint.

Annex 15: Case Study – West Nile

Theories of Change

There are longstanding issue of refugees in West Nile with Congolese refugees in 1998 and thereafter a total of 10-15 countries in the refugee mix. Currently refugees in West Nile are predominantly from Burundi, Sudan, DRC & CAR. In 2003 there were around 69,000 refugees in West Nile including 23,000 in Rhino Camp & Mvepi during a process of consolidation of camps as refugee population changed or reduced. Rhino Camp was one of the first camps set up and because of this had good infrastructure. Added into the refugee mix at this time was local rebel movements in Arua, especially in Miombe and near border areas, adding to insecurity and displacement.

The repatriation of refugees has been both official (resettlement packages) and unofficial with the trend in voluntary repatriation declining in recent years (2007 was peak year post Sudan Peace agreement, incremental thereafter) and defacto 'residual community' has been left at 4000 ('on paper') now in Rhino Camp.

The Ugandan Government and the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM) in particular played a role in the refugee programme, and an important role in FFA with OPM providing an assured security of the asset which was central to winning the hearts and minds of the refugees through engagement in the FFA activity. OPM's role was to prepare and mobilise the community then partner with the WFP, with OPM overseeing, coordinating and monitoring, with the agreement with the local that the did the work and WFP provided transport to bring the basic materials to site, provided cement, iron bars etc, and the food (energy to do the work).

FFA was also introduced in a post-Camp set up. However, it is difficult to clearly distinguish FFA work as 'food cutting across all activities' from WFP, and also many other actors with advisory/ training services. An important element was that WFP involved refugees and host community using mixed teams in the FFA work. As part of this the 'team' managed the food distribution (not WFP) and there was a phasing of the payment of food from WFP to the community. This may have helped to bring together host and refugee populations in a positive way, particularly useful as the 'camps' are in the communities themselves and 'refugees' and 'nationals' provide check and balance for each other (in addition to OPM monitoring).

The situation was essentially a 'dispersed settlement' programme in which the refugees share everything (from the outset) with the host communities benefiting by the additional resources that come in to support the refugees, as well as the 'hosts'. For example the medical supplies provided to the camps were/ are a common resource. This reflects the GoU Settlement Policy of 'self reliance' that was developed/ piloted at Rhino Camp (a '*transit camp*')

Rhino Camp itself was established in 1994 and involved (over time) in the sinking of 72 boreholes and building of access roads which had a dramatic effect on migration into the area and land appreciated in value. The establishment of schools and health clinics also transformed the area. The benefits of this (with a programme services will come in) was recognised by landowners who gave land free of charge to the camp(s).

The recent UNHCR Livelihood Support Programme in Arua, which deliberately engaged with both refugees and nationals, also noted the benefit of enhanced security of crops i.e. local communities were not turning against the refugees and therefore the external programme.

Transition

As camps closed part of the transition was the handover of 'assets' noted from Central Government charge (OPM) to the District/ sub-region, and the associated rehabilitation of the assets (prior) to handover to the district. For example the woodlots established through FFA are now all under DFO.

Some hold the view that integration of refugee work with development support to the district could have been undertaken earlier, also noting that they felt there was a 'weak transition of assets from WFP'. There also arose the issue / problem of land disputes between sub-counties over who actually owns the asset.

Other players

Other players working with the Camps at time of FFA were:
DED > GIZ – managing camps and included major access roads
NRC – legal support to refugees and repatriation support
DRC – mass info on land mine protection
IRC – camp management

Other active GoU Programmes included the School Facility Grant, the UPE Fund and Teachers Houses/ classrooms.

Asset function and outcomes

In West Nile, 62 assets were found dating from 205-2010: 13 Natural Resources (including 10 school woodlots); 31 Infrastructure (including 13 teachers houses); and 18 Other (including 6 water tanks).

The main users of assets are related to schools (78%), with 12% utilised by individuals or community groups. 49% have been adapted by local people and 73% have a functioning user group (75% natural resources, 83% infrastructure, 56% other assets).

31% natural resources very well sited, 8% poorly. 35% infrastructure very well sited, 3% poorly. 17% other assets very well sited, 28% poorly.

46% natural resources very well designed, 8% poorly. 29% infrastructure very well designed, 29% poorly. 28% other assets very well designed, 33% poorly.
46% natural resources very well connected. 26% infrastructure very well connected, 16% poorly. 11% other assets very well connected, 39% poorly.

31% natural resources in very good condition, 8% poor. 39% infrastructure in very good condition, 32% poor. 6% other assets in very good condition, 29% poor.

Most Significant Change from participating in FFA:

- 27% improved shelter/accommodation
- 14% technical skills acquired
- 10% access to food
- 9% no impact

Most Significant Change from the asset:
- 26% improved accommodation
- 9% no change
- 8% reduced teacher absenteeism
- 7% improved climate
- 6% improved education performance

Example of Grinding Mill established through FFA support – Positive intervention at right time and positive legacy – Grinding Mill continues to operate (some external programme support for major part replacement and a local user fund that covers routine maintenance and contributes to a local welfare council). This provided a benefit for all - a facility providing grinding at lower ('fair') costs (also willing to grind on credit and at times grind for free for 'extremely vulnerable' both refugees and nationals who 'can't keep a penny', and facility more physically accessible especially for older/ disabled people) than the prices charged by other (external) people with grinding facilities. The grinding mill has had a positive effect on families and children's access to food.

Road – WFP initiated opening of road seeing the value of initial investment community roads, particularly as may as they grow to be feeder roads and at that point generally get funding from the District budget for hand-clearing etc.

School Woodlots – The DEO, as part of the CROWNs Project worked in conjunction with Royal Netherlands Embassy support on Teachers staff quarters on the condition that a woodlot (of minimum 1 ha) along with ornamental and general school compound planting, would be established at each site. They also partnered with DFO who trained SMCs and inspected the works, advised on site and species matching. In year 1 and 2 the DFO was actively involved then in Year 3 WFP appeared to work alone. The DEO view is that year 3 results were poorer.

The general challenges of school woodlots include weather patterns (particularly at establishment) and lack of commitment to maintain through the necessary silvicultural practices which makes the woodlots vulnerable to burning and children breaking branches and animal damage. In the term time generally not a problem but was a concern during holidays when the school was not staffed. It appears that the attitude of the Headmaster is critical, where engaged headmasters could successfully run a school woodlot on a 4-5 year production cycle making savings on the purchase of fuelwood, not all however were that successful. In general however, woodlots provided more environmental benefits (amelioration on site) than production benefits.

The logic of wider block plantation, as experienced in Arua, seems to have been on 'compensation measures' for the forest being lost through refugee settlement rather than a more production / livelihoods focused objective. Block plantations had no Forest Guards and the local Government 'forestry budget' is very under-resourced.

Yet they have valuable teak in some of these plantations which as currently stands is likely to be gradually and unsystematically 'used up' as firewood.
The ownership of the 'block plantations' is complex in that local landowners originally gave the District (through the sub county) the right to use the land that was included in the refugee settlements. Whilst the land is/ will be returned to the landowners the woodlot belongs to the Government while the District is the custodian under the UNHCR funding. Inevitably once the refugees are repatriated the 'programme closes' and the woodlot goes back to the district as part of the asset transfer. The District then 'transfers' the asset to the sub-county, which then requires a negotiation between the sub-county and the landowner to agree on the modality for woodlot management. All of which takes considerable time and involves uncertainty which means the woodlots/ block plantations are essentially 'unmanaged'. This seems to reflect the potential situation for forests (as fixed national natural assets with a value) to suffer when the refugee population drops, and commensurate with this UNHCR funding drops, and therefore the prospects for good management of forests and woodlots also drops.

In contrast there appears to have been a more managed gradual transition of bore holes for water supply where these are now under the District Water department, but with continued funding from UNHCR and continued oversight from OPM.

School feeding

There is an expectation that if school feeding is available the community will take it up. In the example of 'Logiri' community this has been taken up by school management committee linked to a school garden initiative. There has also been community sensitisation on how child feeding and child education affects the performance of the children and the school. Benefits of school feeding include:

- Both teachers and children benefiting from the lunchtime feeding programme – including increased teacher attendance and more energy of teacher in the classroom
- Children don't use lunchtime to look for food

It is however important to note the (dis) empowered structures for management of schools where inspectors are poorly facilitated and a Headteacher does not have the right to hire/ fire or sanction poorly performing teachers – this responsibility lies with the DEO & Kampala so SMC can police but not enforce. The view is that the PTA is teacher welfare oriented and does not deal with educational issue while the PTAs/ SMCs are volunteers so 'payment' through indirect means such as use of the 'UPE Fund'. The Local councils themselves are too localised on education issues so won't stand up to issues pertaining to wider school management.

Productivity and Food Security

There were/ are many pressures on the forest in Camp area including, food, curing tobacco and charcoal production. Firewood was not considered a big problem for the Camp communities. Charcoal production however, has accelerated across Arua since 2010 spurred by the opening of a road in 2010 and supply links to Kampala. There is now a strong demand in the District for household planting

Between 1996-2004 block plantations of Teak, Gmelina, Neem were established on 380ha within the refugee settlements. The initial idea was to encourage refugees to plant on their own plots but there was little interest (understandable short-term view). The problem that for many blocks the funds were not there to cover the costs of subsequent full silvicultural practices and Districts were not keen to put the 'costs' of these plantations into their own budgets. Post 2004 UNHCR reputedly didn't see environmental matters as their responsibility. In 2009 there was a change in thinking and new programmes are running targeting the 'nationals' in the settlements for Household planting with the equivalent of 89ha planted in 2009 and 15ha in 2013.

- 82% Food Aid consumed by households
- 8% sold bartered or other
- 6% shared or fed animals
- 2% seed
- 2% lost

MSC livelihood
- 24% no change
- 10% acquired skills
- 10% availability of food
- 9% reduced teacher absenteeism
- 9% increased income
- 4% increased access to wood

Gender and Equity

MSC women
- 45% no change
- 8% availability of food
- 6% fuel wood
- 4% skills
- 4% accommodation

Residual communities in the Camp feel that their current problems are not being considered. The reality of the micro-climate around Rhino Camp means that it has only one assured planting season. Also the NGO language of 'self-reliance' makes it harder for Camp community to access support. The only active NGO partner is DRC on livelihoods, a reduction in the plethora of NGOs that used to be active in all sectors.

The residual refugee community therefore remains a vulnerable group, particular to cuts external support and continuous cultivation of 'exhausted' gardens (no fallow). Also the changing nature of refugee families means that costs such as school fees etc. now need to be met. There were originally 42 clusters/ 10 zones in Rhino Camp while there are now 9-10 clusters [other clusters were 'picked up' by nationals].

There is also a wider sense of being left behind – when the refugee population was large education provision was good; teachers were within the refugee population and there was effective monitoring from OPM/NGOs. Now under the District, the

performance is poor with Ocea suffering from its 'remoteness' and teacher absenteeism. School feeding was seen as an important element in improving enrolment (as many families can't provide 2 meals/day). School Feeding was stopped when the population around Rhino Camp reached 8000.

The 'remoteness' of the Rhino Camp communities increases as the population of the refugees decreases. Also vulnerability increases as residual population becomes more exposed. So whilst in this context FFA was useful it was not something that was able to address the bigger (unsettling) concerns of the refugees
There is a clear importance in recognising how FFA has an approach addresses a 'situational problem' versus addressing a specific problem of individuals, and whether it is more likely to have an impact on the former rather than the latter?

Governance

Who decided on the asset
- 46% WFP initiative
- 20% school or community initiative
- 7% government
- 19% joint
- 8% others

Institutional mapping infrastructure
- World Vision
- WFP
- DED
- District government
- DRC
- UNHCR
- IRC

13% households received assistance with Social infrastructure (school-health clinic)

Organisation

Set backs
- 37% unable to do farm, household or paid work
- 26% delays with food
- 16% none
- 9% distance

Some complaints from Ocea community [not necessarily FFA related]
- Food delivered that was spoilt – and no compensation for this
- Delayed food distribution - indefinite postponing
- Only beans & maize provided (no variety)
- Some vulnerable people were incorrectly cut form the list for FD but no reinstatement process.

Recommendations

- Rhino Camp community - Request for FFA modality to return as they have labour but no employment, and the GFD ration has been phased out. Also reported children are dropping out of school so the community wants FFT to be brought back.
- From Refugee Desk Officer, Arua – evaluation to include the 'Commissioner for Refugees' in any debrief of the evaluation in Kampala
- DFO – view that right from the start the refugees should have it as a condition to participate in forestry aspects (in some shape/ form) in parallel to the support/ guidance they receive on food production.
- RDO - objectives of conditional transfers for work are very good but implementation modalities can fall short. For example the Danida experience in Adjumani where local shops used voucher system but the agricultural inputs were not readily available, also potential fraud with the vouchers and 'middleman' aspect. This experience suggests that to work it needs to be 'hands on' and well managed in terms of inputs and 'control' of market prices. An alternative is the cash modality being promoted regionally by WFP as an alternative to GFD, and as a spur to the cash economy. An example of piloting work with refugees on this modality (cash transfers for food ration) was found in 2013 in Arua and sub-region, with a scheme that included with flexibility for those who want to stay with a food ration. There were some concerns that when the cash element is brought in the men may become more interested and it may create conflict in the home.

Annex 16: Literature review on Evaluations of Key programmes implemented in the Northern region of Uganda between 2002-2010

Introduction

The literature review is on evaluations of programmes that were implemented in the North of Uganda between 2002 and 2010, at the same time as the World Food Programme Food for Assets.

The purpose of the review was to identify key findings with regard to results, design and implementation issues that affected results and recommendations. The following reports were reviewed:

1. Final Evaluation of the Agricultural Livelihoods Recovery Project (ALREP), January 2011.
2. Review of Livelihoods and Economic Recovery in Northern Uganda (LEARN) - a cash transfer programme in support of the IDP return and recovery process, 2009 (a mid term review)
3. Restoration of Agricultural Livelihoods in Northern Uganda (RALNUC) Impact Monitoring Survey Report, Apac, Lira and Oyam Districts, Season B 2008 (draft report)
4. Northern Uganda Social Action Fund Impact Evaluation Report, June 2009
5. Outcome and Impact Evaluation of the UN World Food Programme Food-for-Assets (FFA) Interventions in the Sub-Regions of Lango, Acholi, Karamoja and West Nile in Uganda, June 2008
6. The Uganda Social Protection Public Expenditure, May 2012 was also reviewed.

Nature of Programmes

The programmes (the subjects of the reviewed evaluations, listed in the table) were implemented between 2002-2010 covering a period of emergencies (refugee situations, drought and flooding), resettlement of IDPs to their homes and rebuilding of livelihoods.

Programme	Mechanism	Donor	Timing	Budget (planned)
NUSAF 1	-	World Bank	2003-2008	USD 100 million
ALREP	CFW	European Union	2007-2010	Euro 3.85 Million
LEARN	CFW	Norway	2008	NOK 25 million
RALNUC 1 and DAR 1	VFW (CFW in a few cases)	DANIDA	2005-2008/9	DKK5 18 million (DAR) DKK 18.1 million (RALNUC)
WFP FFA	FFW/FFT		2002-2010	-

NUSAF 1 aimed to empower communities by enhancing their capacity to systematically identify, prioritise, and plan for their needs and implement sustainable development initiatives that improve socio-economic services and

5 Exchange Rate in 2005 US$ 1.0 = DKK 5.8

opportunities. ALREP was conceived as a bridge from an emergency and relief mode to one of development. The LEARN Programme was designed with the intention of addressing the specific transient shock related to IDPs returning to their home villages. The DAR and RALNUC programmes aimed to provide initiatives on the ground which will seek to restore agricultural livelihoods (assets, capacities and activities) as the most sustainable way of addressing the widespread poverty, hunger and deprivation. The WFP FFA programme aimed to support the creation of sustainable livelihoods through making available community based physical assets, and enhancing human productive skills. All the programmes involved aspects of creating/rehabilitating public assets.

Context at the time of the Evaluations

The evaluations (implemented between 2008-2010) reported some improvements in the situation in the north (security, poverty, well being). The NUSAF 1 Impact evaluation reported general improvements in the level of poverty in the region (poverty head count fell from 67.5% in 2004 to 57.4% in 2008, number of poor persons reduced from 5.3 million in 2004 to 4.6 million and the proportion of people living in extreme/ food poverty fell from 46.2% in 2004 to 34.2% in 2008). Seasonal monitoring impact assessments for RALNUC of 2009 report improvements in well being conditions, wealth and consumption among the Voucher for Work participating households and improvement in the food security.
According to the LEARN Mid Term Evaluation the main issue in 2008 was that situation in the north has improved and that people were no longer destitute. All IDPs in Lango had left the camps but in Acholi many remained. Some households commuted on a daily basis between their homes in the transit camps (a distance of 5km to 10km). The constraints faced by the returning populations included lack of start up capital and new skills, little or no basic infrastructure, lack of markets for inputs and outputs.

The shift from providing food to providing cash for work on the Public Works Projects was welcomed by local government representatives, as cash was seen to offer a more flexible benefit to suit each beneficiary's needs, it is more cost efficient, has a positive impact on the local economy, and is a more dignified way to receive support.

Output Level Achievements

It is difficult to compare results across the programmes as some are only partially reported in the evaluation reports. Broadly the types of assets created included community access roads, woodlots, tree nurseries, demonstration gardens, fish ponds, cattle crushes, markets, wells, dams, classrooms and teachers' houses. The evaluation of ALREP reports a high quality of work. RALNUC impact monitoring reports better quality where clear standards were established with local government technical departments. However there were no clearly stipulated standards for community access roads except that the road should be at least 4 metres wide. Incomplete community access roads were commonly reported.

Benefits to Community

New roads reduced high transportation costs, easier access to social services, safer transportation, access to save water, improvements in teacher retention in schools

and morale among others. Sensitisation brought empowerment and knowledge. Some negative results reported such as number of charcoal trucks observed on roads (ALREP). Some modest improvements in household incomes as a result of utilisation of assets are reported. The Outcome and Impact evaluation of the WFP FFA indicates that fish sales enhanced household incomes. While skills acquired through Food for Training (FFT) were used to set up income generating activities. The RALNUC seasonal impact monitoring survey reports that markets brought services nearer to community members and increased business opportunities such as selling food and drinks during market days.

Community Participation and maintenance of PWP

Involvement of communities, local governments at parish, sub county and district levels in sensitisation and project selection (identification, development of work plans for selected infrastructure sub projects) is an important foundation for community buy in but requires time. Lessons identified through RALNUC implementation suggest a repetitive exercise rather than a one off. The WFP FFA Evaluation findings indicate that participant understanding of programme objectives affected the level of participation.

The maintenance of access roads was more challenging to achieve than for the other types of PWPs. Issues around poorly maintained infrastructures included poor leadership, road not valued/ built in wrong place, technical issues such as roads not well completed due to late delivery of culverts, high rate of attrition of culverts and bridges and limitations of labour based construction. Assets with clear design standards, which have local management committees integrated local government structures and by-laws to guide use such as water points/wells have a higher likelihood of better maintenance.

Final Evaluation of the Agricultural Livelihoods Recovery Project (ALREP) January 2011

Project (ALREP 1) run from 2007-2010 (33 months)

- ALREP was conceived as a bridge from an emergency and relief mode to one of development.
- Intention of the project was that communities should determine their own needs, build their own roads, develop their drinking water sources and plant and manage their own woodlots and, with vouchers they would receive as payment, buy agricultural inputs (seeds, tools, ox-ploughs, chemicals etc). The specific objective was that Agricultural Livelihoods (assets, capacities and activities) of war-affected population, particularly returned IDPs and host communities are improved.

Context

Community access roads clearly needed- most returnee communities found bushes making it difficult to move around and access services such as schools. Free hand-outs were distorting the market and dynamic context in northern Uganda between 2007-2010. Constraints faced by returning populations:

- No start up capital and new skills
- Little or no basic infrastructure: markets, shops, water points, storage shades
- Lack of markets for inputs and outputs
- Little of no data on agricultural production and food security

Output Level Achievements

- 42,679 beneficiaries participated in public works and received inputs (Euro 90 per beneficiary or household
- UGX2.5 billion in vouchers were issued and redeemed through stockist and fair systems (this is about 80% of costs of public works and represents UGX 60,000 per beneficiary households)
- 618 Kms of roads rehabilitation completed and 449 handed over to district and sub county authorities
- 84 acres of wood lots were established
- 5 springs protected
- 3 fish ponds built
- 3 cattle crushes built
- 4 markets rehabilitated and handed over
- 43,466 beneficiaries received agricultural training
- 975 demonstration plots were established at field level
- 78% of VFW participating households had adopted at least one new production practice compared to 42% non –participating households
- 14,835 beneficiaries bought agricultural inputs in seed fairs. 50% were female

Contribution of activities towards Impacts

- New roads reduced high transportation costs

- Sensitisation brought empowerment and knowledge
- Stronger local planning and management processes have impacted positively on provision of services
- Stimulation in demand for local government services that are otherwise supply driven.
- Negative results number of charcoal trucks observed on roads

Community Participation and quality and maintenance of PWP

- Sensitisation and project selection (identification, development of work plans for selected infrastructure sub projects) collaborative involving communities, local governments at parish, sub county and district levels.
- Communities were identified and their priorities determined along with agricultural constraints and training needs.
- Process important foundation for community buy in but requires time.
- Quality of work done appeared to be high
- Budget stretched due to higher than expected cost of materials on roads
- Assessment of 18 roads after two years found five not maintained at all, eight in fair condition and five in excellent condition. Issues around those not maintained include poor leadership, road not valued/ built in wrong place.
- Technical issues with maintenance- roads not well completed due to late delivery of culverts, high rate of attrition of culverts and bridges and limitations of labour based construction

Review of Livelihoods and Economic Recovery in Northern Uganda (LEARN), 2009

- The twelve months project (funded by the Norwegian Embassy) was launched in 2008.
- Goal of supporting livelihoods and economic recovery in LRA affected areas through the provision of cash transfers to IDPs who have returned to their place of origin.
- Three mechanisms were used: cash for work to build community infrastructure, cash to start income generating activities in small groups, and unconditional cash transfer for extremely vulnerable individuals linked to income generating activities
- The CFW wage ranged from 3000 to 3500 for unskilled labour and 6000UGX for skilled labour. The average transfer value per beneficiary was approximately UGX 72,000. Wages were 3,000 or 6,000 per task (a partial day) depending on whether the work was skilled or not.
- The project was implemented in Amuru, Gulu, Oyam, Pader, Kitgum and Lira districts.

Context

All IDPs in Lango had left the camps but in Acholi many remained. Not all households had made a complete break with the camps some households commute on a daily basis between their homes in the transit camps (a distance of 5km to 10km).

Selection of Beneficiaries in CFW and Infrastructure

- Selection of beneficiary households for CFW considered household's location within proximity of the infrastructure, membership in a household and interest to engage.
- Extremely Vulnerable Individuals (such as PLWD, female headed household, PLWHA, child headed households) who were allowed labor substitution.
- Some Implementing Partners did not purposively target women, rather proximity to
- Infrastructure, but beneficiary enrolment showed a higher participation for women rather than men.
- Choice and priority of roads to be repaired was determined in consultation with districts, sub-counties and Parish development committees. Communities confirmed the choices but access to social services and markets was a major determinant of choice in roads.

Community and local government participation

Great sense of ownership attributed to successful sensitization during planning and preparation. Implementing Partners have strong involvement in communities. Coordination of activities through local government structures from the district to the sub county levels. But the quality of coordination varied from one partner to another.

Results

- The first phase of the programme reached about 11122 beneficiaries and more than 55,000 indirect beneficiaries. CFW beneficiaries (6040)
- The total of 78.6 km completed out of the planned 199.7km in Oyam, Amuru and Gulu
- 67.6. km out of 90 km or roads are constructed in Pader and Kitgum.
- 182 community leaders trained in road works in Pader and kitgum.

In general, the review found that the shift from providing food to providing cash was welcomed by local government representatives, as cash was seen to offer a more flexible benefit to suit each beneficiary's needs, it is more cost efficient, has a positive impact on the local economy, and is a more dignified way to receive support . It also found that, although the programme was designed with the intention of addressing the specific transient shock related to IDPs returning to their home villages, in practice by the time the projects were implemented households had already re-established themselves and also showed "a remarkable resilience and ability to cope with 'the transient shock' with little external support."

The Restoration of Agricultural Livelihoods in Northern Uganda (RALNUC) and the Development Assistance to Refugee Hosting Areas (DAR)

- Funded by DANIDA, both had the vision to restore agricultural livelihoods as the most sustainable way of addressing the widespread poverty, hunger and deprivation among the Refugee Hosting Communities.
- DAR covered West Nile region (Adjumani, Moyo and Yumbe districts) and RALNUC the districts of Apac, Gulu and Pader. Both DAR and RALNUC were based on three areas:
  - A voucher for work scheme to increase the purchasing power of farmers and access to/use of improved inputs.
  - Financial support to the GOU's Microfinance Outreach Plan (MOP)6
  - Re-establishment and/or strengthening community social capital and infrastructure rebuilding.
- The first phase for both programmes covered 2005-8 and a second phase was implemented from 2009-2012.
- The programmes provided approximately 40 days of work per beneficiary on average, at a wage rate of UGX 3,000.

Community and Local Government Participation

- Good involvement of sub county leaders, with projects being incorporated into the sub-county development plans.
- PWPs standards were established with local government technical departments but there were no clearly stipulated standards for community access roads except that the road should be at least 4 metres wide.

6 Aimed at spreading sustainable mico finance services to under served areas to help expand its reach.

- The district engineers were involved in training the community project management committees on occasion supervision.
- Mixed results with regards to infrastructure maintenance with access roads being more challenging than for the other types of PWPs which have local management committees integrated local government structures and by-laws.
- Limited budgets for material mean placement and replacement of culverts is not done as desired.

Results

According to the Uganda Social Protection Public Expenditure Report (2012) DAR and RALNUC reached 180,000 beneficiaries with public works employment by the end of the first phase in 2008. And aimed to provide 970,000 work-days of public works employment for the second phase.

The six impact monitoring survey conducted in 2008 showed that RALNUC had delivered the following :

- 2,445 Kms of community access roads opened
- 389 woodlots (663 acres) established
- 162 water points protected
- 59 cattle crushes constructed
- 39 market structures rehabilitated
- 3 tree nurseries established
- 2 cattle dip tanks
- 4 water dams

Contribution of activities towards Impacts

Seasonal monitoring impact assessments for RALNUC report improvements in well being conditions, wealth and consumption in selected items among the VFW participating households and improvement in the food security. Other benefits to community include:

- PWPs (notably community access roads and water points) addressed essential infrastructural needs of the people thus contributing to resettling;
- motorable access to previously inaccessible communities improved;
- access to social services improved and walking time to access markets, schools and health units reduced;
- Widening of roads and removing bushes enabled people to see what is ahead on the road thereby instilling a sense of security while moving on the road, reduced risk of snake bite and physical harm from accidents on narrow bushy roads;
- The CARs have contributed to increased economic activity in the communities and number of buyers reaching the communities.
- Protection of water points improved access to safe water,
- Markets brought services nearer to community members and increased business opportunities such as selling food and drinks during market days.
- Woodlots improved on vegetative cover and created awareness and promoted community members appreciation of trees.
- Cattle crushes are used by the local governments for livestock immunization.

- Cattle owners mobilize for spraying days and use the cattle crush.
- Acquisition of pick axes has enabled many households to dig pit latrines.
- RALNUC has been instrumental in increasing farmer access to production tools.

Lessons on rehabilitation of rural infrastructure through voucher for work and cash for work schemes

I. Labour-based rehabilitation/establishment of rural infrastructure represents a double investment in the community economy and the methodology fosters ownership, and imparts skills to community members.

II. Commitment of local leaders a pre-requisite for successful implementation of labour based public physical infrastructure projects as they are important for play a key role in mobilizing community members to work, fostering community ownership, and enforcement of by-laws for proper utilisation, maintenance and sustainability of the infrastructure.

III. Dynamic nature of household participation in public works activities, misrepresentation of facts, and misconceptions calls for a continuous awareness campaign on program activities as opposed to one off sensitization event.

a) The budget allocation for materials was low and could not cover placement of all culvert lines, head walls, barbed wire, as well as other materials. Subsequent program phases should have adequate budget allocation to tools and materials above the 10% of project cost in the current program.
b) The budget for materials and supplies should also incorporate a measure to address increase in prices of such items over time.
c) In addition the program should explore financing for components of the physical (for instance infrastructure culverts and bridges) through complimentary funding arrangements with other development partners and or local governments.
d) The program should play an advocacy role supporting sub-county local governments to lobby district and central government to upgrade some of the established community access roads to feeder roads status such that they can be budgeted for using central government funds.

IV. Lack and/or insufficient number of offshoots on the CARs accelerate eroding of road sides. Program should ensure that all community access roads have offshoots opened at all appropriate locations to turn runoff water away from the roads.

Timely supply of essential materials is vital for success of season based public work projects.

Impact Evaluation of the Northern Uganda Social Action Fund 1

- Phase 1 of NUSAF (2003-2008) was implemented in 18 (later split to 29) districts of Northern Uganda (West Nile, Lango, Acholi, Teso and Karamoja sub regions).
- It had four components - Community Development Initiatives (CDI), Vulnerable Group Support (VGS), Youth Opportunities Programme (YOP) and Community Reconciliation and Conflict Management (CRM).
- The CDI involved rehabilitating/ or constructing small scale infrastructure
- Communities planned and managed the implementation of the subprojects with the facilitation of local authorities, (LAs), community service organizations (CSOs), Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), and private individuals.

Community Participation

- Participation of communities in project identification was high, demonstrated by the communities' awareness of processes involved in securing NUSAF funding for sub projects.
- Districts were targeted according to socio economic characteristics, communities and households were selected in accordance with the conflict/post conflict situation and in response to the human capital challenges of the region. IDPs, returnees, widows and orphans were particularly reported

Results of NUSAF 1

- NUSAF sub projects account for half of all projects found in the region
- NUSAF is more likely to fund education and livestock improvements than other funders, though it is also the second most important funder of water projects, behind NGOs.
- 2,694 NUSAF sub projects were funded and implemented under CDI
- CDIs were poorly implemented leading to substandard work or incomplete units. This is attributed to low levels of education of the community management committees exposing to manipulation by contractors and other parties who flouted procedures in execution of contracts.
- In communities with NUSAF water and sanitation projects nearly 57% of the households reported that water source was provided by NUSAF.

Impact of Sub projects

- Increase in number of teachers in primary schools that benefited from a NUSAF education sub-project than in the other communities
- In communities where NUSAF constructed teachers' houses under CDI, qualitative findings indicated that teachers' efficiency had greatly improved demonstrated by improved time management, extra time given to pupil teacher contact as well as reduced distance walked by teachers to school.
- Improvements in access to safe water. 80% of population reporting access to safe water.

- Improvements in social capital in NUSAF communities between 2004 and 2008.

Outcome and Impact Evaluation of the UN World Food Programme Food-for-Assets (FFA) Interventions in the Sub-Regions of Lango, Acholi, Karamoja and West Nile in Uganda

- Evaluation conducted in 2008 and focused on FFA activities for the period 2005-2007
- Evaluation covered four sub regions- West Nile (Arua and Yumbe), Acholi (Gulu and Pader), Lango (Lira, Dokolo and Oyam) and Karamoja (Moroto and Nakapiripirit).

Selection of Sub projects and Beneficiaries

- Interventions varied across regions in terms of broader components and activities within components. Different region laid emphasis in areas that best suited their ability, skills, technical competence and conducive environment
- FFA activities targeted West Nile districts in support of self reliance strategy as a government framework for integrating refugees into mainstream govt development agenda
- Variations in selection across sub regions depending on levels of demand, high numbers of people in poverty, high turn up and resort to use volunteering, affecting food rations being distributed (Karamoja).
- Project design stipulated that 50% of the participants as well as beneficiaries must be women. 70% of FFW participants were women.
- Selection of participants in activities-most vulnerable but physically able community members selected. Vulnerable young people formed majority of those that benefitted from FFT. Most FFT beneficiaries being children and youth between 15-30
- FFA guidelines helps in establishing the number and type of beneficiaries, the person work days, as well as the food rations to be given

Community and Local Government Participation

- Community sensitisation and mobilisation not always adhered to prior to project identification due to staff and logistical constraints at the SO, inadequate support from district and s/c authorities.
- SO relied more on district officials for project identification and site selection.
- Participation of district and s/c officials poor across the board
- Communities report more involvement at project implementation and not so much at identification.
- Participant understanding of programme objectives varied and consequently the level of participation.

Contribution of FFW activities towards community livelihoods and socio-economic well being:

- A utilization of over 50 percent was reported for the rural infrastructure and social service development, plus fish farming components.
- Uses under these components included: a) access to markets, urban centers and social services including health; b) processing and marketing local produce; c) accommodating health staff; d) harvesting water for livestock and human use; and e) providing alternative sources of proteins through fish consumption.
- Fish sale were reported to enhance household incomes and reduce poverty in some cases, while the incomes earned have been utilized to access basic needs such as medical care, clothing, etc.
- Limited use under agro-forestry due to immature state of assets.
- Minimal improvements in household income resulting from utilization of the created assets. Under the rural infrastructure and social service development component 49 percent reported an increase in incomes, while under the agro-forestry and fish farming components only 15 percent reported an increase in incomes. The marginal increase in incomes is attributed to the fact that most of the created assets were not directly commercial.
- School enhancement activities contributed to - improving teacher attendance and time management in beneficiary schools; reduced teacher-pupil ratios due to increased teacher willingness to stay in schools; reduced pupil-classroom ratios due to increased classroom numbers; improved school sanitation and hygiene due to the VIP latrines and school kitchens; and increased school enrolment and pupil retention in schools.
- The assets that were created under FFT included knowledge and skills in health and nutrition, domestic science, vocational and apprenticeship areas skills. 68 percent of the beneficiaries reported utilization of the skills acquired by setting up Income Generating Activities and training other community members.
- The reported benefits from FFT activities include among others, enhancing job opportunities for vulnerable groups and improving their household productivity.
- Women beneficiaries have improved their productivity and set up Income Generating Activities to earn incomes and meet basic domestic needs.
- Overall, the created human assets under FFT are believed to have improved the human quality among beneficiaries.
- Overall, households reporting improved incomes under FFT interventions were 49 percent.

The effect of household participation in the FFA activities on the traditional work calendars was generally minimal.

Annex 17: Alignment - Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations

Main Findings& Sources	***Key Conclusions***	**Recommendations**
FFA Assets Assets were found in 39% of locations where food was delivered 2005-2010: translating into a gross survival rate of 39%. [Asset verification survey] Soft assets, such as knowledge, are systematically undervalued by communities relative to physical assets. [FGDS and reflections from HHS collected in Gulu] Similarly, training in FFA was appreciated when linked to the construction of an asset, but was often not recognised when training was conducted as an intervention in its own right [Interviews with Local Government Staff] The most common setback reported by households under FFA were delays in food distribution, accounting for 43% of the 80% of households that recalled problems. [HHS] *Asset Functionality* Of the 39% assets surviving, 84% are owned by groups, and the spread of assets created is concentrated around a few main types.[Asset verification survey] Natural resources assets (woodlots, ponds, agricultural enhancement) were found to be of better design and in better condition than infrastructure ones (schools, roads); overall, 70% of natural resources assets were found in good condition, although geographical variations	*FFA Asset Creation* FFA in Northern Uganda was focused on conflict-caused issues, enabling the return and addressing gaps in other programmes. The period of humanitarian coordination resulted in FFA being perceived and practiced mainly in terms of a small portfoilo of activities (woodlots, roads, houses, fish ponds, gardens) that were designed and implemented in isolation. These were often connected to – and defined by the needs of – the school feeding activity. Despite FFA being implemented in a wide range of contexts in Northern Uganda (2005-2010) the activities implemented and the mechanisms for implementation did not change much. This suggests that FFA implemented within a transition context is subject to a form of path dependence, with the early programme designs (developed during the conflict period) strongly influencing the scope and logic of later designs. FFA activities in the post-conflict areas were not	Rec. 1: [HQ] - WFP should carry-out a corporate roll-out at Country Offices level of the updated (2013) FFA Programme Guidance Rec. 2: [CO with HQ] - WFP Uganda CO should formally commit to the requisite follow-up actions of the FFA guidance roll-out for effective knowledge transfer and retention at field level, including: i commitment of participating staff to remain in post a minimum of time to effectively develop capacity in the CO; ii) linking participating staffs performance plan to guidance key areas, and; iii) planning for adequate levels of CO FFA staffing and of HQ technical support expected to sustain and extend FFA capacity. Rec. 4: [CO Uganda] - Develop a multi-year operational FFA implementation plan that involves CO management, programming, operational and support units, and takes into account the seasonality of the activities and the lead-times to procure and deliver. This should operationalize WFP Uganda's corporate objectives, pre-empt bottlenecks and agree on pre-defined mitigation strategies.

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
exist.[Asset verification survey]. Important factors for asset survival and functioning include good design, good connectedness within the local area, capacity building and inputs, and existing access to basic services, livelihood opportunities and infrastructure. [Fuzzy sets analysis]. The highest proportion of assets observed still (fully or partially) functioning were teachers' houses (84%), classrooms (81%) and school woodlots (75%). The lowest proportion of functioning assets was fish multiplication sites (25%) and fish ponds (40%). [Asset verification survey]	designed to be transformational. Instead, the main outcomes appear to be marginal gains in specific aspects of livelihoods – such as firewood, shelter, water, or teacher attendance – in specific locations. Some of the unintended negative effects – such as anecdotal evidence of ponds flooding Karamajong settlements or roads enabling charcoal production – may also have been avoided had the design of assets been considered from a more integrated perspective. WFP was able to implement FFA to the same level of success regardless of the level of insecurity. The success of FFA depends on whole-of-organisation performance by WFP, not just the quality of the programme team. The quality, and orientation, of FFA implementation relied strongly on which partners were available to support FFA, with the lack of technical capacity inside the partner organisation limiting the range and ambition of assets that could be realised. Communities and government liked WFP because it already has funding in place, so when assets were selected they were built quickly. WFP has been unable to exploit this advantage to introduce innovative or holistic FFA activities to areas largely	

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
	because it is reliant on the number and quality of partners on the ground Even though FFA is backstopped within WFP by a highly capable operation, a trade off of relying on partners was that it further distanced WFP's line of communications with communities (according to WFP field staff). In dynamic contexts, WFP relied heavily on external technical capacity, with WFP's internal guidance focused mostly on implementation and worknorms. NGOs, community members, and government staff were the main guarantors of technical quality in the selection and design of assets. In Karamoja the contextual factors of access to infrastructure and basic services (health and education) were found to be important influences on the long term condition of assets. emphasise the importance of joint programming and maximising the synergies with complementary activities such as school feeding.	
Change in Biophysical Environment Woodlots (23% of assets) have generally survived with 75% still functioning and have been maintained more successfully than other assets. Woodlots attached to an institution (in particular schools) have survived best. [Verification Survey, FGDs, Interviews]	Geo physical Impact FFA in Northern Uganda was primarily concerned with addressing the immediate challenges facing communities. Cassava multiplication and tree nurseries were	Rec s 1 & 2 Rec. 3: [CO Uganda with RB and HQ support] - Develop jointly with complementary sector partners, a strategic FFA plan that ensures necessary technical capacity is deployed, based on: (a) a three-pronged approach to FFA in resilience-building efforts that includes integrated gender and

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
Cassava multiplication was a short-lived but highly influential intervention in Acholi meeting the immediate need for cassava cutting. [FGDs] Assets were largely designed in isolation from one another and with only light consideration given to creating integrated local-level change. [Verification survey] FFA programming did not undertake integrated soil and water conservation measures. Isolated assets – such as ponds – may contribute to providing water during dry spells, but there is credible anecdotal evidence from partners that they have also led to flooding of settlements in heavy rains. Other unintended negative effects included rural roads enabling charcoal production and distribution, although this could not be quantified.[Asset Verification, review of proposals, key informant interviews in Karamoja]	pivotal contributions in Acholi [Livelihoods] WFP's investment in growing seedlings and providing new cassava cuttings has had multiple positive ripple effects. However, although WFP was looking at the big picture, overall, short logic-chains for individual assets meant that opportunities to leverage synergies have been missed. The main cause of change has probably been security and good weather, FFA also benefited from both. [Livelihoods] A factor to come out strongly in the fuzzy set analysis was the importance of complementary livelihood assets – such as oxen and tools. Some of the unintended negative effects – such as anecdotal evidence of ponds flooding Karamajong settlements or roads enabling charcoal production – may also have been avoided had the design of assets been considered from a more integrated perspective.	context analysis, seasonal livelihood programming, and participatory community-based planning; (b) a common understanding on how WFP FFA and other initiatives can complement each other in the transition from relief to development; (c) a comprehensive analysis of the specific risks faced by communities that integrates gender issues, land ownership and traditional resilience mechanisms. Rec 5 [HQ & COs] - Include into WFP's corporate FFA guidance, lessons learned for FFA in transition contexts related to early introduction in the recovery phase of vulnerability-based household targeting and of a community communication strategy that emphasises the time-bound nature of conditional FFA transfers.
Changes in Land Productivity Rural roads helped people to reach their villages and woodlots to mitigate some of the environmental degradation around camps; but they are unlikely to have independently contributed to addressing the main drivers of productivity in this context.[FGDs]	*Impact on Productivity* FFA made a significant initial contribution to food security through transfers, but has had limited impact on productivity in the long run. The assets themselves, however, have largely added marginal benefits to general livelihood	RECs 1-5

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
Productivity increases in the dynamic contexts have been driven primarily by the return of peace and people's ability to access their land (to which rural access roads did contribute). [Interviews with government staff] Increased awareness of land ownership has also reduced options for households to maintain, and rotate several gardens· [Interviews with Local Agricultural Officers] In regard to woodlots, the evaluation found that the mix of species, the community management arrangements, and the connection to markets were not sufficiently included as design considerations to make income generation a likely outcome.[Asset verification, secondary observation, HHS and FDGs] WFP worked well with the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) in Acholi to introduce improved varieties of cassava (although these have unintentionally replaced local systems of resilience). [Interviews with WFP staff] By far the most prominent risk facing households after the conflict is disputed access to land as evidenced by the majority of the interviews conducted for this evaluation. [FDGs]	needs such as environmental stability (woodlots), market access (roads) and education (teachers' houses). These contributions continue to be important for communities, but are insufficient in themselves to make a significant impact on the long-term food security of households. When considered on a regional basis, it would appear that agro-pastoral communities value more the physical impacts of FFA, whereas sedentary communities are more likely to value social impacts. Future FFA would benefit from being planned to be conflict-sensitive around land and ownership.	
Effects on Food Security and Livelihoods The most frequently reported change in livelihoods from FFA (14%) was the intended short-term one of bridging the food gap created by the return process.[HHS] There was also appreciation (6% of reported changes) of improvements in access to other	*Vulnerability and Livelihood Resilience* In general, activities were primarily designed to address immediate problems rather than create long terms impacts on livelihoods. FFA in Uganda was not intended to be developmental and its impacts reflect this, being	Rec. 3: , RE C 5

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
villages and markets. [HHS] Impacts on group dynamics and social cohesion featured very little (less than 3% of all changes reported in the HHS related to group dynamics or work ethic). [HHS] Across regions, 81% of the food distributed by FFA 2005-2010 was consumed directly by households. [HHS, Data from SSI tools] Households in return areas were more likely to use food rations as a source of capital to restart livelihoods, whereas they were more often used to meet a food gap in Karamoja and among West Nile refugees. According to multiple interviewees, agriculture – traditionally seen as part of women's role – has witnessed increasing male involvement as options for market-orientated cash-cropping have emerged. Rural access roads have contributed significantly to this market access (12% of the changes reported compared to 5% of assets created). [HHS, Data from SSI tools] However, most households are unable to benefit from these market opportunities advantageously because financial literacy remains low, productive capacity of households is constrained by lack of traction, poor storage and no value-addition leads to low prices, and there are few cooperatives to negotiate in the interest of poor households. [Data from SSI tool]	mostly related to recovery. At the community-level, most assets are still referred to in terms of their future potential to generate income, rather than their actual performance. In most cases this is because the scale was too small and assets too spread out to generate a micro-economy. The most felt impact in Karamoja was increased access to markets and services, and community cohesion and education in West Nile. Overall, the evaluation team found that most interviewees, even critical ones, agree that conditional transfers were the right mechanism at the right time, and FFA helped to shift the momentum of response from relief to recovery. The programme as it was designed, however, was insufficiently targeted at vulnerable households to perform as a development intervention once the immediate food gap (created by the return) had been bridged. The most felt impact in Karamoja was increased access to markets and services, and community cohesion and education in West Nile. Without a redesign (as happened in Karamoja), the evaluation team agree, therefore, that it was appropriate to close FFA in the rest of Northern	

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
Only 1% of HHS respondents reported higher crop yields (because of improved varieties) as the major change from FFA compared to activities linked to improved varities (multiplication and gardens) representing 5% of the overall effort. [HHS, Data from SSI tools] Availability of fish was a reported as the most significant change by 1% of households: in line with the prevalence of that asset – although all of the fish ponds visited by the evaluation team are now destocked. [HHS, Data from SSI tools, observation] The gain in technical skills by FFA participants was valued by household survey respondents as much as increased access to markets in terms of the impact on livelihoods. [HHS, Data from SSI tools] *Distribution of Benefits and Effects among targeted groups and beyond* Most users of surviving FFA assets – 90 original and 94% current – were found to be local residents rather than displaced persons. [Asset verification survey; interviews in West Nile] Schools are by far the most common beneficiaries of FFA assets. [HHS] In Acholi and West Nile 55% of women reported	Uganda at the time WFP did. *Impacts on vulnerability* FFA in Northern Uganda 2005-2010 is unlikely to have reached the most vulnerable households, but it was also not intended to. The design of the projects was based on two assumptions: 1) that all households in the context were vulnerable, and 2) that FFA was an addition to relief food. These assumptions largely made sense for the return period. This reinforces the lessons WFP has learned in Karamoja that the levels of vulnerability need to be understood in disaggregated terms if FFA is to be most effective as a productive safety net. The conditional transfer modality is relevant in the transition period from relief to recovery, but has a limited shelf-life when targeted at the general population. Whilst loosely targeted conditional transfers were an important step-on from handouts, they also reinforced expectation among community members of being paid to contribute. The intensity of the violence that was experienced by many people likely makes emergent hazards such as HIV and bush fire seem to be fairly insignificant. In aggregate, however, these low intensity risks are also a threat to livelihoods, and WFP's programming is yet to fully respond to	

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
significant impacts from FFA compared to 77% in Teso and Lango and 91% in Karamoja (both with more agro-pastoralist livelihood strategies). This suggests higher impacts for women were associated with areas more linked to agro-pastoral livelihoods. [HHS] Women are the main source of productive capacity in relation to agriculture, but men control resources and decision-making. FFA did not challenge these at the household level, but did give women the experience of self-reliance in terms of undertaking tasks (such as road building) previously seen as requiring male labour. Woodlots relieve a work burden that primarily affects women and girls (firewood collection), whereas income-generating assets – such as fish ponds – are still controlled by men. [SSI interviewees] Whilst the registration and participation of women in FFA was strongly encouraged by WFP, targeting was based on households. [Interviews with WFP Staff] The loss of livestock, trauma from the conflict, and alcoholism has combined to disenfranchise many men from the social economy. [Interviews in Teso & Lango] The opportunity to design FFA as a mechanism to address this issue has not yet been explored and the extent to which FFA has contributed is not possible to assess. <u>Effects on Activities and Assets on Resilience of</u>	these issues. Traditional mechanisms of risk mitigation have not been re-established and FFA has played a role in this. Furthermore, while it delivered WFP's medium term objective of re-establishing household production, the focus on improved varieties of cassava missed the opportunity to re-establish the long-term benefits of traditional food security crops. Future FFA would benefit from being planned to be conflict-sensitive around land and ownership.	

Main Findings& Sources	***Key Conclusions***	**Recommendations**
<u>Communities</u> FFA linked well with the government's own programmes and indirectly strengthened government structures. WFP worked well with government and is acknowledged for doing so. [Interviews with local government officials at district and sub county levels]. The selection of fast-maturing improved varieties was intended to meet the food gap created by the return and minimise exposure to the flood-drought cycle. But greater availability also means that it is these varieties that have now dominated the production of cassava, despite having a number of disadvantages compared to traditional varieties. In addition, the food economy in camps in Acholi, Teso & Lango, especially the use of sacks, may have eroded the use of traditional resilience mechanisms, like granaries, after the return. Background hazards including HIV, bush fires, and low savings rates were not as visible as insecurity, but added up to a major source of vulnerability despite several seasons of good production in agro-pastoral areas. [FDG, SSI, literature] FFA made some contributions to community cohesion, but this was limited and was not heavily invested in. The main impacts felt by communities were directly linked to their survival needs. [FDG, SSI]		

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
<u>Ownership and Costs Related to Assets Development</u> During FFA implementation, 34% of participants received technical assistance, 29% disaster preparedness training, 15% literacy training, 64% tools and equipment, 57% seeds. Between 80-95% of recipient households found each of these timely and useful.[HHS]. Overall, the evaluation found that 60% of assets were maintained. [Asset verification survey] Assets were more likely to be adopted and maintained when they were built by host populations around camps, rather than by IDPs in camps. Qualitative evidence suggests that FFA activities were found to be managed more sustainably when they were targeted at host populations rather than at temporary residents, such as refugees. There is a stronger sense of self-determining FFA activities in both West Nile and Karamoja**.** This may reflect more time available to discuss with communities, more sedentary communities, or a greater general sense among people that they have control over their lives. 46% of households still felt that WFP had selected the asset that was to be constructed.[HHS] The implementation of FFA attempted to bridge between the priorities of communities and the activities that were within WFP's scope to support. In many cases, WFP did not live up to community expectations in meeting their priorities through FFA (as seen by their perception of external asset		Recs 1-4

Main Findings& Sources	***Key Conclusions***	**Recommendations**
selection reported above – 46%). The transition of asset-ownership when displaced populations leave camps is not clear and was not considered in FFA. Levels of community ownership may not be as influential as theory suggests. Fuzzy set analysis in Karamoja suggests that higher levels of ownership could be associated with assets in both better and poorer conditions. FFA mostly did not disrupt other productive activities in areas highly affected by conflict. The most stable of the sub-regions, West Nile reported the highest level of interference of FFA with other productive work (37%). [HHS] Women were most affected by the opportunity cost of participating in FFA activities.[HHS]		
<u>How FFA Creates Impact</u> <u>(Role of External Contextual Factors)</u> No correlation between levels of security and the current condition of assets, suggesting that WFP is equally able to deliver FFA no matter what the level of insecurity. [Fuzzy sets analysis] After the return, land conflict has replaced insecurity as the major challenge to sustainable livelihoods in Acholi, Teso & Lango.		All Recommendations 1-5

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
An overall finding from the quantitative analysis is that conflict and transition environments – whether dynamic or chronic – are highly complex in terms of the factors that lead to success for FFA. There is no simple recipe for which activities will work best in which circumstances. [HHS] The FFA programme in Karamoja has continuously evolved, and many of the lessons identified in this evaluation are already part of revisions to NUSAF 2. One of the lessons from experience that came out strongly is the critical importance of timing activities according to the livelihood calendar (this is also highlighted strongly in WFP's 2011 FFA Programme Guidance Manual). [Interviews with WFP staff] During the relief phase in Acholi, Lango and Teso (2005/06), FFA activities were heavily informed by joint assessments and coordination led by OCHA. This aimed to avoid duplication of effort: an important principle of humanitarian response. [Interviews with WFP staff] WFP field staff exercised best practice in participating in this coordination effort, and in focusing FFA activities on issues that were agreed in advance with other partners (such as roads woodlots, teachers' houses, etc). [Interviews with WFP staff] In reality, however, this discipline may have		

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
unnecessarily constrained the scope of activities that WFP was willing to undertake with FFA. [Case studies] In the end, WFP had a small portfolio of assets created and was reliant on partners for implementation, technical knowledge and capacity. [Case studies] It appears, in retrospect that the aversion to duplication may have led to missed opportunities for FFA to address a wider set of problems (such as water harvesting) simply because in many cases the overlap between WFP and other organisations was at least as academic as it was actual. In addition, communities that were able to restock cattle through NAADS or other partners also seem to have done better at maintaining and extending FFA assets. This suggests that coordination of FFA is most effective where it goes beyond just avoiding duplication and emphasises joint programming. WFP was outstanding in its coordination with government structures, even where they were weakened or displaced by conflict.[Interviews with local government and the NGO Forum Gulu] WFP's long term presence in Karamoja and history of working with government structures is likely to have both strengthened government and provided WFP with the credibility needed to successfully transform the FFA project in 2010.		

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
This suggests that these long term commitments to partnering with government provided significant programmatic dividends. The main areas for improvement relate to aligning WFP's operational rules with its intention to work closely with government staff.[District staff] Coordination of development partners and government decreased in the peace. The corporate relationship between WFP and FAO, and unresolved design differences between FFA and farmer field schools, was an issue for both interviewed field staff and donors. [WFP staff and donors] <u>Role of Internal Implementation factors</u> There appears to be a link between the level of setbacks experienced by a project and its long-term success. [Fuzzy sets analysis Karamoja] This suggests that WFP's logistics and pipeline are also critical contributions to ensuring positive impacts from FFA. WFP staff on the ground made a big difference to relationships and the implementation of FFA. [Interviews with Government Staff and partners, including NGOs. Focus Group Discussions] Frequent changes in staff, insufficient handovers,		

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
and few training opportunities meant that incoming staff depended on finding a good mentor to get to grips with FFA. Sometimes these mentors were partners or government. Relationships were critical to the success of FFA in the dynamic context of Acholi, Teso and Lango. [Interviews with Government Staff and partners, including NGOs. Focus Group Discussions] The rations distributed under FFA accounted for around 2% of WFP's total inputs [SPR analysis] into Northern Uganda, and this in itself constrained the amount of management time that the organisation could commit to it. Regular turnover of staff – to be expected in a conflict area – often created gaps in these relationships, and WFP was unable to institutionalise a successful mechanism for handover and orientation of incoming FFA staff. WFP is less strong in its relationship and communication with communities. [Focus Group Discussions and interviews with WFP Staff and NGO partners] Areas for consideration include local language skills, more time for community dialogue, and the use of traditional structures. When it happened, communication with communities was generally seen as a positive aspect of WFP's work. However, it was only sporadic and often highly constrained by time.		

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
FFA may have contributed in the longer-term to an expectation of payment for any sort of participation in community-related works. [Interviews with key informants] WFP Uganda appears to have learnt the value of timing activities according to the livelihood calendar and disaggregating levels of vulnerability to household level. WFP Uganda's only experience of household-level vulnerability-based targeting of FFA in Karamoja was very challenging but seen to have been a technical and strategic success. [Independent Evaluation of WFP Livelihood Programming in Karamoja, DFID/IOD PARC 2012.] Vulnerability-based household targeting was introduced to Karamoja in 2010. It was the only use of this level of targeting considered under this evaluation. The specific outcomes from targeting have been considered under previous evaluations of KPAP/NUSAF2. The process of targeting in Karamoja was both technically and politically challenging. However, in interviews undertaken for this evaluation it was considered by local government and development partners to have been an important strategic statement by WFP. FFA was found to have boosted WFP staff morale at field level by providing developmental		

Main Findings& Sources	*Key Conclusions*	Recommendations
opportunities and the chance to contribute to long term goals. Interaction Between Factors Uncertainty about security conditions and the focus on FFA as a value-transfer mechanism seems to have led to a broad scattering of individual assets that continues – to a lesser degree – until the present day. The analysis suggests four main factors as explanations for the scope and effectiveness of FFA as programmed in Northern Uganda): the technical quality of the asset design within the local context; the capacity and scope for participatory local level planning processes; the value placed on different asset types by a population under stress; and the window of certainty for programme planning (i.e. can field staff reasonably assume a 10 year engagement with a particular community, or might everyone have moved location within the next 6 months?). [SPR data; Fuzzy sets, HHS, Interviews] Finally, FFA was seen as most effective when it is programmed over a long duration in order to build on marginal gains. Overall WFP's advantage is seen on the ground in terms of the longevity of its support and its ability		

Main Findings& Sources	***Key Conclusions***	**Recommendations**
to be agile because of multi-year programmatic planning which allows for funds to be readily available for seasonal activity implementation.		

Annex 18: Acronyms

AA	Asset Assistance
ACDI-VOCA	Agricultural Cooperative Development International/Volunteers in Overseas Cooperative Assistance
ACF	Association of *Charitable* Foundations International
ACTED	Agency for Technical Cooperation and Development
ADRA	Adventist Development Relief Agency
ALNAP	Active Learning Network for Accountability and Performance
ALREP	Agricultural Livelihood Recovery Project
CIDI	Composite International Diagnostic Interview
COMPAS	Commodity Movement Processing and Analysis System
CP	Country Programme
CVFSA	Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Analysis
CRR	Central River Region
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DED	Deputy Executive Director
DEO	District Education Officer
DFO	District Finance Officer
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
EQAS	Evaluation Quality Assurance System
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FFA	Food For Assets
FFE	Food for Education
FFT	Food For Training
FFS	Farmer Field School
FFW	Food For Work
FSQCA	Fuzzy Set Qualitative Comparative Analysis
GAM	Global Acute Malnutrition

GFD	General Food Distribution
HHS	Household Survey
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HQ	Headquarters
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
IP	Implementing Partners
IOD PARC	International Organisation Development Limited Performance Assessment Resource Centre
KALIP	Karamoja Livelihoods Programme
KAPFS	Karamoja Action Plan for Food
KPAP	Karamoja Productive Assets Programme
KIDDP	Karamoja Integrated Disarmament and Development Programme
LEARN	Literacy Enhancement and Rural Nutrition
OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
OEV	Office of Evaluation
LRA	Lord's Resistance Army
MT	Metric Ton
MERET-PLUS	Managing Environmental Resources to Enable Transition to more sustainable livelihoods through Partnership and Land User Solidarity
MSC	"MSC Women"
MSF	Médecins Sans Frontières
NAADS	National Agricultural Advisory Services
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NRM	Natural Resource Management
NUSAF	Northern Uganda Social Action Fund
OPM	Office of the Prime Minister (Uganda)
PPS	Probability Proportional to Size
PRRO	Protracted Relief and Recovery Operation
PSNP	Productive Safety-Net Programme
PTA	Parent-Teacher Association

PWP	Public Works Programme
QCA	Qualitative Comparative Analysis
RALNUC	Restoration of Agricultural Livelihoods in Northern Uganda
SMO	Something that is trained?
SO	Special Operation
SPR	Standard Project Report
SSI	Semi –Structured Interviews
ToC	Theory of Change
USD	US Dollars
UN	United Nations
UNEG	United Nations Evaluation Group
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UGX	Uganda Shillings
UPE	Universal Primary Education
VAM	Vulnerability Assessment and Mapping
V2R	Vulnerability to Resilience
WFP	World Food Programme

Rome, January 2014, OEV/2013/007

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