Baseline Survey Report
Cohort 2

Resilient Livelihoods for the Poor component (RLP)
Social Protection and Sustainable Livelihoods Project, Lao PDR
www.spsl.la

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SPSL Social Protection and Sustainable Livelihoods

Australian Aid

Contents

Acronyms

AUD	Australian Dollars
CLP	Chars Livelihoods Programme, Phase 2
CSS	Customer Satisfaction Survey
DFAT	Australian Department for Foreign Affairs and Trade
FY	Financial Year
GoL	Government of Laos PDR
GIZ	German aid agency
GPS	Global Positioning System
HH	Household
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IP	Implementing Partner
Lao PDR	Lao Peoples' Democratic Republic
LARLP	Laos-Australia Rural Livelihoods Program
LF	Learning Facility (component)
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
M4P	Making markets work for the poor approach
MECF	Micro-Enterprise Challenge Fund
MIS	Management Information System
MSP	Maxwell Stamp PLC
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
NTFP	Non-Timber Forest Products
PDD	Program Design Document
PWD	Person(s) with Disabilities
RF	Results Framework
RLP	Resilient Livelihoods for the Poor
SCA	Senior Citizens Allowance
SPA	Social Protection Activity
SPSL	Social Protection and Sustainable Livelihoods (component)
ToC	Theory of Change
UNCDF	United Nations Capital Development Fund
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
USD	United States Dollar
UXO	Unexploded Ordinance
VfM or VFM	Value-for-Money
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene activities

Executive Summary

The Rural Livelihoods for the Poor (RLP) component of the Social Protection and Sustainable Livelihoods (SPSL) Project enrolled its second batch (cohort-2) of extreme poor beneficiaries in the period October to December 2015. A total 592 households were enrolled to cohort-2; marginally less than the target of 600 although 613 households were previously enrolled in first cohort against the same target of 600 (Marks et al, 2015).

RLP selected the households using the same selection criteria as cohort-1 and from the same three districts of Lao-Ngam, Xepon and Soukhouma. However, the latter district could not provide sufficient households matching the selection criteria and thus the extra district of Mounlapamok was added. Households selected from these four districts were as follows: Lao-Ngam (196), Xepon (202), Soukhouma (90) and Mounlapamok (104).

Baseline data were collected during a household survey from all enrolled households in November 2015 using the same questionnaire as for cohort-1. Of particular interest was to collect baseline data for several important project and donor (DFAT) indicators but also to enable progress and impact monitoring to occur during and after the end of the SPSL project.

The results of the survey showed, not surprisingly, many similarities to those collected from cohort-1. Beneficiary households hail from several ethnic groups with about one-third from the Loa Loum group, another third from the Try group and the remaining one-third, from the Lavane, Suey, Ta Ouay, Khamer and Katou. The former dominate in Soukhouma (94%) and Mounlapamok (76%) while the Try do so in Xepon (over 98%). Lao-Ngam has greater ethnic diversity with Lavane constituting about 50% and Lao Loum and Suey close to 20%. Religion is strongly linked to ethnic group with all households in Soukhouma and most in Mounlapamok being Buddhists while 98% of households in Xepon are Animists. Lao-Ngam has diverse religious groups but with Buddhism at 75% and Animism at 23%.

Households across all districts have an average of five members and 13% of households are female headed and thus considered the most vulnerable. Also female-headed household heads are relatively older (average 49 years) than their male counterparts (average 39). Most household members (90%) are part of the nuclear family with almost all the remainder being close relatives. The average household has 2.6 children whose level of schooling is poor; especially among girls (80% girls old enough to go to school are or have received no education) against 40% for boys. The situation is particularly critical in Xepon, the most rural of the four districts. More than 50% of household heads have received no education with, again, the situation being most critical in Xepon. Soukhouma and Mounlapamok offer more opportunity for education with “only” about 30 and 20% of male household heads having received no education.

Poor and chronic health and disability are seen as drivers of poverty. It is not surprising therefore to note that a third of cohort-2 households reported having a disabled or chronically sick member while overall more than 13% of all individual beneficiaries have one or more disabilities (including chronic sickness).

Income generating activities, across all households and districts, are dominated by agricultural activities; especially in the more rural districts of Xepon and Lao-Ngam. Non-agriculture activities; mostly labouring, accounts for only 2 or 3% of adults in

Xepon and Lao-Ngam while in Soukhouma and Mounlapamok this rises to about 15%. One third of youth (11-15 years of age) undertake some form of income generating activity; again mostly agriculture-based. Agricultural work is divided between labouring for another land owner, sharecropping or working on their own land.

Households have relatively few different sources of income; generally only two or three in total. Less than 5% of beneficiary households in Soukhouma, Xepon and Lao-Ngam have a third additional source of income while this rises to 20% in Mounlapamok. Apart from the sale of agricultural products, most households only have one or two other sources; with hiring out of labour and the sale of non-timber forest products being particularly important income sources.

Households in Xepon are considerably less asset rich than those from the three other districts. While average asset value in Xepon is only some US$ 340, comparable values in Soukhouma, Lao-Ngam and Mounlapamok average US$ 900, $1,170 and $1,350 respectively; mostly accounted for by the value of owned housing, garden and agricultural land.

Income sources, relative income levels (income levels are measured and discussed elsewhere) and household asset values are logically related to food security and, to a lesser extent, to dietary diversity. Not surprisingly, the most food insecure households in cohort-2 reside in Xepon (85% of households), falling to 77% in Lao-Ngam, 70% in Mounlapamok and 65% in Soukhouma.

All households eat a rice based diet accompanied by green vegetables and sometimes a varied source of protein. However, dietary variety is often lacking in beneficiary households. Using five different food groups consumed during the previous seven days as a measure, 66% of households in Xepon do not eat a sufficiently varied diet. This falls to only 15%, 11% and 5% respectively in Soukhouma, Lao-Ngam and Mounlapamok.

The quality of drinking water and hygiene generally are poor in cohort-2 households. While most beneficiary households in Soukhouma do have access to tube well or open well water, this falls to one half of households in Mounlapamok and far lower in the other two districts, especially in Xepon. In all districts except Soukhouma, water is most commonly obtained from open water bodies.

The sites of defecation are similar across all four districts with forests being the most common areas for adults and open spaces for children. Almost no enrolled households possess a latrine and, where a latrine is used, it almost always belongs to a neighbour.

Hand-washing is common after most unhygienic activities but the use of soap is relatively uncommon except in Lao-Ngam.

Turning to savings and loans, approximately 70% of all cohort-2 households have savings while only about 10% overall have borrowings; formal or informal. Savings levels are generally of small amounts, especially in Xepon, as is the level of borrowing. Few households (at the time of the baseline survey) were members of a village bank especially in Xepon and Lao-Ngam (only about 1%) with more in Soukhouma and Mounlapamok (8% and 21% respectively). However, with the start of RLP activities with these households, all should now be members of village banks.

Household decisions for such events as whether to purchase, sell assets, save, lend or borrow is said by household heads to be very much divided between the husband and wife with the woman being more likely to decide the purchase small items while the

sale of asset tends to be decided as a couple. Lending and borrowing were rare events for many families and so many households could not give a response from their own experience.

Many women appear to be confident in managing money and a small enterprise; the figures for Xepon households are considerably lower than those in the other three districts. This is also reflected in the feeling of economic security of women. While about 40% in Soukhouma, 50% in Mounlapamok, and 35% in Lao-Ngam feel insecure, this rises to 72% in Xepon - a reflection of much which has already been written earlier in this summary.

Finally, a Poverty Scorecard was used to measure the level of poverty of enrolled households against a poverty scale recognised by the Government of Lao. The poorest households enrolled to RLP are based in Xepon with 98% falling below a 16-point cut-off. This is in contrast to the situation in Lao-Ngam (82%), Soukhouma (74%) and Mounlapamok (72%).

SPSL will monitor some of these data sets at regular intervals during the provision of RLP to households while other indicators will be measured at, or just after, the end of project activities.

1. Introduction

Following on from the successful enrolment of 613 poor households into the pilot activity of Rural Livelihoods for the Poor (RLP) of the Social Protection and Sustainable Livelihoods (SPSL) Project; RLP enrolled its second batch (or cohort) in the period October to December 2015. The second batch totalled 592 marginally below the target of 600.

SPSL is managed by the Maxwell Stamp PLC (MSP) while the enrolment of beneficiaries and execution of field activities have been subcontracted to three international Implementation Partners (IPs). They are operating in the same three districts as for cohort-1: Xepon (Health Poverty Action), Lao-Ngam (World Education) and Soukhouma (CARE International) although the latter has also added the new district of Mounlapamok to complete their target of 200 households for cohort-2.

RLP is rolling out a poverty alleviation strategy at the household level that, in total, targets assistance to 1,200 extreme poor households. The first recruitment phase (cohort-1) was completed by June 2015 and the second by December 2015.

RLP has three major series of activities providing:

1. Funds for the purchase of income-generating assets;
2. An asset supporting monthly allowance (stipend) that should enable newly acquired and valuable assets to be properly cared for;
3. Training and mentoring by village level facilitators, working for the three IPs, in the care of those assets and the development of micro-enterprises based on the assets and the skills acquired.

As was described in the previous Baseline Report that analysed data for cohort-1[1], RLP is a pilot for DFAT as well as a new undertaking in the Lao situation. It is considered essential that lessons be learnt from the implementation and impact processes and so a

[1] Marks, Malcolm; Soukchaleunphone, Sith & Phouthon Siharat (Nov. 2015) Baseline Survey Report Cohort 1. Resilient Livelihoods for the Poor Component, Social Protection and Sustainable Livelihoods Project, Laos. Maxwell Stamp PLC.

baseline situation should be developed. This is supported by the fact that SPSL possesses a number of process, output and impact indicators that relate to RLP activities and these also require a baseline state to be developed.

The process of moving out of poverty (or "graduating" from poverty) has been studied in several other countries and SPSL wishes to add its own experience and lessons to the existing knowledge pool. Also SPSL has developed and adopted a "gender equity and inclusive development" strategy (GEID) and data should be collected to show that the strategy is being respected[2].

For all these reasons, SPSL is collecting baseline data from RLP households before any project activities (and especially asset distribution) has occurred. The rollout of the baseline survey for cohort-1 (June 2015) was used as an opportunity to link a complementary survey to begin the collection of income and expenditure data from recipient households (increase in income being a core impact indicator of DFAT), and the same has occurred during the collection of cohort-2 baseline data.

2. Baseline data collection

2.1 Data collected

All details of the development, refinement and method to collect baseline data were reported in the cohort-1 baseline report (Marks et al, 2015) and so will not be repeated here. Suffice to say that the same questionnaires (for the baseline and for the Income & Expenditure surveys) were reused and data collected in the following areas:

- Household composition, education, health status (poverty status), as well as gender and ethnicity (for GEID considerations);
- Employment and other income-generating activities (for income/expenditure and asset accumulation studies);
- Membership of village organisations as well as social status (for empowerment and change in status);
- Dietary quality and food security (for changes in health and income/expenditure);
- Types and levels of household assets (for changes in income/expenditure and sustainability of changes);
- Household savings and borrowings (for poverty levels, bank membership);
- Hygiene and sanitation (for health, attitude change and increasing wealth);
- Decision-making (female empowerment), and
- Poverty scorecard (for movement out of poverty).

2.2 When, how from where were data collected

As with the survey for cohort-1, data collection for cohort-2 occurred before any significant project influence had occurred (i.e. in the few weeks between recipient household verification and any asset, stipend or training activities). Thus the survey occurred during a three-week period starting in the last week of November. As with cohort-1, SPSL has been able to develop an accurate time zero (t=0) representation of cohort-2.

[2] Documents exist that detail SPSL indicators (the Results Framework), data collection methods (SPSL M&E Plan), data collection responsibilities/timing (M&E Manual) and progress of the project over time (SPSL Progress Reports). Such documents are posted on the SPSL website at www.spsl.la

The Baseline Survey was conducted with all cohort-2 households while the Income and Expenditure Survey was conducted concurrently with a 20% sample of households drawn at random from the entire household enrolment (approximately 120 households). Random sampling was carried out using a random number simulator and used all cohort-2 households as the sample frame with no stratification apart from by IP and with no weighting on village size or other variable. Thus households included in the I&E survey were as geographically diverse as possible.

The baseline questionnaire is a one-off questionnaire[3] while the income and expenditure questionnaire will be used every two months with the same randomly selected households in order to build up a panel data series for the approximate 120 households (and thus results from the I&E survey are not reported in this document).

2.3 Responsibility for data collection and analyses

Just as with cohort-1, it was considered that the size of the task, the number of households involved, the distances to be covered and the relative inexperience of SPSL field staff in monitoring and evaluation (M&E) and survey activities, required outsourcing to a local, competent company. Since Indochina Research (Laos) were judged to have performed competently for the cohort-1 baseline survey, it was decided to recontract the same organisation for the cohort-2 baseline and initial I&E data collection campaigns.

The tasks of database development and data analyses remain the joint responsibilities of the MIS and M&E teams at SPSL while the development of the associated reports (baseline and initial I&E report as well as subsequent I&E reports) is being led by SPSL's national and international M&E specialists; although all relevant team members have responsibility for detailed inputs and quality control.

3. Key Survey results

Just as with the analysis and presentation of cohort-1 data, the order of the nine key areas surveyed in the Baseline Survey (listed in Section 2.1) are used to present the analysed data for cohort-2. This should allow the interested reader to easily compare data from the surveys of the two cohorts. Some key or of interest data form cohort-1 are also reproduced and compared with similar data form the current cohort-2.

Data for each area are generally analysed as an overall data set (i.e. using all cohort-2 households without reference to geographic distribution) then sub-divided by District and other relevant subdivisions (e.g. female- versus male-headed households).

3.1 Recipient household composition & core data

3.1.1 Ethnicity and Religion of household head

Eleven ethnic groups are present in the cohort-2 beneficiary household list although six of them are little represented. Table 1 shows the major ethnic groups enrolled by RLP. Overall, approximately one-third of enrolled households belong to the Loa Loum ethnic group and another third belonging to the Try group. Of the remaining one-third,

[3] Although the baseline survey questionnaire is considered to be used only for baseline purposes with cohorts 1 and 2, it is also anticipated that the same structure of questionnaire will be used to collect comparable data towards the end of SPSL involvement with recipient households. In all likelihood, questions used in the baseline will be reused for endline purposes, although it is possible that additional questions may be added.

half (16%) of them are Lavane, 7% are Suey and then small numbers of Ta Ouay, Khamer and Katou.

Table 1: Ethnicity of recipient household heads in the four districts covered by RLP

District	Total HH	Ethnicity (% composition)								
		Lao Loum	Ta Ouay	Lavane	Suey	Khamer	Katou	Try	Others	
Overall	592	35.0	1.9	16.4	7.3	4.4	1.5	32.6	1.0	
Soukhouma	90	94.4			3.3	2.2				
Mounlapamok	104	76.0	1.0			23.1				
Xepon	196							98.5	1.5	
Lao-Ngam	202	21.3	5.0	46.5	19.8		4.5		1.0	

There is a distinct geographic distribution of several of the ethnic groups with Lao Loum dominating in Soukhouma (94%) and Mounlapamok (76%), Try dominate in Xepon (over 98%) while in Lao-Ngam there is greater ethnic diversity. No single group truly dominates in Lao-Ngam although Lavane approach 50% (46.5%), followed by Lao Loum and Suey (both close to 20%). Khamer represent a significant minority (23%) in Mounlapamok.

Religion tends to relate strongly to ethnic grouping. Thus all selected households in Soukhouma and in Mounlapamok are Buddhists while 98% (Table 2) of households in Xepon are Animists. Lao-Ngam, with the most diverse number of ethnic groups, also has the most religions represented by its households although Buddhism is the most frequent (75%) followed by Animism (23%).

Table 2: Religions represented among RLP households, data disaggregated by district

District	Tot HH	Religion (% composition)			
		Buddhist	Christian	Animist	Others
Overall	592	59.1	0.5	40.2	0.2
Soukhouma	90	100	0	0	0
Mounlapamok	104	100	0	0	0
Xepon	196	2.0	0	98.0	0
Lao-Ngam	202	75.2	1.5	22.8	0.5

3.1.2 Household size and composition

Overall, SPSL and IPs enrolled 592 recipient households to the project (Soukhouma District: 90 households; Mounlapamok District: 104 households; Xepon District: 196 households; Lao-Ngam District: 202 households[4]).

[4] Although each IP was set a target by SPSL of enrolling 200 households, no qualifying households in a target village were excluded. This explains why one IP (WorldEducation in

The 592 recipient households contain a total of 2,936 individuals from babies through to the elderly; averaging slightly under five individuals (4.96) per households; almost exactly as predicted in the SPSL Results Framework. There is a little diversity of household size between districts with Soukhouma averaging 4.22, Mounlapamok at 4.80, Lao-Ngam 5.12 and Xepon 5.20. Interestingly, cohort-1 data also showed Lao-Ngam and Xepon households marginally larger than those of Soukhouma (no comparable data exists for the "new" district of Mounlapamok).

Overall, the 592 households count slightly more male (1,490) than female (1,446) members (2.52 male members per HH on average versus 2.44 female) with males exceeding females in Soukhouma, Mounlapamok and Lao-Ngam while Xepon counts slightly more female household members (503 male versus 520 female).

Of the households included in the RLP activities, there are a reasonable proportion of female-headed households (Table 3). Overall this calculates to approximately 13% female-headed households; generally in excess of national average figures[5] as would be expected given that selection criteria select for the poorest households. The highest proportion is in Soukhouma (19%), followed by Lao-Ngam (14%) and Mounlapamok (13%), with the least in Xepon (9%). These figures are comparable to those found in cohort-1 (Soukhouma = 20%, Lao-Ngam almost 17% with Xepon the lowest at slightly less than 7%).

Table 3: The gender of household heads enrolled by the RLP project with data disaggregated by district

	Gender of household head (%)		
	Male-headed	Female-headed	Basic number of HH
Soukhouma	81	19	73 vs 17
Mounlapamok	87	13	91 vs 13
Xepon	91	9	178 vs 18
Lao-Ngam	86	14	174 vs 28

Not surprisingly, the vast majority of male-headed households are led by married men (approximately 96% with only minor differences between districts) while only about 13% of female-headed households are led by a married woman. Table 4 provides the breakdown of figures and the reasons that household heads are unmarried. It can be seen that almost all male household heads are married and, of those that are not, very few have never married while a handful are either divorced or widowed. In stark contrast, there are high levels of divorced or widowed female household heads; the main reason that they are considered as household heads.

Table 4: The percentage of unmarried household heads and the reason for their status,

Lao-Ngam Districts) marginally exceeded the 200 household target. Both CARE and HPA with 194 (90 plus 104) and 196 respectively failed to meet their targets.

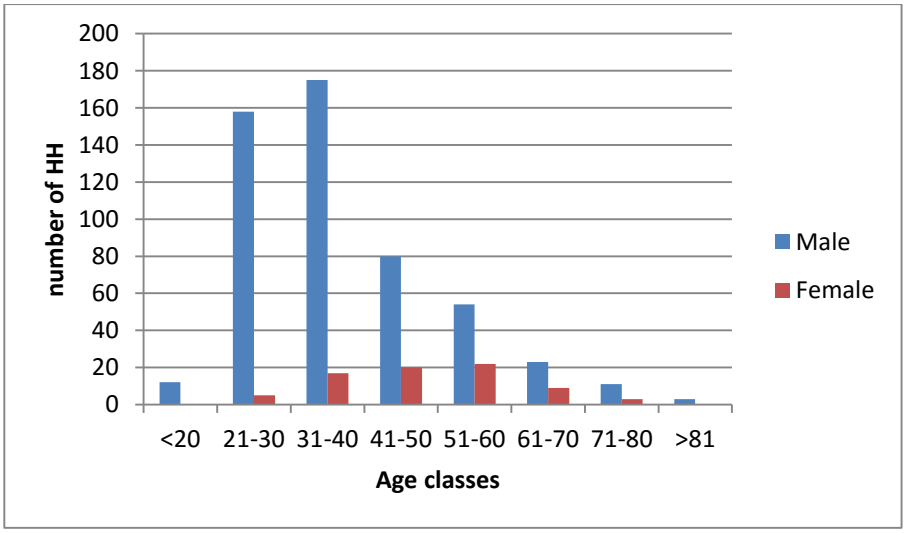
[5] Lao figures for agricultural households are approximately 5% in 2008 figures[5] although figures of up to 18% are reported elsewhere

disaggregated by the gender of the household head and by district

District	Status of unmarried household heads (%)					
	Male-headed			Female-headed		
	unmarried	divorced	widowed	Unmarried	divorced	widowed
Soukhouma	0	2.8	3.8	0	41.2	35.3
Mounlapamok	1.1	1.1	1.1	7.7	53.8	38.5
Xepon	0.6	1.7	1.1	0	38.9	50.0
Lao-Ngam	0.6	0.6	1.1	0	17.9	67.9

As might be expected, the age of household heads is highly variable with a mean of approximately 40 years across all districts (almost identical to that of cohort-1) and with little difference in average age in any district. However, there are some real differences apparent when the gender of household heads is analysed. Overall, female household heads are, on average, older than their male counterparts (approximately 49 years old versus slightly below 38-39 for men). This same trend was also seen from the cohort-1 analysis. Again there is little inter-district difference to report, and so age ranges (disaggregated by gender) have been combined across all districts (Figure 1). From the figure it can be seen that the ages of household heads, enrolled into RLP, vary from their early 20s to over 90, regardless of gender and district.

Figure 1: Age distribution among household heads, gender disaggregated, with all four districts combined



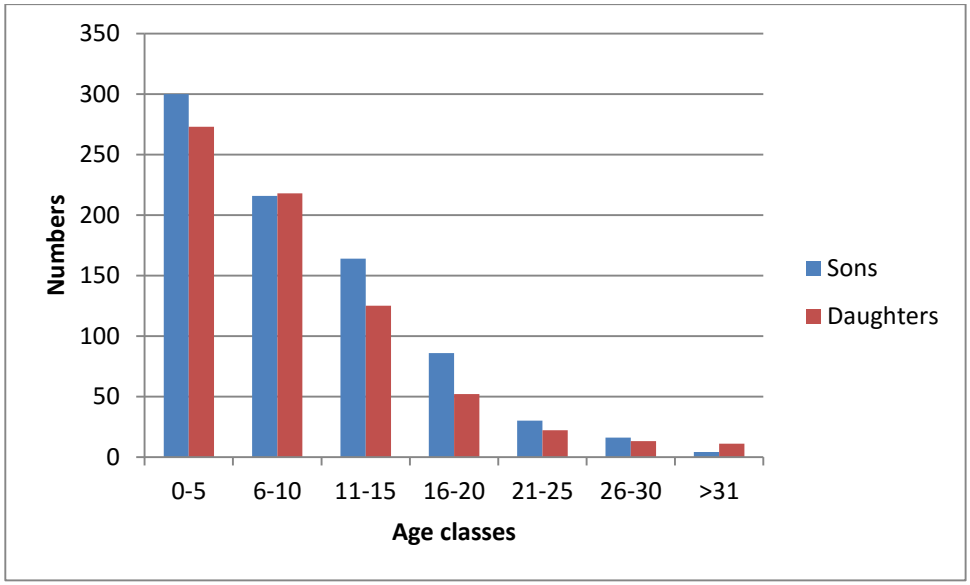
Household (rather than Family[6]) composition is interesting. The "nuclear" family

[6] SPSL uses the more classic definition of "household" in which all members cook meals together. A household may therefore be composed of a "nuclear family" (father, mother and children), other "close" relatives (parents, brothers, sisters, grandparents and grandchildren), "extended" family members (aunts, uncles, nephews, nieces, in-laws, etc.) and non-related

constitutes the vast majority of household members (an average of 90% with insignificant variability between districts) while "close" relatives constitute a further approximate 7% with extended members constituting the majority of the remainder (3%). Only twelve individuals across all four districts and the 592 households did not fall into at least the extended family category.

Households average approximately 2.6 children with the mean child age across all districts of about nine years. However, average age hides considerable variability (Figure 2) with a few households retaining sons into their 20s and 30s and daughters, even later; some into their 30s and 40s. Above approximately 16 years of age, children in the household represent a source of additional labour and income potential.

Figure 2: Age distribution among recipient household children, disaggregated by gender, with all four districts combined.



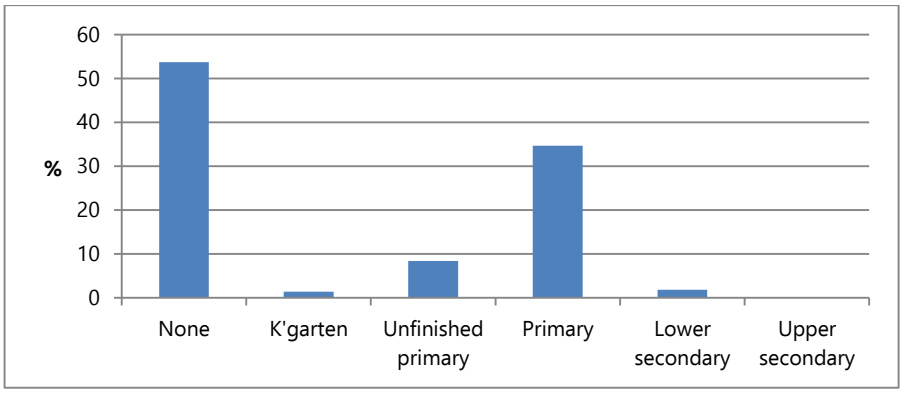
3.1.3 Levels of education – all household members combined

During the baseline survey, households were asked about education levels and possible answers ranged from none to Kindergarten to primary through lower and higher secondary and on to tertiary levels (including higher education and vocational training).

However, education levels across all households of RLP recipients, regardless of district, proved minimal (Figure 3) with approx. 54% of household members having received no education (although a third of these are too young to go to school; in the age range of 0-4 years). Where some primary education has occurred, about 20% of those individuals did not finish their primary education. Less than 2% of household members went on to attend lower secondary school and just a handful (3 individuals) from the almost 3,000 household members went into upper secondary.

Figure 3: Education levels across all households with no disaggregation for gender or district

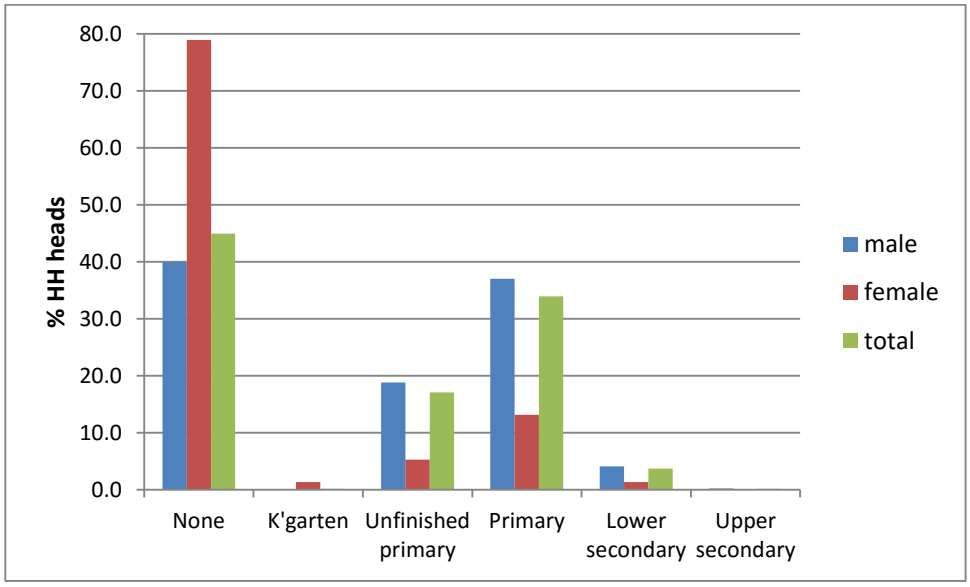
dependents (friends and live in help such as maids)



3.1.4 Levels of education – household heads and spouses

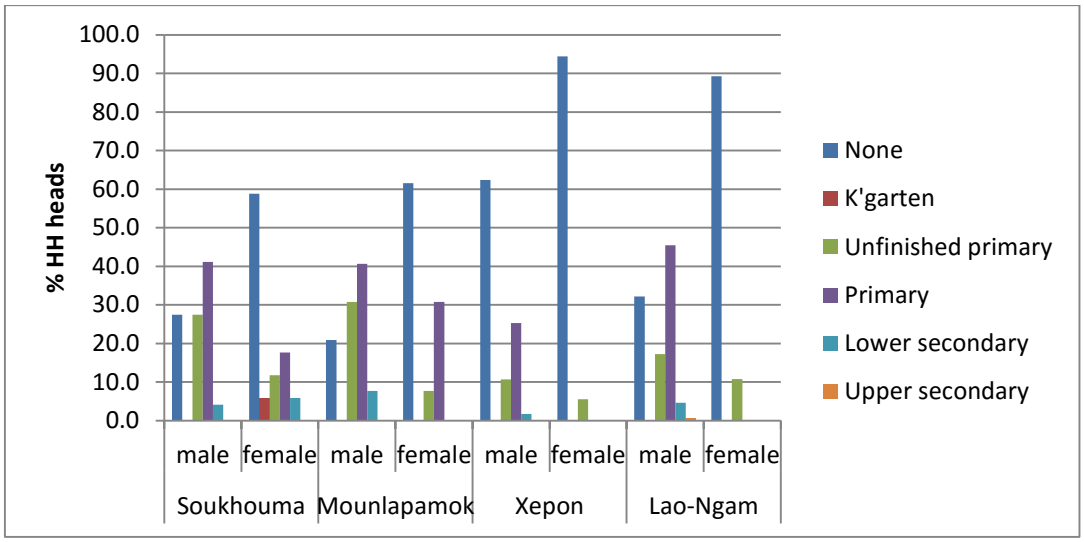
Almost one half of household heads enrolled into RLP have received no formal education; and there is a real dichotomy when gender is considered since twice as many female heads (80% of total) have received no education versus "only" 40% of male heads (Figure 4). When the level of education of the other half is considered, only less than 4% have gone beyond the primary level; and when those having received some primary education are considered, about one-third of males and one-half of female heads failed to finish the primary level. These data resemble the figures for cohort-1.

Figure 4: Education levels across household heads, disaggregating on gender but not on district



When data are also disaggregated on district (Figure 5), clear geographic distinctions become apparent for both male and female household heads. These data confirm cohort-1 findings.

Figure 5: Education levels of household heads disaggregated by gender and district



The least educated household heads reside in Xepon district; overall 72% of heads received no education, rising to 95% of female-heads. Of the male leads who received some education in Xepon (less than 38%), it was only at the primary level and then 40% of them did not complete that level.

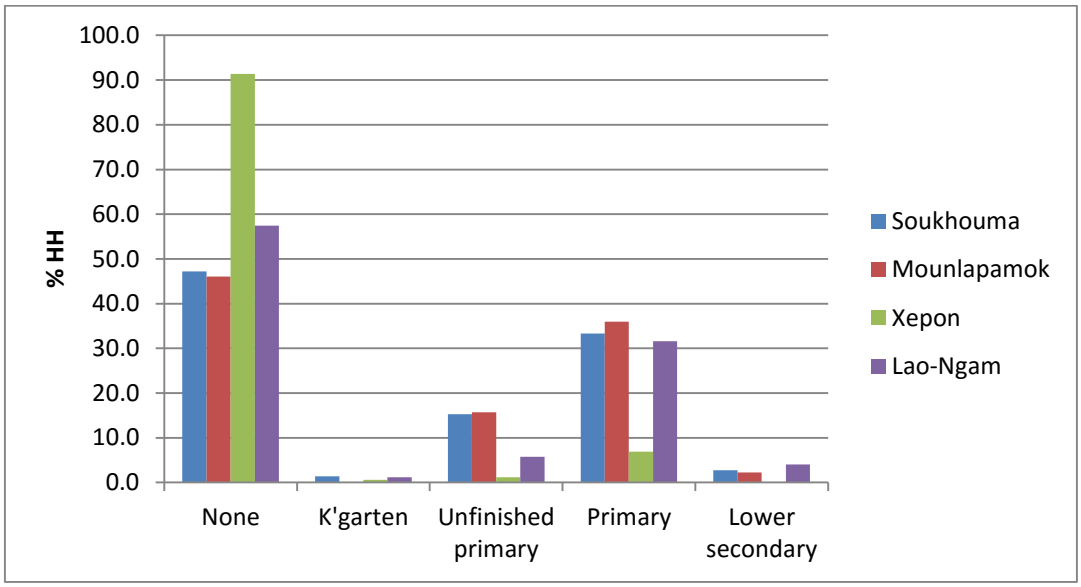
In contrast, both male and female household heads in both Soukhouma and Mounlapamok seem to have received marginally better access to education with "only" about 30% and 20% respectively of male household heads having received no education. But this rises to approximately 60% of female household leads in both districts. Over 70% of male leads and over 40% of females received some primary education in Soukhouma with a few going on to some secondary education while in Mounlapamok, males received slightly better access to education than in Soukhouma (+6.5%) but female heads slightly less (-2.7%).

Access to education for male household leads in Lao-Ngam was relatively similar to that in Soukhouma/Mounlapamok (about 68% had received some education) but the female situation resembled more closely those of Xepon with only slightly over 10% having received some education.

The spouses of household heads have generally received little formal education (Figure 6) with those in Soukhouma and Mounlapamok having had better access to education than in Xepon while spouses in Lao-Ngam fall between the two extremes. As was seen with the household heads, where their spouses did receive some education, it tended to stop during or at the end of the primary cycle.

It should also be added that the data presented in Fig. 6 refers almost entirely to women since so few female heads are married (as shown in Table 4).

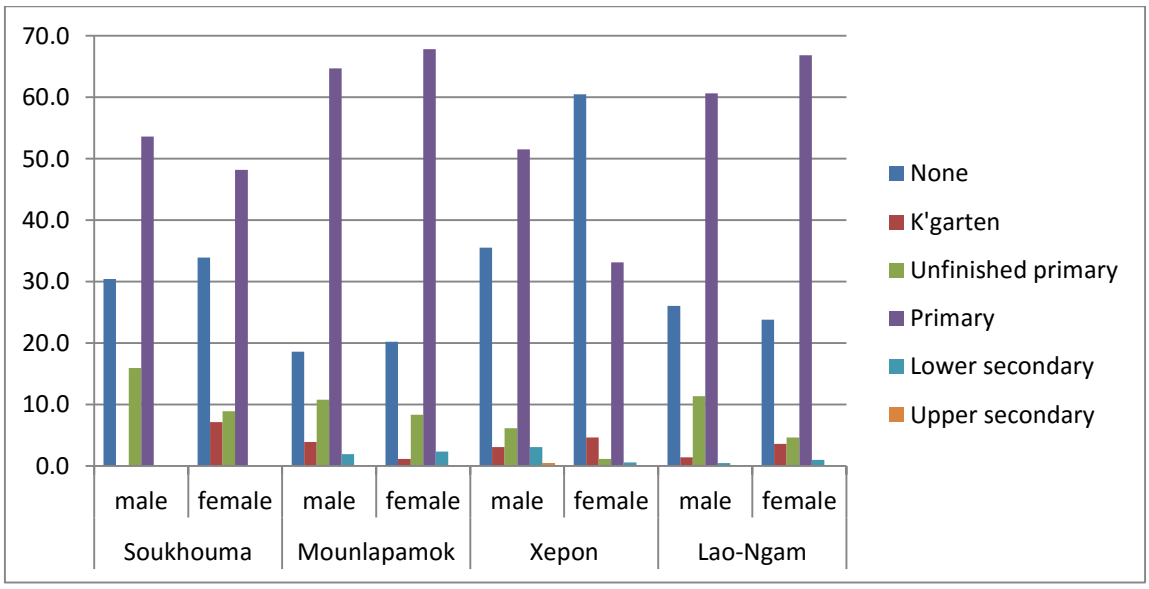
Figure 6: Education levels of the spouses of household heads, disaggregated on district. Most data refer to wives since only relatively few female leads have husbands



3.1.5 Levels of education – Household heads' children

Children of household heads have generally had better access to education than their parents (Figure 7). Fig. 7 was developed by calculating only on those children (five years and above) who are of school age or were once of school age for adult children.

Figure 7: Education levels of children of household heads, disaggregated by gender and by district. Only children who are or where of school age (five years and above) are included in the calculation



In recipient households across all districts, there are just under 1,100 children of household heads who could or once could have attended school. Of this total, 731 (two-thirds) have had some schooling although 15% of them did not or will not complete the primary cycle. Clearly, and as found with cohort-1, education levels

remain to be improved. This is particularly true for girls in Xepon.

When household heads were asked whether they send (or sent) all, some or none of their children to school, the results appeared as follows:

- Soukhouma: 33% (all), 13% (some), 53% (none);
- Mounlapamok: 50%, 14%, 36%;
- Xepon: 25%, 33%, 42%;
- Lao-Ngam: 43%, 25%, 32%

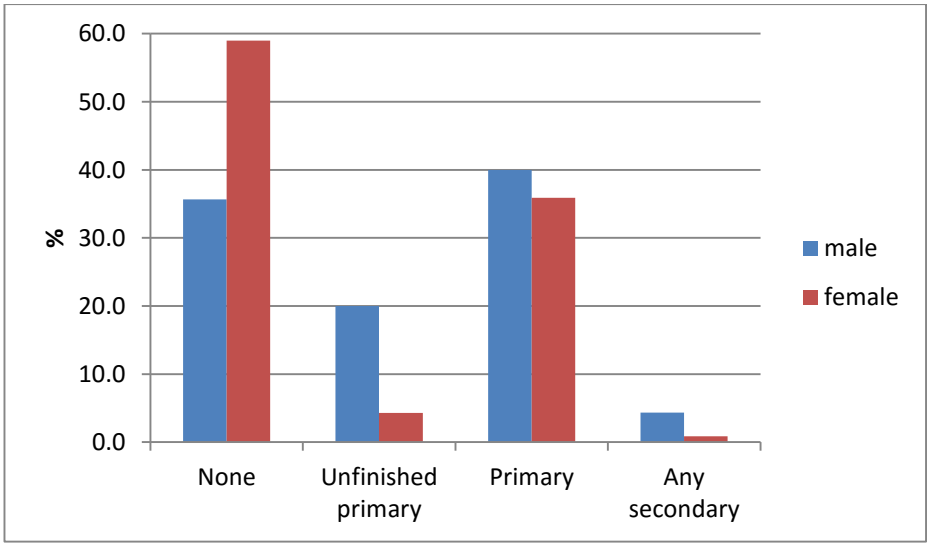
These are rather different results than when the schooling of children was taken child-by-child.

3.1.6 Levels of education – other household members

The point registered above concerning lack of education for household heads and their children is also relevant when considering household members not directly members of the "nuclear" family (Figure 8).

Again it is female members of the household who are especially lacking education with almost 60% of girls and women who are or were old enough to attend school receiving no education. This figure is however better than the 76% recorded for cohort-1. Of the remaining 40%, only a tiny minority (less than 1%) were educated beyond the primary level. Male members fared a little better with "only" 36% having received no education but an additional 20% were unable to finish the primary level.

Figure 8: Education levels of other members of household not members of the nuclear family; disaggregated by gender. Only individuals who are or were of school age (five years and above) are included in the calculation.



3.1.7 Household health status

Poverty is frequently related to health status, especially when the household head is of poor health or bears a heavy burden of other sick/disabled household members. Further, SPSL within its GEID strategy does not discriminate against households with disabled, handicapped or sick members. For these reason, the baseline survey included a question about the health of family members rating as:

- Well;

- Sensory (blind, deaf, mute);
- Physically disabled;
- Psychological disorder;
- Chronically ill;
- Other conditions (but since the vast majority were identified as forms of chronic illness, they have been rolled into the former category).

A high proportion of recipient households contain individuals with disabilities. Across all four districts, 32% reported one or more individuals with one or more of the listed disabilities (the comparable figure for cohort-1 was 25%). The highest proportion of recipient households was in Soukhouma (41%) followed by Mounlapamok (35%) then Xepon (31%) and finally Lao-Ngam (28%). Several households count more than a single disabled person in their numbers with one household in Xepon having four of its five household members with various handicaps.

Overall, the types and percentage of persons suffering from disabilities, in comparison to healthy individuals, are shown in Table 5.

Breaking down data based on afflicted persons provides some interesting information, summarised in Table 6. The economic status of households would generally be most impacted by disability of the household head. And overall, 85 of the 592 household heads have a disability (14%) but with a clear gender split: male heads 12.8% with a disability but more than twice as many female heads at 26.7%.

Table 5: Types of disabilities, all household members combined, reported by household heads during the baseline survey with data disaggregated by district

	Soukhouma	**Mounlapamok**	**Xepon**	**Lao-Ngam**	**Total**
Well (%)	**86.2**	**90.0**	**92.5**	**93.9**	**91.8**
Disability (%):					
All disabilities combined	**13.8**	**10.0**	**7.4**	**6.1**	**8.2**
Sensory deprived	3.4	2.0	2.1	1.6	2.0
Physically challenged	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.8
Psychological illness	1.0	0.6	0.2	0.6	0.4
Chronic illness	8.8	6.6	4.5	3.3	5.0

Soukhouma has almost 20% of household heads afflicted in comparison to 13 or 14% in the other three districts. Particularly prevalent among household heads are chronic illnesses.

Almost 11% of spouses have a disability, again with chronic illness dominating while only a relatively few of the children of household heads (about 3.6%) are reported with any disabilities and no single disability appears to dominate. Finally, among other household members – who have the widest of age ranges – there seem to exist considerable (15%) individuals with disabilities; especially in Soukhouma, with sensory deprivation and chronic illnesses being prevalent across all districts.

Table 6: Number of sufferers of different categories of disability with data

disaggregated by category of household member and by district

	Soukhouma (90 HH)						Mounlapamok (104 HH)					
	HH Head		Spouse	children		others	HH Head		Spouse	children		others
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female	
Well	63	10	57	93	76	31	78	11	79	134	111	36
All disabilities combined	11	6	15	4	6	11	13	2	10	11	8	6
Sensory deprived	2	0	0	1	3	4	1	1	4	2	1	1
Physically challenged	0	2	1	2	0	2	2	0	0	1	1	0
Psychological illness	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1
Chronic illness	9	4	13	1	3	4	10	1	6	7	5	4

	Xepon (196 HH)						Lao-Ngam (202 HH)					
	HH Head		Spouse	children		others	HH Head		Spouse	children		others
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female	
Well	158	10	156	276	244	99	153	24	162	284	253	94
All disabilities combined	20	8	18	3	7	20	21	4	12	9	8	9
Sensory deprived	5	1	4	2	1	8	7	3	0	3	2	2
Physically challenged	4	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	3	2	0
Psychological illness	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	2	3	0
Chronic illness	11	7	14	1	4	9	13	1	11	1	1	7

3.2 Occupations of household members

During the survey, household heads provided information on the occupations of all household individuals. Clearly with young children and infants there were no income-generating activities to declare. But as the children have grown, some have begun to undertake work activities, often helping fathers. Few children under the age of eleven years were stated as having an occupation and therefore it was decided (perhaps arbitrarily) to impose two age cut-offs; one at eleven (no activities considered for children below this age) and another at 16 and above; when children could be considered fully employable.

Not surprisingly in these three rural districts, agricultural activities are preponderant;

indeed totally dominate work activities for all ages; especially in Xepon and Lao-Ngam.

Overall, 35% of the youth aged 11-15 inclusive of recipient households (Table 7) are already active workers with agriculture almost totalling dominating and little gender differentiation. Only in Soukhouma and Mounlapamok are any non-agricultural activities occurring and these are in labouring activities (in construction) while one girl is a housemaid. The one-third active found here in this age range is similar to the 30% level reported from cohort-1. There is some discernible difference in the proportion of youth working across the four districts. The highest levels are in the more rural districts of Lao-Ngam (40% of the age range are working) and Xepon (36%) while in Soukhouma it is 33% falling to 22% in Mounlapamok.

Table 7: Youth (aged 11-15 years inclusive) active in the work population from RLP recipient households

	Soukhouma		**Mounlapamok**		**Xepon**		**Lao-Ngam**	
Total 11-15 inclusive	39		58		103		121	
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
Total active	9	4	9	4	21	16	28	21
Active in agriculture	9	2	6	4	21	16	28	21
Non-agriculture	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	0

The proportion of youth working rises with age; regardless of gender (Table 8).

Table 8: Percentage of youth (aged 11-15 years inclusive) active in the work population from recipient households

	% Active in workforce				
	Soukhouma	**Mounlapamok**	**Xepon**	**Lao-Ngam**	**Total**
Total (number) 11-15 inclusive:	39	58	103	121	321
Age (years):					
11	0	10.0	17.6	6.9	10.0
12	14.3	7.7	20.7	12.0	14.9
13	23.1	21.4	16.7	43.5	27.9
14	40.0	12.5	60.0	80.0	55.8
15	70.0	53.8	45.7	75.9	60.0

At the age of 16, this analysis considers that men and women are fully able to enter the working environment (health allowing). As such, activity figures are interesting as across the four districts, marginally over 92% of the adults (over 16 years old) are active while the remaining 8% are predominantly composed of the elderly, handicapped and (we presume) nursing mothers.

The workforce across all four districts is dominated by agricultural activities with overall marginally less than 7% of the active population working outside of this field. Of these, more than 60% are to be found in Soukhouma and Mounlapamok (Table 9).

Table 9: Adults of working age (16 years and over) in recipient households, disaggregated by district and gender. No is "retirement" age considered

	Soukhouma		**Mounlapamok**		**Xepon**		**Lao-Ngam**	
Total 16 years upwards	216		244		505		529	
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
Total 16 years upwards	108	108	117	127	245	260	265	254
% active	96.3	81.5	94.9	85.0	94.7	88.1	98.1	92.1
Active in agriculture	81.7	88.6	81.0	92.6	93.1	97.8	96.2	98.7
Own farm	19.4	15.7	19.8	26.9	2.6	1.7	34.6	37.6
Ag labourer	11.1	14.8	3.6	9.3	0	0	30.8	28.2
Share cropper	50.0	51.1	50.5	47.2	1.7	1.3	30.8	32.9
Shifting cultivator	0	0	7.2	9.3	88.8	94.8	0	0
Non-agriculture (%)	19.2	10.3	18.9	7.4	7.8	1.7	4.2	0.9
Activities:	(Only numbers, not %, provided for the following categories):							
Poultry	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Fisherman	3	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
NTFP	1	0	3	0	0	0	2	0
Handicraft	2	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
Skilled tradesman	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Maid	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0
Labourer	11	1	12	2	0	1	2	1
Petty trader	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Salaried	2	1	0	0	0	0	4	0
Students	1	2	3	3	17	3	3	1

Breaking down the agricultural data more finely, the questionnaire initially considered three categories of agricultural worker: working on their own farmland, agricultural labourer (working for someone else) or sharecropper (working on land owned by someone else but receiving a portion of the produce). The survey added a fourth category, that of working in shifting agriculture; this mostly in the district of Xepon but is also a minority agricultural activity in Mounlapamok.

The agricultural data is very illustrative of the type of land occupation in the four

districts. In Soukhouma and Lao-Ngam, the combination of working on own farms, on the farm of someone else or as a sharecropper covers 100% of agricultural work activity; regardless of gender. In contrast, in Xepon, and again regardless of gender, almost 100% of activity is in shifting agriculture. Working on own farm or as a labourer for someone else is practically non-existent in the district among recipient households. In Mounlapamok, share cropping dominates at about 40% of the total with working on own farm composing a further approximate 20%. Off-farm work is also important, especially among male members of the household.

Turning then to those non-agricultural activities, the diversity of employment is very small as is the labour force mobilised by recipient households; mostly to labouring activities in Soukhouma and Mounlapamok; either in construction or industry. There are very few skilled tradesmen, traders or salaried individuals while few exploit forest products or fish. (The relatively high numbers of male students in Xepon is considered a coding error and is being investigated at the time of writing).

3.3 Social status and public responsibility

3.3.1 Background to the survey questions

When a household and its members are considered "poor" or "extremely poor" within a village community, they are often stigmatised, as seen by such common proxies as poor membership in village organisations, lack of invitation to social gatherings and negligible representation in forming community opinion or decision-making. Research elsewhere has shown that as the assets and incomes of poor households increase, so the social respect accorded to them improves (as it does, in the referenced article, for women within the household too).[7]

During the baseline survey, recipient households were asked a series of questions related to membership of village committees and organisations as well as their presence at social gatherings. The baseline results are presented in the next two sub-sections:

3.3.2 Membership of village organisations

Including "others", membership of ten village committees was considered possible; ranging from village administration committees through security, development and disaster management to NGO group and school-parent associations. Obviously, not all such committees are represented in a village but at least some should be present in all villages.

Results show (Table 10) that most villages do have a variety of committees with recipient households belonging to a few: a total of nine different ones in Xepon and Lao-Ngam; a total of five in Soukhouma and Mounlapamok. But the only committee type with even relatively frequent membership of recipient households is the Village Security Committee with some 72 of the 592 recipient households stating membership (or12%). Also with reasonable membership is the Village Mass Organisation (6%).

Other committees are poorly represented with four of them (VDC, VDFC, NGO Group DMGC) counting less than 1% of households as members.

Interestingly, some households are committee households with two in Lao-Ngam belonging to five different committees.

[7] http://clp-bangladesh.org/news_archive/the-impact-of-clp-on-womens-empowerment/#.Vfoowk0Viwk

Table 10: Household membership of village committees (code: VSC: Village Security Committee; VAC: Village Administration Committee; VDC: Village Development Committee; NCFC: National Construction Front Committee; VDFC: Village Development Fund Committee; NGO: NGO Group Committee; DMGC: Disaster Management Group Committee, and VMO: Village Mass Organisation).

District:	% household membership of committees	Most frequent membership (%)	Other memberships (%)
Soukhouma	18	VSC (9)	VDC (1); VCFC (1); NGO (1); VMO (6)
Mounlapamok	20	VSC (10)	DMGC (1); VMO (7); SPA (1); Other (3)
Xepon	23	VSC (11)	VAC (3); VDC (<1); NCFC (3); VDFC (2); NGO (<1); VMO (3); SPA (1); Other (4)
Lao-Ngam	29	VSC (16)	VAC (3); VDC (1); NCFC (4); VDFC (<1); DMGC (1); VMO (10); SPA (1); Other (<1)
Total	24	VSC (12)	As above

3.3.3 Presence at social gatherings

During the survey, households were asked four linked questions about invitations to social gatherings:

1. How often are you invited?
2. How often do you attend?
3. How often do you invite people to your house?
4. How often are you able to buy gifts for friends?

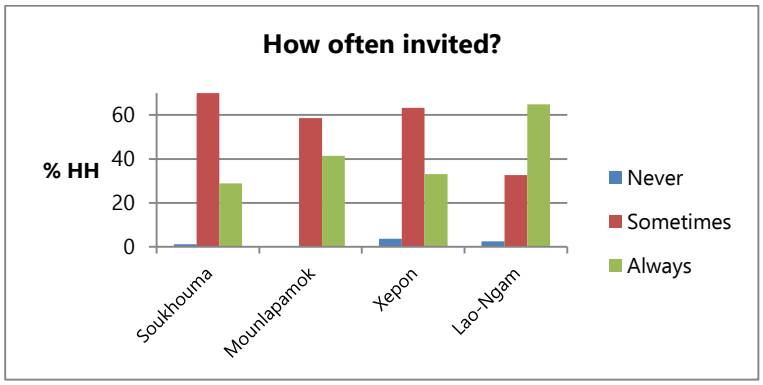
Each question has three possible responses: “Never”, “Sometimes”, and “All the Time”.

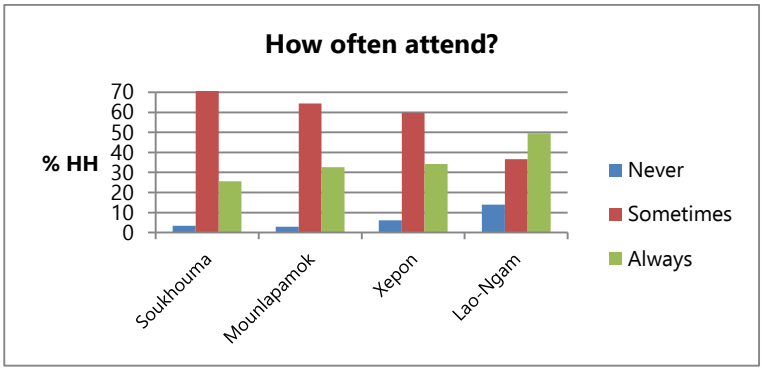
Baseline results for recipient households in the four districts are presented in Figure 9 where it can be seen that invitations offered to and accepted by recipient households, regardless of district are split between sometimes and always with the former dominating; except in Lao-Ngam were always invited is the most frequent. Only one or two percent of recipient households in Soukhouma and Lao-Ngam are never invited while this never occurs in Mounlapamok but is slightly more frequent in Xepon.

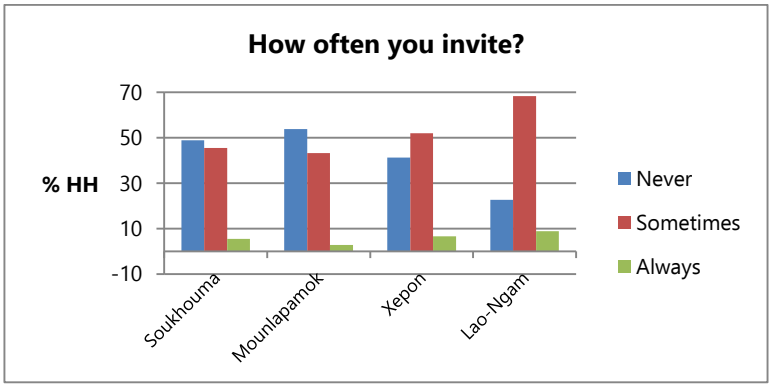
When inviting others to their homes or providing gifts, the “never” category becomes more prevalent in all four districts and the always category almost disappears, especially that of providing gifts. A large portion of households in all four districts still invite to their homes “sometimes” but when providing gifts, “never” predominates from a low of 32% in Lao-Ngam to highs of approaching 80% in the other three districts. Obviously, in poor households, the giving of gifts is a luxury that many cannot afford on a regular or even infrequent basis.

Figure 9: Responses to the four “social gathering” questions that invited responses

ranging from "never invited" to "sometimes" to "always invited", disaggregated by district.







3.4 Food Security and Diet

3.4.1 Background to the survey questions

During the baseline survey for cohort-2, SPSL used the same Food Security Scorecard[8] as for the previous cohort. This allows a determination of whether recipient households should be considered food secure or food insecure and, if found to be food insecure, to determine the level of insecurity (based on the total household score).

The scorecard contains nine questions that require recall over the last three months. The questions are based around availability of food in the household, the diversity of that food and the quantity available, for example: "during the last three months, were you ever worried that your food would run out?" All questions require identical responses based on the frequency of the issue passing from "frequently" to "sometimes" to "rarely".

If a household answers yes to a question (i.e. a negative food security response) and the answer is quantified by "frequently" or "sometimes", then the household is considered food insecure **for that question** and is scored "1". However, if it answers "yes" but quantifies with "rarely" or answers "no", then the household scores "0" on that question.

After all nine questions are answered in the same manner, households scoring 0-2 are considered "food secure" while those scoring 3-9 are considered "food insecure" with the level of insecurity rising with the score.

Dietary quality and consumption is harder to measure in an accurate manner and, given the limits of time, as well as the type of information that SPSL wished to collect as a baseline for the recipient population, the project collects information around the types of food groups consumed and the frequency of their consumption over a seven-day period.

3.4.2 Food Security measurements

Figure 10 shows the overall responses to the food security scorecard by RLP cohort-2 recipient households.

When all districts are combined, just over three-quarters (76.5%) of enrolled households are considered to be Food Insecure (cohort-1 equivalent was 86%) with therefore 23.5% (16% for cohort-1) considered Food Secure.

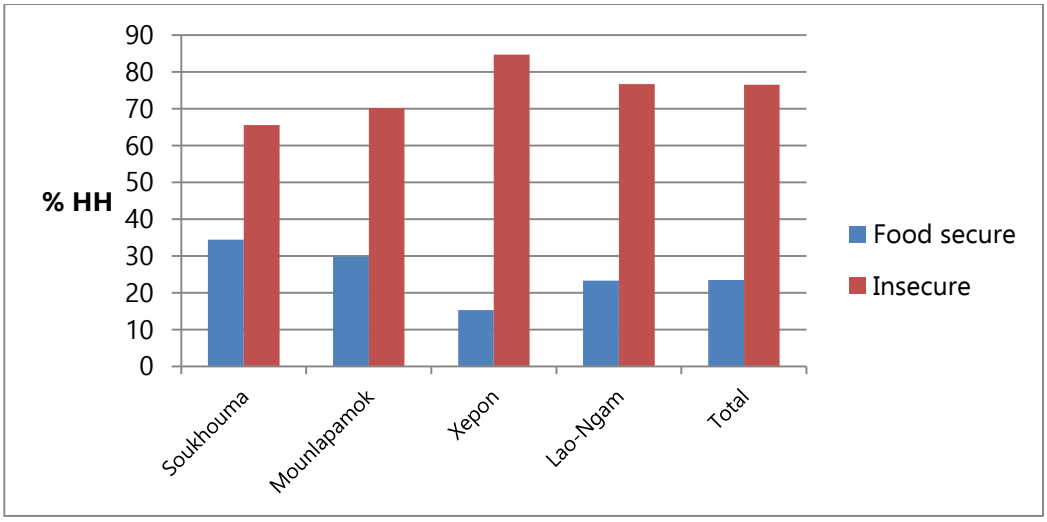
Disaggregating the data by district shows that the most food secure RLP recipients reside in the district of Soukhouma with 34.5% of recipient households scoring a total of two or less (= food secure) and identical to cohort-1 score. Recipients in Mounlapamok are marginally less food secure, scoring 30% while in Lao-Ngam it is just over 23% (9% of households were so in cohort-1) while 15% of the cohort-2 households in Xepon are considered food secure (6% for cohort-1).

Thus, on this measure, more food secure household have been selected in both Lao-Ngam and Xepon for cohort-2. Does this indicate that these households are, on average, not as poor as those of cohort-1? There has been the suggestion that the

[8] The scorecard has its origins in the following paper: Coates, J., Swindale A. & P. Bilinsky (Aug 2007): Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) for Measurement of Household Food Access: Indicator Guide (v. 3). Washington, D.C.: Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project, Academy for Educational Development.

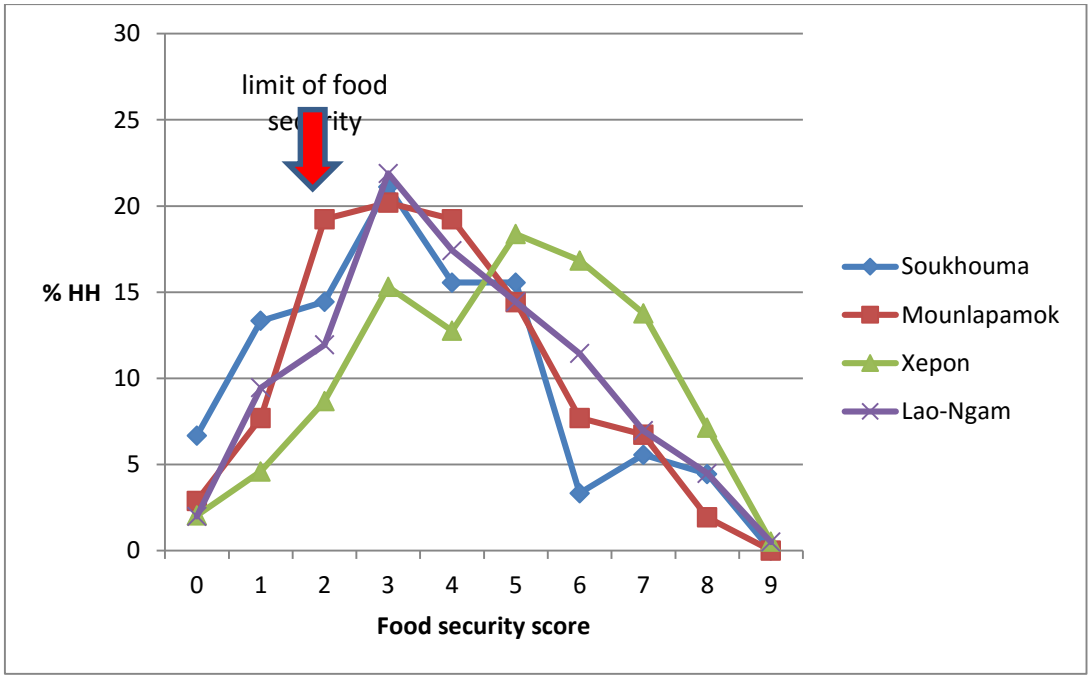
differences in food security between cohort-1 and cohort-2 might be related to the timing of the baseline data collection, since cohort-1 was collected during the "lean season" while cohort-2 was not. This suggestion falls down in two areas: first, if this is the case, why are cohort-2 households in Soukhouma less food secure than in cohort-1? And second, the recall period is three months, covering some of the lean season for cohort-2 as well as for cohort-1.

Figure 10: Percentage of RLP-recipient households considered food secure as a total, all districts combined (23.5%) and disaggregated by district



Converting the data to provide the percentage of households in each food secure / food insecure category produces almost classic (bell-shaped) normal distributions for the four districts (Figure 11).

Figure 11: Spread of households in cohort-2 around the limit of Food Security (score of 0-2) or Food Insecure (3-9) disaggregated by district



Just as seen with cohort-1, recipient households in Xepon stand out as being more food insecure than in the other districts. Also, as with cohort-1, recipient households in Soukhouma are more food secure than their counterparts from the other old districts while Mounlapamok resembles Soukhouma in the trend towards greater food security of the newly selected households. Another interesting feature is that the graph for new recipients in Lao-Ngam resembles far more closely that of Soukhouma than it did for cohort-1.

Using the data presented in Fig. 11 to calculate the average food security score for the recipient households in each district helps to explain this last statement (Table 11):

Table 11: Mean food security scores comparing results from cohort-1 and cohort-2, disaggregated by district

	District			
	Soukhouma	**Mounlapamok**	**Xepon**	**Lao-Ngam**
Cohort-1	3.7	----	5.2	4.7
Cohort-2	4.2	3.6	4.7	4.0

It can be seen that while cohort-2 households in Soukhouma have an average score some 0.5 points above cohort-1 (meaning that cohort-2 households are more food insecure than their counterparts in cohort-1), those from Lao-Ngam and Xepon have gone in the opposite direction with less *food insecure* households being selected in cohort-2. At its simplest, this could suggest that the rigorous application of the selection criteria has been tightened in Soukhouma (following some criticism in the previous report on household selection for cohort-1) but relaxed in both Xepon and Lao-Ngam. However, at this point in the report, it is not possible to give a precise reason but further elements of this report will, in the next few pages, confirm or decline this possibility.

When households are disaggregated on the gender of the household head, both Soukhouma and Mounlapamok show significant differences in the level of food security. In the former, male-headed households have a mean food security/insecurity value of 3.1 while their female counterparts are at 4.9 (so female headed households are almost 2 points less food secure than their male equivalents). Mounlapamok households provide similar scores with the values being 3.4 and 5.2 respectively. Thus clearly the female-headed households selected for inclusion in RLP for these two districts are considerably less food secure than their male counterparts.

However, when food security values are calculated for the other two districts, Xepon has 4.7 for male-headed and 4.9 for female-headed; while and Lao-Ngam has 4.0 for both male and female-headed.

The most frequent (or modal) categories in which to find cohort-2 recipient households, regardless of district, is 3 (marginally food insecure) with the exception of Xepon where the mode is 5 (badly food insecure). Just as with the mean values shown in Table 11, Soukhouma is represented in cohort-2 by less secure households than in cohort-1 while Lao-Ngam and Xepon is represented by households that are closer to being food secure at baseline than their cohort-1 counterparts.

Such a selection of households closer to food security in both Xepon and Loa-Ngam

means that less improvement in food security levels to bring them to food security; especially in Lao-Ngam. Thus care must be taken at endline when comparing project impacts on RLP recipients from cohorts 1 and 2.

3.4.2 Dietary quality

The food types listed in the survey questionnaire have been regrouped to bring together similar food types and thus to show more clearly dietary variability (Table 12). Groupings can be seen as: carbohydrate-based; protein-based; oil-based and vegetable/fruit based.

As no surprise, diet across all four districts is rice-based with all but four households in Xepon and a single household in Lao-Ngam not eating rice every day during the seven-day recall period. As was seen with cohort-1 households, consumption of other forms of carbohydrate rich foods is relatively rare with potatoes being consumed the most frequently across the four districts, especially in Mounlapamok and Lao-Ngam. Sugar/honey is consumed more frequently in the "richer" districts of Mounlapamok and Soukhouma while cereals are rarely consumed, regardless of district.

The sources of protein are diverse and considered to be provided by beans/nuts, milk and milk products, fish, meat, poultry and eggs. "Other food types" also frequently provide sources of proteins (especially foods such as frogs, insects and various forms of "bush meat"). Although there is therefore the potential for considerable variety in the source of protein, no one source is ubiquitous while protein consumption generally, all sources combined, is not a regular daily feature of the diet in many households; especially the less food secure ones.

Fish and milk are the most common sources, especially in Mounlapamok, being consumed on average across all districts, about every other day. In contrast, meat, poultry and eggs are each consumed on average only on one day in seven. However, these averages hide the fact that in all four districts, some households consume every day while others consume rarely, if at all. As was seen with cohort-1 households, it is probable that those households possessing cows or poultry are the major consumers while households who do own such livestock rarely eat their products.

Oil is rarely consumed; perhaps only one day per fortnight.

Green leafy vegetables, were consumed less by cohort-2 than had been reported by cohort-1. Is this due to the seasonality of the vegetables concerned? Given that they are a key source of iron in the diet, their consumption is essential for healthy growth of children and the general health of the household. While other vegetables are consumed almost daily, the green leafy vegetables are consumed on every other day across all four districts. Fruit is reported as being consumed only approximately one day a week in all four districts.

Care should be taken when reading this rather basic analysis of dietary data since (as was pointed out for milk and eggs) some families were very heavy consumers of the products (7 days out of 7) while others consume them rarely or never. Nonetheless, the data presented in Table 12 starts to provide a comparative dietary profile of RLP recipients in the four districts.

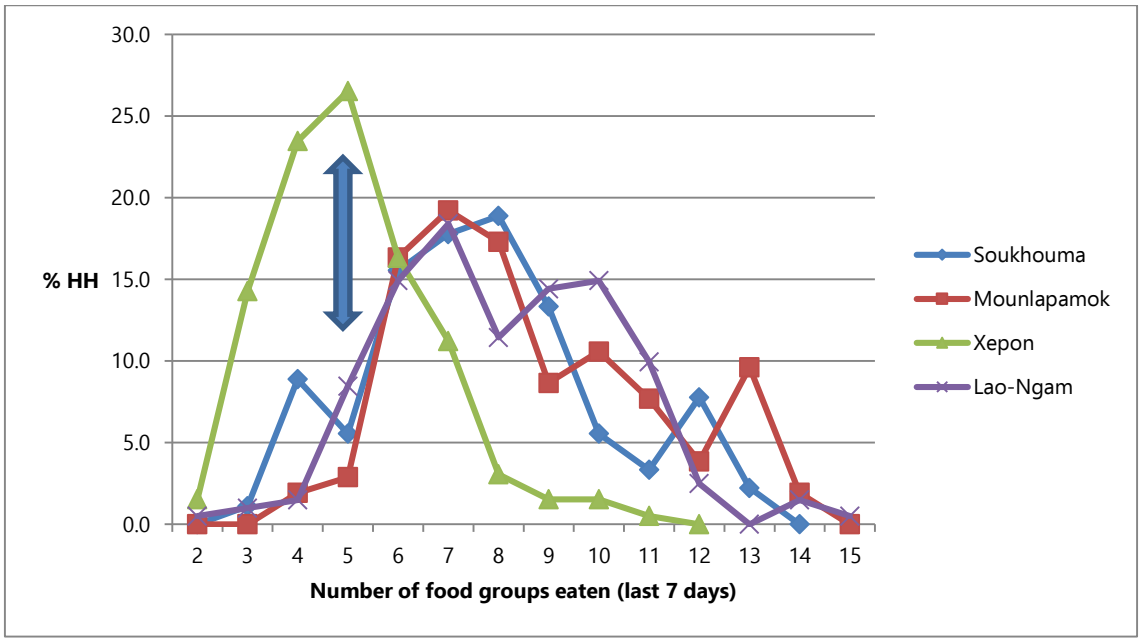
Table 12: Dietary variety of RLP recipient households disaggregated by district,

	Number of days consumed during the seven-day recall period			
District:	**Soukhouma**	**Mounlapamok**	**Xepon**	**Lao-Ngam**
Food types:				
Rice	7.0	7.0	6.9	7.0
Cereals	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
Potatoes	1.0	1.8	1.3	2.1
Sugar	1.4	2.7	0.0	0.7
Meat (various)	0.5	0.8	0.3	0.8
Poultry	0.9	1.0	0.4	1.0
Eggs	1.3	1.1	0.2	1.7
Fish	2.9	5.0	1.5	1.9
Milk	2.2	2.4	2.1	2.3
Beans / nuts	1.3	1.4	0.5	0.8
Oil	0.4	0.8	0.3	0.7
Green leafy vegetables	2.3	3.6	2.7	4.8
Other vegetables	6.4	6.9	5.6	5.3
Fruit	1.2	1.2	1.0	2.3
Other food types	4.8	4.3	0.2	1.4

Taking the analysis further, by determining the number of different food groups (the fifteen shown in table 13) consumed by individual households, allows Figure 12 to be constructed with the higher the number of food groups eaten in the prior seven days, the more diverse the diet; and therefore in principle, the more healthy it is. Comparing the lines, the greater skew to the right, the more varied the diet. As such, recipient households in Xepon clearly demonstrate the lowest dietary diversity, with a mode of five food groups eaten in the past seven days; barely considered sufficiently diverse. In contrast, households in the other three districts appear practically identical, each with a mode of 7 or 8 food groups; demonstrating reasonable diversity.

Using the consumption of more than five food groups in a seven-day period to signify minimum dietary diversity, Fig. 12 shows that in Xepon, 66% of recipient households do not consume a sufficiently diversified diet. This is in stark contrast to Soukhouma (15% of recipient households), Lao-Ngam (at 11%) and especially in Mounlapamok where only 5% are judged to eat a poorly diversified diet.

Figure 12: Number of different food groups consumed by RLP recipient households during the prior seven days; disaggregated by district and expressed on percentage of households. The figure also shows the point of five different food groups, generally considered to represent the borderline of healthy dietary diversity



3.5 Sources of Household Income

3.5.1 Background to the survey questions

The cornerstone of RLP activities is the making available of funds so that recipient households may select preferred income-generating assets. The theory of change for RLP (and for all asset transfer programme's) suggests that recipient households will build the transferred assets into micro-enterprises that will in turn generate an income. Further, the theory of change goes on to predict that with additional income, at least some, will be reinvested into the micro-enterprise based around the transferred assets or be invested into other income-generating assets such as poultry or small livestock.

SPSL has an indicator in its results framework that anticipates that each household will, over time, add additional income sources to the household revenue. Thus the baseline survey seeks to determine the number of income sources already possessed by recipient households at time = 0. The following sub-section analyses the results collected.

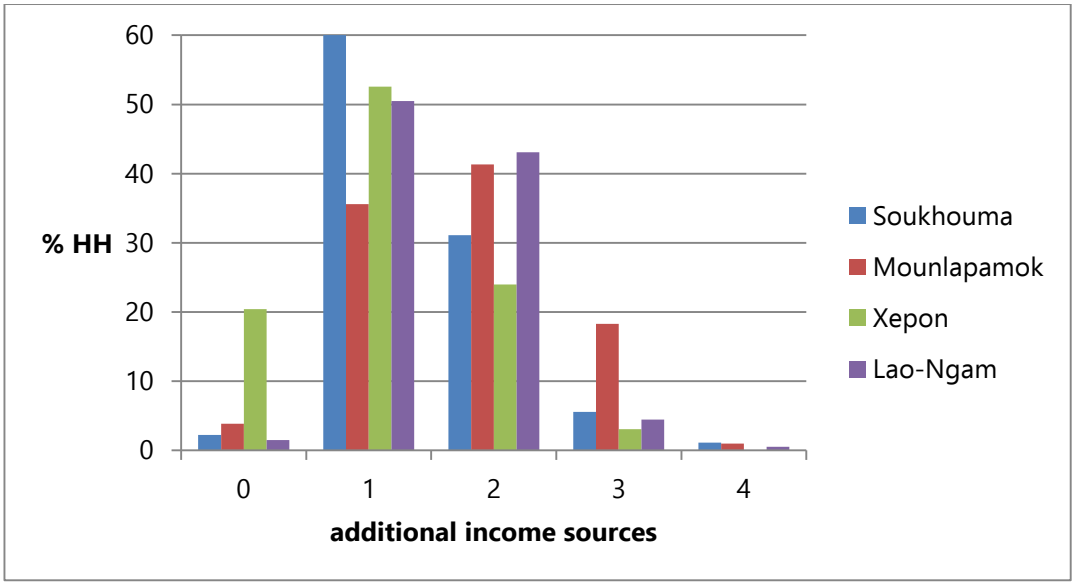
3.5.2 Income sources

During the survey, all recipient households were asked to recall, for the prior twelve months, the number of sources of income received by the household in addition to the sale of agricultural products (it is assumed that all households already have some income from the sale of agricultural products – the levels of which are measured in the analysis of the Income and Expenditure survey).

Regardless of district, the majority of recipient households possess one or two additional income sources (Figure 13) with about 20% of recipient households in Mounlapamok enjoying a third source.

Xepon has the most households (about 20%) with no additional income sources while the majority of households in all districts but Mounlapamok have only one additional source of income. An average of about one-third of all households, regardless of district, has a second additional source of income but with only about a quarter of households in Xepon having this second additional source.

Figure 13: Additional sources of income (in addition to the sale of agricultural products) received by recipient households during the prior twelve-month period, disaggregated by district.



When the data is analysed for the source of additional income (Table 14), it reveals the importance of hiring out household members as labourers and the harvesting of non-timber forest products (NTFP).

The data confirms the information on occupation diversity, by district, as reported earlier in Table 9; especially activities as farm labourers. All districts have income from hiring out labour as the most important alternative source of income after the sale of agricultural products. The collection and sale of non-timber forest products are also important across all districts but especially for households in Mounlapamok and Xepon, where more than 50% of recipient households generate an income from this source.

No other one source of income stands out in any of the districts with the exception of selling fish in Mounlapamok where about 30% of recipient households are involved in this income generating activity.

A number of other relatively minor income sources exist such as running a shop, selling handicrafts or blacksmithing.

Table 14: Additional income sources of RLP recipient households disaggregated by district with sources being in addition to the sale of agricultural products

Additional sources of income (additional to agric products)	Number of households			
	Soukhouma	Mounlapamok	Xepon	Lao-Ngam
Households:	90	104	196	202
Hired labour	73	78	78	192
Non-timber forest products	33	56	96	87
Selling fish	10	37	1	5
Selling poultry	0	0	6	0
Selling food/alcohol	1	1	3	1
Selling goods (shop or petty trade)	3	2	4	4
Handicraft products/sewing	7	8	7	12
Weaving	0	0	0	1
Furniture production	0	0	7	0
Blacksmith	0	0	9	4
Transport (boat/road)	0	1	1	1

3.6 Levels of Household Assets

3.6.1 Background to the survey questions

In the RLP component, SPSL provides income-generating assets to qualifying poor households. Its theory of change anticipates that the value of assets will increase over time; not just those transferred by SPSL but also other household assets where some of the household increased income can be reinvested. Therefore it is necessary to develop the asset value baseline for each household and this is targeted in the current series of questions.

The survey also uses the assets question to determine if the household owns a tube well or open well; but no attempt was made to fix asset values on these water sources.

3.6.2 Value and types of household assets

Table 15 shows the mean value of assets per household in the four districts (using households' own valuations), expressed in Lao Kip (LAK) and US Dollars (using an exchange rate of 8,000 LAK to one US $). The latter currency is used to facilitate the reading of the numbers.

To allow comparison, asset value data are provided for both cohort-1 and cohort-2. While the full baseline report for cohort-1 made the statement "it can be seen that households in Soukhouma are at least twice as asset rich on average as households in the other two districts" (Xepon and Lao-Ngam), there has been a turnaround in values when data for cohort-2 is considered. While the average asset value for Soukhouma's

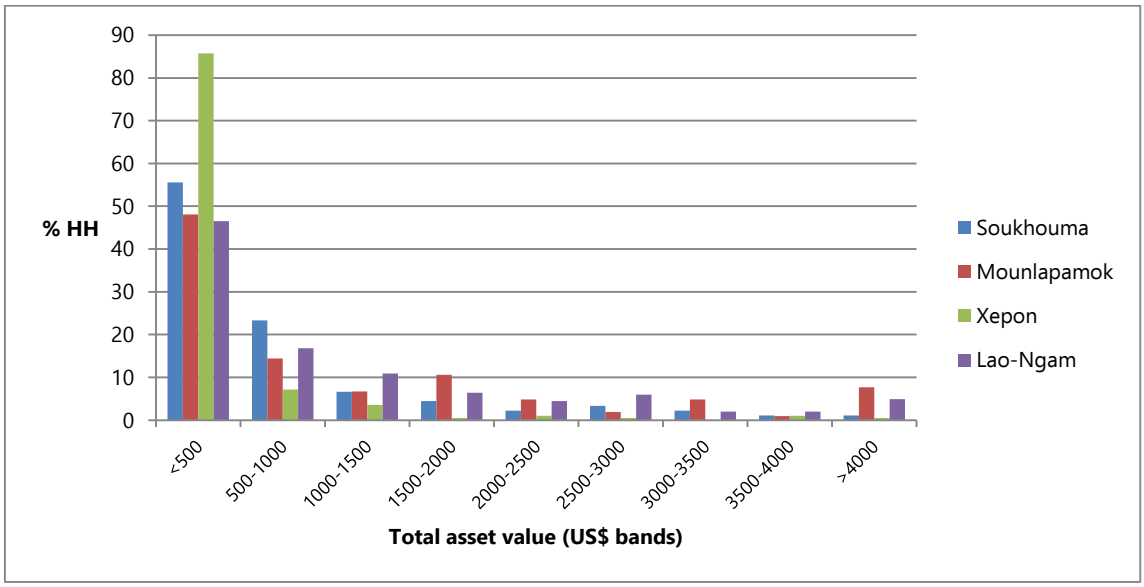
recipient households has fallen by approximately 50% (from $1,834 to $902 between the two cohorts) that for Lao-Ngam has risen by over 40% (from $808 to $1,169). Households in Xepon remain the asset poorest with a decline in asset values from cohort-1 to cohort-2 while households in the new district of Mounlapamok contain the most asset rich households with a mean value of $1,355.

Table 15: Mean total asset values at baseline for RLP recipients disaggregated by district and displayed in both Lao KIP (LAK) and United States Dollar (US $)

Mean HH asset value:		**Soukhouma**	**Mounlapamok**	**Xepon**	**Lao-Ngam**
Cohort-1	**LAK**	14,670,435	****	4,042,312	6,461,169
	US $	1,834	****	505	808
Cohort-2	**LAK**	7,213,789	10,841,212	2,714,944	9,351,520
	US $	902	1,355	339	1,169

However and as usual when mean values are used, averages hide a very wide diversity of asset values possessed by the different households both within the same district and between districts. Stratifying households on the basis of their asset value bands (Figure 14), reinforces the poorer nature of recipient households selected in Xepon.

Figure 14: Number of households, disaggregated by district, reporting total assets falling into arbitrary asset value bands (US $ values used for ease of viewing). Households reported their own estimates of the value of their assets.



If we consider that RLP *should* be targeting the "extreme poor" households in the four districts, common intuition would suggest that the majority of selected households should fall into the lowest categories. This is indeed true for Xepon (86% of households have total assets valued at less than US$ 500) but for the other three

districts, only Soukhouma has a feeble majority of its households in the first band (56%) while both Mounlapamok and Lao-Ngam have less than half (48% and 47% respectively).

Particularly interesting, but also of concern, is to note the number of households that were selected in the higher asset bands (for indicative purposes over $2,000); only about 4% in Xepon, 9% in Soukhouma but 19% and 21% respectively in Lao-Ngam and Mounlapamok. This does not mean that selection was performed wrongly but could indicate that selection criteria allowed relatively better of households be selected to the RLP activities.

What is driving the apparent asset richness of many selected recipients? Table 16 attempts to determine which assets are owned by the households and their perceived values[9] of those assets in the different districts.

The table shows that (not surprisingly) certain asset types are very widely held: land, agricultural tools and poultry (anticipated as RLP works with very agrarian populations), building materials (as parts of the recipients' homes), motorbikes/bicycles (showing the relative remoteness of many villages included in RLP), mosquito nets and … mobile phones!

Table 16: Number RLP recipient households with different assets and their mean values at baseline, disaggregated by district and displayed in United States Dollar (US $)

	Mean asset values (US $)							
	# HH	**Soukhouma**	**# HH**	**Mounlapamok**	**# HH**	**Xepon**	**# HH**	**Lao-Ngam**
Total number HH:	**90**		**104**		**196**		**202**	
Asset type:								
Housing land	56	420	51	1,181	1	250	108	625
Agricultural land	21	1,226	25	1,482	16	517	85	1,247
Garden land	5	165	4	428	12	1,023	19	356
Motorbike	25	127	39	162	58	99	82	85
Bicycle	9	18	11	22	3	29	8	6
Push cart	0	****	0	****	23	9	12	16
Ox cart	2	16	0	****	4	22	1	3
Hand tractor	0	****	4	1,031	1	375	2	812
Engine boat	1	250	9	193	1	12	0	****
Rice thresher	0	****	0	****	2	19	0	****
Power pump	12	49	9	33	0	****	1	75
Agricultural tools	87	6	103	6	192	7	197	6
Sprayer	1	4	0		1	87	2	17

[9] The value of assets relies on the perception of the asset owning households

Plough	1	87	4	26	1	25	2	69
Hydro-turbine	0	****	0		5	32	2	19
Buffalo	5	925	1	625	5	1,200	2	1,125
Cattle	1	125	0	****	7	289	5	377
Goat / sheep	0	****	0	****	2	162	1	125
Poultry	55	28	71	24	172	20	93	18
Pigs	7	41	15	56	79	57	6	112
Fish net	39	13	64	16	40	4	30	7
Building material	86	160	104	150	196	91	202	157
Refrigerator	3	56	6	73	2	19	3	71
Solar power	0	****	3	58	19	53	0	****
Wardrobe	20	48	25	37	11	11	43	20
Chairs, table, etc.	2	32	2	40	4	7	7	18
CD player	8	24	14	36	5	37	25	36
Radio	15	7	9	5	4	4	21	4
Television	30	61	33	69	4	27	46	42
Mobile phone	67	14	63	26	48	12	107	14
Mosquito net	74	2	73	3	135	1	197	2
Jewellery	9	70	7	113	19	14	8	45
Other assets	23	14	14	119	3	45	8	18
Tube well	27	****	10	****	2	26	4	****
Open well	2	****	0	****	0	****	0	****

But it is mostly land and its relative value in the different districts (Table 17) that seems to differentiate the asset worth of recipient households both within and between districts. From the data, it is households in Soukhouma that both possess significantly more agricultural land than in the other districts and, regardless of land category, the land is generally more highly valued.

Table 17: Number RLP recipient households possessing land and the mean area of that land (in Ares; 100 Ares = 1 hectare), disaggregated by district

	Mean area of land (Ares)							
Asset type:	**# HH**	**Soukhouma**	**# HH**	**Mounlapamok**	**# HH**	**Xepon**	**# HH**	**Lao-Ngam**
Housing land	56	4.5	51	6.3	1	2.0	108	3.0
Agricultural land	21	189.3	25	87.1	16	54.4	85	75.0
Garden land	5	1.1	4	16.3	12	78.9	19	19.4

3.7 Levels of Household Savings and Borrowing

3.7.1 Background to the survey questions

The theory of change assumes that recipients of income generating assets will generate additional savings while potentially driving down borrowings. Therefore the baseline survey included questions to obtain time = 0 values for savings and borrowing. Furthermore, the questionnaire took the opportunity to discern whether or not recipient households were members of village banks; given that one of the components of LARLP remains the financial inclusion activities of GiZ. These three aspects are reported in this section.

3.7.2 Household savings

Overall, all three districts combined, 29% (in cohort-1 it was 44%) of all asset recipients have no cash savings with the remainder having savings ranging from a mean high of approximately 235,000 LAK (about $30) in Mounlapamok to a mean low of just over 140,000 LAK (about $17) in Soukhouma. Interestingly referring back to cohort-1, households in Soukhouma had the highest mean savings (Table 18).

Table 18: Levels of savings of RLP recipient households, disaggregated by district together with details of loans outstanding to others

Savings level:	**% Households**			
	Soukhouma	**Mounlapamok**	**Xepon**	**Lao-Ngam**
None	16	16	54	16
With savings	84	84	46	84
HH with savings (mean amount - LAK)	141,145	234,977	211,978	180,899
Savings (mean all HH - LAK)	119,189	196,567	96,255	150,450
		Number of HH		
	Soukhouma	**Mounlapamok**	**Xepon**	**Lao-Ngam**
Lent to others:	2	3	2	2
Mean amount – LAK	100,000	901,000	450,000	339,231

Recipient households in Lao-Ngam have lower savings than households in Xepon (about $22 versus $26). But if the data is recalculated to average across all recipient households in a district, the amounts obviously falls; to approximately 196,000 LAK (Mounlapamok), 150,000 in (Lao-Ngam), 120,000 in Soukhouma and 96,000 LAK (Xepon); about $24, $19, $15 and $12 respectively.

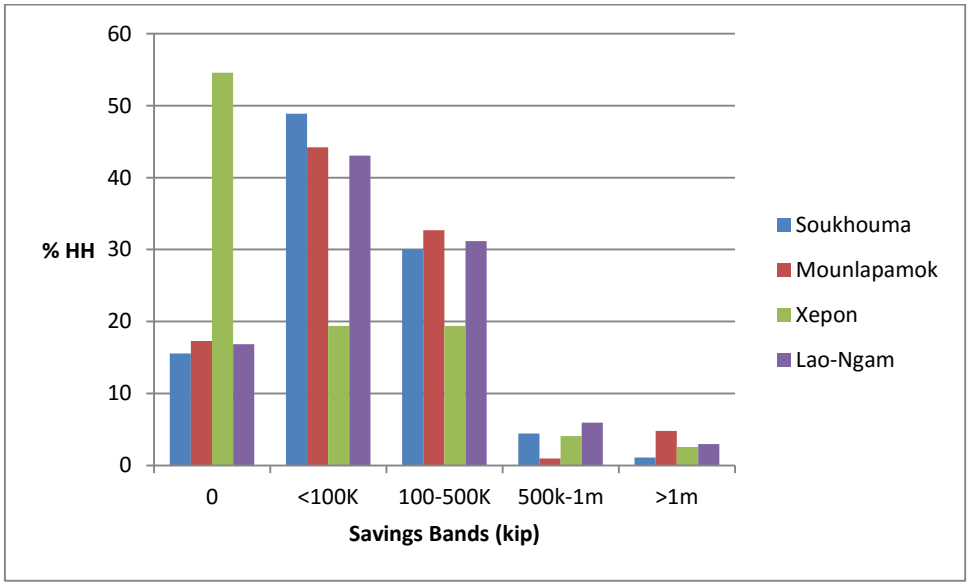
Only nine households (Table 18) out of the cohort-2 recipients have outstanding loans to others and a single household had reimbursed a loan.

Looking more closely at the distribution of savings among households, It can be seen that Xepon has many households (>50%) with no savings at all while most of those in the two districts that do have savings, have less than 100,000 LAK (less than about $12). Only about a third of recipients from Xepon possess savings above 100,000 LAK. Similar proportions of savings can be found in the other three districts; that is to

say that 2/3rds of savers have up to 100,000 KIP and the last one third have over 100,000 Kip.

A small but significant number of recipient households have cash savings in excess of 1,000,000 Kip (Soukhouma has one HH, Mounlapamok and Xepon have five and Lao-Ngam has six). Indeed one household in Mounlapamok has cash savings of seven million Kip (almost $900) and assets of over $4,300 of which over $800 is for non-land assets. These figures do raise certain questions about the accuracy of recipient selection[10].

Figure 15: Percentage of households, disaggregated by district, falling within arbitrary savings bands: none; less than 100,000; 100,000 to 500,000; 500,000 to 1,000,000, and over 1,000,000. All figures in Lao Kip (LAK).



3.7.3 Household borrowing

Relatively few households have any borrowings from all sources combined. From the four districts, households in Soukhouma have the most (16% of recipient households) followed Mounlapamok (13%), then Lao-Ngam (12%) and lastly Xepon (9%).

Of those households with loans, the most common are informal loans bearing no interest (Table 19) and with average loan amounts depending on district; being the highest in Mounlapamok has the largest loans with informal loans averaging over 530,000 LAK (about $65) followed by Xepon ($31), then Soukhouma ($21) and Lao-Ngam (about $13). Among recipients from across the four districts, there are only two formal loans; one in Mounlapamok and the other in Xepon, while the only two informal loans that bear interest are in both Lao-Ngam with one being for 1.3 million Kip.

[10] SPSL will, via a third party, be conducting a "Process Evaluation" in the four districts. Accuracy of selection (measuring both inclusion and exclusion errors) will be one component of that work

Table 19: Number of RLP recipient households with loans disaggregated by district and loan type

		Soukhouma	Mounlapamok	Xepon	Lao-Ngam
Informal loans (0%)	**# HH**	7	6	8	10
	Mean loan	168,571	530,833	247,750	105,000
Informal loans (interest bearing)	**# HH**	0	0	0	2
	Mean loan	N/R	N/R	N/R	785,000
Formal loans (interest bearing)	**# HH**	0	1	1	0
	Mean loan	N/R	500,000	220,000	N/R

3.7.4 Village bank membership

At baseline few households, regardless of district, were members of village banks: approximately 8% (7 households), 21% (22 HH), 1% (2 HH) and 1% (2 HH) in Soukhouma, Mounlapamok, Xepon and Lao-Ngam respectively. Note the relatively higher penetration of banks to Mounlapamok.

All of these households have savings in the village bank but only eight have outstanding loans in all four districts with seven being in Mounlapamok and the other in Lao-Ngam. No recipient households in either Xepon or Soukhouma reported an outstanding bank loan.

Savings in the bank vary from less than 10,000 LAK (a single household each in Xepon and Mounlapamok) to in excess of 150,000 LAK (two HH in Soukhouma and nine in Mounlapamok).

Loans range from less than 50,000 LAK to more than one million LAK (two HH in Mounlapamok and one in Lao-Ngam).

3.8 Water, hygiene and sanitation

3.8.1 Source of drinking water

As also seen with cohort-1, there is a clear distinction between the sources of drinking water for RLP recipient households in the different districts (Table 20). Nowhere are tube wells plentiful although the largest concentrations exist in Soukhouma where just over one third of households obtain their water from a tube well. The comparable figure in Mounlapamok is less than 10% and almost no recipient in either Xepon (1%) or Lao-Ngam (1.5%) obtains water in this fashion.

The most common source of drinking water appears to be either to collect it from a neighbour's well or to collect it from a natural water body (stream or pond). The former is particularly common in Soukhouma (almost 50% of households) with approximately one third each in Mounlapamok and Lao-Ngam. However, while collecting drinking water from a natural body of water is rare in Soukhouma, it is the method used by over half the recipient households in Mounlapamok and Xepon and approaching half in Lao-Ngam.

Table 20: Sources of drinking water for RLP recipient households disaggregated by district

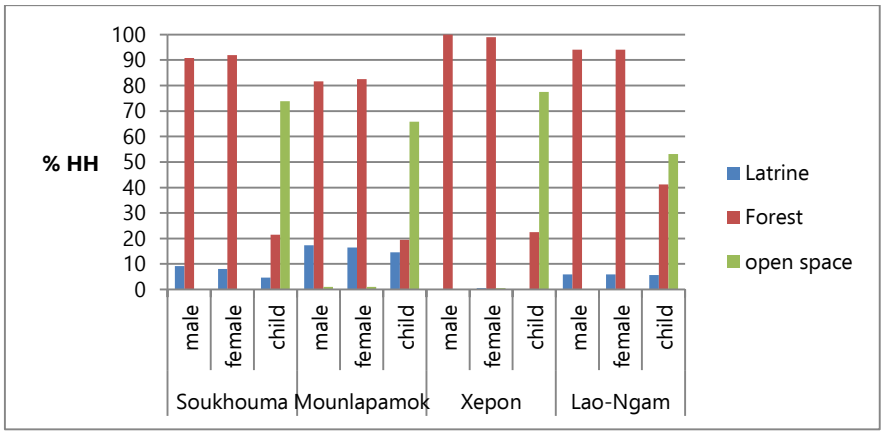
	% Households			
	Soukhouma	**Mounlapamok**	**Xepon**	**Lao-Ngam**
Sources of water:				
Tube well	34.4	9.6	1.0	1.5
Open well	9.0	1.0	1.0	3.5
Neighbours well	47.8	35.6	13.8	31.2
Pond, river, stream	4.4	51.9	56.1	45.0
Spring water	0	0	0.5	10.4
Gravity-fed water system	2.2	1.0	27.6	4.5
Public water system	0	0	0	4.0
Bottled water	2.2	1.0	0	0

Of the remaining households, the most common method is either from spring water (especially in Lao-Ngam with >10% of households) or a gravity fed water system (very common in Xepon with over 27% of households). A small number obtain their drinking water from commercially bottled water.

3.8.2 Points of defecation

Just with cohort-1 recipients, the most common defecation site for adults in all four districts is the forest (Figure 16) with almost 100% of both males and female adults in Xepon, over 90% in Soukhouma and Lao-Ngam and over 80% in Mounlapamok using forests for this purpose. Only with children is there some deviation from this across-the-board use of forests as defecation site; where open spaces are the most commonly used (security and distance reasons?) with between 50 and 78% of children using open spaces.

Figure 16: Points of defecation by different segments of the recipient population of RLP, disaggregated by district



To be noted the absence of latrine use in Xepon and the very low levels in the other three districts.

3.8.3 Hygiene consideration

The data on hand washing (Table 21) is relatively self-explanatory and shows that use of soap products (hand soap, washing powder or liquid soap) is most prevalent in Lao-Ngam but rare in Xepon. However, close to 100% of leading women in RLP recipient households do wash their hands (the majority only with water) at critical times for food preparation and after defecation.

Table 21: Hand washing practices in relevant recipient households using any form of soap, just water or no hand washing. "Relevant" excludes households from calculations where there are no children to care for (questions 3 and 5 in the table)

Hygiene:	Soukhouma			Mounlapamok			Xepon			Lao-Ngam		
	Soap	Water	None	Soap	Water	None	Soap	Water	None	Soap	Water	None
	% of Relevant Recipient Households											
1. Before food preparation	11	89	0	17	83	0	4	95	1	36	64	0
2. Before eating	11	88	1	10	90	0	3	97	0	28	72	0
3. Before feeding children	19	81	0	24	76	0	5	94	1	35	65	0
4. Before serving food	6	86	8	3	92	5	1	97	2	16	80	4
5. After cleaning baby's anus	20	78	2	30	70	0	5	95	0	53	44	3
6. After defecating	19	72	9	18	79	3	4	93	3	38	57	5
7. After cleaning / feeding animal	11	86	3	10	88	2	3	94	3	25	70	5

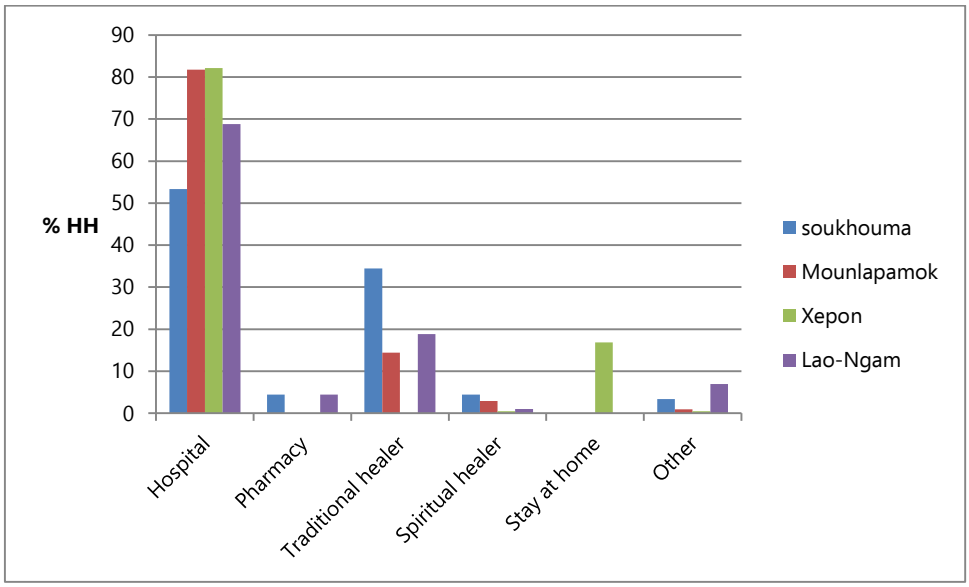
3.8.4 Medical Treatment

RLP recipient households in cohort-2 have a far more similar approach to medical care than was seen with the first cohort. In all four districts (Figure 17), the majority of households prefer to receive treatment at a hospital or health centre than any other locality. The difference between cohorts is particularly stark in Xepon where 74% of cohort-1 households preferred simply to remain at home while in cohort-2, over 80%

preferred to visit a hospital or health centre.

A small minority in each district prefer to visit ether a traditional or a spiritual healer; especially in Soukhouma.

Figure 17: Usual treatment "facilities" selected by RLP recipient households when ill, disaggregated by district



3.9 Female Empowerment

3.9.1 Background to questions

In many nations with chronic poverty issues, the position of women and girls both in the household and within society as a whole is frequently subservient to their male counterparts. Some interesting studies concerning changing attitude to women and girls that take part in asset transfer projects similar to SPSL have been published in the development press; particularly in the context of Bangladesh. Links to two such articles are provided for the interested reader in the footnote[11].

A series of nine questions were asked of the female lead in each household to determine at baseline which individual makes the majority of decisions in the household. Next, three questions were posed about the level of confidence that the female lead felt at baseline. It will be interesting to determine at a later date whether or not these attitudes to decision making and levels of confidence change once assets

[11] http://clp-bangladesh.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/07/Empowering-Women-on-the-Chars.pdf
http://clp-bangladesh.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/11/2014-11-20-CLP_WomensEmpowerment_impact-and-sustainability.pdf

have been transferred, training provided and (as anticipated) the economic status of the household improves.

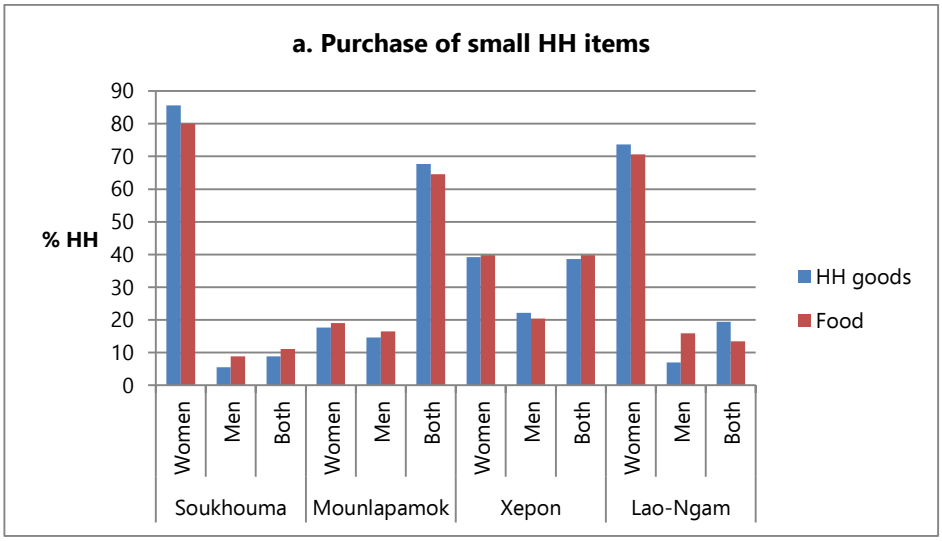
3.9.2 Decision-making

The nine questions can be grouped into five categories:

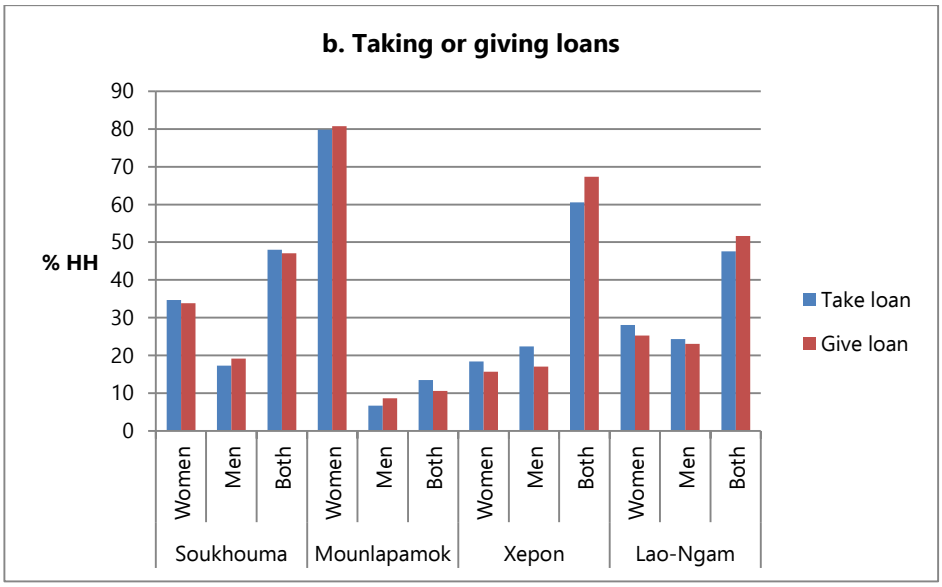
- Purchasing small items (food, household items);
- The taking and/or giving of loans;
- Saving and the use of savings;
- The sale of assets (small or large)
- Household decisions (medical treatment, feeding guests, providing gifts)

Results of household decision-making are presented in a series of figures (Figure 18 a-e). Analysis shows that, even at baseline, decision-making is quite evenly distributed within the cohort-2 recipient households and no clear trends exist between the different ethnic groupings, for example between the districts of Soukhouma (predominantly Lao Loum) and Xepon (Try and Mangkong).

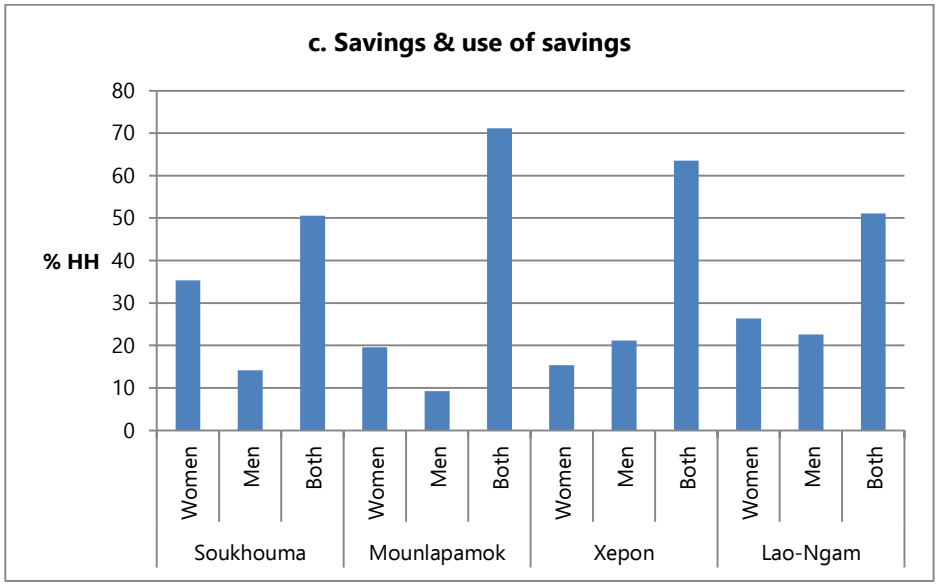
Figure 18: Decision-making within RLP recipient households, disaggregated by district (to note that with a few decisions e.g. "giving a loan" or "saving" a significant number of households had never had to make such a decision and therefore the histograms in those figures were calculated on the basis of the number of households who were able to give a response).



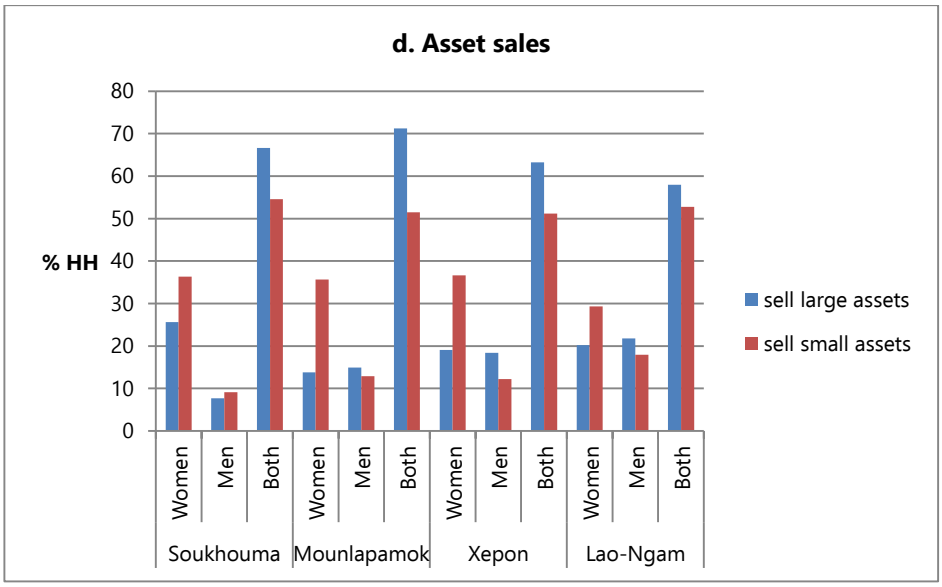
The purchase of small items including food (Fig. 18a) is the domain of women in Lao-Ngam and Soukhouma but in Mounlapamok it is a joint couple decision while in Xepon there is an even spread between women and the couple making the purchasing decisions.



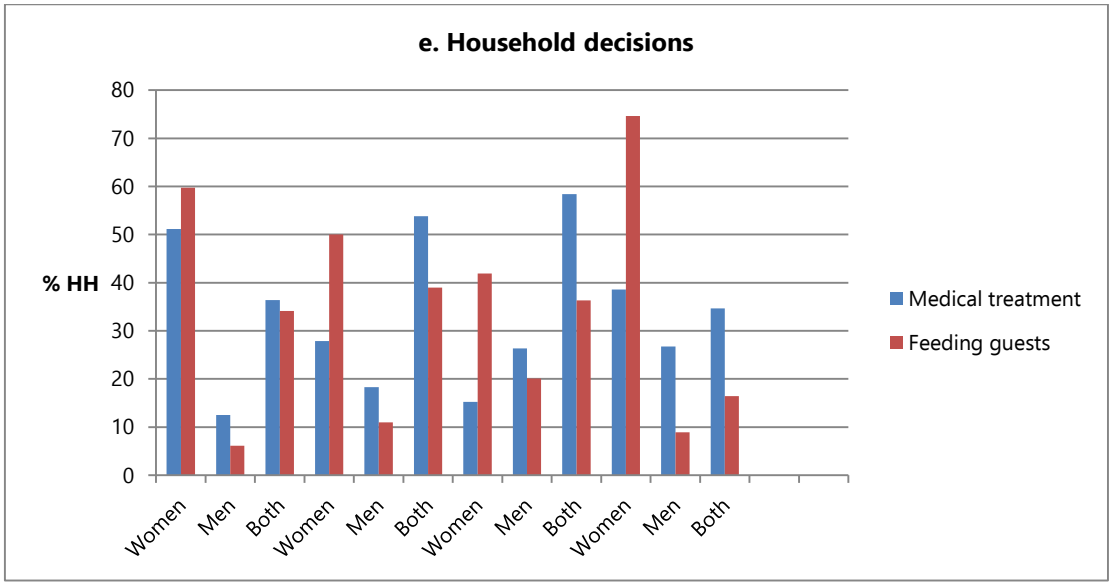
In contrast when decisions need to be taken about whether to take or give a loan (Fig 18b), women make the decisions in Mounlapamok but it is a joint decision by the couple in the other three districts.



Decisions related to saving and the use of those savings is a majority joint-decision across all four districts (Fig. 18c) while decisions concerning asset sales are again predominantly joint decisions (Fig 18d) but with women having a greater say when ir comes to seeling small assets (like poultry).



Finally, when there are household decisions to make about medical treatment or feeding guests (Fig. 18e), women make most of the decisions about feeding guests but generally decisions about medical treatment are made as a couple with the exceptions of Soukhouma where women make the majority of decisions.



3.9.3 Female confidence

Lead women in RLP recipient households are generally highly confident that they can manage the micro-enterprise opportunity that asset transfer provides and the finance related to that enterprise (Figure 19). Women in Soukhouma, Mounlapamok and Lao-Ngam are significantly more confident than their counterparts in Xepon. In this latter district, women were almost precisely split 50-50 in their confidence to manage a micro-enterprise and the funds related to it.

Figure 19: The level of confidence of "Lead" Women in recipient households to

manage a micro-enterprise and the finances related to that enterprise, disaggregated by district.

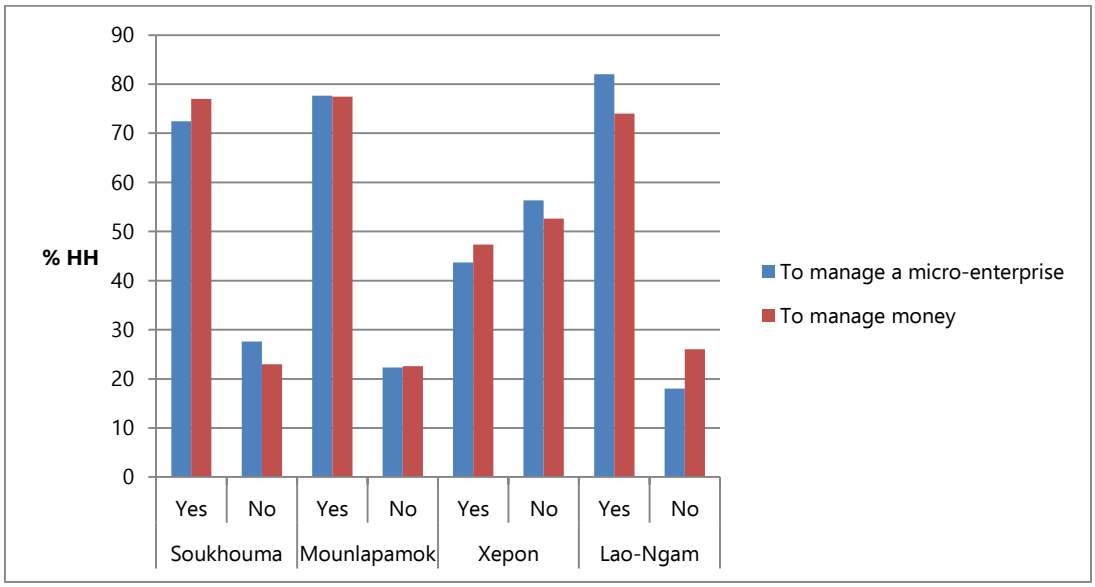
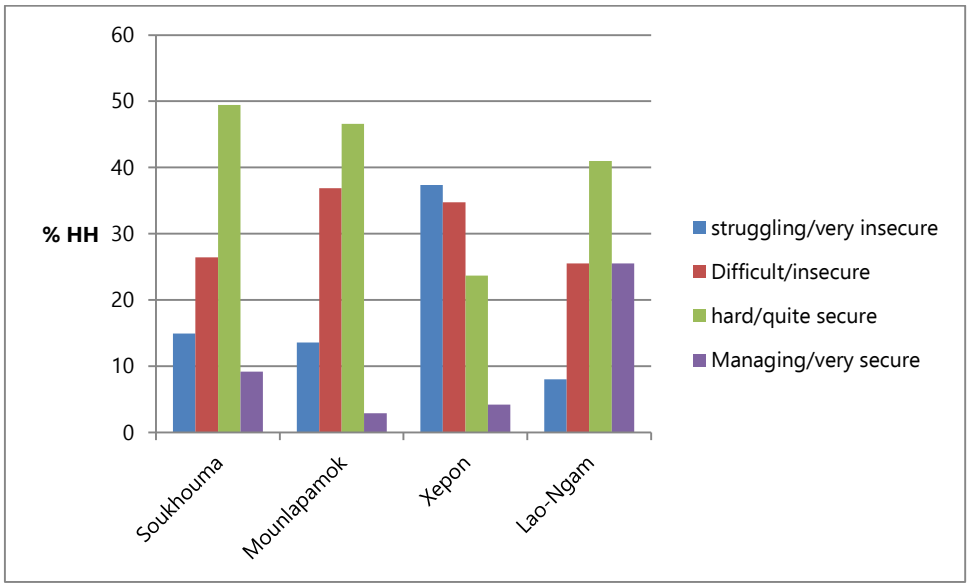


Figure 20: The attitude of lead Women in RLP recipient households to managing problems, and their level of confidence in coping with crisis, disaggregated by district.



The split across districts for very insecure/insecure compared to quite secure/secure is revealing (Figure 20). While figures are approximately 40/60 in Soukhouma, 50/50 in Mounlapamok, and 35/65 in Lao-Ngam, by comparison in Xepon, they are 72/28; showing a very high degree of insecurity in Xepon when compared to counterparts in the other three districts. It is interesting to note the 26% of households in Lao-Ngam who stated that they feel very secure (remember this information was collected during a baseline survey before any benefits of the RLP component was felt by recipient households. Again, there raises doubt about just how poor are many of the households selected in Lao-Ngam (for reference the "very secure" category only counted approx. 10% of Lao-Ngam households on cohort-1).

In the following section, a series of key poverty indicators, using the "Household Equity Fund Poverty Scorecard" are used to test the quality of household selection in the three districts.

3.10 Household Equity Fund Poverty Scorecard

3.10.1 Background to the Scorecard

Defining "poverty" and which households fall within that definition is notoriously difficult. The Swiss Red Cross – Lao Red Cross has worked with the Government of Lao PDR to develop a poverty proxy.

According to the GoL policy, poverty is defined as: "… a shortage of basic inputs for daily livelihood e.g., lack of food to consume corresponding to 2,100 kilo calorie per day, lack of basic clothes to wear, lack of permanent living facility (house), lack of medicine to cure diseases, lack of access to basic education service, lack of access to basic infrastructure"[12].

GoL has set an income standard to measure poverty at household level: "A unit for measurement on individual poverty is a level of individual income per month as a line

[12] cf. 2009 PM Decree 285 art. 2. and 2012 PM Decree 201 art.2

to measure the poverty in rural area as 180,000 kip per person per month"[13]

GoL developed a Household Equity Fund (HEF) scorecard as a means to identify poor households at the village level and allow them access to free healthcare. The poverty status of households once established by the HEF score is then confirmed using five criteria: lack of rice; lack of clothing; permanent housing; ability to pay for health care; and education (information supplied by Swiss Red Cross – Lao Red Cross).[14]

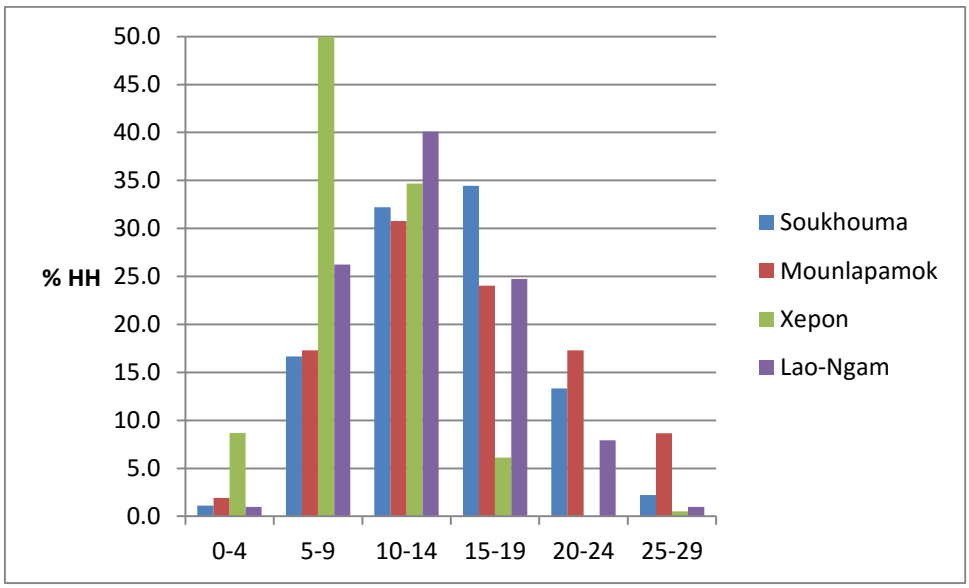
All households below a score of 14 are automatically eligible for the Health Equity Fund while those scoring between 14 and 16 are submitted to the Village Committee for a (poverty) decision. Households scoring above 16 are automatically excluded.

SPSL used the HEF Poverty Scorecard as a comparator, in the Lao context, to establish the baseline condition of RLP recipient households in the three districts. The results are interesting both in that they provide a measure of recipient household "poverty status" using a method recognised by GoL, and they confirm many of the findings reported earlier in this report.

3.10.2 HEF Scorecard results

Figures 21 and 22 present the SPSL data and show that the poorest households selected to receive assets from RLP come from the district of Xepon. In Xepon, 7% of households scored above the 14-point cut-off while 2% (4 households) scored above the 16-point that would have excluded them definitively from access to free healthcare.

Figure 21: Household Equity Fund scores of RLP recipient households, disaggregated by district.



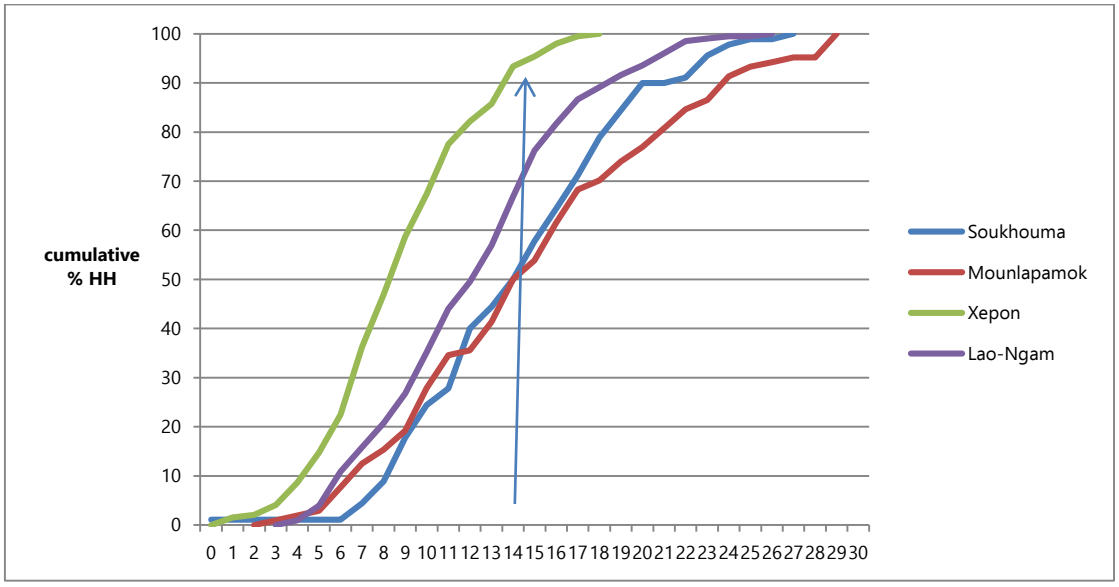
Comparing this poorest group of recipients with counterparts in other districts shows that selected recipients in the other three districts are not as poor (when measured by the HEF) since 50% of recipient households in Soukhouma and Mounlapamok and 33% in Lao-Ngam scored above the 14-point level. When the level is increased to the

[13] Idem, art. 3.
[14] Brief on Identification of the Poor in Lao PDR, Swiss Red Cross – Lao Red Cross (June 2012)

16-point maximum, 36%, 38% and 18% of households respectively would fail to gain access to free healthcare.

Figure 22 presents the data from Figure 21 as cumulative percentages and, using a pointer, highlights the difference in poverty status of RLP-recipient households in the four districts.

Figure 22: Household Equity Fund scores of RLP recipient households presented as cumulative percentages, disaggregated by district.



SPSL will follow the evolution over time of the HEF score for recipient households in the four districts.

When the gender of the household head is considered, female-headed households generally score low values for HEF measures, as follows:

- In Soukhouma, of the 17 female-headed households: 15 below HEF=14; 2 scored 15;
- Mounlapamok, of the 13 female-headed households: 9 below HEF=14; 2=16, 2 above 16;
- Xepon, of the 18 female-headed households: 17 below HEF=14; 1=15;
- Lao-Ngam, of the 19 female-headed households: below HEF=14; 1=16; 6 above 16