

**YANGON UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS
MASTER OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES PROGRAMME**

**A STUDY ON THE IMPACT OF CASH TRANSFER PROGRAM
IN KACHIN STATE, MYANMAR**

(Case Study of Waingmaw and Chiphwe Townships)

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EMDevS – 51 (14th Batch)**

AUGUST, 2019

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This thesis is submitted as a partial fulfillment of for the degree of Master of
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ABSTRACT

This study focused on impact of Cash Transfer Program to Internal Displaced Person (IDP) in Waingmaw and Chiphwe townships which are in Kachin State. This study used descriptive method and is cross-sectional study. It targeted the IDP's community in the Waingmaw and Chiphwe townships, who have received Cash assistance to cover their food security, to explore on impact of CTP via the questionnaire. This study has learnt that Cash Transfer Program (CTP) has led to a significant increase in household food insecurity of internal displaced people in Kachin State with 87% households were found at above acceptable HDDS score and 78% of the respondent households were above acceptable food consumption score. However, the amount of cash the beneficiaries supported with is not enough to cover the HHs food needs and others, particularly health, education and investment in livelihood. The cash transfer value to meet the food basket value and others alternative food assistance and/or livelihood support should be sought to address the need of the communities. The implementing organizations should design CTP to address IDP concerns and support the stability and sustainability of food supplies.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADRA	Adventist Development and Relief Agency
BMI	Body Mass Index
CBI	Cash Based Intervention
CCCM	Camp Coordination and Camp Management
CCT	Conditional Cash Transfer
CFW	Cash for Work
CMC	Camp Management Committee
CTP	Cash Transfer Program
DRC	Danish Refugee Council
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
ECHO	European Commission Humanitarian Aid and Civil Protection
FCS	Food Consumption Score
FFW	Food for Work
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GCA	Government Control Area
HARP-F	Humanitarian Assistance and Resilience Program Facility
HDDS	Household Dietary Diversity Score
HH	Household
ID	Identification
IDDS	Individual Dietary Score
IDP	Internal Displaced Person
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
KBC	Kachin Baptism Convention
KIA	Kachin Independent Army

KII	Key Informant Interview
KMSS	Karuna Mission Social Solidarity
MHF	Myanmar Humanitarian Fund
MMK	Myanmar Kyat
NCA	National Ceasefire Agreement
NGCA	Non-Government Control Area
NGO	Non-Government Organization
NRC	Norwegian Refugee Council
NRC	National Registration Card
PDM	Post Distribution Monitoring
SCUK	Save the Children United Kingdom
SGBV	Sexual Gender Based Violence
SI	Solidarity International
UCT	Unconditional Cash Transfer
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNOCHA	United Nation Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
USAID	United State Aid
USD	United State Dollar
UXO	Unexploded Ordnance
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
WFP	World Food Program
WHH	Welthungerhilfe

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale of The Study

Since armed conflict resumed in June 2011, around 100,000 people have been displaced in Kachin State. Despite a push from the former military-backed Government for the National Ceasefire Agreement (NCA) in late 2015, key ethnic armed groups in Kachin are yet to sign the NCA, including the KIA. As of mid-2016, fighting continues and in many cases, is intensifying in Kachin, causing further displacement of people. IDPs are situated predominantly in IDP camps, both in NGCA and Myanmar Government-controlled areas (GCA). In NGCA, IDPs tend to be located more remotely and in rural areas with particularly limited livelihood opportunities, whereas IDPs in GCA are more likely to be in urban settings with better livelihood opportunities and market access.

However, Kachin has many micro contexts resulting from geography, governance systems and proximity to conflict, meaning the situations for each IDP camp can vary significantly. Some instances of return and/or resettlement have taken place, but ongoing conflict, proximity to military bases and landmines remain major barriers (amongst many) to further returns. Thus, IDPs remain in camps and humanitarian assistance remains critical. In given challenging context, most of Humanitarian actors including UN agencies, INGOs and local organizations had supported in the way of in-kind distribution and cash transfer to multi-sectors such as food security, nutrition, WASH, health and Education, etc.... Food security for IDPs is one the critical component for saving lives. Since they have been living in the IDP camps, they do not have access to cultivated lands, job opportunities and livelihood's incomes. They rely on external reliefs and assistances as long as they stay in the IDP camps. Therefore, UN agencies, INGOs and local CSOs have been supporting in provision of food aids. Alongside providing in kind food, many donors and INGOs

recognized to move to transition phase with more resilience approaches due to limitation of donor's funding opportunities and IDPs rely on dependence. Some organizations such as WFP, Oxfam and Trocire had conducted cash feasibility studies through IDP camps in Kachin state and most of studies recommended cash transfer was feasible in given local context and market functionality.

Cash programming in Kachin started in 2012, in response to the resurgence of conflict and ensuing displacement. Initially, several local organizations (Metta, KMSS, KBC, shalom – supported and with funding from international organizations) provided supplementary, unconditional cash grants (initially called 'cash for curry') with the aim of increasing dietary diversity. These grants were provided across the board at a rate of MMK 6-8,000 per person per month (in both GCA and NGCA). This support was discontinued at various stages, depending on the organization – but ultimately ended in 2016 due to funding shortages. These distributions were entirely implemented through 'cash in envelopes. In addition, Metta has since 2012 also been providing Non-Food Items (NFIs) through a voucher system – market fairs are organized during which recipients can use the vouchers with a limited number of pre-identified suppliers.

Following this first wave of CTP, the discussion around providing cash instead of food rations led to several assessments conducted in 2014 – among which the WFP feasibility assessment conducted in GCA and which suggested a pilot intervention in several camps near Myitkyina (including Waingmaw townships). Following a first pilot intervention, the WFP programme was then progressively widened to most GCA locations. The introduction of cash was implemented at the same time and as part of the prioritization/targeting exercise in 2016. These cash grants can therefore be grouped into two major categories: CTP for emergency relief – while they account for the highest proportion of funding overall, these are mostly relatively small, unconditional and unrestricted cash grants, which are primarily provided to replace food distributions, while a small number are also provided as conditional cash grants to support, for instance, the running of WASH committees; and Conditional cash grants – which are primarily provided as part of livelihoods interventions. The main purpose of these grants is to provide livelihoods opportunities through income generating activities, with components aimed at vocational training, increasing

financial literacy and psychosocial support. While most these activities require recipients to come forward with business proposals, at least one organization also supports revolving funds: after an initial injection of funding by the organization, these funds are then run by the community.

The main donors support CTP across Kachin include HARP-F, ECHO and USAID – as well as NGOs such as WHH. OCHA’s MHF has also supported some CTP activities as part of emergency responses. The WFP programme is now the largest CTP project in Kachin – as of March 2018, a total of over 42,000 IDPs are being assisted through monthly cash interventions – and approximately 1,400 of them receive cash through the e-wallet pilot scheme. In parallel, for NGCA locations, both Trocaire/KMSS and Oxfam/KBC conducted similar targeting/prioritization exercises and introduced limited CTP gradually in 2016. These two projects now assist most people in NGCA with food assistance, but given the challenging context, only some of these are currently receiving cash as part of a mixed modality (‘rice plus cash’). In NGCA, the most recent project to introduce CTP (again to replace parts of the food basket) is implemented by Oxfam, KBC and HPA. An additional project by ADRA/KBC currently also provides supplementary cash grants on top of the grants mentioned above – across GCA and NGCA locations. Most other CTP interventions consist of livelihoods support through Conditional Cash Grants (CCGs). These are implemented by a variety of organizations including the Red Cross Movement, Trocaire/BRIDGE, ADRA/KBC, DRC, NRC, SI, Metta.

Establishing a widespread humanitarian response in Kachin since 2011, Oxfam and KBC’s programming has been supporting food aid to over 9,000 IDPs across six camps from Waingmaw and Chipwe townships in Kachin state where camps are in the remote border areas with limited functioning markets and livelihood opportunities. This program aims to achieve ensuing food security of targeted people. Provision of in-kind food ration is calculated based on SPHERE minimum standards and each IDP is provided 13.5KG of rice, 1.8KG of chickpeas, one liter of oil and 0.15KG of salt per month. Throughout programming, cash feasibility assessment was conducted by Oxfam in October 2016 and Cash transfer has been shifted to a more targeted intervention where rice is provided to all IDPs in all those six camps: 13.5 kg per month per person. The amount of cash per beneficiary is calculated based on the

value of other food items (oil, pulse and salt) and provided to IDPs: 40 Yuan which equivalence 8,000 MMK per month per person.

After three years of CTP's investment in these areas, there has been a need to evaluate whether CTP contributes positively to improve on food security in IDP communities as well to analyze social protection/risks and further improvement of Cash transfer modality in project sites in Kachin State.

1.2 Objectives of The Study

The main objective of the study is to assess the impact of Cash Transfer Program (CTP) on Food Security to Internal displaced communities in Waingmaw and Chipwe townships in Kachin State.

1.3 Method of Study

The method of this study is descriptive and cross-sectional study based on, but not limited to, primary data. This study used secondary data by collecting from relevant websites, technical reports, papers of state and international organizations and Cash Transfer Program's tool kit was used to obtain necessary statistics.

1.4 Scope and Limitation of The Study

This study investigated the five IDP camps in Waingmaw and Chiphwe township from Kachin state in which the result will represent the Kachin state. The Waingmaw township and Chiphwe were chosen as the study sites where Oxfam and KBC have been supporting cash assistance to IDP communities and these areas are classified as limited to access to markets and humanitarian actors. This Study investigated the five IDP camps in Waingmaw and Chiphwe townships from Kachin state, Myanmar and the survey was conducted by collecting structured questionnaires from 252 HHs from five IDP camps which represented 20% of targeted population.

1.5 Organization of The Study

The organization of this study consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 introduces about the study which consists rationale, objectives, methods, scope and limitation of the study. Chapter 2 presents literature review related to impact of Cash Transfer

Program on food security. It also includes historical background of humanitarian aids, overall cash transfer program, positive and negative impact of cash transfer program in humanitarian response and how cash transfer program impact on food security in emergency context. Chapter 3 is consisted of role of cash transfer program in Myanmar and its circumstance in Kachin state. It also presents overview on cash transfer program, transition of CTP, overall CTP review in Kachin State and impact of CTP on Food security to Internal displaced people in two townships are organized into Chapter 4. In Chapter 5, findings of the study are presented together with suggestions to lessen the issues.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Historical Background of Humanitarian Aid

Humanitarianism is defined from the early nineteenth century through World War II; a neo-humanitarianism from World War II through the end of the Cold War; and a liberal humanitarianism, from the end of the Cold War to the present. In a similar it is viewed the world wars as marking distinct changes in the story of the humanitarian sector; it was characterized the period of the Cold War as one of ‘mercy and manipulation’ and the 1990s as the period of the ‘globalization of humanitarianism’. Focusing on disaster relief, it was seen the Second World War as a turning point, arguing that ‘it was only in the midst of World War II that governments began to fully appreciate the need for greater international intervention in the plight of disaster-stricken people’. This mirrors the chronology proposed by the influential historian divided up the ‘short twentieth century’ into two major eras, 1914–45 and 1946–89. French accounts of humanitarianism, in contrast, have often emphasized the importance of the Cold War period and specifically the Biafra/ Nigeria Civil War (1967–70) in promoting emergency relief. (Eleanor Davey, with John Borton and Matthew Foley, June 2013)

The characterization of modern humanitarian history identified four main periods: from the mid-nineteenth century until the end of the First World War in 1918, when nineteenth-century conceptions drove humanitarian action; the ‘Wilsonian’ period of the interwar years and the Second World War, when international government was born and then reasserted; the Cold War period, when humanitarian actors turned more concertedly towards the non-Western world and the development paradigm emerged; and the post-Cold War period, when geopolitical changes again reshaped the terrain within which humanitarians worked. (Eleanor Davey, with John Borton and Matthew Foley, June 2013)

2.2 Cash Transfer Program (CTP) in Emergency

Cash Transfer Programming (CTP) is increasingly used for humanitarian response with the recognition that CTP can complement the provision of in-kind assistance during emergencies. Provision of cash, when appropriate, empowers the affected population to decide on their own how to meet their own needs using available local resources. Cash assistance may be categorized into unconditional or conditional. Unconditional cash transfer is a grant provided to beneficiaries without any specific obligations to fulfill and conditional cash transfer is one that beneficiaries need to specifically spend on particular needs such as food, education or healthcare, among others. (UNOCHA, n.d.)

CTPs are direct cash payments or transfers using modalities such as paper vouchers, debit/smart cards or mobile phones. Transfers can be conditional (CCTs), where targeted people need to meet a defined set of standards such as attending an education session, getting a child vaccinated, etc.) or unconditional (UCTs). The choice of food, cash or voucher transfer should be made on the basis of an assessment of population needs, cost efficiency, the market availability of basic goods, the functioning of markets and secondary market impacts, the flexibility of the transfer and risks of insecurity and corruption. CTs need to take into consideration recipient preferences, scale and value of the transfers, convenience to recipients and targeting and 'labelling' of the transfer, both of which may influence a household's spending patterns. (MercyCrops)

Generally, CTPs are categorized into five types. Unconditional cash transfers (UCT) is a direct grant with no conditions or work requirements. No requirement to repay any money, and people are entitled to use the money however they wish. Conditional cash transfers (CCT) is a condition is attached as to how the money is spent, e.g. for reconstruction of a shelter or waiver of payment for school fees; or money is received after a condition is fulfilled, e.g. children enrolled at school (rare in humanitarian settings). Cash for Work, where payment (cash or vouchers) is provided as a wage for work, usually in public or community programmes, is a form of conditional cash transfer. Cash for work is a payment for work on public or community works programmes. The cash wages help people to meet their basic needs, and the community project helps to improve or rehabilitate community services or

infrastructure. Cash for work differs from casual labor in that it is targeted at the poorest or most food-insecure members of the community. Voucher (cash or commodity) is a voucher is a paper, token or electronic card that can be exchanged for a set quantity or value of goods, set either in cash (e.g. 13 United States Dollars (USD) or commodity or services (e.g. 5 kilograms (kg) of cereals or milling of 10 kg of food aid grain). Redeemable with selected vendors or in fairs. Microfinance or Microcredit is a loan where the reimbursement of the total sum, including interest, is required over a given period of time. Not considered as a cash-based intervention per sector. (Michelle Berg, Louisa Seferis, January 2015)

2.3 Impact of CTP in Emergency

This section of the review concentrates on impact of cash transfer programs. Historical and evaluations are assessed and compared with the intention to identify tendencies of positive, negative or neutral impacts of type of cash transfer programs.

2.3.1 Positive Impact of Cash Transfers

The experience of Oxfam and others shows that cash-based programmes, in appropriate circumstances, are less costly and better adjusted to people's needs and preferences than the distribution of commodities in kind. And they can be timelier. The advantages of cash intervention lead cash give households more choice and permits them to spend money according to their own priorities. It impacts on cost-effectiveness as cash is likely to be cheaper and faster to distribute than alternatives such as restocking, seed distribution, and food distribution. Cash impacts on dignity as offering cash maintains people's dignity, by giving them choice. Delivery mechanisms do not treat them as passive recipients of relief. It improves economic recovery: injections of cash have potential benefits for local markets and trade. Cash makes more flexibility which can be spent on both food and non-food items and is easily invested in livelihood security. It improves empowerment as cash can improve the status of women and marginalized groups. (Oxfam GB, Pantaleo Creti and Susanne Jaspars, 2006)

The evidences of Oxfam programs in Bangladesh, Cambodia, Kenya, Uganda, Afghanistan, and Haiti,³ recipients stated that they preferred cash-based programmes

to commodity-based assistance because cash gave them choices: to buy goods and services according to their own priorities, to meet immediate needs, and to invest in future livelihood assets. When cash is used to buy food, people can buy the familiar foods that they like. The ways in which project beneficiaries may spend cash distributed by aid agencies. The nature of people's expenditure varies according to the context, including other types of relief distributed at the same time, the method of payment, the quantity of cash distributed, and the timing of payment in relation to the seasonal calendar. (Oxfam GB, Pantaleo Creti and Susanne Jaspars, 2006)

In Oxfam programmes in Uganda, Afghanistan, and Haiti, beneficiary populations who received cash spent most of it on food. In Afghanistan, they spent up to 90 per cent of the cash received on food. The remainder was often spent on clothes and medicine, with a few households being able to invest in livestock or pay off debts. When people are receiving cash in addition to food aid, then cash is less likely to be spent on food. For example, when cash was given in addition to food aid in Turkana, Kenya, eighty-one per cent of the money distributed was spent on livelihood recovery (including re-stocking, business inputs, and school fees). In Indonesia, where people were receiving food rations at the same time as cash, day-to-day expenditure included snacks, cigarettes, fish, vegetables, sugar, and coffee, while one-off larger expenditures included community contributions (for example, for religious festivals), clothes, and gold (as a form of saving). Although expenditure on items such as cigarettes and coffee might not be considered important for household food security, freedom to spend money on these items was seen as a significant step towards restoration of 'normality'. Oxfam in general is opposed to smoking, but we believe that switching to in-kind assistance in such situations would not prevent people smoking. In-kind assistance would release income that would otherwise be spent on those commodities, so increasing available income to buy cigarettes. Small regular payments are more likely to be used to buy food, whereas larger lump sums are more likely to be spent on productive assets and reestablishing economic activities.

In Turkana, Kenya, small cash transfers were used for buying foodstuffs not included in the relief ration, for paying off debts, and for partial payment of school fees. Where cash was paid in a lump sum, it was spent on productive assets such as goats, setting up small shops, tools for firewood cutting, and donkey carting. In

Ethiopia, an evaluation by Save the Children UK found that when cash payments exceeded minimum needs, and timing coincided with critical times in the seasonal calendar, then households could make strategic investments, for example by re-negotiating contractual agreements for sharecropping, and purchasing small stock or plough oxen. In general, the larger the payment, the more likely this will be spent on livelihood recovery. In some societies, men and women spend money differently.

In Bangladesh, an evaluation conducted by Khogali in 2001 found that women often made joint decisions with men about expenditure, but they also retained some of the cash for future unforeseen expenditure. In general, women gave more thought to future needs, investing in productive asset creation, paying off loans, and saving. Men tended to keep the money they earned but gave money to women for specific purchases. Men appeared to save less than women, spending money mainly on paying off loans, and buying food and clothes. In many other contexts, there was no difference in the expenditure patterns of men and women. In some programmes women's status was improved, both in the household and in the community, by their ability to earn and control income. Few evaluations have been conducted to estimate the cost-effectiveness of cash transfers as opposed to commodity distributions.

An evaluation of a cash-for-work (CFW) scheme in Kenya, which compared food distribution, cash-for-work, and livestock restocking interventions, found that 'cash for work was the most cost-effective recovery intervention in terms of the cost of providing for the subsistence of beneficiaries, without even considering the value of the work undertaken. The sourcing of food aid in Western donor countries is a very inefficient way of meeting food needs. For example, a study in Ethiopia found that cash transfers were 6–7 per cent cheaper than local food purchase, and between 39 and 46 per cent cheaper than imported relief food. Similarly, in Democratic Republic of Congo, it cost \$15 to deliver an amount of imported food aid which could have been purchased on the local market for \$1.11 This inefficiency increases when beneficiaries use food relief as a resource to meet other household needs – that is, when they sell their food relief to buy other food items, to pay for health care and education, or to meet other essential needs. (Oxfam GB, Pantaleo Creti and Susanne Jaspars, 2006)

Cash transfers can stimulate economic recovery by encouraging traders to move supplies from areas of food surplus to areas of food deficit. This helps to maintain prices (and production) in areas of surplus. Experience has shown that injections of cash have boosted trade in the following ways: A significant proportion of the cash transfer was invested in trade because money was frequently used as capital to set up small businesses such as kiosks, teashops, and other small market enterprises. Cash transfers boosted purchases from local traders. Most of the livestock purchased was obtained from local producers.

The CFW projects themselves, like food-for-work projects, often have an impact on both food security and public health. Projects such as clearance and rehabilitation of roads facilitate trade into the area and stimulate travel to markets outside the affected area. Agricultural rehabilitation through de-silting, bunding, training, and tree planting should result in increased food production. Dam construction, well cleaning, canal clearing, and rainwater management improve water supplies for humans and livestock. (Oxfam GB, Pantaleo Creti and Susanne Jaspars, 2006)

2.3.2 Negative Impact of Cash Transfers

WFP/UNHCR study in 2013 highlighted issues with identification (ID), access to technology, targeting, beneficiary preferences, additional burdens being placed on women, safety and corruption, concerns with CFW, cash and CBIs creating a disincentive to work, and antisocial spending. The most common objectives or outcomes set in CTP programming relate to increased food security (rather than to a specific protective aim or to explicitly integrating protection into programming. (Michelle Berg, Louisa Seferis, January 2015)

CTP promoted feelings of dignity, and self-worth, but in few cases, there was some stigma where beneficiaries felt. CTP did not generally create safety concerns for beneficiaries, and in fact in some cases beneficiaries reported feeling more secure as cash was discreet. Further, despite perceptions to the contrary, diversion of cash assistance by nefarious groups or individuals was not widely found; in one case, it was observed that in-kind assistance was more likely to be diverted than cash. The cash was found to cause more social tension in communities than in-kind assistance, as cash tended not to be shared. In other studies, cash brought about no changes in

relations in communities, or in positive changes, such as when cash enabled individuals to pay debts and thereby regain social credibility and trust in their communities. Some of the research found that social impacts were not considered when designing CBIs, and were only noted afterwards, relegated to some comments about sharing, stigma, or resentment. However, in one study, participants in the programme ranked community and household relations as priorities almost as high as food and education, suggesting their equal importance to material impacts for some beneficiaries. Finally, cash was not found to be a disincentive to work, and it was found that cash is seldom used for antisocial purposes. In fact, in one study where one group was given cash and the other was not, the cash group had less spending on tobacco than the control group. (Michelle Berg (Independent Consultant), January 2015)

In some cases, child labor was reduced. It was not always clear that the danger posed by the labor to the child was diminished. Moreover, in shorter-term programmes while the incidences of child labor were reduced, beneficiaries did report that once the cash stopped they would likely send their children back to work. On a more positive note, however, CTP were found to have positive impacts on care for separated and unaccompanied children, on enrolment in school for children, and in reducing the stress of caregivers.

The relationship between CTP and Food Security needs more study although, thus far, it has been found that programmes in emergency humanitarian settings do not generally lead to longer-term resilience, or the ability to withstand shocks and decrease vulnerability. In some humanitarian settings, cash has enabled some beneficiaries to access credit, as well as to start small businesses which will help protect against small shocks in the short term (Michelle Berg (Independent Consultant), January 2015)

2.4 Impact of CTP on Food Security

For decades, humanitarian agencies have responded to the food needs of people suffering the effects of disasters and war by providing them with in-kind food aid. This is changing, and it is now accepted that cash can be an alternative or complement to in-kind assistance. (Bailey, May 2013)

2.4.1 Linkages Between CTP And Resilience Food Systems

Table 2. 1: Logical framework of CTP impacts on Resilience food system

Conceptual framework of CTP impacts on Resilience food system				
Activity	Inputs	Outputs	Outcomes	Goal
Cash Transfers Programs	Cash transfers can facilitate investment in agricultural inputs, relieve credit constraints, allow more (and fitter) labor to engage in agriculture	Production and productivity	Food availability	Resilience Food Systems
	Cash transfers can increase demand for food and stimulate local supply of food	Markets		
	Cash transfers directly increase household income, enabling access to increased quantity of food if available on markets	Increased income	Food access	
	Cash transfers can increase subsistence production by investing cash income in agricultural inputs	Increased household production		
	Cash transfers directly increase household income, enabling improved diversity and quality of diet	Increased income		
	Cash transfers can increase expenditure on health services, and, if linked to complementary services (e.g. CCTs) increase uptake of health services, immunization etc. and decrease the likelihood of diseases	Existing health status		
	Cash transfers, if linked to complementary awareness and training services, such as education, health and nutrition, can improve caring practices for children	Caring practices		
	Cash transfers can increase women's economic status and decision making within the household, leading to increased nutritious food intake within the household	Improved intra-household decisions and resource allocation		
	If linked to education and awareness raising cash transfer programme can improve water and sanitation hygiene practices.	Water and sanitation		

Source: Rebecca Holmes and Dharini Bhuvanendra – March 2013

In theory cash transfers can contribute to a resilient food system in a variety of ways (see Table 2:1). A framework for understanding the dimensions of food security relate to food availability, access and utilization. Across these four pillars, cash transfers are most likely to have the largest contribution in relation to household “access” and “utilization”, through the direct increase in household income which can be spent on increasing the quantity of food consumed and improving the quality and diversity of diet. (Rebecca Holmes and Dharini Bhuvanendra, January 2013)The possible contributions of cash transfer programmes and cash transfer packages (e.g. CCTs) to the food security system are illustrated in Table 2.1 and discussed in more detail with the available evidence below.

Table 2. 2: Cash Transfer Program – inputs, Outputs, outcomes and Impacts

Inputs	Outputs	Outcomes	Impacts
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cash transfer • Cash transfer “plus” e.g. complementary health care, nutrition knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased household income • Awareness on nutrition • Access to health care 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased quantity and diversity of diet (e.g. consumption of calories, more nutritious food) • Increased knowledge put into practice (e.g. appropriate types of food) • Utilization of health care 	<p>Improved BMI, reduced stunting and wasting</p>

Source: Rebecca Holmes and Dharini Bhuvanendra – March 2013

When looking at the evidence on the way in which cash transfer programmes actually affect food security and nutrition outcomes and impacts it is important to distinguish between outputs, outcomes and impacts of cash transfer programmes. These are presented in Table 2:2. There are numerous studies to draw from across the cash transfer literature but varying methodological rigor has been applied to studies. The most methodologically robust studies come from conditional cash transfers in Latin America, but we also draw on other impact evaluations (noting methodological limitations where possible). The findings tend to suggest that almost all cash transfer programmes have a positive effect on outcomes (such as increasing the number of meals a day, or improving the quality of diet), but there are mixed findings on impacts (e.g. reduction in wasting, where weight-for-height provides insights into the short-term impact of improved nutrition, and stunting, where height-for-age provides information on the long-term effects of improved nutrition and Body Mass Index (BMI) indicators). (Rebecca Holmes and Dharini Bhuvanendra, March 2013)

2.4.2 CTP Supports in Promoting Food Availability

Cash transfer programmes can potentially contribute to food availability through two main mechanisms: first, through increasing productivity and production by stimulating local agricultural production and nonagricultural activities (e.g. employment), and second, cash transfers can affect local markets by generating increased demand that can, in turn, trigger a supply response by local producers.

CTP has an impact on increased productivity and production. Few studies, however, have examined the impacts of cash transfers on productivity and markets. It was assessed the evidence of the impacts of cash transfers on growth and found little effect of cash transfers on aggregate growth at national levels, but some at the household level (as expected). While there may be some overlap here between availability and access at the household level, some evidence does show positive impacts of cash transfers on production and stimulating markets (and also some negative effects). In sub-Saharan Africa, the Malawi social cash transfer programme was found to lead to increased investment in agricultural assets, including crop implements and livestock. Also reported were increased satisfaction of household consumption by own production, decreased agricultural wage labor and child work off farm, and increased labor allocation to on farm activities by both adults and children.

Some evidence estimates that, on average, around 12 percent of transfers to beneficiaries were invested in productive assets. They suggest that the CCT helped alleviate two market failures. First, the increased income allowed households to overcome credit constraints. Second, the reliability of regular income may have made households willing to undertake riskier (and profitable) investments. CTP led to an increase in investment for agricultural equipment, possibly because of an economic downturn during the period, the strong programme orientation toward increased food expenditures, and the limited opportunities in the impoverished rural areas where the programme operated. (Rebecca Holmes and Dharini Bhuvanendra, January 2013)

The impacts of cash transfers on markets are mixed. It was found that in remote areas of South Africa, cash transfers stabilized the demand for food, reduced market risk for producers and traders, and supported local agricultural production. Similar findings were reported from a qualitative assessment of the social pension in Namibia, which also improved market access to food, by attracting traders to remote communities and enabling pensioners to buy food on credit. However, where markets are not able to respond to increased demand by increasing supply, cash transfers can have a negative impact by pushing up local prices. In Ethiopia in 2006, it was reported that the Livelihoods Programme, which shifted from food- to cash-based transfers, had negative implications for the availability and price of food in local markets, especially in remote, food-deficit areas. (Rebecca Holmes and Dharini Bhuvanendra, March 2013)

2.4.3 CTP Supports in Promoting Access to Food

In theory, cash transfers can support household access to food in a variety of ways. First, cash transfers directly increase income which can be spent on increasing the quantity of food consumed. For the poorest households, a 10% increase in income can improve household food security by 5%, as measured by calories available for consumption. However, once access to calories reaches a threshold level, attention switches to food quality and household caloric acquisition may continue to rise but at a much slower rate. As such, households diversify their diet, increasing their consumption of fruits, vegetables and animal products – these are discussed in the sub-section on utilization below. In addition, predictable income can help prevent negative responses to food insecurity, for instance skipping meals. Second, cash

transfers can be invested in agricultural inputs and resources, increasing agricultural production for household consumption. In particular, regular and reliable transfers can alleviate credit constraints faced by farmers, as well as provide greater certainty and security which enables higher-risk, higher-return investments, leading to a more efficient use of resources. (Bailey, May 2013)

CTP has impacted on increased household expenditure. Turning to the availability of evidence to support the theoretical claims above, we start with the evidence that cash transfers directly increase expenditure on food. A review of the evidence on cash transfers found that “one of the strongest and most consistent findings regarding the impact of cash transfer programmes is their contribution to reducing hunger and food insecurity. Regardless of the form of transfer, households receiving transfers average significantly higher spending on and consumption of food. The impact of cash transfers on hunger has been most pronounced in LICs where poverty is generally more severe. In these settings, households receiving additional income are particularly likely to prioritise spending on improving the quantity and or/quality of food consumed”. For instance, evaluations from Malawi’s Cash Transfer programme and CCTs in Latin America show cash transfer beneficiary households prioritising increased income on food goods, increasing the quantity of food and leading to increased calorie consumption. However, some evaluations do not find such positive results.

CTP has impacted on increased production of subsistence agriculture. There is some empirical evidence which supports the argument that cash transfers can increase subsistence agricultural production. Households receiving South Africa’s Child Support Grant, for instance, have demonstrated greater resiliency in terms of maintaining agricultural production. In Bolivia, beneficiary households of the social pension, in poor rural areas experienced an average increase in food consumption of almost 165% of the value of the transfer. This was achieved through the investment of part of the transfers in agricultural inputs. It is important to note that the pension is paid *once a year* to persons aged 65 and over, and at US\$246, it represents a significant injection of liquidity for rural farmers who have land but no cash or credit to purchase seeds and other agricultural inputs. (Bailey, May 2013)

2.4.4 CTP Supports in Promoting the Utilization of Food

The third component of the resilient food system is utilization. Achieving food security in the short term requires household or individual access to a diverse and quality diet - which is not only determined by direct access to food through production or income, but also determined by intra-household dynamics, such as women's status in the household as well as linkages to basic health care services, clean water and sanitation, and appropriate information, education and skills training to ensure that the food will also be utilized effectively in safe and wholesome daily diets for nutritional health and wellbeing. Cash transfers can directly improve the quality and diversity of diet through increased household income.

Cash transfers can also contribute to improved decision-making and allocation of food within the household. Unequal decision-making, women's lower status in the household, and limited knowledge about nutrition lead to inefficiencies in the types of food consumed and allocated within the household. Transferring cash transfers to women in the household can improve household dynamics, with a shift in consumption to child related goods and services and more efficient resource allocation – however, the impacts of CCTs on food security and nutrition are rarely evaluated from a specific gender perspective. In relation to the other dimensions under food utilization, cash transfers are likely to play a limited role here (e.g. household expenditure spent on healthcare, soap and hygiene products), unless they are implemented as part of a package which includes access to complementary services and programmes, such as health care, awareness raising and education on e.g. nutrition, health practices etc (and even then, the quality of these additional services is a key determinant of outcomes).

Even unconditional cash transfers are sometimes implemented as a package (for example with awareness raising activities) or with conditions attached which include providing training and information sessions, such as nutrition education. A cash transfer might also free women's time by reducing the need to pursue income-generating activities outside of the home or to move in search of work (but conversely if conditions are attached to the cash transfer or travel time to collect the transfer is long, it may increase women's "time poverty"). There is evidence to support the claim that cash transfers can lead to a more diverse and so better-quality diet. The Kalomo

District Pilot Social Cash Transfer Scheme in Zambia, for instance, significantly improved the diets and nutritional status of beneficiaries – consumption of fats, proteins and vitamins increased, and households living on one meal a day fell from 19% to 13%. The increase in expenditures on food as seen from the Latin American examples above (in the access subsection) is generally directed toward increasing quality, including increased consumption of food rich in protein as well as fruits and vegetables, and generally improved diversification of food stuffs. (Rebecca Holmes and Dharini Bhuvanendra, January 2013)

CTP also supports improved quality of food consumption. Households that benefited from Familias en Acción in Colombia significantly increased items rich in protein, such as milk, meat, and eggs and the increases in food expenditures in Mexico and Nicaragua were driven largely by increased consumption of meat, fruits, and vegetables. Opportunities also increased caloric diversity as measured by the number of different foodstuffs consumed. At similar overall food expenditure levels in Nicaragua show that households that receive transfers from the Atención a Crisis programme spend significantly less on staples (primarily rice, beans, and tortillas) and significantly more on animal protein (chicken, meat, milk, and eggs), as well as on fruits and vegetables. CTP did households diversify their diets; they also shifted toward higher-quality sources of calories. (Rebecca Holmes and Dharini Bhuvanendra, March 2013)

2.4.5 CTP Supports in Promoting the Food Consumption

Cash transfers might directly impact food consumption in various ways. Households might use the additional income to improve the quantity, quality and diversity of food that they consume. Cash transfers might prevent or mitigate negative responses to food insecurity, such as skipping meals. Vouchers for food rich in micronutrients might increase micronutrient intake. Cash transfers might increase dietary diversity when compared to food rations because cash can be used to purchase any type of food available. Cash transfers might indirectly improve food consumption through investment in livelihoods that increase income. There are several indicators that could be used to analyses whether these changes take place. Diet quantity can be measured by calculating the kilocalories consumed by beneficiary households. Collecting data on the actual amounts of food consumed is challenging and recall

might not be accurate. Other measures are becoming standard proxy indicators of food consumption, including the Food Consumption Score (FCS) and Household or Individual Dietary Diversity (HDDS and IDDS). Less perfectly, aid agencies can measure meal frequency, as well as analyzing how transfers were used. There are also indicators for food security based on asking questions about negative strategies adopted in response to food insecurity and feelings of anxiety, such as the Coping Strategies Index and Household Food Insecurity Access Scale. (Sarah Bailey, Kerren Hedlund, January 2012)

CTP has made improving dietary energy intake (kilocalories). Four studies calculated kilocalorie consumption. In Ecuador, cash, vouchers and food aid all led to significant increases in the value of per capita calorie consumption (ranging from 12-15%). The impact of food aid was significantly larger than that of the cash transfer. Similar findings came from Yemen, where households receiving food appeared to consume four percent more calories than those receiving cash transfers. In both cases the increase in calorie consumption was driven by increased staple food consumption. In Sri Lanka, baseline data on calorie intake data was collected during holidays, which affected consumption patterns. However, for one intervention region the decline in calorie intake was less for households receiving food aid compared to those receiving cash, indicating that food performed better than cash on this measure. A different picture emerged in Uganda, where cash transfers increased daily kilocalorie intake by nearly 20%; and food had no effect. However, the amount of time that had lapsed between the food distribution and data collection might have affected the findings on food aid. These limited examples suggest that all types of transfers can be effective in increasing calorie consumption, but that transfers that lead to large increases in staple food consumption may have the most significant impact on this measure. In three of the four cases, food aid had the greater impact.

CTP has impacted on improved dietary diversity. Dietary diversity is widely accepted as a key aspect of diet quality. Some research has found a strong correlation between dietary diversity and caloric consumption. Household dietary diversity score (HDDS) is commonly used as an indicator of household food consumption. HDDS is calculated by summing the number of food groups consumed in the previous seven days from 12 food groups. Fifteen of the studies analyzed an indicator relevant to

dietary diversity (e.g. HDDS, IDDS, FCS). Where measured, cash transfers usually resulted in the purchasing and consumption of more diverse foods compared to food aid. The dietary diversity of households in Malawi increased by 24% for households receiving cash and by 12% for those receiving a cash / food transfer, while the change for those receiving food aid was not statistically significant. Only one of the voucher interventions measured HDDS. The IFPRI study in Ecuador found that vouchers resulted in greater improvements in dietary diversity compared to both food aid and cash. Cash transfers did not always lead to stronger improvements in dietary diversity compared to food aid. In Kenya, monitoring found little divergence between households receiving cash and those receiving food aid; the former ate slightly more sugar and less fresh food. In Niger, households receiving cash opted to buy 'cheap' calories through the bulk purchase of staple grains. While there was no difference in HDDS between households receiving cash and those receiving food, the comparative impacts of the transfers on FCS were striking. Household dietary diversity does not reflect how food is distributed within households, which is better captured through individual dietary diversity (IDDS) or calculating the frequency of consumption of different food groups by individual household members. Only two evaluations undertook such analysis, and both focused on children. In Swaziland, children in households that received a cash / food transfer experienced immediate and sustained improvement in dietary diversity and consumed consistently more diverse diets than children in households that received only food aid. In Uganda, cash increased children's consumption of starches, dairy (by 66%) meat (by 100%) and eggs; whereas food had no impact in the frequency of consumption of any of the food groups.

CTP has impacted on improved Food Consumption Score. FCS is an indicator that measures dietary diversity and food frequency. It is intended to capture both diet quantity and quality. FCS has thresholds for 'poor', 'borderline' and 'adequate' food consumption. There are ongoing debates on refining this indicator. As with HDDS, cash and vouchers tended to result in larger improvements in FCS than food aid. In Yemen, the impact of cash transfers on FCS was 9% greater compared to food aid (Schwab et al., 2013). In Malawi, FCS increased from baseline levels by approximately 50% for those receiving cash, 33% for those receiving a cash / food combination and 20% for households receiving food aid. The FCS of households in

Gaza receiving food vouchers (redeemable for ten items) improved considerably more compared to those receiving in-kind food assistance of the equivalent value. Again, there were exceptions. In Niger, households receiving food transfers had much stronger improvements in FCS and were 11-12% more likely to have an ‘acceptable’ score compared to those receiving cash transfers. The increase in FCS for ‘food’ households was driven by increased consumption of items provided in the food basket (cereals, pulses and oils); whereas cash-receiving households opted to purchase staple grains in bulk, and also invested in agricultural activities and repairing houses ahead of the rainy season. In Kenya, the mean FCS was same for households receiving cash and those receiving food, but they each had slightly higher scores at different periods. This suggests that, amongst other contextual factors, seasonality influences the effectiveness of different types of transfers in improving food consumption, at least in certain contexts. In the case of Kenya, one possible explanation is that households receiving cash used a portion of the transfer to pay for school fees at the beginning of the school year. (Bailey, May 2013)

Table 2. 3: Changes in Food Consumption Scores

Intervention	Increase in FCS from baseline
Fresh Food Vouchers in OPT, Gaza (Oxfam / WFP)	89% (voucher), 53% (food), 47% (no aid)
Cash transfers, cash + food, food aid, Zimbabwe (Concern Worldwide)	57% (cash), 33% (cash + food), 18% (food)
Cash + food and food aid, Swaziland (SCUK / WFP)	80% (cash + food), 60% (food)
Cash, vouchers and food aid in Ecuador (IFPRI / WFP)	15.6% (voucher), 10.8% (cash), 10.1% (food)
Cash and food aid in Uganda (IFPRI / WFP)	2.99 points (cash), no impact (food)
Cash transfers, cash + food and food aid in Malawi (World Vision / WFP)	50% (cash), 33% for (cash + food), 20% (food)
Cash and food aid in Yemen (IFPRI / WFP)	Cash resulted in 9.2% greater increase in FCS than food aid

Source: Adapted from Bailey and Hedlund, 2012

The findings on HDDS and FCS suggest that households receiving cash and vouchers often achieve greater dietary diversity than those receiving food aid. This finding may seem unsurprising given that food rations only add two or three food groups. However, providing a staple food ration releases income that could be spent on other food items. While intuitive, the probable impact of cash and vouchers on dietary diversity, or the comparative lack of impact of food rations, is worth highlighting. At the same time, it is important to keep in mind that cash and vouchers will not always lead to improved dietary diversity compared to food aid, as poor households might use them to purchase staple foods. It would be useful to have more analysis on reasons why households use cash transfers to diversify their diets in some contexts and not in others. Possible reasons include the level of poverty of households, seasonal expenditure priorities, knowledge of nutrition, food preference and risk (e.g. food price fluctuations). The impacts of transfers on indicators of dietary diversity also might vary among beneficiaries in the same context. For example, when IFPRI compared cash, vouchers and food aid in Ecuador, vouchers had the largest impact for Ecuadorians for all three measures of dietary diversity used in the study (FCS, HDDS). For Colombian refugees, however, vouchers had the largest impact on FCS, but food had the largest impact on HDDS. The impact of cash on HDDS was also significantly larger for Colombian households. Thus, not only did impacts diverge across different groups, indicators relevant to dietary diversity did not always yield consistent results.

Meal frequency is a crude indicator of food consumption because households might adjust the quantity and quality of their food. There are limited examples from evaluations with varying results. Monitoring data from Zimbabwe showed that meals per day in the beginning months of the programme fell for households receiving food or a cash / food combination, while it remained constant for those receiving cash. In South Sudan, 50% of Food for Work (FFW) and 40% of Cash for Work (CFW) participants reported consuming more meals per day as a result of the intervention. In Pakistan, an evaluation found no significant difference between households receiving cash and those receiving food. (Bailey, May 2013)

CHAPTER III

ROLE OF CASH TRANSFER PROGRAM IN MYANMAR

3.1 Overview on Cash Transfer Program in Myanmar

Cash transfer programming (CTP) in emergencies is not new in Myanmar, with the first examples going back at least to Cyclone Nargis in 2009. CTP has also been used in humanitarian settings such as Kachin State. However, CTP is not yet being widely used for the current conflict context in Rakhine State due to the complexities of the situation. CTP has also been widely used in development programming in Myanmar, although this is not the focus of this assessment. Despite the wide cash experience in Myanmar, this assessment found there to date there has been little innovation with the majority of cash transfers always being delivered through cash in envelopes or through banking, where it exists. The current climate in Myanmar is ripe for change, development and new technologies. It is hoped the changing political environment will enable the vast options available for CTP in different contexts to be explored more fully in the future. CTP as a tool has potential in Myanmar. (HARP Facility, Kachin and Northern Shan State, Context and Vulnerability Review, October 2018)

In Myanmar, cash-based assistance has been provided in different contexts. The most widely used modality is cash for work (CFW), other modalities of cash assistance currently in use in Myanmar, namely unconditional cash transfers (UCTs) for emergency response and conditional cash transfers (CCTs) for developing human capital. CFW and UCTs have been used in Rakhine as a response to Cyclone Giri (2010); in Kachin, over 50,000 internally displaced people (IDPs) received monthly cash transfers from various partners. UCTs were also used in the Delta as a response to Cyclone Nargis (2008) and in the Dry Zone as a response to the Magwe flash floods (2011), including cash assistance provided by various government stakeholders

and development partners (DPs). UCTs for emergency response have had the objective of providing short- to medium-term relief to affected households in the Border States, enabling food security (e.g. by complementing food transfers) and contributing to the dignity and income security of vulnerable groups such as IDPs. In Rakhine, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are piloting a small-scale program that combines CFW with a complementary UCT for people unable to work. In several contexts, government and NGOs have also implemented CCTs with the longer-term objective of human capital accumulation. Other CCTs have focused on improving maternal and child health by conditioning benefits on the utilization of health services, such as SC's CCT in the Delta (2010-2011), the SC CCT pilot in Rakhine and the maternal and child health voucher scheme (MCHVS), currently being implemented by MoH in two townships in the Dry Zone (Bago region). (WORLD BANK GROUP)

The cash-based assistance in Myanmar have identified the following necessary conditions to use cash (rather than food) in a particular location: a) availability and accessibility of well-functioning markets, particularly food markets; b) preference of beneficiaries; c) cost-efficiency compared with in-kind (food) assistance; d) availability of appropriate cash delivery mechanisms; e) general safety and security; and f) low inflationary risks. Although market analysis could be strengthened, current information shows conditions on functional (food) markets and low inflationary risk have been met in most contexts where cash assistance has been provided, even in conflict or fragile areas in the Border States such as Kachin and Rakhine. For instance, in mid-2014 WFP started piloting an unconditional 'food plus cash' transfer in several IDP camps in northern Shan. Availability of bank services and food markets and beneficiaries' interest were the main criteria in selecting the location of the pilot. In IDP camps in Kachin, however, beneficiaries and local stakeholders remain wary of cash assistance, largely because of security issues and perceptions of possible inappropriate uses (e.g. drinking, gambling).⁷ On the other hand, with the exception of those in a few isolated villages, most beneficiaries in the Dry Zone prefer cash over food assistance and can easily access food markets. Local program implementers also prefer cash to food as it is easier to handle and distribute (WORLD BANK GROUP)

The UCT in the Border States have been set on the basis of complementary food rations in IDP camps, such as in WFP’s pilot in northern Shan, where IDPs receive rice and blended food plus MMK 6,000 in cash. CCTs have benefit levels that can help beneficiaries overcome barriers to human capital accumulation. For instance, the stipends pilot sets different benefit levels for primary school (MMK 5,000/month), middle school (MMK 8,000/month), and high school (MMK 10,000/ month) students to reflect how much more costly it is for families to send children to school as they grow older and to incentivize families to continue to send children to school at critical transition points (i.e. primary to middle school and middle to high school).⁹ SC’s pilot provides MMK 13,000/month to mothers in order to meet the nutritional needs of mother and child and contribute to travel expenses for accessing health and nutrition services. MCHVS provide vouchers for mothers to cover transport costs to MoH health facilities for antenatal care (ANC), delivery assisted by skilled birth attendants, and immunization of their children. (WORLD BANK GROUP)

3.2 CTP Budget Distribution and Its Beneficiary Status

Table 3. 1: CTP intervention and distribution of its budget in Myanmar

CTP intervention		2016	2017	2018
Number of people who received cash assistance		640,000	340,000	612,000
No. of States/regions		12	11	13
No. of townships		70	50	66
No. of organizations		39	32	29
Number of projects		177	153	201
% of Men and Women who received cash	% of Men	53%	51%	54%
	% of Women	47%	49%	46%
% of people who received CTP	Displaced	36%	61%	52%
	Non-displaced	43%	25%	30%
	Mix	21%	14%	18%

Source: OCHA/MIMU (2016,2017,2018)

According to the 4W -MIMU/OCAH update in 2016, an estimated 640,000 people received humanitarian cash transfers (a total of US\$13.3 million) in 2016, from at least 39 organizations. The 4W also tracked where the highest allocations were made: Rakhine State was closely followed by Kachin State. However, if Kachin are combined, more emergency CTP assistance is distributed there than in other states and regions in Myanmar. There were 39 organizations supported 177 CTP's in 70 townships from 12 states. Following to 4W – MIMU/OCHA update, CTP had reached 340,000. A total of 153 projects supported CTP with 32 organizations in 50 townships across 11 states and divisions where CTP budget was spent \$ 9.93 million. As of 2018 update by MIMU/OCHA, CTP has implemented in 66 townships from 13 states and CTP had reached 612,000 people. A total of 201 projects supported CTP with 29 organizations and CTP was spent \$ 13.91 million.

Following number of beneficiaries who received, 52% were men (Male Head of HH) and 48% with women (Female Head of HH). In general, 50% of CTP's budget was used for Internal Displaced People (IDPs), 33% for Non- Displaced People (Host community) and 17% for IDP plus host communities. In terms of CTP transfer modalities, approximately 86% of beneficiaries received direct cash while 14% with cash plus in-kind. unconditional cash grant. Out of total budget expense, 54% of cash was used for Conditional cash transfer (CCT) while 46% of cash spent for unconditional cash transfer.

According to 3W update of OCHA/MIMU, CTP has decreased in 2017 and reached an estimated 340,000 people in humanitarian setting (a total of US\$ 9.9 million) in 2017 from 32 organizations as there was no huge disaster happened in 2017 while big cyclone (Koman) hit in 2016. In 2018, implementation CTP has been gradually increased with an estimated 612,000 people have received CTP for humanitarian assistances (a total of US\$ 13.9 millions) from 29 organizations as monsoon flood happened.

Table 3. 2: CTP’s budget distribution in sectors

CTP intervention	Sectors	2016	2017	2018
Budget distribution of CTP in sectors (\$ millions)	Food	7.3	4.7	8.2
	Multi-sectoral	2.7	2.4	2.2
	Livelihoods	1.8	2.3	1.6
	Agriculture	1.5	0.4	1.5
	WASH	0.01	0.03	0.04
	Education	0	0.07	0.3
	Health	0	0.03	0.07
Total budget USD (Millions)		13.31	9.93	13.91

Source: OCHA/MIMU (2016,2017,2018)

In terms of CTP’s budget distribution to sector-wide, major portion of CTP budget spent for food security and it was come up with over \$ 8 million. For multisectoral response, livelihood activities and agriculture sectors were invested as second priority and its budget spent around \$ 2 million. Other sectors like as WASH, Education and Health were spent around \$ 1 million.

Table 3. 3: Distribution transfer modality and type of CTPs

CTP intervention	Sectors	2016	2017	2018
Transfer modalities	Cash	76%	93%	90%
	Cash plus in kind	24%	7%	10%
Type of CTP distributed	Conditional	65%	54%	43%
	Unconditional	35%	46%	57%

Source: OCHA/MIMU (2016,2017,2018)

Following to transfer modality, above table (3.3) indicated provision of direct cash transfer has increased 76% to 90% while cash plus in kind was decreased 24% to 10% within 3 years. It meant most of organizations have shifted the modality from in kind to direct cash assistance.

3.3 Demographic Profile of IDP Camps in Kachin State

The conflict between various ethnic armed groups including the Kachin Independence Army (KIA) and the Myanmar Army in Kachin that re-started in 2011 has led to mass displacements of civilians across Kachin and Northern Shan States. It is estimated that around 100,000 people remain displaced across Kachin State, of which approximately 43% are beyond Government control, in the KCA/NGCA. Access is restricted for most international organizations, but they continue to operate through close partnership with local CSOs/actors, despite increasing constraints. Women and children account for 76% of the displaced and elderly people account for 7% in Kachin State. Displaced communities are dispersed across Government and Non-government-controlled-areas (GCA/NGCA), whilst others also crossed into China to flee the security. Most of IDPs have sought shelter in the camps and camp - like settings across the areas. In GCAs, these are mainly located in building or compounds of faith-based organizations.

The humanitarian actors and local organizations have been supporting the requirements of IDPs and they have worked together to strengthen the coordination of assistances to IDPs for living in the camps and to coordinate advocacy efforts on behalf of IDPs. Their main requirements include camp coordination, education, food, health, nutrition, livelihoods, non-food items, protection and shelter, water, sanitation and hygiene.

In addition to the displacement of civilians the conflict has resulted in multiple humanitarian concern including international humanitarian and human rights violations and sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV), serious human trafficking, drug addictions and grave violations against children. These issues are compounded by the lack of livelihoods of the affected populations which is worsening the already protracted situation for those caught in this area of conflict.

In the GCA/NGCA of Kachin (an area controlled by the KIA/KIO without access for international community), the IDP camps are located on the border with China, in remote and hard-to reach areas to deliver humanitarian aid. Due to the difficult locations, IDPs have been facing challenges in accessing goods, services and economic opportunities. Furthermore, the camps are located in inconvenient

geographic terrain for settlements and for the support of livelihoods opportunities. However, one must remember that the locations of the camps were selected on the most important criteria: to save their lives.

Despite ongoing peace negotiations and two 21st-century Panglong Conferences held since the democratic government came into power in April 2016, fighting has continued between the parties and the number of IDPs increased as the conflict spread to all parts of Kachin state - mainly where KIA has its bases. Landmine and unexploded ordnance (UXO) contamination is a serious concern, especially in the KCA/NGCA affecting the safety and security of civilians and their opportunities for livelihoods and durable solutions. In addition, there is the urgency to build or repair shelters of IDPs in remote camps of KCA/NGCA where extreme weather conditions have damaged many shelters. The majority of IDPs do not have the National Registration Card (NRC), which is necessary for obtaining the border passport to cross into China. As fighting got closer and IDPs have had to flee to China, those without border passport have suffered violence during their arrest – including elderly and pregnant women.

The majority of IDPs indicated that the primary trigger of displacement was insecurity caused by armed conflicts. Notable, there were few differences between the major cause of displacement and province of origin, type of origin location and duration of displacement. IDPs from Kachin provinces were as likely to be displaced due to conflict as those from southern and eastern provinces.

As of UNHCR/CCM update in August 2018, a total of 36% of people in Kachin have displaced and living in 139 temporary sites in 13 townships. 18 sites out of 139 are located in Non-Government Controlled Area where 8 sites in Waingmaw, 5 sites in Momauk, 2 sites in Sumprabum, 2 sites in Mansi and 1 site in Chipwi townships.

The below table 3.4 shows that 59% of IDP population are in Government Controlled Area while 41% of IDPs stay in Non- Government Controlled Area. Higher proportion of IDPs and camps was observed in Kachin where IDPs located 20% in Myitkyina, 17% in Waingmaw, 17% in Hpakant while small number of IDP remains 11% in Momauk, 8% in Mansi, 7% in Bhamo, 6% in Mogaung, 4% in

Chipwi, 3% in Mohnyin, 2% in Puta-O, 2% in Sumprabum, 2% in Tanai and 1% in Shwegu townships.

Table 3. 4: Distribution of IDP camps/Sites in Kachin State

Townships	GCA		NGCA		Total	
	Sites	Population	Sites	Population	Sites	Population
Bhamo	10	7,784			10	7,784
Chipwi	4	2,074	1	936	5	3,010
Hpakant	23	3,981			23	3,981
Mansi	9	8,989	2	4,208	11	13,197
Mogaung	8	1,473			8	1,473
Mohnyin	4	356			4	356
Momauk	10	7,376	5	19,658	15	27,034
Myitkyina	28	13,090			28	13,090
Puta-O	3	412			3	412
Shwegu	2	541			2	541
Sumprabum	1	32	2	969	3	1,001
Tanai	3	1,095			3	1,095
Waingmaw	16	10,914	8	14,197	24	25,111
Total	121	58,117	18	39,968	139	98,085

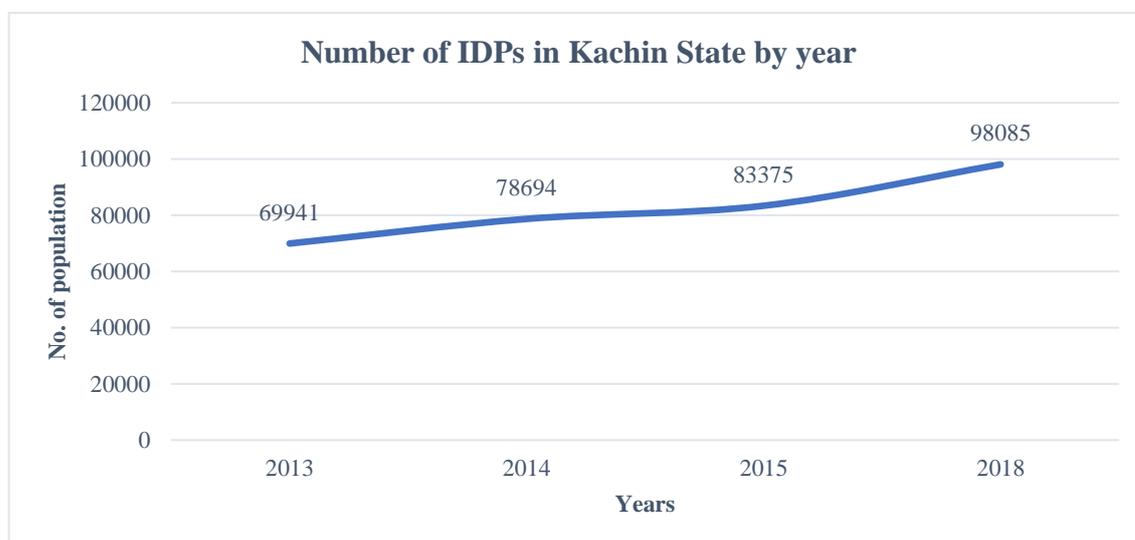
Source: UNHCR/CCM update in August 2018

Table 3. 5: Number of people displaced in Kachin state across the years

Years	2013	2014	2015	2018
No. of Internal Displaced People (IDPs)	69,941	78,691	83,375	98,085

Source: Ohm Mar Nyunt (EMDveS 12th Batch) and UNHCR

Figure 3. 1: Evolution on number IDPs increased by years through in Kachin State



Source: Ohm Mar Nyunt (EMDveS 12th Batch) and UNHCR

The situation has deteriorated significantly during 2016 and 2017, causing increasing numbers of displaced and conflict affected people. The protracted crisis in the KCA/NGCA requires urgent action towards the protection of civilians extremely close to the conflict and supporting potential livelihoods opportunities is essential.

Table 3. 6: IDP focused project under implementation in Kachin State

Sector	No of project	No of organization	No of Townships	No of Village Track/Towns	No. of Villages/Wards	No. of Camps
Agriculture	2	2	3	8	7	1
CCCM	2	2	13	53	75	111
Coordination	2	2	2	1	1	
Disaster Risk Reduction	1	1	7	16	19	25
Education	1	1	4	6	8	10
Food	6	4	12	55	76	131
Governance	1	1				
Health	11	7	8	35	41	83
Livelihood	9	6	12	37	41	54
Mine Action	4	3	7	28	40	18
Non-Food Item	1	1	6	15	11	18
Nutrition	3	2	12	43	65	112
Peace Building/Conflict Prevention	2	2	3			
Private Sector Development	1	1	4	7	5	7
Protection	27	18	14	68	79	165
Shelter	6	4	13	59	80	111
WASH	12	7	12	36	41	69
Grand Total	54	29	14	116	166	183

Source: MIMU, Oct 3, 2018

A total of 54 projects with a focus on internally displaced persons were reported by 29 organizations in 17 sectors in 166 villages and 183 IDP Camps across Kachin, representing 30% of the total projects reported for Kachin State. Myitkyina and Waingmaw townships have the highest concentration of active organizations, 17 agencies in each, followed by Mansi and Momauk with 15 agencies, Hpakant by 12 agencies, Bhamo and Mogaung with 11 agencies, 9 agencies in Shwegu, Chipwi and Mohnyin have 8 agencies, Tanai with 7 agencies, Puta-O has 4 agencies, Sumprabum with 3 agencies and Injangyang has 2 agencies.

Protection is the most widespread intervention: 18 organizations reported 27 projects in 79 villages and 165 camps, in 14 townships, particularly in Waingmaw working by 12 agencies, 11 agencies in Mansi and Momauk, 9 agencies in Myitkyina, 6 agencies in Bhamo, 5 agencies in Chipwi, Hpakant, Mogaung, and Shwegu. The most frequent activities related to Durable Solution - IDP/Returnee Housing, Land and Property which supports for 49 villages and 124 camps, Gender Based Violence is implemented in 38 villages and 75 camps and Civil Documentation in 36 villages and 93 camps.

WASH is the second main sector. A total of 7 agencies reported 12 projects in 41 villages and 69 camps in 12 townships in Kachin, particularly 5 agencies in Waingmaw, (4 agencies in each township of Chipwi, Hpakant, Mansi, Mohnyin and Myitkyina and 3 agencies in each of Bhamo, Mogaung, Momauk and Tanai. The most frequent activities are Hygiene Promotion & Behavior Change which have been implemented in 38 villages and 67 camps, Excreta Disposal/Treatment/Management – Household Level for 30 villages and 54 camps, Water Supply – community for 27 villages and 42 camps, Water Supply – Household Level for 24 villages and 50 camps and Environmental Sanitation for 20 villages and 34 camps.

Health is the third main sector. 7 organizations reported 11 projects in 41 villages, 35 village tracts and 83 camps in 8 townships across Kachin State. Townships with the highest number of these activities are Mansi and Myitkyina where 3 agencies in each are working for, while Hpakant, Mogaung and Shwegu with 2 agencies. The most of health interventions are Reproductive Health Care which has been supporting for 30 villages and 59 camps.

Livelihoods is the fourth main sector: 6 agencies reported 9 projects in 41 villages, 37 village tracts and 54 camps in 12 townships across Kachin. The most frequent activities are Cash Grants supported in 22 villages and 37 camps, Income Generation Support for 19 villages and 15 camps, and Vocational Education and Training for 10 villages and 16 camps.

Food is the fifth main sector: 4 organizations reported 6 projects 76 villages and 131 camps in 12 townships. Projects are most concentrated in Chipwi and Waingmaw implemented by 4 agencies while Bhamo, Mansi, Momauk and Myitkyina

with 3 agencies. The activity of General Food Distribution is only active in Food sector.

Shelter is sixth main sector. 4 agencies are working in 80 villages, 111 camps, CCCM by 2 agencies in 75 villages and 111 camps, Nutrition by 2 agencies working in 65 villages and 112 camps, Mine Action by 3 agencies working in 40 villages and 18 camps, DRR by 1 agency working in 19 villages and 25 camps, Non-Food Items distribution by 1 agency in 11 villages and 18 camps, Education by 1 agency working in 8 villages and 10 camps, Agriculture by 2 agencies in 7 villages and 1 camp, Private Sector Development by 1 agency in 5 villages and 7 camps, Peace Building / Conflict Prevention by 2 agencies working in 3 townships, Coordination led by 2 agencies and Governance by 1 agency.

3.4 Cash Transfer Program in Kachin

According to the information gathered, cash programming in Kachin started in 2012, in response to the resurgence of conflict and ensuing displacement. Initially, several local organizations (Metta, KMSS, KBC, shalom (Nyein Foundation) – supported and with funding from international organizations) provided supplementary, unconditional cash grants (initially called ‘cash for curry’) with the aim of increasing dietary diversity. These grants were provided across the board at a rate of MMK 6-8,000 per person per month (in both GCA and NGCA). This support was discontinued at various stages, depending on the organization – but ultimately ended in 2016 due to funding shortages. These distributions were entirely implemented through ‘cash in envelopes. In addition, Metta has since 2012 also been providing Non-Food Items (NFIs) through a voucher system – market fairs are organized during which recipients can use the vouchers with a limited number of pre-identified suppliers. (HARP Facility, Kachin and Northern Shan State, Context and Vulnerability Review, October 2018)

Following this first wave of CTP, the discussion around providing cash instead of food rations led to several assessments conducted in 2014 – among which the WFP feasibility assessment conducted in GCA and which suggested a pilot intervention in several camps in the vicinity of Myitkyina (including Waingmaw). Following a first pilot intervention, the WFP programme was then progressively widened to most GCA

locations. The introduction of cash was implemented at the same time and as part of the prioritization/targeting exercise in 2016. The WFP programme is now the largest CTP project in Kachin – as of March 2018, a total of over 42,000 IDPs are being assisted through monthly cash interventions – and approximately 1,400 of them receive cash through the e-wallet pilot scheme. In parallel, for NGCA locations, both Trocaire/KMSS and Oxfam/KBC conducted similar targeting/prioritization exercises and introduced limited CTP gradually in 2016. These two projects now assist the majority of people in NGCA with food assistance, but given the challenging context, only some of these are currently receiving cash as part of a mixed modality (‘rice plus cash’).

In NGCA, the most recent project to introduce CTP (again to replace parts of the food basket) is implemented by HPA. An additional project by ADRA/KBC currently also provides supplementary cash grants on top of the grants mentioned above – across GCA and NGCA locations. Most other CTP interventions consist of livelihoods support through Conditional Cash Grants (CCGs). These are implemented by a variety of organizations including the Red Cross Movement, Trocaire/BRIDGE, ADRA/KBC, DRC, NRC, SI, Metta.

These cash grants can therefore be grouped into two major categories. CTP was intervened for emergency relief while they account for the highest proportion of funding overall, these are mostly relatively small, unconditional and unrestricted cash grants, which are 7 primarily provided to replace food distributions, while a small number are also provided as conditional cash grants to support, for instance, the running of WASH committees; and conditional cash grant was provided which are primarily provided as part of livelihoods interventions. The main purpose of these grants is to provide livelihoods opportunities through income generating activities, with components aimed at vocational training, increasing financial literacy and psychosocial support. While the majority of these activities require recipients to come forward with business proposals, at least one organization also supports revolving funds: after an initial injection of funding by the organization, these funds are then run by the community.

According to the information received, the main donors supporting CTP across Kachin include HARP-F, ECHO and USAID – as well as NGOs such as WHH.

OCHA's MHF has also supported some CTP activities as part of emergency responses. Many organizations will not disclose their funding sources and therefore this information is necessarily incomplete. (HARP Facility, Kachin and Northern Shan State, Context and Vulnerability Review, October 2018)

3.5 CTP Transition in Kachin

In 2016, targeting/prioritization exercises were conducted in the food sector by the main organizations providing food rations (together with donors funding these) – WFP, Trocaire/KMSS included. Key reasons for the prioritization of assistance included donor priorities, the changes in the funding situation, the protracted nature of displacement and therefore the need to identify measures that support resilience and if possible strengthen livelihoods. At the same time, these organizations also assessed the feasibility of switching to CTP. While information was available on how the switch to CTP was communicated by Trocaire/KMSS, little information was available for this Review on how WFP communicated the change to CTP to the recipients. If a specific AAP study is conducted in the future, it could be interesting to document how WFP communicated this switch, as there may be valuable lessons to be learnt from this process. The centerpiece of the prioritization exercise (see for example Trocaire/KMSS presentation and feasibility study) was a community-based targeting approach, which allows the community to identify criteria for selection of those households that continue to receive the equivalent of 100% of the food basket (in cash), and those households who have some income and livelihoods opportunities and therefore receive the reduced rations of 70-80%. Although several challenges were reportedly encountered during the switch, the key measure to ensure a smooth transition was clear and transparent communication of the changes. This is also the case for the switch to CTP recently undertaken by HPA, where several ways for sharing information with IDPs were chosen in parallel to ensure adequate dissemination (camp notice boards, community meetings, hotlines, person-to-person discussions).

3.6 CTP Impact Review in Kachin

A number of organizations shared the results of Post-Distribution Monitoring exercises, which provide important insights into how CTP is accepted by recipients

and how they prioritize the usage of cash received. Regular PDM is essential for CTP. This distinguishes CTP from in-kind assistance and allows for interesting uses of PDM information for the improvement of programming in the future. However, these opportunities are still rarely used. Most organizations interviewed conduct PDM monthly or bi-monthly for regular cash distributions, although some conduct them quarterly. While PDM ensures the control of the quality of the delivery process and appropriateness of the transfers (especially if used in conjunction with regular market monitoring), it also provides important insights into how unconditional cash grants are used. In the case of cash grants to replace emergency food rations, while the primary intention is to ensure adequate food intake, the grants used in Kachin are unrestricted – there is no restriction on how the money is spent. All of the PDM information provided for cash grants to replace and/or to supplement food rations indicates that apart from food purchases, the main purposes these grants were used for are education (school fees) and health expenses (see PDM results from ADRA, HPA).

According to ADRA/KBC's PDM of its 2017 CTP project, for instance, which provides supplementary CTP on top of the monthly CTP distributions, their cash assistance was used primarily for food, education and health needs – with 91.2% of households using some of their cash assistance for education needs. The fact that households are using at least some of their CTP assistance for education expenses is a persistent trend which has been highlighted through monitoring over the past few years, and recent PDMs confirm this. The question remains how this could be addressed. It would be interesting for CTP actors to have a discussion with education sector partners to elucidate what these expenses are for (school fees, school materials, uniforms, etc.) and what support is being or could be provided by education sector actors. Another approach could be to take education expenses into consideration for any future common, multi-purpose grants.

As a first step, PDM data from various actors – WFP's PDM data, given the dominant size of its project – would need to be compiled and jointly analyzed to inform any cross-sector discussion. Several NGOs interviewed mentioned that they were not convinced that their PDM or feedback mechanism was entirely effective. The main reason was that in all cases examined, the organization distributing the grants was also the organization conducting the PDM. This means that in case there

are issues with the distribution itself, IDPs are not likely to be honest in their feedback to the same organization. Another aspect concerned the fact that tools were not harmonized between organizations, leading to difficulties in reaching overall conclusions on the impact of CTP programmes. Organizations see the potential for harmonization and improvements. This is an opportunity for donors including the HARP-F to support the design of common tools across organizations distributing these grants, which would then allow for comparison and for discussion of common solutions to issues identified/lesson learning.

In order to achieve common analysis of monitoring results, options such as peer-monitoring or hiring common service providers could be considered. For instance, several monitors could be trained in each organization to make up an interagency team which then monitors all projects together, in regular intervals. While an external service provider may not have access to NGCA, an inter-agency team would face fewer access constraints and the approach would increase the objectivity of the results. Taking this one step further, several organizations mentioned that despite the fact that CTP had been implemented for a number of years, no study had been undertaken to examine the real impact of these projects (including their impact on recipients, but also on local markets). PDM exercises which feature the limitations mentioned above are being undertaken to ensure quality of the project, but without highlighting bigger picture aspects. HARP-F and others could consider hiring technical capacity to conduct an impact study in order to improve future programming. (HARP Facility, Review of cash transfer programmes in Kachin and northern Shan states, June 2018)

CHAPTER IV

Survey Analysis

4.1 Survey Profile

The study has focused on five remote camps located in Waingmaw and Chipwi Townships in NGCA of Kachin State, in North Myanmar where Oxfam and the Kachin Baptist Convention (KBC) are currently implementing food security interventions through CTP. The Waingmaw township is one of main townships in Kachin state and it situates within 5,009 Sq-Km and Density is 25.06/Sq-Km. Within Waingmaw township, population is 125,544 according to census data 2014. There are 25,111 internal displaced people who lives in 16 IDP camps which located in government-controlled areas with 10,914 population and 14 IDP camps in non-government-controlled area which population of 14,197. Waingmaw township have the highest concentration of active organizations and 17 agencies are working for IDP community. In Waingmaw township, 12 agencies are working for protection, 5 agencies for WASH, 4 agencies for food and one agency for cash transfer program.

Within Chiphwe township, population is 1,931. There are 3,010 internal displaced people who lives in 4 IDP camps which located in government-controlled areas with 2,074 population and 5 IDP camps in non-government-controlled area which population of 936. In Waingmaw township, 8 agencies are working for IDP community. 5 agencies are working for protection, 4 agencies for WASH, 4 agencies for food and one agency for cash transfer program.

Since 2013, Oxfam and KBC have been supporting food aid to over 5,860 IDPs across five camps from Waingmaw and Chipwe townships in Kachin state where camps are in the remote border areas with limited functioning markets and livelihood opportunities.

Table 4. 1: Camp population

State	Townships	IDP Camps	Total HHs	Population		
				Male	Female	Total
Kachin	Waimaw	Sha It Yang (MGZ)	395	773	852	1625
	Waimaw	Maga Yang	404	748	853	1601
	Waimaw	Hkau Shau (BP 12)	138	418	402	820
	Waimaw	Pajau / Jan Mai	179	386	319	705
	Chipwi	Hpare Hkyer - BP6	167	337	512	849
Total			1283	2662	2938	5600

Source: Survey data (2019)

The project was targeted four IDP camps namely Sha-It yang, Maga Yang, Pajau / Jan Mai, Hkau Shaung (BP 12) in Waingmaw townships and one IDP camp which is called Hpare Hkyer - BP6 from Chiphwe township. The project has covered 56,000 IDPs (Internal Displaced People) from 1,283 households.

Table 4. 2: Transfer modality

Came Name	In kind – food ration				Cash	Remark
	Rice	Oil	Pulse	Salt		
Hkau Shaung (BP 12)	X	x	x	x		Full ration
Maga Yang	X				X	Rice plus Cash
Pajau / Jan Mai	x				X	Rice plus Cash
ShaItYang	X				X	Rice plus Cash
Hpare Hkyer - BP6	X				x	Rice plus Cash

Source: Survey data (2019)

Since 2016 and Cash transfer has been shifted to a more targeted intervention where rice plus cash was provided to four camps namely Maga Yang, Pajau / Jan Mai, ShaItYang and Hpare Hkyer - BP6 IDP camps as those camps have better access to markets. Provision of cash assistance was intended to buy other food items such as oil, pulse and salt. There has been only one camp named Hkau Shaung (BP 12) received in kind food assistance (rice, oil, pulse and salt) as that camp could not access to market.

Table 4. 3: Provision of food basket and cash amount

Items	Quantity/person/month	Kcal/person/day
Rice (kg)	13.50	1,620
Salt (kg)	0.25	-
Oil (liter)	1.00	266
Pulse (kg)	1.80	340
Cash (Yuan)	40	It equivalences with 8,000 MMK

Source: Survey data (2019)

In terms of transfer modality, rice plus cash was provided to Maga Yang, Pajau / Jan Mai, ShaItYang and Hpare Hkyer - BP6 IDP camps. Each IDP received 13.5 kg of rice and 40 yuan which equivalence 8,000 Myanmar kyat on monthly basis. Hkau Shaung (BP 12) was provided full ration package which included rice (13.5 kg), oil (1 liter), pulse (1.8 kg) and salt (0.25 kg) per person per month. The findings of field study will present how CTP impact on food security of internal displaced people from these five camps.

4.2 Survey Method

This study was used descriptive studies design to observe, describe and record the aspects if a naturally occurred situation and data was collected from four IDP camps from Waingmaw and one IDP camp from Chiphwe township. The study involved twelve focus groups discussions (FGDs) in five IDP camps, with an average of eight respondents per group. This was to come up with community driven views on the impact of CTP that their local knowledge is the most participatory valid scientific sense-making. The participants for the FGDs were selected using purposive sampling. The focus group discussions were conducted with heterogeneous members of the displaced people community of different CMC group, men group, women group and camp-based retailers. The sample size was selected by systematic random sampling based on the targeted households of IDP camps. The sampling interval is calculated by dividing the total number of households in the targeted IDP camps. Total sample size (252 HHs) is calculated with 5.5% error level and 95% confidence level to reflect the targeted population. The research data was collected through structured individual HH interviews by using electronically tablets that will be generated in survey CTO for analysis.

Table 4. 4: Summary of survey methodology matrix

Method	Description	Data/indicators
Focus group discussions with household members	Open-ended interviews held with household members; the impact of CTP, food Security, Social economic impact, gender and protection risks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appropriateness and preference of CTP intervention • CTP improved Gender and protection risk
Questionnaires	Close-ended interviews held with selected members of the community, designed to bring out the effect of CTP to targeted IDP communities in terms of food Security and social economic. The main emphasis was on the impact of CTP on food security to Internal Displaced Persons	Disaggregated data on change process as a result of CTP interventions and Food Security level within targeted IDPs locations.

Source: Survey data (2019)

Table 4. 5: Distribution of survey sample HH by township and IDP sites

Townships	Waingmaw				Chiphwe	Total
	Sha It Yang	Maga Yang	Pajau	Hkau Shaung	Hpare Hkyer	
Total HHs	392	405	176	139	167	1,279
Sample HHs	63	86	40	39	24	252
Sample interval HH	6	5	4	7	7	-
% of distributed HH	16%	21%	13%	28%	14%	20%

Source: Survey data (2019)

In the studying of CTP impacts on food security of IDP community, a total of 252 respondents were selected IDPs from Waingmaw and Chipwe townships. The socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents which include age, gender, material status and total family members are shown in table 4.6.

Table 4. 6: Number of Gender disaggregated HH interviews

IDP camps	Gender of Respondent		Gender of HH Head		Marital Status of HH Head			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Married	Single	Widowed	Divorced
Hkau_shau	16	23	27	12	36	2	1	0
Hpare	14	0	4	10	12	0	2	0
Maga_Yang	15	61	20	56	70	3	2	1
Pajau	4	28	7	25	29	0	2	1
Sha_It_Yang	12	36	10	38	46	0	2	0
Total	61	148	68	141	193	5	9	2
% ratio	29%	71%	33%	67%	92%	3%	4%	1%

As shown in the graphs above, table (4.7), most of the interviewed households (71%) were female while 29% were male. In terms of gender of household heads, most of interviews were female headed with 67% whilst (33%) were male headed. However, there were more male-headed households in Hkau-Shau IDP community. Ninety - two per cent (92%) of the household heads were married whilst 4% were Widow, 3% were single headed households and 1% was divorced Head of household.

Table 4. 7: Number of respondents participated in FGDs

FGD No.	FGD with	Male	Female	Total
FGD 1	CMC	4	0	4
FGD 2	Women	0	9	9
FGD 3	Men	8	0	8
FGD 4	Retailers	1	8	9
FGD 5	CMC	4	2	6
FGD 6	Women	0	9	9
FGD 7	Men	7	0	7
FGD 8	Retailers	0	9	9
FGD 9	CMC	5	2	7
FGD 10	Women	0	9	9
FGD 11	Men	11	0	11
FGD 12	Retailers	0	4	4
Total		40	52	92

Source: Survey data (2019)

In addition, a total of 12 FGD (Focus Group Discussion) were conducted through five IDP's camps. The FGD was targeted with CMC (Camp management

Committee), women groups, men groups and camp-based retailers. The FGD was reached 40 people with men and 52 people with women participations.

Quantitative data was entered and analyzed using the Survey CTO which is the most reliable, secure, and scalable mobile data collection platform for researchers and professionals working in offline settings. Survey CTO makes increase the quality of data, research, and analysis by providing a premium technology. The analysis of the data involved two main stages. Firstly, the database from the survey CTO is downloaded and imported the data to Excel for cleaning, analysis and visualization. Secondly, the variable combinations data analysis was made, and results posted to MS Excel for graphical presentation. This is a write-up on the findings of the study that had a bearing on the research question. The presentations of the findings are plain text, tables, charts and graphs.

4.3 Survey Result

Survey was a household survey and it targeted to five IDP camps in the Waingmaw and Chiphwe townships. Survey questionnaire was designed based on the findings of international scholars regarding CTP impacts on food security. It consists of nine sections, named 1) Cash utilization, 2) sufficient of cash size, 3) CTP impact on Household income and expenditure, 4) CTP impacts on HHs food security, 5) CTO impact on markets, 6) CTP impacts on resilience and sustainability, 7) CTP effects on coping strategy, 8) CTP impacts on Gender and Protection and 9) appropriateness and preference of CTP.

4.3.1 Utilization of Cash and Sufficiency of Cash Amount

Cash transfer program has provided to IDP households 40 yuan (which equivalent to around 8,000 MMK) per person per month to purchase other food items such as oil, pulse and salt, etc. The survey was conducted to see the proportion of money spent on food and other HH needs. The findings of the survey revealed that, majority of the cash provided to HHs was spent on purchase of food and followed by health and education.

Table 4. 8: Cash utilized with the received cash assistance

Sectors	% of cash utilized
Food	59%
Education	21%
Health	15%
Reimburse loan or credit	2%
Livelihood	2%
Other	1%

Source: Survey data (2019)

The table (4.8) shows that food accounts for 59% of the total cash amount, while, education for 21%, education for 15%, reimbursement of debt for 2% and investment in livelihood for 1% and others like as transport fees or sharing others for 2%. This shows that, although there was food need within IDP's households, the respondent HHs are still decided to spend 41% of the cash was being provided on other needs rather than purchasing food.

Table 4. 9: Cash sharing to others with the received cash assistance

People who was shared cash	% of respondents who shared cash
Relatives	50%
Neighbors	33%
Friends	17%

Source: Survey data (2019)

In addition to that 70% of the beneficiaries reported not sharing the received cash whilst 30% said they shared part of the cash they received. For those who shared the cash, as table (4.9) mentioned that 50% beneficiaries shared with relatives and 17% shared with friends and 33% shared with neighbors. The beneficiaries were happy to share as high as 4 yuan and the lowest amount that was shared 1 yuan. Ninety eight percent (98%) of the beneficiaries were not aware of anybody misusing the cash like using it on alcohol and other expenses not benefiting the household.

4.3.2 Sufficient or Insufficient of Cash Amount

Cash transfer aims to meet basic food need of IDP's household. Therefore, the beneficiary's perceptive on adequacy or inadequate of the money received was collected during the survey. The survey findings showed that 40% of the respondents reported that the cash received was inadequate to meet their food and other needs while 60% of respondents said they received cash amount was adequate. For those who indicated that the cash amount was not adequate because the cash was not enough to buy basic food due to instability of Yuan exchange's rate and they need to spend cash for other priority needs such as health care, education and investment to livelihood.

4.3.3 Cash Transfer Impact on Household Income and Expenditure

It is also important to see how Cash transfer has indirect impact to household incomes. The findings of study revealed that CTP helped source of household incomes increased.

Table 4. 10: CTP improved the diversified HH's income

No. of income sources	% of Male respondents	% of Female respondents
Four income sources	0	2%
Three income sources	5%	11%
Two income sources	11%	32%
One income source	16%	23%

Source: Survey data (2019)

The table (4.10) represented that 43% of respondents (32% Women Headed HH and 11% Male Headed HH) have two income sources while, 16% have three income sources (11% Male Headed and 5% Female headed), 2% male headed HH with four income sources. Only 39% of respondents (23% Women Headed HH and 16% Meal Headed HH) have only one income source. As a result of cash transfer intervention, cash transfer has made a positive impact to household income sources increased.

Table 4. 11: Sources of household income

Source of income	% of respondents
Cash assistance by KBC	87%
Livestock product sales	28%
Crops sale	13%
Salary employees	13%
Casual labors	12%
Remittance	4%
Cash assistance from other NGOs	4%
Sale wild food	2%
Small business (shop keeping in camp)	2%
Others	14%

Source: Survey data (2019)

Furthermore, the above (table 4.11) indicated that the major income source with 87% of respondents received cash assistance by KBC and 28% of total sample HH have received the income by selling the livestock products. The findings indicated that the IDP's household relied on humanitarian assistances, especially cash transfer program since the livelihood opportunity in camps are very limited. The findings of survey revealed that CTP has positively impact on HH incomes increased by 150 to 264 Yuan (1 yuan = 200 MMK) in comparison with before transfer programing.

Table 4. 12: CTP helps other important expenditure

Type of expenditure for IDP households (ordered by importance)	% of respondents
Food	93%
Education	60%
Health	35%
Social expense (Wedding, funerals, etc..)	27%
House's equipment purchased	24%
Clothes	13%
Fuel	13%
Livestock	6%
Agriculture inputs	1%
Other productive assets	1%

Source: Survey data (2019)

It is also important to know at how cash transfer impact on household expenditure. In many cases, it is very known that cash transfer has a positive impact on improving household expenditure. The findings of survey as above table (4:12) indicates that 93% of respondents reported the greatest expenditure was to purchase food while, 60% of respondents referred education and 35% for health. It was found that cash transfer intervention was positively contributed to social welfare which was followed by 27% respondents indicated spending on social welfare such as wedding was greatest expenditure.

4.3.4 The Effects of Cash Transfer on HHs Food Security

The survey looked at the availability food at HHs and how food long lasting with the received cash assistance.

Table 4. 13: Food lasting at HH with the received cash

Food lasted at household with received cash	% of respondents
Food lasting for one week	10%
Food lasting for two weeks	65%
Food lasting for three weeks	15%
Food lasting for four weeks	10%

Source: Survey data (2019)

The findings of survey revealed that 10% of the respondents indicated that the food which they bought using the cash from cash transfer project lasted for 1 week, 65% have their food lasting for about 2 weeks while 15% indicated that the food lasted for 3 weeks. Only 10% of the respondents reported the food they buy with the cash transfer can last them for a month. It was learnt that proving cash assistance was insufficient as beneficiaries needed to spend cash on others necessary things despite cash transfer intended to purchase food items. The findings of survey highlighted additional unconditional cash grant was required to support IDP's HHs in parallel with cash transfer for food.

Table 4. 14: Changes in food consumption

Changes in food consumption pattern	% of respondents
Increased a lot	20%
Increased slightly	80%
Decreased a lot	0%
Decreased slightly	0%
No changes/ same	0%

Source: Survey data (2019)

On food consumption arising from the cash transfer programme, majority of the respondents (100%) indicated that food consumption on their households increased as a result of the cash they received from the cash transfer programme where 20% of the respondents indicated that there was increased a lot while 80% of respondents said increased slightly in the quantity of food consumed by the household even after receiving the cash from the cash transfer programme. Those who indicated food consumption increase mentioned that their families were able to eat three times a day from previously two meal per day.

Table 4. 15: Food diversification

Type of Food	% of respondents
Any cereals	100%
Any roots/tubers	78%
Vegetables/leaves	94%
Any fruits	36%
Meats	44%
Eggs	53%
Fish (Fresh or dried)	36%
Pulse	58%
Milk/milk products	18%
Oil	98%
Sugar	38%
Condiments (coffee/tea)	32%

Source: Survey data (2019)

It is also important to see the beneficiary's perceptiveness on the size of cash amount they received from the cash transfer program. The findings of the survey indicated that 40% of respondents reported that the provision of cash amount was insufficient to cover the household's basic food because the beneficiaries had spent on other necessary things such as health and education even though provision of cash assistance was intended to purchase food. However, it was found that CTP helped improve food diversity where over 50% of beneficiaries have eaten basic main food of rice, plus, roots, vegetables and oil which is a positive impact on the overall food security aspect. However, less than 50% of beneficiaries are not able to eat other food items such as fruits, meats, fish, milk products and sugar.

Table 4. 16: Increased HDDS score in food consumption

HDDS results on food consumption	% of respondents who have reached HDDS
Good diet (9 -12)	16%
Average diet (5 – 8)	71%
Poor diet (0 -4)	13%

Source: Survey data (2019)

It is generally acknowledged that, even if households meet their daily calorie requirements, still they may be considered as food insecure households provided that the households consume a non-diversified, unbalanced and unhealthy diet. The household Diet Diversity Score (HDDS) was used for this particular survey as one of the food security measurements just to see how cash interventions have been utilized and impacted dietary diversity, food utilization and nutrition among the target respondents. Household dietary diversity is the number of unique foods consumed by household members over a given period which is used for measuring household food access. Information on household food consumption has been collected using the previous 24-hours as a reference period (24-hour recall). The findings of the survey revealed that HDDS is improved as a result of the cash transfer programme. The figure (4.16) indicates that 87% of beneficiaries were above acceptable scores of HDDS while 13% of beneficiaries were in poor HDDS score.

Table 4. 17: Increased Food consumption scores

The result of food consumption scores	% of respondents who have reached FCS.
Acceptable Food Consumption Score (>42)	87%
Borderline Food Consumption Score (28.5 – 42))	10%
Poor Food Consumption Score (0 - 28)	3%

Source: Survey data (2019)

Furthermore, the food consumption score (FCS)’s indicator was used to measure the level of food security. Food Consumption Score is used as a proxy indicator for measuring the current food security situation of target households. FCS is a composite score based on dietary frequency, food frequency and relative nutrition importance of different food groups. Food frequency is the number of days (in the past 7 days) that a specific food item has been consumed by a household. Household food consumption is the consumption pattern (frequency * diversity) of households over the past seven days. The score for each food group is calculated by multiplying the number of days the commodity was consumed and its relative weight and is calculated based on the past 7-day food consumption recall period for the household. Then based on the FCS, the households were classified in to three categories: poor consumption (FCS = 0 to 28); borderline (FCS = 28.5 to 42); and acceptable consumption (FCS = >42). The findings of survey revealed that 97% of beneficiaries reported their food security are in good condition which followed by 78% of the respondent households was within acceptable food consumption score, while, 10% was with the borderline and only 3% in poor food consumption categories. This clearly indicates that how the cash transfer intervention has achieved a positive change on the food security situation of the target households.

4.3.5 Cash Transfer Effects on Markets

One of the indicators for choosing cash transfer intervention depends on access to markets and its market functionality. Cash transfer also intended to support local markets growth. Therefore, the survey was designed to look at whether IDP have accessed to markets and its practicing.

Table 4. 18: Where cash was spent

Type of markets where cash was spent	% of respondents
Main market	19%
Nearest market	32%
Local market	49%

Source: Survey data (2019)

The findings of survey revealed that 49% of respondents used the money within local market and the remaining 19% spent the cash within the main market and 32% spent the cash at their nearest market. This is a clear indication that the cash transfer programme is supporting the local businesses to grow. On average, most of the beneficiaries purchased food items and commodities from the nearest markets which are located inside the camps and a few beneficiaries go to main markets which is taken for more than one hour. In addition to that, survey has found that 92% respondents indicated they walked the market to purchase the items while, 8% of respondents indicated that they used motor bikes to reach the main markets.

It is known that, despite its importance in stimulating market and in strengthening local business, most of the time cash distribution affects the market prices of the products. The findings of survey revealed that 64% of respondents did not observe changes of goods due to the project while 36% indicated that there were price fluctuations of commodities on the market due to the cash transfer project. Those who observed price changes, it was because the supply of the basic commodities in the market was low, the traders realized that the beneficiaries were given the money by the organization, poor roads affected the availability of commodities on the market and prices increased on a daily basis due to the weak local currency.

Table 4. 19: CTP impact on camp-based retailer's sale

CTP impacts on selling goods of camp-based retailers	% of respondents
Increased on selling goods	36%
Decreased on selling goods	4%
The same on selling goods	60%

Source: Survey data (2019)

The survey also found that CTP has positively impact to growing local markets. The table (4.19) shows that 36% of the total surveyed respondents (retailers, and wholesaler) said that sale's rate was increased after the cash distribution and 60% of the surveyed retailers said that sale 'rate remained the same. Only 4% of surveyed retailers reported that the sale's rate was decreased they could not sell the variety of items.

Table 4. 20: CTP impacts on changes in market's price

Made - any - changes to food price due to CTP	% of respondents
CTP impacts on changing the market's prices	32%
CTP impacts on not changing the market's prices	68%

Source: Survey data (2019)

In terms of changing in food price due to Cash transfer program, the table (4.20) indicates that 32% of the total surveyed respondents (Kiosk, retailers, and wholesaler) reported the food price was changed due to Cash transfer program while 68% of retailers said the food price was not changed.

4.3.6 CTP Impact on Resilience and Sustainability

In terms of CTP impact on resilience and sustainability, the survey found that only 5% of the respondents indicated that the cash transfer programme to move a step towards resilience and sustainable livelihoods at household level while 95% of respondents said that CTP did not make any impact on resilience and sustainability. For those who indicated CTP made positive impact on resilience and sustainability, they reported the programme provided cash for enough food, the households managed to spend for health, education of their children and other needs

4.3.7 CTP Effects on Coping Strategy

The survey was followed to analyze the impact of CTP on coping strategy, as a result of CTP intervention, 100% beneficiaries indicated that CTP supported on improving coping strategy. They could have been involved in several negative coping mechanisms if they were not provided with the cash.

Table 4. 21: Showing coping mechanism

Type of coping mechanisms	% of respondents
Continuous piece work	25%
Sale of livestock	10%
Reducing the number of meals per day for adults	15%
Borrowing money	35%
Reducing the number of meals per day for children	10%
Taking children out of school	5%
Migration for work	15%
Finding casual work	60%

Source: Survey data (2019)

The below table (4.21) indicated that most of the beneficiaries could have been involved in continuous piece work (25%), sold livestock (10%), could have reduced number of meals per day for the adults (15%), borrowing money (35%), could have reduced number of meals per day for children (10%), taking children out from school (5%), migrant for work (15%) and finding casual work (60%). So, the cash provided reduced the risks of household getting involved in negative coping strategies to survive during emergency.

4.3.8 CTP Impact on Gender and Protection Risks

In terms safe Cash transfer programing, it is necessarily to find out how CTP impact on gender and protection concerns. The study found that that all women respondents felt safe at the distribution site as female staff from 2 to 10 included in each food distribution committee and 100% of respondent women reported that they felt safe along the way to reach the distribution points and no experience for gender/ethnic discrimination. All respondents did not face any experience for paying or collection of illegal fees/tax by the distributor and other. All respondents have been aware the complaints mechanism which developed by Oxfam and KBC. In terms of safety and security to access cash distribution sites, the survey found that 96% of beneficiaries reported they felt safe to access distribution site while 4% of beneficiaries said unsafe to go distribution sites because road is not good, especially in rainy season.

Table 4. 22: Decision making power in HH

Decision making power to use cash at HHs	% of respondents
Man	16%
Woman	58%
Both	25%
Other	1%

Source: Survey data (2019)

In family dynamics decision making has been critical especially when it comes to the use and control of resources. The survey found that Cash transfer was collected by females (58%) as compared to male household head (16%). Mostly the cash was collected by the female spouses in cases where the male household head was registered as a beneficiary. In terms of decision making to use cash at household, the figure (4.23) indicated that 58% of respondents revealed that woman decides to use the cash in the household's level. 16% of respondents reported that man decides the use of cash in their family. 25% of respondents reported that both man and woman decide the use of cash in their household and 100% of respondents said that they did not face any domestic violence and no cases of GBV or relationship abuse were reported of cash distribution activity.

4.3.9 Appropriateness and Preference of CTP

In many cases, CTP has made reducing household risks. The survey looked at whether CTP helped to reduce any risks at Household level.

Table 4. 23: Whether Cash transfer helped household to reduce risks

Whether CTP reduced risks	% of respondents
CTP has reduced HH's risks	55%
CTP has not reduced HH's risk	35%
Don't know	10%

Source: Survey data (2019)

The findings of survey revealed that fifty five percent (55%) of the respondents indicated that the cash transfer programme helped them reduce household

risks whilst 36% indicated that the programme did not help them reduce the household risks and 10% of the respondents said that they were not sure if the cash transfer programme reduced the household risks.

Table 4. 24: How good Cash Transfer

Beneficiary's perspective on CTP	% of respondents
CTP is very good	38%
CTP is good	58%
Neither	3%
Poor	1%

Source: Survey data (2019)

In terms of how Cash Transfer good for their lives, it was found that 58% of the respondents reported that the cash grants were good while 38% indicated that the cash grants were very good in meeting their needs.

Table 4. 25: Reasons for choosing cash

Reasons for choosing cash	% of respondents
Cash can be used for different needs	20%
Easy to distribute	5%
Easy to transport	8%
Increased choice	52%
Others	15%

Source: Survey data (2019)

On beneficiary preference on the mode of the assistance, the study found that 90% of respondents preferred cash whilst 10% preferred to be assisted with food aid. Those who chose cash, 52% indicated that cash gave them an increased choice of food to purchase and 20% said that they could use the cash to purchase different commodities apart from food. Beneficiaries gave the following reasons for liking the cash transfer programme; it built household assets and it developed their skills in agriculture and also it assisted them start small-scale businesses.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1 Findings

This survey was conducted with the main objective of determining the impact of the cash transfer in relation to addressing basic food needs of targeted IDP communities and to measure indirect effects on social economic impacts. The survey was conducted in IDP camps from Waingmaw and Chiphwe township in Kachin state on 252 randomly selected HHs. Moreover, FGDs, KII, Observation and Review of cash transfer related documents were some of the methodology used for collecting data. The findings are summarized below.

Despite cash transfer was intended to purchase basic food, the study has found that cash was used not only for buying food but also buying for other needs. Major portion of cash amount was spent for food by 59% of the total cash amount while, around 41% of cash amount was spent for such as education, health, investment in livelihood and other social needs which was indirect impact of cash transfer. Since cash was not use fully to purchase food, 40% of beneficiaries indicated the receiving cash amount was insufficient to buy basic food need. It was therefore learnt that unconditional cash grant should be supported to IDP community while cash transfer targeted to buy food.

Cash transfer has made a positive impact on increased household income's sources and level of income. 43% of respondents have two income sources while, 16% have three income sources, 2% male headed HH with four income sources. Only 39% of respondents have only one income source. The average monthly income at HH has increased by 150 to 264 Yuan (1 yuan = 200 MMK) in comparison with before transfer programing.

Food security at HH has been significantly improved. 100% of beneficiaries reported consumption on their households has been increased. Number meal in a day was also increased to three meals from previously two meal per day. HDDS at HHs has been improved by 87% of beneficiaries were above acceptable scores and only 13% beneficiaries were in poor HDDS score. Never the less FCS was also increased by 78% of the respondent households was within acceptable food consumption score, while and 10% was with the borderline.

Cash transfer has made to support local markets growth as 49% of beneficiaries have spent money in local markets. 36% of (retailers and wholesaler) indicated the rate of goods supply was increased after the cash distribution and 60% has realized no impact on good supply and demand. 64% of beneficiaries indicated there was not significant impact on changing in market price due to cash transfer.

There was no significant impact on resilience and sustainability as 95% of beneficiaries realized CTP did not make any impact on resilience and sustainability because provision of cash assistance was targeted to buy only basic food, not for investment in livelihoods activities.

Cash transfer has helped improving coping strategy. 100% beneficiaries indicated CTP supported not to have a negative coping strategy. Cash transfer has indirectly impact on promoting gender in decision making power as 58% of respondents indicated that woman decides to use the cash in the household's level and no cases of GBV or relationship abuse were reported of cash distribution activity.

Cash transfer has impact on reducing household risks as 55% of beneficiaries indicated that the cash transfer program helped them reduce household risks. 98% of beneficiaries indicated they CTP was appropriated, and they preferred to received cash instead of food aid.

5.2 Suggestions

Based on the findings from quantitative and qualitative survey, the following suggestions are forwarded as issues which help for future improvement of the program.

The amount of cash the beneficiaries supported with is not enough to cover the HHs food needs and others, particularly health, education and investment in livelihood. Therefore, increasing the cash transfer value to meet the food basket value and others alternative food assistance and/or livelihood support should be sought to address the need of the communities.

Although there was significant improvement on food security situation of target HHs, 10% to 13% beneficiaries remain beyond acceptable HDDS score and Food consumption score (FCS). Therefore, further in-depth study should be carried to find out the issues and worked with other concerned bodies to address the deteriorated food security situation of those IDP households.

More broadly, CTP should be designed to address IDP concerns and support the stability and sustainability of food supplies. It is required to conduct a comprehensive post-distribution monitoring related to the cash transition, including key areas of expenditure, community attitudes and market prices of food items.

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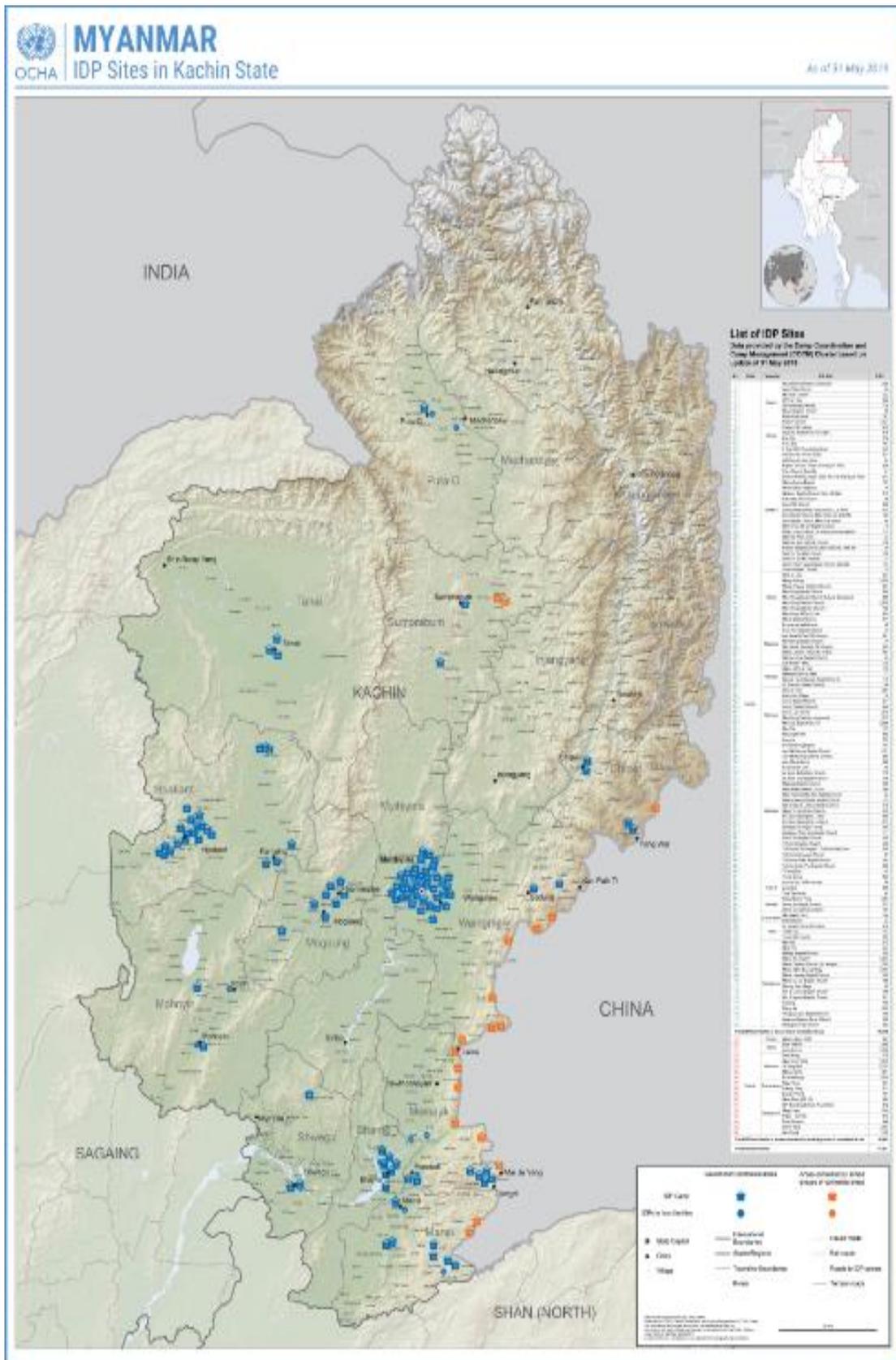
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Appendix 2: IDP sites in Kachin State, Myanmar

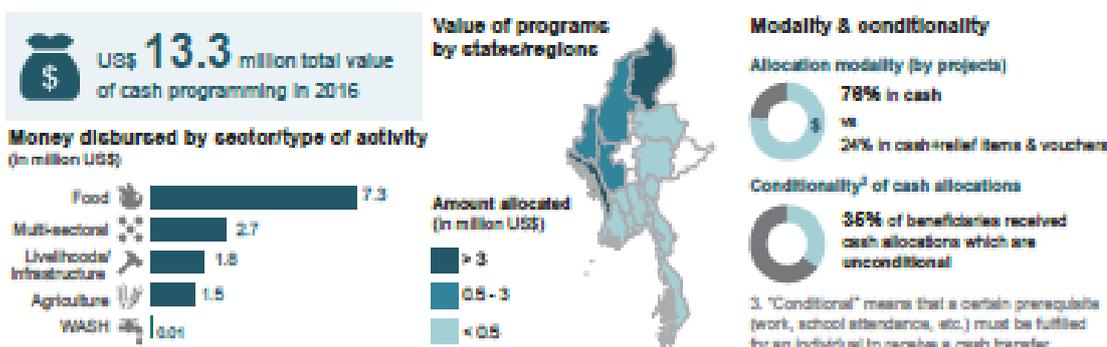
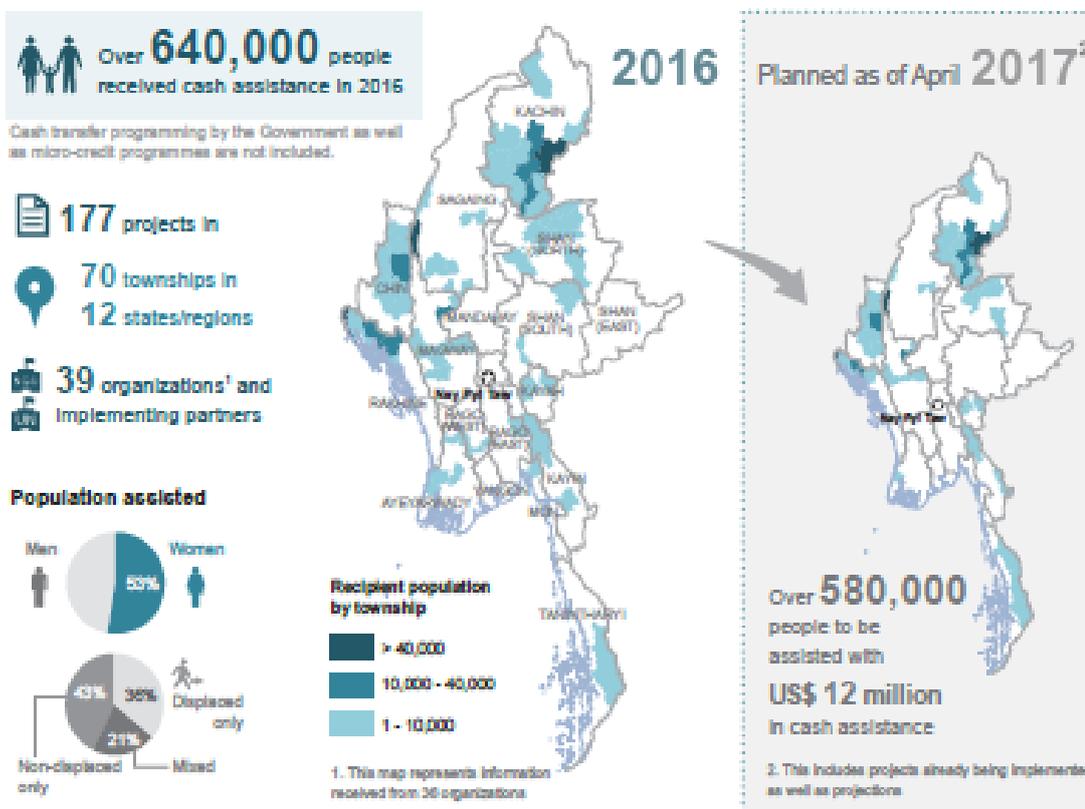


Source: Myanmar Information Management Unit (MIMU)

Appendix 3: Myanmar – Cash Transfer Program activities (April 2016)

Myanmar: Cash transfer programming activities (Apr 2017)

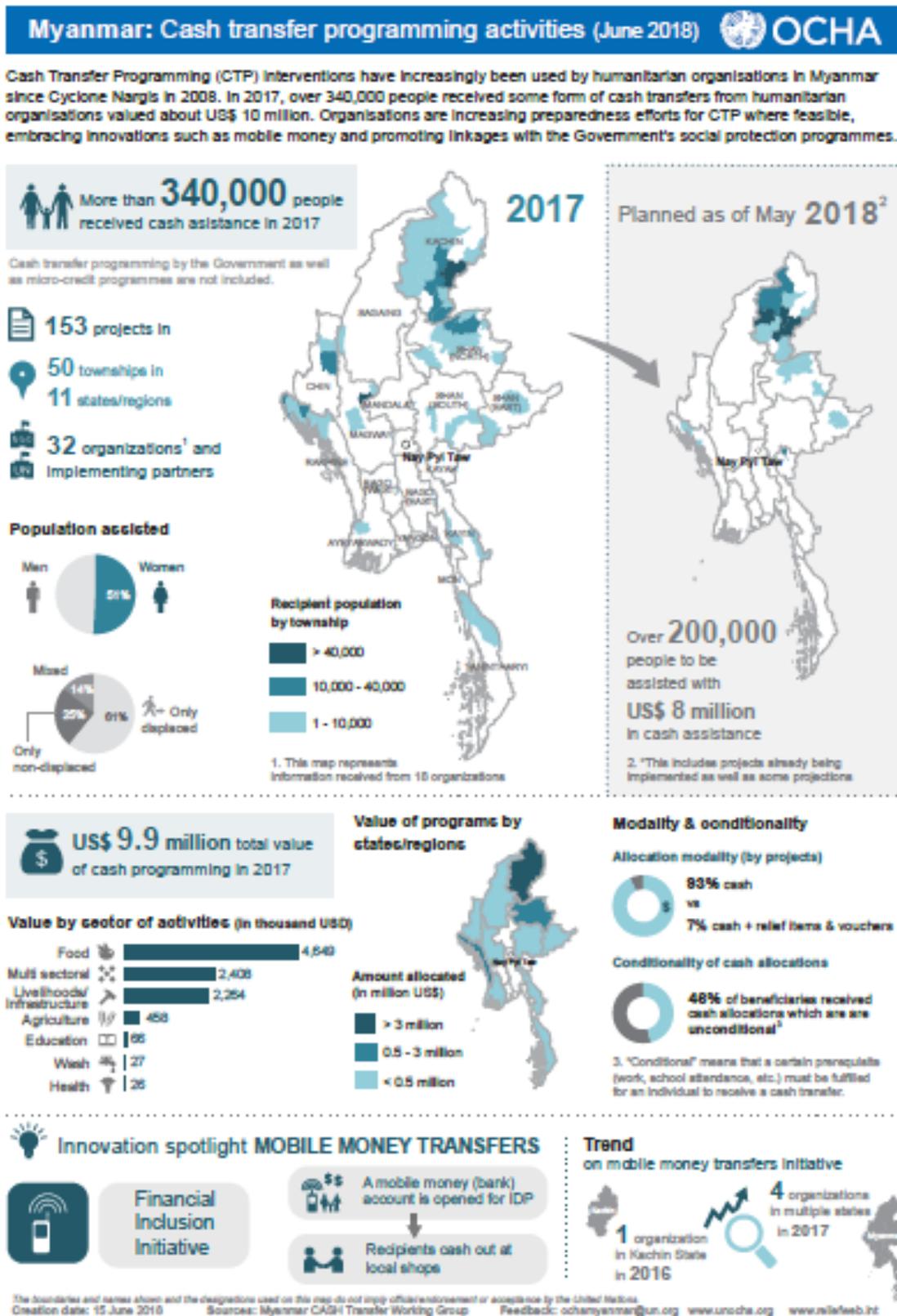
Cash Transfer Programming (CTP) interventions have increasingly been used by humanitarian organisations in Myanmar since Cyclone Nargis in 2008. In 2016, over 640,000 people received some form of cash transfers from humanitarian organizations valued over US\$ 13 million. Organizations are increasing preparedness efforts for CTP where feasible, embracing innovations such as mobile money and promoting linkages with the Government's social protection programmes.



The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.
 Creation date: 3 Apr 2017 Source: Myanmar Cash Working Group Feedback: ocha@myanmar@un.org www.unocha.org www.reliefweb.int

Source: Myanmar Information Management Unit (MIMU)

Appendix 4: Myanmar – Cash Transfer Program activities (June 2017)



Source: Myanmar Information Management Unit (MIMU)

Appendix 5: Myanmar – Cash Transfer Program activities (May 2018)

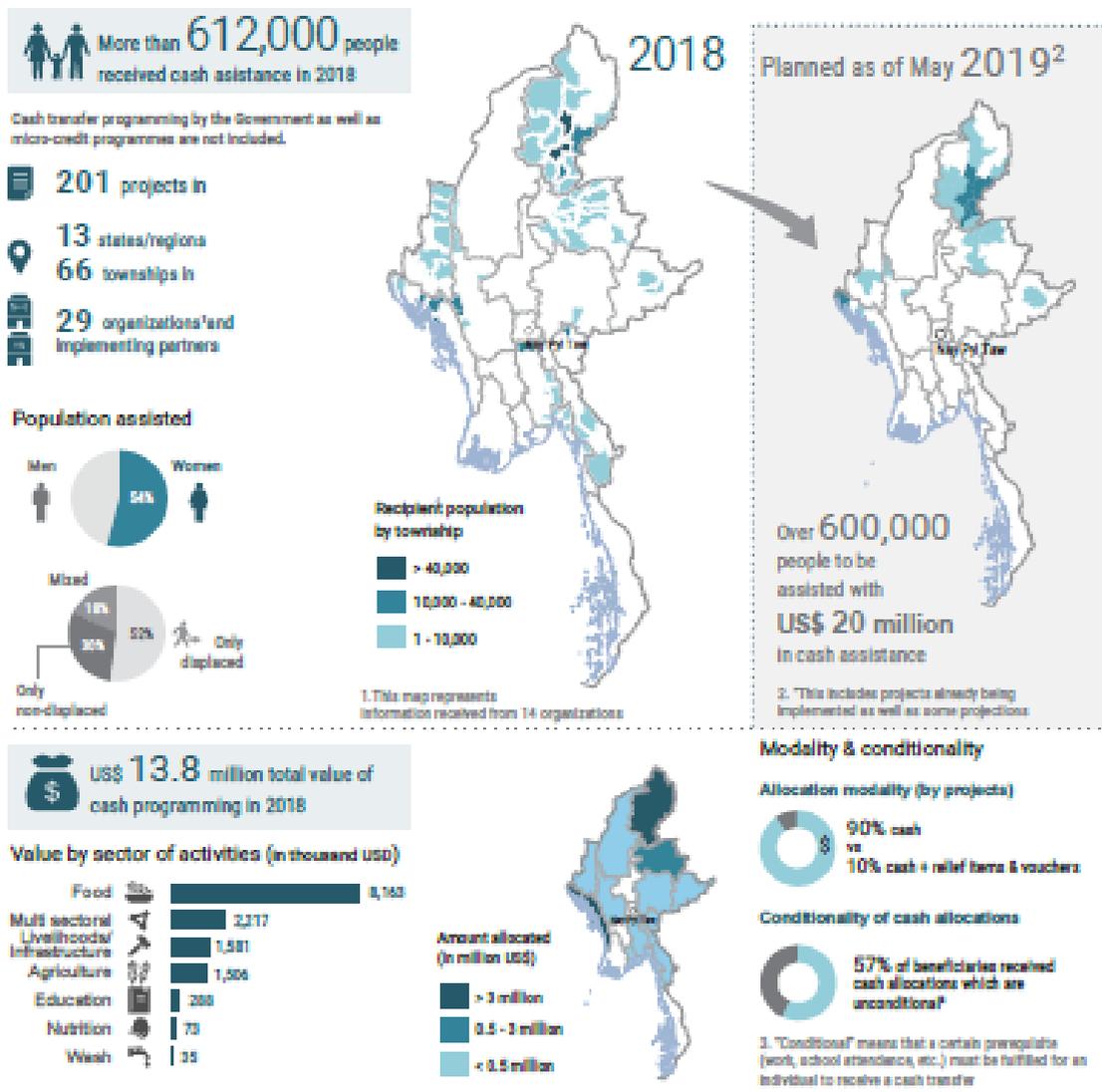


MYANMAR

Cash transfer programming activities

As of May 2019

Cash Transfer Programming (CTP) interventions have increasingly been used by humanitarian organisations in Myanmar since Cyclone Nargis in 2008. In 2018, over 612,000 people received some form of cash transfers from humanitarian organisations valued over US\$ 13.8 million. Organisations are increasing preparedness efforts for CTP where feasible, embracing innovations such as mobile money and promoting linkages with the Government's social protection programmes.



The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.
 Creation date: 14 May 2019 | Sources: Myanmar CASH Working Group, Feedback@ocha Myanmar@un.org, www.unocha.org, www.reliefweb.int

Source: Myanmar Information Management Unit (MIMU)

Appendix 6: Survey questionnaires

Household questionnaire

The overall objective of this study was to understand the impact of Cash Transfer Program (CTP) on Food Security to Internal displaced communities in Waingmaw and Chipwe townships in Kachin State.

1. General information		
Township:		IDP camp name:
Household head <input type="radio"/> M <input type="radio"/> F		Total family members:
2. Cash Utilization		
For Food	%	Remark
For Health		
For Education		
Invest in Livelihood activities		
Reimburse loan or credit		
Saving		
Others		
Total	100%	
3. Sharing of Cash		
3.1 Did you share cash to other when you received cash? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>		
3.2 If yes, with who? Relative <input type="checkbox"/> Friend <input type="checkbox"/> Neighbours <input type="checkbox"/>		
4. Sufficient of cash amount		
4.1 Was cash amount that you received enough to buy basic food items? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>		
4.2 If no, why?		
5. Source of incomes		
5.1 What are the main sources of income of the family?		
Main _____ Second _____		
Third _____		
5.2 What is your current monthly income (MMK)?		
5.3 Did CTP support to improve your income sources? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>		
6. Expenditure		

6.1 What are greater expenditure at HH?

6.2 What is your current monthly expenditure (MMK)?

6.3 How did you manage these expenditures?

7. Food Security and Nutrition

5.1 How long the food was lasting at HH with receiving cash?

a) One week

b) 2 weeks

c) 3 weeks

d) 4 weeks

e) More than 4 weeks

5.2 Did cash transfer impact on household's food consumption increased after cash transfer?

a) Increased a lot

b) Increased slightly

c) Decreased a lot

d) Decreased slightly

e) No change/same

8. HDDS and FCS

Food Group	Specify the Food (eg rice, potato, tomato etc)	Put ✓ if consumed in last 24 Hours (HDDS)	How many days you have consumed that food in last 7 days
Cereals (Rice, noodles, bread flour etc)			
Roots and tubers (potatoes, sweet potatoes, or other)			
Pulses/legumes/nuts (soybeans, peas, chick peas or other)			
Vegetables & leaves (tomatoes, salad, mustard leaves			

cabbage)			
Fruit (mango, pineapple, rambutan, papaya etc)			
Meat, poultry, offal (beef, goat, lamb, poultry, pork)			
Fish and seafood (
Milk/Dairy products (milk, yogurt, cheese or other)			
Eggs			
Sugar, sugar products, honey			
Oil/fats (oil, fat, or butter)			
Condiments (spices, tea, coffee) or other miscellaneous food			
	Total number of ✓		

9. Impact on resilience and sustainability

a. Does CTP impact on resilience and sustainability? 1. Yes 2. No 3. Don't know

b. If yes, what are they?

- a) Enough food
- b) Medical care
- c) Purchase assets
- d) Education
- e) Livestock, agriculture
- f) Small business
- g) Others

10. Coping Strategy

9.1 Does CTP support on improving coping strategy? Yes No

9.2 If you will not receive cash, what type of coping mechanism will you have? Please tick the following if you have been doing.

Continuous piece work

Sale of livestock

Reducing the number of meals per day for adults		
Borrowing money		
Sell of other productive assets (tools, seeds etc)		
Reducing the number of meals per day for children		
Taking children out of school		
Migration for work		
Sending children to work		
Begging		
Others		
11. CTP impact on Coping Strategy		
Type of coping	2016	2019
Continuous piece work		
Sale of livestock		
Reducing the number of meals per day for adults		
Borrowing money		
Sell of other productive assets (tools, seeds etc)		
Reducing the number of meals per day for children		
Taking children out of school		
Migration for work		
Sending children to work		
Begging		
Others		
12. Appropriateness		
a. Does CTP help household to reduce the risk? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Don't know <input type="checkbox"/>		
b. If yes, what are they?		
a) Food security	<input type="checkbox"/>	
b) Purchase household assets	<input type="checkbox"/>	
c) Livestock	<input type="checkbox"/>	
d) Small scale business	<input type="checkbox"/>	
e) Agriculture	<input type="checkbox"/>	
f) Health	<input type="checkbox"/>	

g) Education	<input type="checkbox"/>
h) Others	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Protection and Gender	
Are there women in Cash distribution committee?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No
If Yes, How many women in committee?	()person
Do you feel safe at the Cash distribution site (especially for women)?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No
53. If No, Why:	
54. Do you feel safe going to and from the Cash distribution (especially for woman)?	
Yes	No
55. If No, Why:	
56. Do you notice any ethnic / gender discrimination?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No
57. If No, how do you discriminate?	
58. Do you notice any collection of illegal fees/ tax by distributor and other?	
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
59. If Yes, What type and how much:	

FGD questionnaires

A. General Information	
Date of Interview:	Name of Camp/ (Village for Non-camp):
Name of Interviewer:	Name of Notetaker:
No of Men:	No of Women:
Township:	

B. Cash Distribution Process (Please ask the situation of rice which received recently)

1. When did the IDPs receive cash recently?
2. What do the communities think the CTP?
3. What do the communities think the amount cash assistance per HH? (Sufficient or Not)

C. Access to cash distribution site

4. What are the challenges to reach the cash distribution site?
5. What do the communities think about waiting time to receive cash at the distribution site?
6. What kind of transportation did the communities use to reach the distribution point?
7. What do the communities think the distribution scheduled?

E. Rate the products available in the market (to be asked only where cash was distributed)

8. Where do the communities go to buy the main food items?
9. How do the communities think the quality of pulse in the local market?
10. How do the communities think the quality of oil in the local market?
11. How do the communities think the quality of salt in the local market?
12. How about the price of pulse after cash distribution?
Increase than before The same as before Decrease than before
Why do you think?
13. How about the price of Oil after cash distribution?
Increase than before The same as before Decrease than before
Why do you think?
14. How about the price of Salt after cash distribution?
Increase than before The same as before Decrease than before
Why do you think?
15. Is there anything else that we should know to understand your challenges the products in the market?

16. Did the communities face any collection of illegal fees/ tax by the distributor and other?

Yes No

17. What recommendation/comments do you suggest improving cash transfer program?

G. Protection and Gender (For women group)

18. How do the women/girls feel walking alone along the way from home to distribution point?

19. How about the households spending an amount of income on food and nutrition for women and men?

20. Do all married women have the chance to spend the cash?

Yes No

If no? why?

21. Did you hear any internal problem/violence within HH due to receiving the cash?

Yes No

If yes, what are the problems?

22. If there is violence/problem in your home, do women and the children have any knowledge of services or support that they could access?

Yes No

If Yes, who would you contact if you wanted to get help?

If No, why do you think?