Poverty Reduction Fund
Saint Lucia

2003 Impact Evaluation Survey

Final Report

ESA Consultores International

June 2004

Table of Contents

Dedication

This report is dedicated to the memory of Dr. Vincent David, the principal investigator and report author, who was tragically killed in a car accident in Honduras on June 6th 2004.

Vincent was a fine development professional, colleague and friend, who will be sorely missed by all those who were privileged to live and work with him.

Acknowledgements

This report was prepared for the Poverty Reduction Fund in Saint Lucia by the following staff of ESA Consultores International:

Ian Walker	Study director
Vincent David	Principal investigator and report author
Jorge Travieso	Qualitative study
Fidel Ordoñez	Statistician
Freddy Velasquez	Data processing

A study of this kind is by necessity a team effort. The authors would like to thank the following persons and institutions for their participation and support in the study process.

Field Work staff in St Lucia

Enumerators for the household survey:
Gabriel Auguste, Wayne Benti, Dwight Calixte, Lynn Casimir-Blanchard, Tessa Charles, Tarbula Donovan, Peter Edward, Sonia Emmanuel, Donovan Eugene, Cheryl Gustave, Soren Griffiths, Jasmin James, Margaret Lubrin, Joycelyne Nicholas, Francilia Paul, Marlene Paul, Michael Peterkin, Yasmine Tyson, Delia Wilson, Cheryl Raphale, Marrica Jn Baptiste.

Project surveyors/quality control:
Euphemia Edmund, Sophia Edwards, Benignus Henry, Catherine Spooner, Sharon Trezelle, Gregory Prospere.

Coding Officers:
Joan Charles, Ruby Yorke

Data entry and processing staff in Tegucigalpa
Ana Marlen Brand Calix, Heydi Melissa Gómez Estrada, Dunia Araceli Mejía Cárcamo, Reyna América Núñez Yanes, Silvia Marlen Osorio

The study team also wishes to extend its thanks to the following persons who did not form part of the study team but whose cooperation, support and guidance were essential to the successful completion of the exercise.

- Especially, to Julie Nurse, M&E Officer at the PRF, for working with us all along, before, during and after our stay in Saint Lucia, preparing project documentation, bringing to the team her knowledge of the Saint Lucia context, providing invaluable comments on draft instruments and reports, participating actively in the mapping and sampling process, the training and supervision of the household survey's enumerators, the qualitative survey, and networking with other organizations to obtain needed contacts and documents.

- Donovan Williams, Executive Director, PRF, for providing the institutional support.

- Jennifer Joseph and her colleagues in the PRF Office, for welcoming us and helping with the re-mapping process.

- Ethel Jean Baptiste and Edwin St. Catherine, at the Government's Statistical Office, for providing the 2001 Population Census information.

- Sherman Lawrence and Darren Henry, in the Mapping Department of this same Office, for long hours working on the maps.

- Margaret Delmar, at WASCO, for the information on the water project sites.

- Sarah Gelpke, EDF Barbados and John Calixte, EDF Saint Lucia.

- Laura Rawlings and Rob Chase, World Bank Washington, for their comments on the survey's design and first draft instruments, and Rob, for communicating to us the Bank's Integrated Questionnaire for Measurement of Social Capital.

The study team has attempted to integrate and fairly reflect the inputs of all the persons involved in the evaluation process in the present report. However, the contents of this report do not represent the official opinions of the World Bank, the European Development Fund or the St Lucia Poverty Reduction Fund. And as ever, the responsibility for any omission, mistake or erroneous interpretation remains that of the report authors alone.

Executive summary

1. This report presents the results of the Saint Lucia Poverty Reduction Fund 2003 Impact Evaluation Survey conducted in October and November 2003. The survey included a household and a project survey, as well as a qualitative study. Chapter 1 provides a short description of the PRF. Chapter 2 summarizes the methodology used for the survey. It outlines the evaluation framework and the issue of comparison group definition. It then reviews the sampling and mapping process the design of instruments and training and organization of field work, and the results of the data collection process in terms of information obtained. Chapter 3 reports the findings of the surveys and is organized according to the evaluation themes provided by the terms of reference for the evaluation: The study's main conclusions and recommendations are summarized in Chapter 4. The Annexes include: (A) a list of the quantitative and qualitative survey sample's projects/areas; (B) a tabulation of the statistical significance or the most important indicators; (C) an overview of the socio-economic characteristics of the surveyed population; and (D) a tabulation of detailed survey findings by sub-project types.

The PRF Program

2. The St Lucia PRF is a small social investment fund, which has been supported by the World Bank through a Learning and Innovation Loan and has also received funding from the European Union. To date it has financed over 100 projects. The scope of the present study are the 60 projects that have been funded by the World Bank and by the European Union Special Framework of Asistance (SFA) whose purpose is to help communities that will be negatively affected by the liberalization of the European banana market.. These 60 projects have a value of EC$7.6 million (US$2.17 mn); 49 are funded by the World Bank and 11 by the EU -SFA.

3. The program is demand driven: PRF responds to requests from the community, validated in an appraisal process that confirms that the request matches local needs and priorities. To promote ownership and sustainability, for every project, a Community Project Committee (CPC) is formed to coordinate with the PRF during implementation and assume ongoing responsibility for the sustainability of the works.

4. Poverty targeting is based on the evaluation of the poverty characteristics of the soliciting community (based on the 1991 Census). This is coupled with a check on the specific conditions of the immediate beneficiary community carried out by Program officers. There is an indicative, flexible project menu in the Operational Manual. In practice, in response to the pattern of demand from the communities, PRF has concentrated on: education, roads and footpaths (known as economic infrastructure) and water and sanitation. There is a ceiling of EC$ 250,000 (US$71,400) for PRF funding to any project.

5. PRF has developed community contracting as well as more traditional contracting through private companies. In total, 16 projects have used community contracting. These are all World Bank funded projects. They represent 27% of all PRF projects (33% of World Bank funded projects) and 28% of all PRF investment (35% of World Bank funded investment). All EU-SFA projects use a co-implementation method involving the local community. PRF assigns a global provision of 20% on top of the cost of works to fund capacity building in response to the community's appreciation of its main needs in this area. These activities are not necessarily related to the type of physical investment undertaken.

Study methodology

6. The primary objective of the Impact Evaluation is to assess the impact and performance of the Poverty Reduction Fund by examining the extent to which the project's results concur with its initial objectives. The following key performance indicators are specified in the Monitoring and Evaluation System: 1) Increases in access to and quality of social and economic infrastructure and services; 2) Evidence that investments reflect the priorities of the targeted communities and beneficiaries; 3) Evidence of a satisfactory level of sustainability for the operation and maintenance of subprojects; 4) Evidence that the investments are targeted to the poor and vulnerable; 5) Evidence that communities are taking more leadership in planning and managing development initiatives, i.e., that the sub-project enhances social capital; and 6) Evidence of the positive impact of short-term employment opportunities for banana farmers, laborers and their families.

7. The comparator used for establishing the PRF's impact on service access, coverage and quality is the pre-intervention status of the beneficiary households and communities. The M&E plan specified that the PRF's appraisal process should generate quantitative ex-ante data on these variables which would be compared with ex-post data gathered in the impact evaluation study. However, due to difficulties in developing the project appraisal process these data were not collected on a satisfactory basis. Instead, for the purposes of this study, data for the ex-ante situation were generated from institutional registers such as school registers for the number of persons enrolled in different grades, and Water and Sewerage Company (WASCO) registers for the number of household connections to water supplies in given communities, prior to the PRF intervention. The 2001 national household census (which predated the PRF's interventions) was also used to provide baseline data on relevant variables including household demography, educational status, access to water and sanitation and travel time to access key facilities. Finally, recall questions in the project, household and qualitative surveys were used to establish the situation that existed prior to the PRF intervention.

8. For evaluating the PRF's impact on structural and cognitive social capital, the 2003 impact evaluation study uses a control group sample of non beneficiary communities as the comparison group for analysis purposes to establish the PRF's impact on social capital. The control group sample was drawn from communities whose requests for PRF funding are pending approval but are not yet guaranteed and which – according to the 2001 household and population census – had similar pre-intervention characteristics to those of the communities in the intervention group sample.

9. Of the 60 projects in the study universe, he Poverty Reduction Fund had completed 41 sub-projects by September 2003. Those included 31 World Bank-funded projects: 15 economic infrastructure projects, 8 water and sanitation projects, 6 education projects, 2 social assistance projects and one project each of community empowerment and sports infrastructure; and 8 EU-funded projects in the fields of economic infrastructure and reforestation. The sample of 36 projects drawn for the impact evaluation study included all economic infrastructure, water and sanitation and education sub-projects except one WB-funded infrastructure project which was used for the pilot study. In addition, a control group of 12 communities was selected for the evaluation of social capital impacts using twinning techniques followed by random sampling of a third of the twinned communities. This yielded eight control projects in the infrastructure (footpath) sector, two in the education sector and two in the water sector.

10. The Statistical Office of the Government of St. Lucia provided maps of relevant enumeration areas from the 2001 Population Census. Where necessary, a re-mapping exercise was carried out before field work began. For each project or control site, a project survey was completed with the relevant key informant and a household survey was carried out in 24 households using a systematic random sampling.

11. In parallel with the household and project survey, a qualitative evaluation was carried out in 12 communities: six communities selected from the household survey of completed projects (five with World Bank funded projects and one community from the EU funded Special Framework of Assistance); three communities selected from the control group sample for the household survey (these are communities in the pipeline for future projects); and three social assistance or community empowerment projects (these are projects whose area of influence goes well beyond the communities in which they are physically located; this type of projects was not covered by the quantitative survey). The qualitative survey included key informant interviews with people who played an important role in project execution, and focus groups with direct beneficiaries. Where appropriate, the focus groups were conducted in Creole.

12. Fieldwork took place between October 8th and November 26th, 2003. The designed sample was 1,152 households (24 households in each of 48 project sites or control group communities). There were 865 completed questionnaires, that is, 75% of the designed sample. The main factor reducing the overall response rate was a 9.6% incidence of "absent respondent"; no substitution was allowed in these cases. The analysis was conducted using SPSS, Stata and Excel.

13. In addition to the data provided by the primary investigation carried out for the study, the analysis uses data generated by the PRF's Monitoring and Evaluation system, which includes a detailed project database.

14. Finally, it should be noted that this impact evaluation study was carried out very soon after the completion of the sub-projects. This was made necessary by the requirement that the study be completed before closing the World Bank loan operation in support of the PRF. This without doubt has limited the possibility of capturing some of the impacts, which will take longer to materialize.

PRF impact on access to, and quality of, social and economic infrastructure and services

Education Projects

15. Given the high prevailing level of school registration in St. Lucia, the PRF projects are not aimed at increasing the enrollment rate, but rather at improving the quality of facilities. The survey covered six education projects in five districts. Two are located in pre-school institutions, two in primary schools and two in combined primary/secondary schools. One project extended an existing building to create additional administrative and support rooms; two projects rehabilitated existing buildings; one created a canteen-cum-kitchenette; and two established Information Technology Centers (ITC). The main project outputs included hallways, fences, toilets, store and administration room, the canteen and the ITC rooms.

16. In two schools Information Technology Centers were established including purchase of new computers and related equipment. Both centers function on a part-time basis - 5 and 10 hours per week- but each has a dedicated teacher/IT support specialist 270 children are direct beneficiaries of the systems. Access to

the IT Center is in principle available for persons outside the school, but the knowledge of residents about the IT centers is low: only 29% of household respondents in communities that got an ITC center knew of this component.

17. The survey respondents' perception of the overall impact of the education projects on economic, social and time dimensions of their lives is rather disappointing, with less than 10% thinking the project has impacted these dimensions of their lives strongly, and close to half saying there is no impact. Especially in the case of the IT projects, this may be due to the short time period elapsed since the project was completed.

Water Projects

18. The Project survey covered seven water projects undertaken through the Water and Sewerage Company – WASCO, and one latrine project. Four of the water projects installed new systems, while three extended existing networks. The systems have been running for between three and 30 months. All survey respondents were aware that the project had been supported by the PRF and 75% of key informants knew of discussions prior to the proposal being made to the PRF.

19. The impacts of the PRF interventions in water are very clear and positive. The proportion of households with a water supply in their house or yard rose from 34% to 91% and the proportion who had to regularly fetch water from outside fell from 69% to 21%, resulting in large savings in time spent fetching water, benefiting mainly women. WASCO has responsibility for maintenance of the system ensuring a good level of technical sustainability. WASCO states that all seven water systems run 24 hours per day and 365 hours per year.

20. 65% of respondents had a favorable opinion of WASCO's performance with regards to quantity and regularity of water supply. When asked about remaining problems in water supply, 23% said they do not have any. For others, the cleanliness of the water, especially during the rainy season, is the main problem (57%). Residual chlorine, irregular supply and the lack of pressure constitute the rest of the complaints.

21. WASCO charges for the water consumed in order to finance its operations. The installation of the new system thus led to a big increase in payments for water services from WASCO and a reduction in spending on coping source water. 95% of users said their payment was based on a meter reading; the tariff is EC$7.35 per 1,000 gallons and the average monthly expenditure rose from EC$25.8 to EC$34.3.

22. Overall, water and sanitation projects beneficiaries reported a large impact in important aspects of their life, with between 55% and 70% reporting positive impacts on their economic situation, social activities, time availability and heath conditions.

Footpath Projects

23. Economic infrastructure (roads and footpaths) projects constitute the bulk of the PRF interventions and 20 of the 36 sampled projects were in this area. They are usually small projects, serving one community or a single group of households. Projects had been completed between two months and two years before the survey.

24. Six of the sampled projects were funded by the European Union under the SFA program, the rest were funded by the World Bank. The six EU-funded projects

were undertaken with co-implementation. One WB-funded project was undertaken with community contracting, the others through private contracting. Fifteen projects were related to the creation of new footpaths (or steps), one was a footbridge and the other four dealt with road rehabilitation. The work involved concrete surfacing of footpaths and steps, preparation/ rehabilitation of road surfacing, drainage through open or piped drains. The main rationale is to allow easier access to homes, either to park vehicles closer to the dwelling, being able to take sick persons out more easily, or just avoid walking in the mud, making the community cleaner and preventing the spread of mosquitoes.

25. The benefits from these projects – both quantifiable and subjectively perceived – have been very positive. The main expected quantifiable impact of these projects is a reduction in the time needed to reach the main road using the new/repaired footpath or bridge. The project survey provides data on time to reach the road for 12 projects. For eight of these, the survey reports big reductions in the average time, ranging from 33% to 75%, although in four cases no reduction is reported. The average trip time to the main road fell from 9.6 to 5.2 minutes (46%) according to the project survey data and from 8.4 to 6.1 minutes on household survey data.

26. Another quantifiable indicator of impact is the number of trips from the dwelling to the main road, using the footpath or footbridge. An increase in the number of trips made is the expected result of the reduced time-cost of the journey, and represents a clear economic benefit (increased consumption of travel). The household survey reports a 9% overall increase in the overall number of trips, a 26% increase in trips made for marketing goods produced at home, and increases of 15% to 20% in the number of trips for work, school (people mentioned the possibility of sending kids to school in any weather) or visiting. The number of shopping trips decreased, maybe because of the possibility of bringing back more goods per trip.

27. Footpath maintenance in most cases is the responsibility of the residents themselves. Training for maintenance was provided in four sites. In all, 37.1% of households participate in maintenance through voluntary labor contribution. Overall, 38.9% think that the project has been well maintained, 15.1% think maintenance is of average quality; 11.6% think it was bad and one third did not have an opinion.

28. The subjectively-perceived overall impact of this kind of project on people's lives is high, with sixty percent of the respondents estimating that it had a very important or somewhat important impact on their time availability or their health and physical condition and over 50% stating an important economic and social impact.

Reforestation Projects

29. Two reforestation projects were included in the household and project survey. Both are EU-funded projects with community contracting mechanism, under the SFA program. The projects included the plantation of forest and crop tress along the river bed.

30. An important goal of this sort of intervention is to secure the water supply by protecting the source. However, the results from the household survey show little change to date in the use of the river water, and less than 20% of beneficiary households reported an improvement in the quality of their drinking water supply. However, project survey respondents reported the discontinuation of disposal of

pesticides in the river and improvement of agricultural practices in general. Other benefits mentioned include health, soil improvement and employment by the project.

Capacity building and strengthening

31. PRF assigns 20% on top of the cost of works to fund community capacity building activities. These activities may or may not be directly related to the type of physical investment undertaken. The Community Participation and Training Unit (CPTU) of the PRF promotes "ownership", capacity building, empowerment and the good use and maintenance of the facilities built by PRF. Community Project Committees (CPC) were trained in community mobilization, leadership and management skills, and project management. During project implementation, those skills were reinforced through project monitoring meetings and visits to other projects.

32. Six modules for community training programs emerged from consultations with project beneficiaries and partner agencies: *Community health*, mostly offered to residents in water project areas; *Environmental sensitization and conservation*, emphasizing participatory approaches (reforestation and footpaths); *Life skills development*, providing skills training and employment counseling to unemployed and unskilled people in areas such as: electrical installation, garment making, information technology, cake decoration, cosmetology, carpentry, and basic literacy; *Lifestyle management*, focusing on issues affecting teenagers, young adults, the unemployed and older persons that can impact on individual, family, community and national development; *Child development*, including training for early childhood educators, first aid, HIV/AIDS sensitization and education, facilitation of school development consultations; and *Management and maintenance of community facilities*.

33. The training provided in any given project was decided through a consultation process based on a survey in the community. The evaluation study found a high level of satisfaction regarding this consultation and its results. The beneficiaries, in general, consider that the training areas chosen respond to the needs of their communities. Training often continues after the works are completed. Thus, in some communities it had already concluded when the evaluation study was in the field, while in others, it was still in progress.

34. Beneficiaries of the training programs were not limited to persons directly involved in project execution. Communities often chose to include others and thus broaden the benefits received from the project. The household survey found that the training was normally received by households outside the immediate beneficiary group of the investment project.

35. Topics of training included footpath maintenance (1), footbridge construction (1), computer training (1), carpentry (1), garment making (1), tour guiding (2), first aid (1), indoor house training (2), leadership (2), supervision (1), project management (4) and CPC training (1). Educational training, which had less demand, was provided in areas like mathematics, English, and Creole. Training duration ranged from 2 hours on project management to 230 hours on garment making. Virtually all participants rated the training as "very useful". However, about 20% said they rarely or never used the skills or knowledge received (those trained in bridge construction, CPC and leadership).

36. Many of the training areas chosen aimed to generate more income through home-based enterprises, like baking or the confection of clothes, or by acquiring

better jobs. Few were already generating income as a result of training received, but all recognized the improvement of their opportunities.

37. The training received in project management was considered adequate, though some beneficiaries stated that it didn't prepare them adequately for dealing with extensive paperwork and bureaucratic problems. For many, hands-on experience provided capacity building as valuable (perhaps more) than the formal training received. Money management was the area in which most recognized having had the greatest advancement. Training and experience in accounting, dealing with banks and managing expenses were seen as the most valuable of all. In some communities, these newly acquired skills were applied with such success that the projects were executed under budget, leaving surplus funds that allowed one community, for example, to acquire items needed to finish equipping an IT center.

38. Some complaints were registered in IT projects about difficulty in understanding and assimilating teaching materials. One interviewee stated that training is "wholly inadequate; the [teaching] material is beyond the people…words from a world that is foreign to them." Other complaints resulted from the trainers' lack of familiarity with the communities where they were working.

39. The equipment received for the training programs was welcome by all, even though in some cases it was still not in full use. In one instance, the equipment was incorporated into a community IT center project that was being completed.

Correspondence of PRF investment with the priorities of targeted beneficiaries and communities

40. Consultation prior to the design and execution of SFD projects was ample. Two criteria determine the type of project that a community or institution receives: a) problems and needs felt, and b) the menu of project options presented by the PRF. It is a demand-driven process, initiated by a proposal from the community, followed by a needs assessment and prioritization, leading to project selection. The result should be a good correspondence between the investment realized by the PRF and the communities' perceived priorities.

The consultation process

41. The consultation process aimed to strengthen the communities' abilities for problem and needs assessments. In general, this objective was met. However, attendance at assemblies was often sporadic, especially that of men. The process was new for most participants, and required a close follow-up by PRF. Community leaders with higher educational levels and broader experience than the rest of the population often led the discussion and offered opinions and proposals that were followed by the rest.

42. The impact evaluation survey found that 73% of the households in the intervention groups knew about the PRF-funded project in their community; 71% of these knew that community meetings had been held to discuss support to the project and 68% of the households who knew of meetings had participated in them. The overall proportion of households participating in meetings was highest for water projects (56%) and footpaths projects (39%), and much lower for education (14%) and reforestation projects (13%). In about a third of projects, discussions between community and project staff led to modifications of the initial project design originally proposed by the community.

43. The qualitative investigation showed a variable level of knowledge among the beneficiary population. Though the PRF has a high level of recognition in the communities visited, some believed their project to have been the result of requests to their local government representative.

44. The pattern of consultation for social assistance projects was different. People involved in social assistance projects had a high level of knowledge about all aspects of the projects. The institutions in charge of the projects had a clear idea of their problems, needs and priorities, based on internal assessment, including beneficiaries' feedback. Consultation was undertaken in staff meetings of the institution being funded which discussed problems, solutions and priorities. Thus they were able to select projects based on their own criteria, which was verified and validated by the PRF.

Consensus on priority of chosen sub-projects

45. The project survey respondents are virtually unanimous that the project chosen was the main priority of the community and 74% of the household respondents in the intervention group sample would also have chosen the same project as was actually implemented. Even in cases where there was no organized consultation process, the evaluation survey found that respondents validated the priority of the project done by PRF.

Satisfaction with completed projects

46. Project survey respondents were overwhelmingly positive about the quality of work on the projects, with close to 100% expressing a good opinion. The household survey respondents were a little more critical; nevertheless, three quarters thought that the quality of the completed works was good, while less than 10% had reservations. The qualitative survey also found a high level of satisfaction with project execution. Three quarters of the respondents thought the community was getting a good deal for the investment made, and none thought it was low value for money.

47. The more complex projects, such as water systems, generated some complaints about prolonged execution calendars. Some communities also had grievances about incomplete coverage. However, these were ascribable to unsolvable technical difficulties.

48. The study team found that almost all projects were providing the services intended, with only few cases of projects not working to full capacity due to pending work or equipment. For example, one IT center was still not fully functional because the supplier hadn't provided transformers, and had yet to install the network.

Perceived benefits and ownership of project

49. A high proportion of households consulted feel that they benefit directly from the PRF project. This is highest for footpaths (82%) and water projects (80%). In reforestation projects, 72% expect to benefit now or in the future. Residents in education project communities have a lower expectation of benefiting directly (30%). This probably reflects their not having children in the school.

50. Perceived benefits for the *footpaths projects* include improved access to transportation, and improved safety through elimination of dangerous walkways and river crossings especially in rainy season, reducing the loss of workdays and schooldays. As a result of increased mobility, people shop and visit friends,

children can walk safely to school, clothes and shoes do not get so dirty and last longer. Increased social activity is also observed due to footpaths becoming social gathering places; some are used for jogging. Others mention the better look of the community. Households in *water project* areas are unanimous in recognizing that they now have water in their home, which allows them to drink quality water and to get baths at home. Not having to fetch water, they save both time and energy. In sanitation projects, getting a private toilet is the main benefit perceived. *Education project* benefits are expressed in terms of children or grandchildren attending the school where the works were done, now or in the future. IT projects were perceived as giving access to computers and Internet, communications. Finally, respondents in *reforestation* areas recognize the gains in quantity and quality of water that is or will be available and the impact of the project on soil erosion for those who have lands close to the river.

51. In the qualitative evaluation, secondary benefits were also reported, among them: *Temporary jobs*, which provided income; *Training*, which helped people acquire marketable job skills; and *Increased pride in the community*.

52. A sense of project ownership was seen in all projects visited. "Ownership" is greater in communities that participated directly in project execution. Communities with water projects felt that the project was theirs, but differentiated between their home installations and the public system. The sense of ownership doesn't derive exclusively from the sense of benefits obtained. It is also a reflection of local social dynamics, like the relationship between project beneficiaries and project or community leaders, or between families or neighbors. However, this does not necessarily result in a commitment to project maintenance. The generalized perception sees government projects, particularly internationally funded projects, as being gifts. This leads to a reduced sense of community / beneficiary responsibility for maintenance and sustainability.

Participation of beneficiaries

53. Participation of beneficiaries can take place during project identification and design, through voluntary or paid labor or other contribution during the works phase, and through maintenance. Participation normally results in a greater use of the facility, increased ownership and improved sustainability of the project.

54. Community discussions provided non-technical input for project design. They allowed an opportunity to express perceived needs and preferences regarding the project and provided information regarding local characteristics that could affect the technical design. However, only 8.5% of the households in the intervention group could mention an estimate of the project cost citing an average of EC$100,040. The real average cost of PRF projects is EC$126,600.

55. Communities' contributions to PRF projects include donations of money, working days, land, or materials for construction. Labor contributions were reported in 65% of footpath projects, 50% of education projects and 25% of water projects. Materials contributions were reported, respectively, in 25%, 33% and 12.5% of the projects. However, according to the household survey results, only17% of all surveyed households had contributed materially to the project. The incidence of household contributions is highest (25%) for water and sanitation projects and lowest for education projects.

56. Projects executed through community contracting generated the highest level of direct participation at all levels. In these projects, the CPC helped motivate community participation, undertaking the organization of labor, and assuming

administrative and supervisory duties. The use of local labor was the most frequent and important form of participation, especially through ***k****oudmain*, a traditional form of communal volunteer work that has the added benefit of strengthening the sense of unity in the communities.

Sustainability of PRF projects and their benefits

57. Maintenance costs are not contemplated in the PRF project budget. It is therefore important to the sustainability of the investment that the community or the receiving organization assumes responsibility for the operation and maintenance of the service and that a budget is available as necessary to cover the resulting costs. The issue of community-level maintenance arises most clearly for education and footpath projects. For water projects, maintenance is assumed by WASCO, covered by the payment of water service fees; and the issue of maintenance requirements is less clear for reforestation projects.

58. The project survey reports that three out of the six education projects and 23 of the 20 economic infrastructure projects had a formal maintenance component. But the household survey shows that knowledge about who was responsible for maintenance is low among resident households, as was active participation in maintenance. The qualitative evaluation shows practically none of the communities had designed maintenance plans, even though some of the project documentation recorded that such plans existed, and few projects had any formal organization for this purpose.

59. IT centers require periodic maintenance and have operating costs for consumables like paper, ink, diskettes, etc. Charging fees for services has produced good results. In general, beneficiaries are willing to accept the charges, as long as they are kept low. One of the main preoccupations expressed about IT projects concerns the cost of Internet connection. Initially, the government assumes the cost for this service, but projects fear that they will have to take over in the mid-term. Although the PRF has established a formal agreement with the Ministry of Education in this regard, so far the projects are not clearly informed about Ministry policy.

60. In road and footpath projects, in spite of the lack of organized maintenance, households often assume the responsibility of cleaning the drains in front of their house. But resistance to this pattern was also encountered and it seems likely that the weakness of collective maintenance organization is likely to lead fairly soon to problems of "free riding" and the resulting deterioration of the works.

61. Social assistance projects have a better potential for sustainability since the beneficiary institutions are well organized and knowledgeable about the importance of maintenance and its costs.

Targeting of PRF investments on the poor and the vulnerable

62. Poverty targeting is a key feature of the Poverty Reduction Fund. The impact evaluation study evaluated the distribution of program resources from two different perspectives: by the poverty characteristics of the beneficiary communities; and by the poverty characteristics of individual beneficiary households.

63. A first approach to targeting is to analyze to what extent project sites are located in poor communities. To validate the extent to which PRF concentrated its funds in the poorer communities, the national population was ranked according to the poverty characteristics of the community where they live, based on Census

data, and grouped into deciles. The study found that 28% of PRF funds were invested in the poorest 20% of communities; 49% were invested in the poorest 40%; and 79% were invested in the poorest 60% of the communities. Only 10% of the total was received by communities in the top three deciles. In sum, PRF has been quite successful in avoiding the financing of projects in non-poor communities. However, it is disappointing to note that less than 10% went to communities in the poorest decile.

64. The resource distribution can be characterized by a distribution coefficient with a range of –1 to +1, where a positive value indicates a progressive pattern of distribution and a negative value a regressive distribution. A value of zero is reported if each decile receives exactly 10% of total program resources. Overall, PRF yields a geographical distribution coefficient of 0.192. Water projects, with a coefficient of 0.537, are the most progressive on this measure. Education projects yield a progressive overall index of 0.245. Footpaths projects are less progressive, with a coefficient of 0.120, and reforestation projects have a regressive pattern with a coefficient of –0.220.

65. However, there may be differences between the poverty characteristics of the direct beneficiaries of PRF projects and the average poverty level of the community where projects are located. This is especially likely to happen in urban areas, where households with very different poverty levels may be grouped in the same community. The study undertook a household-level analysis based on income data from the household survey and using econometric techniques to locate each household in the national income distribution. The analysis reports the proportion of program resources benefiting each decile of the household income distribution. This approach is known as “benefit-incidence analysis”.

66. The results confirm that the distributive impact (targeting) of the PRF’s interventions at household level is positive. 47% of the program’s resources benefit directly households in the bottom 30% of the income distribution; and only 11% are received by households in the top 30% of the distribution. This result is almost identical for potential beneficiaries and actual beneficiaries of the projects, which indicates that there is no bias against the poorer people in the beneficiary communities getting access to the program’s resources.

67. At household level, the overall distributive index number for the program’s targeting impact is calculated at 0.256. This compares well with indices calculated in recent studies that used a similar methodology to assess household targeting outcomes for the Honduran Social Investment Fund (FHIS), which reported at progressiveness index number of 0.25 and for the Yemen Social Fund for Development which reported an index number of 0.204.

68. Once again, the sub-project types with the most progressive distributional impact are water and sanitation projects (0.380) and footpath projects (0.274). These types of project are strongly “self selecting” for poor beneficiaries, since communities without water and sanitation services and without footpaths are normally relatively poor. In contrast, educational projects (0.075) and reforestation projects (0.184) are found not to be strongly pro-poor: their benefits are received more or less evenly across the income distribution.

69. The fact that the household-level targeting result is considerably more positive than the finding of the spatially-based (geographical) analysis suggests that the PRF has been successful in identifying the relatively poorer communities and households within each of the areas where it has intervened. This is the product of the program methodology which requires that program officers verify

the specific poverty conditions of the proposed beneficiary community; coupled with the promotion of projects which have a self-selecting bias towards poorer communities, such as footpath and water and sanitation projects.

PRF's impact on Social Capital

70. Social capital is the capacity of individuals and communities to work together to the common good. It is usually disaggregated into two components: structural social capital, which includes the extent and intensity of associational links or activity, and cognitive social capital, which covers perceptions of support, reciprocity, sharing and trust in the community. It was a specific goal of the PRF to increase social capital through its interventions, by promoting organization and building trust. The study's quantitative findings on this issue are based on a comparison of indicators of social capital in the intervention group with that in the control group sample. The qualitative study also concentrated on this issue and its findings provide important insights into the impact of community contracting on community level capacity.

71. The survey results confirm that the presence of the PRF project in the intervention group resulted in increased time spent over the last year in community activities (an average of 14.4 hours per household versus 8.3 hours in the control group) and in the incidence of community meetings related to the project (40% versus 28% of households mention them). The study also found that 49% of household respondents believed that their experience of working with the PRF had increased peoples' willingness to work together in the community, compared with only 16% who though it had not done so. In fully half the sites where a PRF has been completed (18 of the 36 studied) further community driven requests for projects have arisen. This is a very positive finding.

72. The perceptions of the qualitative study participants that the community had been improved through PRF project execution were unanimous and often emphatic. All communities and institutions in which projects were executed or in the process of completion reported deriving benefits from the project. Stated motivation to work in future projects was generally high, especially in social assistance and community contracting projects. In both cases, those involved were conscious of the potential strengthening of their capacities through the project experience. Projects with less community involvement generally lacked this sense of motivation.

73. However, most of the household level indicators of structural and cognitive social capital specified in the study methodology yield little evidence of a significant difference between the intervention and control groups. This may be indicative of little lasting impact by the PRF on structural social capital – or it may reflect the unsuitability of the chosen indicators and comparison sets to reflect the changes being brought about by the PRF's work.

74. The indicators of structural social capital yield a statistically significant difference in the incidence of participation in a protest or demonstration (36% in the intervention group versus 13% in the control group). But on the other hand there is a lower incidence in the intervention group of lobbying of politicians (20% versus 30%) or contacting newspapers (6% versus 15%), and these differences are also statistically significant. On most of the recorded indicators, very similar values are observed in the intervention and control group, with no statistically significant difference arising in attendance at local council meetings (26% in the intervention group and 29% in the control group), participation in electoral

activities (11% and 16%) or participating in development activities (22% and 22%). Intervention group communities report slightly higher average numbers of persons per household participating in associations (1.4 versus 1.3) and assuming responsibilities (1.2 versus 1.0) but once again, these differences are not statistically significant.

75. The qualitative study findings are consistent with this impression of little lasting difference in levels of structural social capital between intervention and control communities. It found that in both groups, organization capacity at community level was generally weak. Although the PRF's Community Project Committees strengthened local organizational capacity, in most cases they were found to have been dissolved as soon as the project was finished. The study reported that motivation for organization is negatively affected by a generalized distrust in organizations, institutions and leaders and a negative attitude towards organization in general. This happens in spite of the equally generalized recognition of the potential benefits from working collectively for community improvement. Complaints were registered about evaluation visits by institutions and individuals (politicians, officials) that produced project offers that never materialized. The PRF's intervention has not yet managed to change these deep-seated attitudes.

76. In relation to cognitive social capital a similar pattern emerges. These are small, statistically significant differences in the intervention group index number scores compared with the control group on household propensities to trust the police (3.3 versus 3.0), trust nurses and doctors (4.4 versus 4.2) and trust strangers (2.4 versus 2.0) but other cognitive social capital indicators (such as trust in community leaders, government officials and teachers, and the number of people who would lend the respondent money in a crisis, levels of trust in neighbors to look after the children; and the respondents' perception of their own impact on the community's well being) do not show significant differences.

77. One interesting finding in the comparison between the intervention group and the control group is that the expressed commitment to provide support to the project in the control group is much higher than the real commitment found in the intervention group. For example 100% express willingness to provide labor and 67% to contribute money – compared with 64% and 12% respectively who really had provided these types of support in the intervention group. These differences are probably ascribable in part to strategic responses which seek to validate the proposed project in communities which have not yet had confirmation of funding. Expressed expectation in the control group sample of benefiting from the project (81%) is also higher than that really observed in the intervention group (71%).

Employment generation

78. Data from the PRF M&E system show that the EU-SFA projects had a significant impact on employment generation, creating a total of 335 jobs (199 for men and 136 for women) and 10,858 person-days of employment. PRF pays unskilled labor at the rate of EC$40 to 50 a day; skilled labor can earn double this.

79. The household survey found that in the seven EU projects sampled an average of 7 people in the sample had been employed on the project. In World-Bank projects the figure was much lower (2.6). This difference reflects the fact that the EU projects are specially designed for providing short-term employment opportunities to farmers, farm laborers, members of farm families or communities affected by the EU decision on banana trade.

80. On World Bank projects the average number of days worked is 28; for EU projects it is 46 days. However, average earnings per worker are quite similar, because the average daily rate paid on the EU projects is lower. The average wage for the World Bank funded projects is EC$51 compared with EC$38 for EU-funded projects. The average daily wages paid by the Fund to men are EC$50.43, while those for women are EC$30.79. Two thirds of the persons employed are men, and most of the persons who got a job are between 30 and 49 years old (56%) and are married or in union (61%). Only 25% of respondents stated that the PRF was replacing either totally or partially a previously lost job. In most cases, the PRF employment was a new job (37%), or an additional job (26%).

Contracting mode and its impact on capacity building

81. The qualitative study found that capacity building varied according to project type and mode of sub-project execution; and the type of training provided to the Community Project Committees (CPC).

82. Projects executed through private contracting, particularly water projects executed directly by WASCO, resulted in little capacity building. In these cases, CPC functions were limited and temporary: they were in charge of drawing up the list of beneficiaries prior to execution.

83. Social assistance projects did generate capacity building, but only among the involved institution's personnel, as these projects did not involve the community in which they are located. However, within these limitations, impact in this area was high and provided those involved with motivation to attempt to work again in similar projects.

84. Projects executed through community contracting generated the highest level of capacity building. The beneficiaries recognize their improved capacities, and also show a higher motivation to continue working in projects executed this way. Their capacities improved mainly in the areas of project procurement and management. Their interaction with the PRF required extensive preparation and paperwork.

85. The preparation phase included the assessment of their problems and priorization of alternatives prior to the elaboration of project documents. Participative discussion of problems and proposal of solutions had not been common practices in these communities.

86. Registered complaints about this phase focus mainly on an excessive amount of paperwork that was often rendered more confusing by the population's low levels of literacy. The other main complaint was the complex communication with the PRF. Projects in the south suggested that better communication could have been achieved if the PRF project officer had lived in the area, not in Castries.

87. Project management generated capacity building through training and hands-on experience. Training was provided only to CPC members, however, since CPC members are usually community leaders their training benefits all of their communities. For many of the persons involved, this was their first experience handling large sums of money, contracting and supervising personnel, project monitoring and supervision, and other project duties that required constant interaction with the PRF, the contractors and the community.

88. The household survey found that communities where projects were implemented under community contracting now have a better community organization (with 51% holding regular community meetings, versus 32% in the private contracting group) and an increased community participation by individual

members (29% had participated in community-oriented activities over the last year, as compared to 20% in the private contracting group). It is also noteworthy that there is more local employment generated under community contracting.

Opinions of the PRF

89. The PRF, as an institution, has a high level of recognition and a positive image. Complaints registered regarded project execution and administrative procedures, not the relationship with the PRF itself. Many suggestions for improving services were offered. The PRF was readily identified as responsible for the projects, and many expressed feelings of gratitude and trust towards the institution.

90. Suggestions for improved PRF services and community relations centered on improvement of communications with PRF personnel as well as with the institution itself. This could be achieved through more agile, less bureaucratic channels.

91. Administrative procedures were a common source of complaints. CPC were made up of persons with little or no experience in bureaucratic requirements, so they often found project administrative demands excessively complex and confusing. Delays in disbursements were recorded in various communities. This affected CPC working under the community-contracting model as it had an impact on their relationship with contractors and suppliers, as well as with laborers hired in the community.

Conclusions and recommendations

92. *Access to social and economic infrastructure.* The study found that the impact on access of water and sanitation and road and footpath projects was very positive, but found a less clear impact from education projects and reforestation projects. The IT projects will likely have a big impact once they are fully operational so long as the sustainability issues of covering the operating costs can be resolved.

93. Capacity building and strengthening: The training offered as a integral component of the sub-projects was well received and deemed very useful by all respondents, whether it was directly related to the corresponding project, related to general project management issues, or was aimed at skill building in other areas. However, a long-term follow-up study would be needed to assess the impact of training in terms of facilitating access to permanent, paid, qualified employment or to development of own business, rather than just being used to facilitate project implementation.

94. *Perceived quality of work*: SFD projects are generally perceived to have been of good quality. According to project survey respondents (who might be expected to be more knowledgeable on this point) 92% of projects were classified as “good quality”; only for water projects did the proportion fall below 90%. According to household level responses, the water and footpaths projects get the best marks from the households, with 80% of satisfaction overall, while education and reforestation projects are in the range of 50-55%.

95. *Participation of beneficiaries*: in addition to paid employment in the SFA projects, community members contributed through voluntary labor, donation of materials, financial contribution, or other mechanisms including provision of water and food for the workers, administrative and supervision support for the project

implementation. Community participation was higher on project sites with community contracting, often within the concept of *koudmain*.

96. *Sustainability*: The study findings raise some concerns about sub-project sustainability, apart from water projects which are run by WASCO. Although half of the project survey respondents claim that provision for maintenance have been made in the project design, the appropriation of this concept by the communities themselves is very low. There are particular concerns related to footpath projects and IT projects that need to be addressed.

97. Targeting the poor and vulnerable: the study's findings on the targeting results of the PRF are positive. A high proportion of the program's resources go the poorest areas and households and only a small proportion of the funds leaks into the top of the income distribution. Targeting outcomes were especially positive for water and footpath projects. PRF should continue using the same procedures to ensure that it reaches the poor.

98. Social capital: the study finds clear evidence of increased participation and involvement in the community as a result of PRF interventions and finds evidence of positive spin-offs such as new project proposals arising in beneficiary communities. However, the household level measures of structural and cognitive social capital in the intervention communities are found to be low and not markedly different from those found in a control group sample, and the qualitative study suggests that the organizational impetus of the PRF may be transitory and the underlying resistance to participating in communal efforts remains strong. The PRF has made an important step in the right direction but St. Lucia still has a long way to go to promote greater levels of social capital.

99. *Community contracting:* Both the qualitative and quantitative components of the study find clear benefits from the community contracting approach compared with traditional private contracts, in terms of the community mobilization and capacity building outcomes of the PRF interventions. This approach should be continued and reinforced in footpath projects. However, in water projects, where communities are being connected to the WASCO systems, the water company should continue to be the implementing agency. or order to ensure compliance with the company's norms. However, PRF should explore with WASCO the possibility of building in to these projects a stronger community input through the use of local labor – possibly donated through *koudmain* – for the unskilled tasks such as ditching.

Employment generation: The SFD has had a clear positive impact in temporary employment generation in the beneficiary communities, especially in EU funded projects and in projects that use community contracting. But in most of the cases, the PRF-sponsored job was either a new, or an additional job, not a fully-fledged replacement for a lost job in the banana growing activity. The SFD is not an appropriate instrument to replace long term jobs as a direct employer. It can, however, help address this issue through the long term impact of its training activities.

1 Introduction

1.1 Contents of the report

This report presents the results of the Saint Lucia Poverty Reduction Fund 2003 Impact Evaluation Survey conducted in October and November 2003. The survey included a household and a project survey, as well as a qualitative study. A methodology report (Report No. 1) was produced in September 2003, which described the conceptual framework for the study methodology, the sampling design and procedures, the instruments to be used (draft questionnaires for the household and project surveys) and the proposed implementation plan. The Interim Report (Report No. 2) written in December 2003 covered the in-country preparation of evaluation surveys (sampling, definitive questionnaires, actualization of maps, training of field workers), the implementation of field work, including problems encountered in the field and their solutions, and results of the data collection phase, and the data processing issues: quality control and data entry.

This chapter provides (in Section 1.2) a short description of the PRF. Chapter 2 summarizes the methodology used for the survey. It outlines the evaluation framework and the issue of comparison group definition. It then reviews briefly the sampling and mapping process (2.2), the design of instruments and training and organization of field work (2.3), and the results of the data collection process in terms of information obtained (2.4).

Chapter 3 reports the findings of the surveys and is organized according to the evaluation themes provided by the terms of reference for the evaluation:

- **Does PRF increase access to, and quality of, social and economic infrastructure?** Section 3.1 describes the various types of sub-projects and assesses the changes in service access and coverage brought by their implementation.
- **Do PRF investments reflect the priorities of targeted beneficiaries and communities?** Section 3.2 explores the consistency between program and beneficiaries' perspectives through consensus on priorities, opinions on the quality of works and participation of beneficiaries.
- **Will communities maintain sub-projects and will benefits be sustained?** Section 3.3 looks at mechanisms put in place to ensure the long-term impact of the Fund's intervention.
- **Are PRF investments targeted on the poor and the vulnerable?** Section 3.4 reviews the geographic distribution of the Fund's activities and reports on a benefit incidence analysis which measures the proportion of PRF resources channeled towards the poorest segments of the population.
- **What impact does PRF have on social capital?** Section 3.5 reports survey findings for PRF intervention and control groups' social capital characteristics, together with the evidence of recall questions and participatory evaluation on whether the Fund's intervention has changed the capacity of the community to organize and work towards the improvement of their standards of living.
- **What impact does PRF have on short-term employment creation?** Section 3.6 analyses the job creation impact of EU-funded projects which aim to alleviate the impact job loss and declining earnings in banana growing

areas; it also looks at the differential effects on local employment of community contracting, co-implementation (use under the EU SFA program) and traditional contracting modalities.

- **What difference does community contracting make and what is the beneficiaries' perception of the PRF?** Section 3.7 evaluates community contracting.
- **What are the beneficiaries' opinions of the PRF?** Section 3.8 reviews the evidence gathered on the PRF's credibility and the overall beneficiary appraisal of PRF as an agency.

The study's conclusions and recommendations are summarized in Chapter 4. Annexes include: (A) the list and main characteristics of the survey sample's projects/areas, (B) the detailed results of the test of significance performed to assess the importance of differences observed between groups, (C) general and socio-economic characteristics of those groups, as a background to interpreting the survey's results; and (D) detailed tabulation of survey findings by sub-project type.

1.2 The PRF Program: summary description

The St Lucia PRF is a small social investment fund, which has been supported by the World Bank through a Learning and Innovation Loan and has also received funding from the European Union.

To date it has financed over 100 projects in all, of which 60 were included in the study universe for the present evaluation. Of there, 49 were funded by the World Bank and 11 were funded by the EU under the Special Framework of Assistance (SFA), whose purpose is to help communities that will be negatively affected by the liberalization of the European banana market. Table 1 describes the distribution of projects funded to date by funding agency and by intervention type.

Table 1 – PRF projects to date

Funding agency	Type of intervention	Number of projects	Amount invested, $EC mln	% of projects	% of invest-ment
EU/ SFA	Footpaths and drains	6	0.8	10%	11%
	Reforestation	2	0.3	3%	4%
	Other	3	0.4	5%	5%
	Sub total	***11***	***1.5***	***18%***	***20%***
W.Bank	Water and sanitation	12	1.5	20%	20%
	Economic infrastructure	16	1.9	27%	25%
	Education	8	1.0	13%	14%
	Social assistance	7	0.8	12%	10%
	Community empowerment	3	0.5	5%	6%
	Health	1	0.2	2%	2%
	Income generation	1	0.1	2%	1%
	Sport infrastructure	1	0.2	2%	2%
	Sub total	***49***	***6.1***	***82%***	***80%***
TOTAL		**60**	**7.6**	**100%**	**100%**

Key features of the projects as implemented include the following:

- **Demand driven**: PRF responds to requests from the community, validated in an appraisal process that confirms that the request matches local needs and priorities.
- **Ownership and sustainability:** For every project, a Community Project Committee (CPC) is formed to coordinate with the PRF during implementation and assume ongoing responsibility for the sustainability of the works.
- **Poverty targeting**: Allocation of resources is based on the evaluation of the specific poverty characteristics of the soliciting community (using the Government's poverty map, based on the 1991 Census[1]). Every PRF project can be related to the poverty decile to which the beneficiary community belongs. This is coupled with a check on the specific conditions of the immediate beneficiary community carried out by Program officers, using criteria specified in the Operational Manual.
- **Menu**: there is an indicative, flexible menu in the Operational Manual. In practice, in response to the pattern of demand from the communities, PRF has concentrated on: education, roads and footpaths (known as economic infrastructure) and water and sanitation. There is a ceiling of EC$ 250,000 for PRF funding to any project.[2]
- **Contracting**: PRF has developed community contracting as well as more traditional contracting through private companies. In total, 16 projects have used community contracting. These are all World Bank funded projects. They represent 27% of all PRF projects (33% of World Bank funded projects) and 28% of all PRF investment (35% of World Bank funded investment).
- **Capacity building and strengthening**: PRF generally assigns a global provision of 20% on top of the estimated cost of works to fund community capacity building activities in response to the community's appreciation of its main needs in this area. These activities are not necessarily all related to the type of physical investment undertaken.

[1] This gives a poverty index number and population estimate for each of 400 communities on the island.

[2] Exchange Rate: EC$3.5 = US$1.00

2 Study methodology

A methodology report (Report No. 1) was produced in September 2003, which described the conceptual framework for the study methodology, the sampling design and procedures, the instruments to be used for the household and project surveys and the proposed implementation plan. Here, we present a summary of the main points.

It should be noted that this impact evaluation study was carried out very soon after the completion of the sub-projects. This was made necessary by the requirement that the study be completed before closing the World Bank loan operation in support of the PRF. This without doubt has limited the possibility of capturing some of the impacts, which will take longer to materialize

2.1 The evaluation process

2.1.1 Evaluation framework: the terms of reference

The Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy for the Poverty reduction Fund was outlined in the Project Appraisal Document (Report No. 19238 SLU), then developed and updated during the implementation of the pilot phase, better to reflect the evolution of the program. The terms of reference for the consultant's contract provide the operating framework and the study questions for the evaluation.

The primary objective of the Impact Evaluation is to assess the impact and performance of the Poverty Reduction Fund by examining the extent to which the project's results concur with its initial objectives. The areas of concern are the following key performance indicators specified in the Monitoring and Evaluation system:

- Increases in access to and quality of social and economic infrastructure and services.
- Evidence that investments reflect the priorities of the targeted communities and beneficiaries.
- Evidence of a satisfactory level of sustainability for the operation and maintenance of subprojects.
- Evidence that the investments are targeted to the poor and vulnerable.
- Evidence that communities, including those in the banana belt, are taking more leadership in planning and managing development initiatives, i.e., that the sub-project enhances social capital.
- Evidence of the positive impact of short-term employment opportunities for banana farmers, laborers and their families.

The main topics covered in the final report are outlined below.

a) Evidence pertaining to whether the PRF increased access and to and quality of social and economic infrastructure and services.
   - In communities where PRF implemented educational projects, are there more children going to school?

- In communities with water projects, has the quality of improved; has the availability of water increased, and have savings been made on the cost of water?
- In communities where PRF implemented economic infrastructure projects, has access to social and economic services and infrastructure increased?
- In communities where PRF implemented Capacity Building and Strengthening programs, how has the training impacted upon the quality of life of the beneficiaries?
- Has access to and quality of services increased and improved among vulnerable groups where PRF implemented Social Assistance programs?

b) Evidence that investments reflect the priorities of the targeted communities and beneficiaries.
   - Did beneficiaries report that the project (including training activities) met their priority needs?
   - Are beneficiaries satisfied with the projects selected and implemented?
   - Do beneficiaries participate in project/program identification, prioritization, implementation and maintenance?

c) Evidence that communities will maintain the subproject and that its benefits will be sustained.
   - What provisions has the community made to maintain the project?
   - In the time since project completion, does it appear that the project has been maintained?
   - To what extent are community residents involved in the maintenance of the sub-project?

d) Evidence that the investments are targeted to the poor and vulnerable.
   - Is the geographic allocation of program funds across communities well targeted?
   - How effective is the decile ranking in identifying the target population?
   - Which households participate in the program and receive its benefits?
   - Which ones do not?
   - What are the perceptions of respondents regarding the fairness and/or transparency of how PRF selects community sub-projects?

e) Evidence of impact on social capital.
   - Are the communities demonstrating more trust in local institutions?
   - Are residents demonstrating more trust in each other?
   - Is there evidence that communities are working together more effectively to address community problems?

f) Evidence of the impact of the short-term employment interventions.
   - What are the short and long term implications of the employment program for the target groups and communities?
   - To what extent has the short-term employment program served or is likely to serve as a safety net for target groups, in light of the ongoing restructuring of the banana industry.

- How does the short-term employment approach compare with other methods of implementation on key objectives such as quality of works, social capital development, sustainability, poverty targeting?

2.1.2 The comparison-group issue

To measure the impact of a development project one would ideally like to have available both ex-ante (baseline) and ex-post observations for a representative sample of the intervention group and for a well defined control group. One can then observe whether there is a "difference of differences" between the baseline and ex-post observations in the intervention and control group that is likely to be attributable to the intervention of the project.

However, it is often difficult to procure a full dataset of this sort, and alternative approaches must be then found to determine a proxy for the "without project": situation that allows for meaningful comparison with the situation observed in the project intervention group. Such approaches might include: baseline – ex-post comparisons made without the use of a control group; and ex-post observations compared with recall data collected in the same survey.

At an early stage in the development of the PRF M&E strategy, it was agreed between the World Bank and the PRF management, not to apply a full treatment group / control group approach, because of resource constraints. This section explains the methodology used in the present study to try to establish meaningful comparisons that allow for reasonable inferences about the PRF's impact on the study variables.

(i) *Comparison group for service access, coverage and quality*

The key proposed comparison group for the evaluation of PRF impacts in relation to service access, coverage and quality is the pre-intervention status of the beneficiary households and communities. The M&E plan specified that the PRF's appraisal process should generate, for all projects, quantitative ex-ante data on variables related to service access, coverage and quality. This was to be incorporated into the PRF's MIS for use as a comparator with ex-post data gathered in the impact evaluation study. However, due to difficulties in developing the project appraisal process and to communication failures, these data were not collected on a satisfactory basis.

Thus, the impact evaluation of the PRF had to be undertaken without the benefit of purposefully-collected baseline data at project or household level of either a qualitative or a quantitative nature. As a result, data for the ex-ante situation had to be generated using alternative techniques. Three complementary approaches were used in an effort to generate valid comparators to represent the ex-ante situation of the intervention communities in relation to service access / coverage and service quality:

- The inspection of institutional registers such as school registers for the number of persons enrolled in different grades, and Water and Sewerage Company (WASCO) registers for the number of household connections to water supplies in given communities, prior to the PRF intervention.
- The use of the 2001 national household census (which predated the PRF's interventions) to provide baseline data on relevant variables including

household demography, educational status, access to water and sanitation and travel time to access key facilities.
- The use of recall questions in the project, household and qualitative surveys to establish the situation that existed prior to the PRF intervention.

(ii) *Comparison group for social capital impact measurement.*
At the beginning of the PRF project, an effort was made to generate baseline data for social capital in a sample of intervention communities using participatory appraisal techniques (a full quantitative baseline study was beyond resource constraints). The findings from this exercise were a useful diagnostic of the social capital situation, which was used as an input into the program's development, but they did not provide the sort of baseline data that could easily be replicated after project implementation to evaluate the impact of the PRF on social capital.

In response to this situation, in the design phase of the impact evaluation survey in 2003, several alternatives were considered for establishing a valid comparison group for social capital impact measurement. The chosen option was that of comparing present conditions of social capital in PRF beneficiary communities with present conditions in a control group sample of non beneficiary communities.

The control group sample was drawn from communities whose requests for PRF funding are pending approval but are not yet guaranteed . The study methodology used 2001 Census data to identify within the group of pending requests, communities with similar pre-intervention (2001) characteristics to those of the communities in the intervention sample.[3] The household survey and the participatory evaluation included questions to establish the present level of structural and cognitive social capital and to register opinions on recent trends, as compared with the situation prior to the PRF's intervention.

In addition to the data provided by the primary investigation carried out for the study, the analysis uses data generated by the PRF's Monitoring and Evaluation system, which includes a detailed project database.

2.2 Sample design

2.2.1 Sampling for the Household and Project Surveys

As explained in section 2.1, the evaluation is based mainly on the comparison of conditions before and after the PRF's intervention in a sample of the program's "intervention" communities. Table 2 summarizes the structure of the sample for the impact evaluation survey.

[3] This procedure has the disadvantage that, if the PRF appraisal process is systematic, the communities whose projects are eventually turned down ought to have systematically different ex-ante conditions than those that are accepted. A superior comparator would be a sample of pipeline project communities which are *definitely approved* for PRF support, but not yet implemented. This approach was used in other social investment fund impact evaluations where baseline data are not available (for instance, that of Honduras in 1999 and that of Yemen in 2002). However, inspection of the PRF project pipeline showed that there were not a sufficient number of projects in this condition to constitute a representative sample.

The Poverty Reduction Fund provided the study team with an updated list of 41 sub-projects completed by September 2003. Those included:

- World Bank-funded projects: 15 economic infrastructure projects, 8 water and sanitation projects, 6 education projects, 2 social assistance projects and one project each of community empowerment and sports infrastructure
- EU-funded projects: 8 economic infrastructure projects, including two reforestation projects.

Therefore, all economic infrastructure, water and sanitation and education sub-projects were included in the sample; however, one WB-funded infrastructure project (Construction of footpath at Bagatelle) was selected as the site for the pilot field work and thus retired from the final sample of 36 sub-projects.

Table 2 Sample distribution for the primary investigation

Fund-ing agency	Type of intervention	No. of projects in universe	No. of projects completed at 09/03	Project survey sample			House-hold survey sample	Quali-tative survey sample
				Community contract or co-implementation	Traditional Contract	Total	Total	Total
EU/ SFA	Sub total	11	8	8	0	8	192	1
	Reforestation	2	2	2				
	Footpaths and	6	6	6				
	Other	3	0					
World Bank	**Sub total**	**49**	**33**	**6**	**22**	**28**	**672**	**8**
	Water & sanitation	12	8	1	7	8	192	2
	Economic Infrastructure	16	15	1	13	14	336	2
	Education	8	6	4	2	6	144	1
	Social assistance	7	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Community empowerment	3	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Health	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Income generation	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Sport infrastructure	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Non – intervention communities		300	0	n/a	n/a	n/a	288	3
TOTAL		60	41	14	22	36	1,152	12

A control group for the evaluation of social capital impacts (see discussion above) was drawn from communities whose requests for PRF funding are pending

[4]The Bellevue Computer/IT Center school was substituted by the Saltibus Combined Secondary School Expansion project in Laborie district; the proposed La Caye Water expansion and road development project was substituted by the TiColon Construction of footpath project in Castries, then by the Desbarra project in Gros Islet; the Cacoa-En Bamboo road repair project was substituted by the Aupicon Construction of drains project in the same district of Vieux Fort; the Darban proposed site for water project was substituted by the Morne Paul Project; finally, the Pierrot Water System Expansion project was substituted by the Balca Water System Expansion in Laborie district. See the interim report on survey implementation for details on the causes of each of these substitutions.

approval but are not yet guaranteed. The selection of 12 control communities was made in three steps:

- selection of 36 sub-projects, which matched one-to-one the completed sub-projects of the intervention sample on the following criteria: sector of project request (water and sanitation, education, footpaths); district (but located in a different settlement); poverty index, as determined by the 1991 Census.
- systematic random sampling to select every third project, leading to a control group sample of 12 sub-projects.
- some potential control sites were later substituted with others in the same sector and usually in the same district[5].

This sampling process yielded eight control projects in the infrastructure (footpath) sector, two in the education sector and two in the water sector. Annex A1 provides a listing of all 48 sampled sites (36 project sites and 12 control sites) with their characteristics, including type of contracting / procurement, funding source and poverty index.

2.2.2 Mapping of the enumeration areas

The Statistical Office of the Government of St. Lucia had agreed to provide the Fund with maps of relevant enumeration areas updated for the 2001 Population Census. The survey coordinators worked with the Mapping Department staff to identify those relevant enumeration and the maps were produced and assembled over the first three weeks of the field work.

Several problems arose in the use of the maps:

- Some maps had been prepared in 1997-8 and not fully updated for the 2001 census, and as a result, excluded some dwellings built since then.
- Some maps failed to differentiate between occupied dwellings and other buildings (stores, schools, abandoned houses)
- The exact location of some project's sites – or potential sites - was difficult to pinpoint on the maps, even for the Fund's Program Officers.

For these reasons, in order to center the household sampling universe on the actual or potential project sites and ensure all existing dwellings were registered, a re-mapping exercise was carried out before field work began.

2.2.3 Sampling procedures at household level

For each project or control site, a systematic random sample of six clusters, each of four houses, was selected from the segment map[6]. Substitutions were only

[5]The Bellevue Computer/IT Center school was substituted by the Saltibus Combined Secondary School Expansion project in Laborie district; the proposed La Caye Water expansion and road development project was substituted by the TiColon Construction of footpath project in Castries, then by the Desbarra project in Gros Islet; the Cacoa-En Bamboo road repair project was substituted by the Aupicon Construction of drains project in the same district of Vieux Fort; the Darban proposed site for water project was substituted by the Morne Paul Project; finally, the Pierrot Water System Expansion project was substituted by the Balca Water System Expansion in Laborie district. See the interim report on survey implementation for details on the causes of each of these substitutions.

[6] Where the map could not be updated beforehand, the sampling procedure selected groups of dwellings but not individual houses. In the field, the enumerators updated the map for the selected group and then selected at random a starting house, which need not be on the original map. The starting house and the three adjacent inhabited dwellings then

allowed if the selected building indicated on the map was a component part of a main dwelling that was separately mapped (eg a stand-alone kitchen), or was not inhabited, eg, a store, a public service building or an abandoned house, as verified from interviews with the neighbors. If it was known that someone was living in the building but could not be located in three visits, the result of the survey for this household was written as "Respondent absent".

2.2.4 Qualitative survey

The qualitative evaluation was carried out in 12 communities, selected according to the following criteria:

- Six communities were selected from the household survey of completed projects (five with World Bank funded projects and one community from the EU funded Special Framework of Assistance).
- Three communities were selected from the control group sample for the household survey (these are communities that are not yet beneficiaries of PRF projects, but are in the pipeline for future projects).
- Two social assistance and one community empowerment projects. The social assistance projects have an area of influence that goes well beyond the communities in which they are physically located; while the community empowerment project s are community based. It should be noted that these classes of project were not covered by the quantitative survey.

A list of the sampled communities and projects is included in Annex A2.

2.3 Evaluation Instruments and training

2.3.1 Finalization of the questionnaires

Comments on the draft questionnaires were obtained from the PRF, the World Bank, the European Union, and from the enumerators and surveyors during the training sessions. Further modifications were brought in after field testing. Adjustments were made to adapt the questions to the St. Lucia and PRF context and to minimize the length of the questionnaires, in order to facilitate a high response rate, without sacrificing the quality and precision of the survey.

The final set of questionnaires, reproduced in Annex B of the Interim Report, includes the following components:

- ***For the intervention group***:
    - a main household questionnaire, with modules on Characteristics of Dwelling (1), Household Composition and Education Achievements (2), Economic Activity (3), Social Capital in the Community (4), and Opinion of Project Beneficiaries (5)
    - a sector-specific household questionnaire module for each type of sub-project: Water and Sanitation (6), Economic Infrastructure (7), Education (8) or Reforestation (9)
- ***For the control group:***
    - a household questionnaire, with the same modules (1) to (4) used for the intervention group and a fifth module exploring the opinion of potential beneficiaries of upcoming PRF projects.

---

constituted the sampled cluster. This approach is designed to equalize the probability of selection for mapped and un-mapped dwellings.

The ***qualitative evaluation*** was based on: in-depth interviews with key informants; and focus groups with beneficiaries and other persons involved in project execution. Thematic guides were designed for both the key informant interviews and the focus groups. A copy of the thematic guides was provided in Annex D of the Interim Report.

2.3.2 Training of enumerators and surveyors

Field staff was recruited by the PRF M&E Officer from candidates with experience in previous household surveys, including the 2001 Population Census. The following staff eventually participated in the field work for the quantitative survey:

- 21 household survey enumerators
- 6 quality control/project surveyors
- 2 coding officers

The enumerators were responsible for data collection for the household survey. The quality control/project surveyors completed the project survey and conducted the quality control process (repeat interviews) in a sample of the households visited by the enumerators. The job descriptions for the field staff are attached in Annex E of the Interim Report.

The training took place in Castries, under the direction of the principal analyst and the PRF M&E officer. It included a general introduction to the survey's objectives and methodology, a systematic, question-by-question, review of the household and project survey's questionnaires, with practical role-playing sessions conducted among trainees, and a detailed explanation of the field procedures to be followed, which were documented in the Guidelines for Enumerators.

A field test was conducted on October 7, in the area of Castries-Bagatelle, on the site of a footpath project. Each trainee conducted between 2 and 3 interviews. The field test confirmed the importance of ensuring that the sampled households were real or potential beneficiaries of the PRF intervention, especially for projects with well-defined areas of influence, such as water and footpaths projects.

2.4 Survey implementation and results

2.4.1 The household survey

- Data collection

Data collection took place between October 9th and November 18th, 2003. The enumerator teams were provided with pre-numbered questionnaires, a map of the area indicating the sampled dwellings and a routing sheet on which they would record the date(s) and result of the visits, the name of the respondents (in order to facilitate later identification by the quality control/project surveyor), the number of the dwellings eventually selected for substitution, and any further comment. Enumerators were instructed to peer-review their completed questionnaires before returning them to headquarters for checking and coding.

- Quality control

(a) Quality control/project surveyors were assigned to each team. These staff implemented the project survey and also applied the quality control protocol to the household survey sample. They re-visited one dwelling in each of the six clusters

to verify that the interview had actually taken place, recover the visit note left by the enumerator, and apply a short quality control questionnaire drawn from the original household questionnaire. Copies of the two formats (used alternately) for the quality control questionnaires, were attached as Annex F of the Interim Report.

(b) Two coding officers reviewed each completed household questionnaire for completeness and internal consistency. They also verified the consistency of the original questionnaires and the quality control questionnaires. In case of discrepancies or missing information, they contacted the relevant enumerator/surveyor to discuss the issue and if necessary return the questionnaire to the field.

2.4.2 Project survey

The project survey was conducted between October 11 and November 26, 2003, together with the household survey quality control exercise. In the 36 sampled completed projects, the questionnaire was completed interviewing a key informant, usually a member of the Community Project Committee for Infrastructure or Water projects, or a school headmaster or teacher for the education projects. Additional information was obtained from the PRF, from the schools' records, or from the Water And Sewerage Company (WASCO).

2.4.3 Qualitative survey

The qualitative survey took place between October 8 and 26, 2003. This survey included key informant interviews with people who played an important role in project execution, and focus groups with direct beneficiaries. When possible, separate focus groups were conducted with men and women. It is noteworthy that women's attendance and participation in focus groups and key informant discussions was greater than that of men.

Many of the focus groups were conducted in Creole. In these cases, the PRF Evaluation Officer acted as facilitator and the transcriptions were translated to English for analysis purposes.

Careful note taking was undertaken during both focus groups and interviews; both types of session were also recorded. The notes taken were transcribed and verified against the recordings. Resulting information was processed with the aid of *The Ethnograph*, a computer program for qualitative data analysis.

Key informant interviews were sometimes problematic due to the fact that informants were absent at the time of our visits. In some cases, key informants preferred to participate in focus groups rather than grant an individual interview. In these cases, they were allowed to participate in the group, but care was taken to ensure that opinions of all participants were expressed, and not just that of leadership figures.

One theme addressed only by the qualitative component of the study was the consolidation and institutionalization of the PRF's leadership lead role in poverty related interventions in the Government of St Lucia. Key informants for this part of the evaluation included the Director of the PRF and the Minister of Culture.

2.4.4 Results of the data collection process

The site-by-site results of the data collection process are shown in Annex G. The designed sample was 1,152 (24 households on each of 48 project sites or control group communities). Overall, 1,014 valid household questionnaires were returned (88% of the designed sample). The shortfall is due to the fact not all sites had 24 eligible households that could be interviewed – some yielded numbers as low as nine. This was the result of the above-mentioned decision to limit sampling at each project site strictly to real beneficiary households of the sub-projects. Taking households from outside the set of real or potential beneficiaries would have distorted the study findings.

For the 1014 returned questionnaires, the completion rate was 85.3%, giving a total of 865 completed questionnaires, that is, 75% of the designed sample (Table 3). The main factor reducing the overall response rate is the 9.6% incidence of "absent respondent": the explanation most commonly given by neighbors was that the person(s) living in the house had left the country for travel abroad. The rate of refusal – 3.1% - is similar to that observed in other surveys.

In total, 248 quality control questionnaires were completed, representing 86% of the designed sample of QC questionnaires and 29% of completed household questionnaires.

Table 3 - Results of the data collection process

	# sites	Total quest.	Completed	% completed	Incom-plete	Respon-dent absent	Refusal	Quality Control
Control group	12	233	207	88.8	3	12	2	56
Education	6	142	133	97.7	4	2	3	36
Reforestation	2	48	46	95.8	2	0	0	11
Economic Infrastructure	20	438	350	79.9	4	49	21	105
Water/ Sanitation	8	153	129	84.3	1	20	1	40
Total (Percent)	48	1,014	865	85.3	14 (1.6)	83 (9.6)	27 (3.1)	248 (86.1)*

* from an expected number of 288 (48 x 6)

Altogether, 69 substitutions were made, due to the selected building not being a dwelling (6.8% of the sample). As would be expected, the proportion of substitutions was lower in areas where the re-mapping exercise had been conducted (3.5%) than when the teams used the original census maps (12.3%).

2.5 Data Processing

Once all data from the project and household surveys were collected and the coding finalized, the questionnaires were sent to the ESA Consultores offices in Honduras, for processing into the survey databases. The data entry process was conducted from November 6 to 12 and from December 1 to 17, 2003, using a double entry mechanism as a quality control strategy. Database cleaning checked for the correct assignation of questionnaires by analytical category (control/intervention and distribution by sector), identified outliers, and corrected the database if entry error was confirmed. The analysis was conducted using SPSS, Stata and Excel.

3 Findings

The study's main findings are presented in this section, organized around the study questions in the Terms of Reference. Information comes from the three main sources mentioned in the methodology section: the household survey, the project survey and the qualitative survey. The specific source is indicated as appropriate.

3.1 PRF impact on access to, and quality of, social and economic infrastructure and services

Poverty reduction programs such as the PRF often invest in making basic services more accessible to the poor. Inadequate access to basic services such as education is an important dimension of poverty, increasing isolation and making it more difficult to emerge from poverty.

This section reports findings from the project survey and for the project-specific sections of the household survey for the 36 completed projects in the survey sample, compared with the pre-intervention situation of the same communities. It describes the types of sub-project implemented by the Fund, in order to help the reader understand the potential impact of these projects, and then reports indicators for service utilization and quality.

3.1.1 Education Projects

The survey covered six education projects in five districts. Two are located in pre-school institutions, two in primary schools and two in combined primary/secondary schools. Three of the projects, in Dennery, Banse-la-Grace and Laborie, were implemented through community contracting. All were funded by the World Bank. The information from the project survey was provided by school teachers in La Croix Maingot and Dennery schools, and by headmasters in the other four, all women, all but one of whom lives at the project site.

Given the high prevailing level of school registration in St. Lucia, the PRF projects are not aimed at increasing the enrollment rate, but rather at improving the quality of facilities. One sampled project extended an existing building to create additional administrative and support rooms; two projects rehabilitated existing buildings; one created a canteen-cum-kitchenette; and two established Information Technology Centers (ITC). The main project outputs included hallways, fences, toilets, store and administration room, the canteen and the ITC rooms.

The findings confirm that the PRF projects did not result in increased enrollment in most cases. In fact, enrollment increased in two schools, stayed level in two schools and declined in two schools. The post-intervention pupil-teacher ratio ranges from 13 to 29, which is an acceptable range.[7]

A formal maintenance program exists in three of the six cases studied: Dennery, Laborie and Blanchard, implemented respectively by the Community Project Committee (CPC), the school administration and the Parents/Teachers committee Generally speaking, residents are not very knowledgeable about maintenance (table 4).

[7] The findings of household survey and the project survey are detailed in Annex table C1.

Table 4 - Knowledge of responsibility for school maintenance and PTAs

Who is in charge of maintaining the school?	Yes	No	Doesn't know
Government institution	20.3	6.8	67.7
Church/NGO	10.5	11.3	72.9
Community Project Committee	3.8	10.5	80.5
Parents/Teachers Committee	6.8	10.5	77.4
Household survey. N = 133			

Only 5.3% of households participate in project maintenance through voluntary labor contribution. Overall, 22.6% think that the project has been well maintained since its implementation, 2.3% think it was bad and three fourths did not emit an opinion.

Parents/teachers Associations exist in Dennery, Banse, Laborie and Blanchard. The committee in Laborie was recently created while that in the other three pre-existed the PRF intervention. PTAs meet between two and four times a year. Again, the knowledge of residents, as assessed by the household survey, seems to lag behind, and parents' participation in PTAs is low (table 5).

Table 5. Knowledge and attitudes about parent - teacher associations

	Yes	No	Don't know	n
Is there a parent - teacher association?	32.3	2.3	65.4	133
Did it exist before PRF intervention?	83.7	4.7	11.6	43
Is a member of household member of PTA?	11.6	88.4		43

Information Technology Centers

For the IT Centers in Banse-la-Grace and Laborie Schools, the intervention included purchase of new computers and related equipment (in both cases one network server, 10 computer terminals, two printers and one scanner), rehabilitation of physical installation (with air conditioning in Banse) and installation of an electronic network. Both centers function on a part-time basis - 5 and 10 hours per week- but each has a dedicated teacher/IT support specialist (table 6). 210 children in Banse and 60 children in Laborie are direct beneficiaries of the systems. Access to the IT Center is in principle available for persons outside the school.

Table 6. Outputs of the Information Technology Centers

	Banse –la-Grace	Laborie
Number of weekly class sessions	10	5
Weekly hours of function	10	5
Number of children benefiting	210	60
Dedicated teacher/IT support specialist	Yes	Yes
IT Resources available to persons outside school	Yes	Yes

The knowledge of residents about the IT centers is low: only 29% of household respondents in communities that got an ITC center knew of this component (table 7). Among parents of children attending the schools, less than one third said their child had attended the center (when in principle, at least in one school, the program is supposed, according to the teacher interviewed, to cover almost 90% of the students). However there are only 45 observations so sampling errors may be large here.

Table 7. Households' knowledge of IT Centers

	Yes	No	Doesn't know	n
Did project include development of ITC?	28.9	4.4	66.7	45
Has any child attended the new ITC?	30.8	53.8	15.4	13
Have you seen any ITC output from your child?	30.8	69.2		13
Household survey data for the two sites with ITC centers				

Training for computer maintenance was done in Laborie (7 people) and Banse (1 person). In Laborie, where the same people also received training in Microsoft Office. Other topics of training for education project sites included financial management (Dennery, Monchy), Monitoring and Capacity Building (Monchy), with an emphasis on training women (17 versus 3 in those two sites). Blanchard and La Croix Maingot did not receive any training. Overall, 224 hours of training were provided to men and 768 hours to women, for a total of 182 person-hours of training per project.

Most adult respondents to the survey have little contact with the school, which explains their high level of ignorance about the projects. Table 8 shows the difference a visit to the school can make.

Table 8. Impact of visiting the school on the perception of benefits from PRF education projects

	All respondents		Only those who had visited school	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Increased number of places	23.3	15.0	56.4	28.2
Smaller number of students per class	11.3	18.8	28.2	41.0
Improved physical environment	44.4	1.5	87.2	2.6
Better equipment	34.6	5.3	76.9	7.7
Computer classes	12.0	22.6	28.2	46.2
Access to school facilities for community at large	18.0	15.0	43.6	30.8
Improved safety	32.3	7.5	79.5	10.3
N (household survey)	133		39	

Notwithstanding the positive future potential impact of access to computer technology, or the impact on educational outcomes of improved learning environments, the survey respondents' perception of the overall impact of the education projects on economic, social and time dimensions of their lives is rather disappointing, with less than 10% thinking the project has impacted these dimensions of their lives strongly, and close to half saying there is no impact at all (table 9). This is perhaps due to the fact that relatively little time has elapsed ince the completion of the projects.

Table 9. Impact of education sub-project on the life of resident households

Project has impacted	Very much	Somewhat	Little	Not at all	Made worse
Economic activities	8.3	2.3	6.8	47.4	0.0
Social activities	8.3	3.0	6.8	47.4	0.0
Availability of time	9.8	3.8	4.5	45.9	0.0
N = 133					

3.1.2 Water Projects

The Project survey covered seven water systems projects and one latrine project (Industry, in Choiseul district); all projects were World Bank-funded and all but the latrine project were undertaken under private contracting (through the Water and Sewerage Company – WASCO). Information about the projects was obtained from project managers or administrators in four cases and from members/heads of the Community Project Committee in the other three; all but one of the informants lives in the community where the sub-project was implemented and participated in the implementation.

Four of the water projects dealt with the installation of new systems, while the remaining three were extensions of existing networks. In all cases, the new/expanded systems were part of bigger water systems; they usually serve one community (except two communities in Lumière), with a small number of households, between 10 and 70. The systems have been running for between three and 30 months Details of the surveyed projects are listed in Annex Table D2.

The impacts of the PRF interventions in the water are very clear. The proportion of households with a drinking water supply in their house or yard jumped from 35% to 88%; for domestic use, the proportion rose from 34% to 91% (table 10). Consequently, the proportion of people who had to regularly fetch water from outside decreased from 69% to 21% (table 13), resulting in savings in time spent fetching water, benefiting mainly women, as they are usually assigned to this task.

Table 10. Source of water before and after PRF intervention

	Drinking water		Water for domestic use	
	Before	After	Before	After
Private, piped into dwelling			0.8	
Private catchment, not piped	3.9	3.1	1.6	
Private catchment, piped	2.3	0.8	1.6	0.8
Public, piped into dwelling	14.0	29.5	14.0	31.8
Public, piped into yard	20.9	58.9	20.2	58.9
Public, standpipe	27.1		17.1	0.8
Other	31.8	7.0	45.0	7.0
Number of observations	129		129	

Table 11. Gains obtained from getting water connection in dwelling or yard

	Before PRF	After PRF
% of households needing to fetch water outside dwelling	69.0	27.1
N: 129		
For households fetching water from outside dwelling:		
Time spent (in mins) to go to the water source and back	19.0	11.5
Number of trips per day	5.3	3.8
Approximate quantity of water brought from outside	35.7	31.8
N:	89	35

All systems' operations are under the responsibility of WASCO which, in the opinion of the respondents, has full responsibility for maintenance of the system (at least until the water meter) ensuring a good level of technical sustainability. In

only one project (Richfond) were some people trained on O&M. WASCO states that all seven water systems run 24 hours per day and 365 days per year.

Between half and two thirds of respondents had a favorable opinion of WASCO's performance with regards to quantity and regularity of water supply (table 12). But the quality of water remains a significant problem, with 30% of the residents complaining about it.

Table 12. Households' opinions of WASCO performance (%)

Performance of WASCO on:	Good	Moderate	Bad
Quantity of water supply	65.9	10.9	18.6
Regularity of water supply	62.0	14.7	19.4
Quality of water	54.3	12.4	30.2
Price of water	51.2	17.8	20.9
Repairs and service	52.7	13.2	15.5
N = 129			

WASCO charges for the water consumed in order to finance its operations. The installation of the new system thus led to a big increase in payments for water services from WASCO and a reduction in spending on coping source water (table 15). 95% of users said their payment was based on a meter reading; the tariff is EC$7.35 per 1,000 gallons. A standard tariff for estimated consumption is reported to be EC$14.70 per month, applied even in some cases where there is a meter, but some respondents quoted a higher standard fee of EC$32.54.

Table 13. Patterns of payment for water services

	Before PRF	After PRF
Need to pay for water received from piped system, %	39.5	87.6
Need to pay for water fetched out of the house, %	10.1	5.4
N	129	129
Monthly payment based upon meter reading %	70.0	94.9
Average amount paid last month, EC$	25.80	34.30
N	70	110

All respondents were aware that the project had been supported by the PRF. 75% of key informants knew of discussions prior to the proposal being made to the PRF.

Training organized during the project was of three main types: two projects (Richfond and Terre Vent) provided project-related skills training in Project implementation, Management, Finances, and Capacity building; one project (De Maiye) provided training in information and human relations, plus training in cake decoration, garment making and flower arrangements (mostly for women); finally, one project (Industry) provided training in sanitation to accompany the latrine construction activity. Overall, 316 hours of training were provided to men and 808 hours to women, for a total of 140.5 person-hours of training per project.

Overall, households residing in areas where water and sanitation projects were implemented reported a large impact in important aspects of their life, especially with regards to availability of time and health/physical conditions (table 14).

Table 14. Impact of water projects on the respondents' lives

Project has impacted	Very much	Somewhat	Little	Not at all	Made worse
Economic activities	34.1	20.9	12.4	18.6	0.8
Social activities	35.7	22.5	13.2	14.7	0.8
Availability of time	50.4	17.8	7.0	14.0	0.8
Health/physical	53.5	14.7	9.3	9.3	3.9
N = 129					

When asked about remaining problems in water supply, 23% of respondent to this question (61 cases) say they do not have any. For the others, the cleanliness of the water, especially during the rainy season, is the main problem (57%). Conversely, some people find that it contains too much chlorine. The irregularity of the water supply and the lack of pressure constitute the rest of the complaints.

3.1.3 Footpath Projects

Economic infrastructure (roads and footpaths) projects constitute the bulk of the PRF interventions, whether they are World Bank or European Union funded. They are usually small projects, serving one community or even in some case a single group of households. Information from the 20 surveyed projects was obtained from members of the Community Project Committees (4 chairpersons, 6 others), from site supervisors (2) or other persons (8) including community members and in one case, from a contractor who was previously a CPC member. All but one (in Balata) had been involved in project implementation and all but two (Vanard and Vide Bouteille) were people who live at the project site. Projects had been completed between 2 months and two years before the survey. The main characteristics of the 20 projects are summarized in Annex Table D3.

Six projects were funded by the European Union under the SFA program, using the co-implementation approach; the rest were funded by the World Bank. One WB-funded project in Rivière Mitant was undertaken with community contracting, the others through private contracting. Fifteen projects were related to the creation of new footpaths (or steps), one was a footbridge and the other four dealt with road rehabilitation. The type of engineering work involved included the making and concrete surfacing of footpaths and steps, preparation/rehabilitation of road surfacing, drainage through open or piped drains.

The main expected quantifiable impact of these projects is a reduction in the time needed to reach the main road using the new/repaired footpath or bridge. The project survey provides data on time to reach the road for 12 projects. For eight of these, the survey reports big reductions in the average time, ranging from one third to three quarters of the time needed before the intervention, although in four cases no reduction is reported (Annex table D3).

On average the trip time fell from 9.6 to 5.2 minutes (46%) according to the project survey data. The household survey reports a smaller decrease of 27%, from 8.4 to 6.1 minutes, in the average time needed to reach the main road (table 15).

Table 15. Impact of road and footpath projects on time to reach the nearest road

	Before PRF	After PRF
Average time (in minutes) needed to reach the main road using the footpath/footbridge	8.4	6.1
N	274	282

Note: the average distance from the house of the respondent to the main road is 84 yards.

Another indicator of impact is the number of trips from the dwelling to the main road, using the footpath or footbridge. An increase in the number of trips made is the expected result of the reduced time-cost of the journey, and represents a clear economic benefit (increased consumption of travel). Table 16 reports the average daily number of trips to the main road made by all members of the household, disaggregating these data by motive for the trip. There is a 9% overall increase in the number of trips, and a26% increase in trips made for marketing goods produced at home, and increases of 15% to 20% in the number of trips for work, school (people mentioned the possibility of sending kids to school in any weather) or visiting. Curiously, the number of shopping trips seems to have decreased, maybe because of the possibility of bringing back more goods per trip.

Table 16. Average daily trips per project site using the footpath or footbridge

	Before PRF project	After PRF project	% change
Shopping	219	171	-21.9
Marketing	19	24	26.3
Working	581	675	16.2
Learning	374	429	14.7
Visiting friends/relatives	508	603	18.7
Health	16	16	0.0
Religious	80	81	1.3
Other	565	565	0.0
Total	2,362	2,564	8.6
N households	465		

Table 17 reports household survey respondents' knowledge of the institution in charge of maintenance, which appears, in most cases, to be a responsibility of the residents themselves. Overall, only 26.7% of respondents knew of a maintenance program scheduled for the project; 20.5% said there was no program and 52.8% did not know. 37.1% of households participate in project maintenance through voluntary labor contribution, and only 0.3% make a financial contribution. Overall, 38.9% think that the project has been well maintained since its implementation, 15.1% thinks maintenance was of average quality; 11.6% think it was bad and one third did not have an opinion (data not tabulated).

Table 17 Knowledge of institutions in charge of footpath maintenance

Who is in charge of maintaining the footpath?	Yes	No	Doesn't know
Government institution	4.2	28.2	57.6
Community residents	41.8	3.9	46.3
Maintenance committee	8.3	25.8	56.7
Community Project Committee	11.6	23.4	55.5
N = 337			

The overall impact of this kind of project on people's lives is considered high, with around sixty percent of the respondents estimating that it had either a very important or somewhat important impact on their time availability or their health and physical condition and over 50% stating an important economic and social impact (table 18).

Table 18. Impact of road and footpath projects on respondents' lives

Project has impacted	Very much	Somewhat	Little	Not at all	Made worse
Economic activities	33.5	16.9	11.3	24.9	0.3
Social activities	38.9	19.3	11.0	19.9	0.3
Availability of time	46.3	15.4	9.5	18.1	0.3
Health/physical	42.1	19.6	10.1	16.0	0.3
N = 337					

Training for maintenance was provided in four sites (Tou Cochon, Ravine Poisson, Richfond and St. Peer's Lane). Only in San de Feu was there a mention of paying for maintenance of footpath. This, along with Arundell Hill, was one of the two sites where the status of the maintenance work was deemed as moderate rather than good, as in all other sites.

Other training offered in association with this type of sub-project included general management and capacity building. There was training in community contracting in Riviere Mitant, which included financial management, book keeping, project management. There was CPC training in all projects (eg (Vieux Fort Market Area, San de Feu, Richfond, Balata, La Plois Glos), community development and basic computing (Ravine Poisson), conflict resolution (Arundell Hill), Public Relations and Tourist Guide training (Fonds Gens Libre), plumbing, electricity, cake decoration and garment making (Bruceville). For five projects that reported specific person-days of training, 1,008 hours were provided to men and 1,158 to women; on this basis, we could extrapolate a total number of 4,332 person-hours of training, that is, an average of 217 person-hours per project.

3.1.4 Reforestation Projects

Two reforestation projects were included in the household and project survey, located in Talvern and Thomazo. Both are EU-funded projects with the co-implementation mechanism, under the SFA program. The information was provided, in one case, by a project foreman from the same community and, in the other one, by the chairperson of the CPC and site supervisor. The projects included the planting of forest and crop trees along the river bed. The main characteristics of the two sub-projects are presented in Annex Table D4.

An important goal of this sort of intervention is to secure the water supply by protecting the source. A review of the water supply status for households in reforestation project areas is shown in Table 19.

Table 19. Water supply in reforestation project areas

	Drinking water	Water for other uses
Private catchment, piped into dwelling	2.2	
Private catchment, not piped	6.7	6.7
Public, piped into dwelling	84.5	82.3
n	45	

Results from the household survey show no patterns of change in the use of the river water, except for a small decrease in its use for drinking (table 20).

Table 20. Use of river water before and after reforestation intervention

Use of river water for	Before	After
Drinking	11.1	6.7
Bathing and personal hygiene	53.3	53.3
Washing clothes	48.9	48.9
Irrigation	42.2	42.2
Watering animals	22.2	24.4
	45	

Only a few households could detect an improvement in the various aspects of the water supply (quantity, regularity and quality), as seen in table 21. This mixed impression is reflected in the responses from the project survey's main informants, one seeing a positive change in all three parameters in Talvern, the other seeing no change at all in Thomazo.

Table 21. Perception of water supply before/after intervention

	Better	Same	Worse
Quantity of water	11.1	68.9	6.7
Regularity of water supply	8.9	60.0	22.2
Quality of water	17.8	64.4	4.4
N:	45		

Project survey respondents mentioned water use-related activities or behavior that had been changed as a result of the project, such as the discontinuation of disposal of pesticides in the river (Thomazo) and improvement of agricultural practices in general (Talvern). Other benefits mentioned include health, soil improvement (Talvern) and employment (Thomazo). Employment was also mentioned in Talvern, where 100 community members were employed by the project.

Four households (8.9%) expressed that some of their water use-related attitudes or behaviors had changed as a result of the project. Five (11%) said there were other benefits, in terms of health and soil conservation. However, three (6.7%) also mentioned disadvantages.

3.1.5 Capacity building and strengthening

An important feature of the PRF project design is the assignment of a global provision of 20% on top of the estimated cost of works to fund community capacity building activities. These activities may or may not be directly related to the type of physical investment undertaken. Sections 3.1.1 to 3.1.4 reviewed the type and amount of training provided for each type of sub-project, based on the project survey. This section reports additional data on the capacity building component of the PRF based on the household survey and the qualitative survey.

The Community Participation and Training Unit (CPTU) of the PRF promotes "ownership", capacity building, empowerment and the good use and maintenance of the facilities built by PRF. To this end, Community Project

Committees (CPC) were trained in community mobilization, leadership and management skills, and project management. During project implementation, those skills were reinforced through project monitoring meetings and visits to other projects. This process was more thorough where community contracting was used. The capacity building process was conducted in collaboration with 19 St. Lucian associations and agencies[8].

Six core modules for community training programs emerged from consultations with project beneficiaries and partner agencies:

- Community health promotion, education and treatment, mostly offered to residents in water project areas.
- Environmental sensitization, education and conservation, emphasizing participatory approaches to affect behaviors and attitudes of people living in areas affected by indiscriminate disposal of waste).
- Life skills development, providing skills training and employment counseling to unemployed and unskilled people in areas such as: electrical installation, garment making, information technology, cake decoration, cosmetology, carpentry, and basic literacy.
- Lifestyle management, focusing on issues affecting teenagers, young adults, the unemployed and older persons that can impact on individual, family, community and national development.
- Child education, protection and development, including training for early childhood educators, first aid, HIV/AIDS sensitization and education, facilitation of school development consultations.
- Management and maintenance of community facilities.

The training provided in any given project was decided through a consultation process based on a survey in the community. The evaluation study found a high level of satisfaction regarding this consultation and its results. The beneficiaries, in general, consider that the training areas chosen respond to the needs of their communities. Training often continues after the works are completed. Thus, in some communities it had already concluded when the evaluation study was in the field, while in others, it was still in progress.

Beneficiaries of the training programs were not limited to persons directly involved in project execution. Communities often chose to include others and thus broaden the benefits received from the project. The household survey identified only eighteen persons in fifteen households, out of a total of 658 households in the intervention group, who had received PRF-funded training. Nine of these were concentrated into one sub-project (Fond Gens Libres at Soufrière), the other nine distributed in seven projects (included one EU-funded project), all of the footpath type, all but one financed through private contracting. This suggests that the training was normally received by households outside the immediate beneficiary group of the investment project.

Topics of training included footpath maintenance (1), computer training (1), carpentry (1), garment making (1), tour guiding (2), first aid (1), indoor house training (2), supervision (1), project management (4) and CPC training (3). Training duration ranged from 2 hours on project management to 230 hours on

[8] This paragraph and the next are based on a PRF document called “Capacity Building and Strengthening Activities”, no date.

garment making, with no specific patterns of time assignation. All participants (but one, without opinion) rated the training as "very useful". However, three out of thirteen said they rarely or never used the skills or knowledge received (bridge construction, CPC and leadership, see Table 22).

Most of the training areas chosen were vocational, and they include information technology (IT), bakery, electricity, garment making. Vocational training is seen mainly as an opportunity to generate more income through home-based enterprises, like baking or garment making, or by acquiring the training necessary for obtaining better jobs. Educational training, which had a lesser demand, was provided in areas like information technology, mathematics, English, and Creole. The training provided responded to the more frequent requests made during the surveys. Various topics requested were impossible to provide, due to their low demand. Nonetheless, these demands, that include topics like law and history, reflect the need for education and training felt by the population. The type of training offered is seen to provide the opportunity to access better education and jobs. Though only a minority of those interviewed were generating income as a result of training received, all recognized the improvement of their opportunities.

Table 22. Opportunities for practice of skills learned during training

Topic	Funding		Impl. Mech.		Opportunity for practice			
	W.Bank	EU	CC	PC	V.Freq	Freq	Rare	Never
Bridge construction	1			1				1
Carpentry	1		1			1		
Computer training	1			1	1			
CPC		1		1				1
First aid	1			1	1			
Footpath maintenance	1			1		1		
Garment making	1			1	1			
In-house training	2			2	2			
Leadership	1			1			1	
Project management	2			2	1			
Supervision	1			1	1			
Tour Guide Training	2			2	1			

The table shows the number of sampled projects in each category. Implementation mechanism: CC = community contracting, PC = private contracting. Source: Household survey.

Complaints were registered about the difficulty some people were having in understanding and assimilating teaching materials in information technology. One focus group participant stated that training is "wholly inadequate [teaching] material is beyond the people…words from a world that is foreign to them." These complaints evidently derive from the low educational level of the population, which makes comprehension of the training materials in IT difficult. The same person pointed to a need to bring the materials down to their level. Other complaints resulted from the lack of familiarity the trainers have with the communities in which they are working.

The equipment received for the training programs was welcome by all, even though in some cases it was still not in full use. In one instance, the equipment

received was incorporated into a community IT center project that was being completed. In another case, the Internet connection was disabled in an IT Center due to abuse.

The recognition of potential benefits and the inclusion of persons who were not direct beneficiaries of the projects in the training programs helps increase project benefits in capacity building. Vocational and academic training programs have reduced possibilities for sustainability, as no follow-up programs have been planned. Problems encountered, like Internet abuse and equipment damage, point to a need for measures that will ensure the sustainability of IT training, which is the area with a greater possibility for long-term benefits.

Training in the community of Fond Gens Libres was channeled through the Tour Guide Association, which is the main organization in the community and provides employment in tourism, the community's main source of income. Though minor problems have been encountered, this strategy proved effective. A similar scheme was applied in Mongouge, where training was channeled through the adult day-care center but was received by both relatives and non-relatives of the elderly receiving attention.

3.2 Correspondence of PRF investment with the priorities of targeted beneficiaries and communities

3.2.1 The consultation process

Consultation prior to the design and execution of PRF projects was ample. Two criteria determine the type of project that a community or institution receives: a) problems and needs felt, and b) the menu of project options presented by the PRF. It is a demand-driven process, initiated by a proposal from or on behalf of the community. The proposal is followed by a meeting between the PRF and the community to engage in needs assessment and prioritization, leading to project selection. The communities or institutions involved discuss their problems and needs, determine what type of projects could contribute to their solution, and compare the resulting list with the options presented by the PRF. Once narrowed down, further discussions are held, evaluating options on criteria like coverage, beneficiaries and priority.

The consultation process was meant to strengthen the communities' abilities for problem and needs assessments, leading to an improvement in their capacities for procurement and general project management and monitoring. In general, this objective was met, though the process showed some weaknesses. Attendance at meetings was often sporadic, especially that of men; there was a higher level of female participation. The process was new for most participants, and required a close follow-up by PRF. This may have resulted in a more consistent assimilation of the experience and generated more motivation for future applications.

There were cases, like Morne Panache, in which the focus groups informed that the community didn't come together to discuss and prioritize problems. However, they were very clear that their most pressing problem was the lack of water. For a long time they had been trying to get a project through their MP. However, no one knew who had written the letter that resulted in the PRF's visit to the community.

The study found a high incidence of individual influence on decision-making in the consultation process and project execution. Recognized community leaders often led the discussion and offered opinions and proposals that were easily followed by the rest. Such leaders are persons with higher educational levels and broader experience than the rest of the population.

The pattern of consultation for social assistance projects (which have a broad geographical scope) was different, as it did not involve the communities in which they are located. The institutions in charge of the projects had a clear idea of their problems, needs and priorities, based on internal assessment, including beneficiaries' feedback. Thus they were able to select projects based on their own criteria, which was verified and validated by the PRF.

3.2.2 Consensus on priority of planned/implemented sub-projects

In assessing the participation of the community in the development of a project, the perceived level of priority for the PRF project gives an idea of the consensus between the PRF and beneficiaries on what the issues really are. The respondents in the project survey were asked about the level of priority of the chosen project; the interviewees in the household survey were asked whether, if they had had the possibility of choosing the type of project before implementation, they would have selected the same type as the one being implemented; the results are shown in Tables 23 and 24.

Table 23 - Sub-project priority as perceived by project survey respondents

Level of priority	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforestation	Total
High	100.0	100.0	80.0	100.0	90.9
Worthwhile			20.0		11.1
Not a priority					
n	6	8	20	2	36

As one would expect, the project survey respondents, most of them currently involved in the projects, are virtually unanimous that the project chosen was the main priority of the community. In the four cases where the level of priority was not classified as high, the alternative projects were as follows: bridge at Tou Cochon, as the river cannot be crossed at rainy season; side walk on the main road at San de Feu, to ensure safety against speed of passing vehicles; wider footpath at Derriere Fort to permit emergency vehicle access; and playing field at Garrand (as sports prevent crime).

Table 24. Priority of sub-project as perceived by households

Level of priority	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforestation	Intervention Total	Control
Would have chosen same project	60.2	83.3	76.3	71.7	73.9	78.3
Would have chosen other project	11.3	8.8	15.4	17.4	13.5	7.2
Did not know	28.6	7.9	8.3	10.9	12.6	14.5
Number of households	133	114	350	46	643	207

A majority (74%) of the household respondents in the intervention group sample would have chosen the same project as was actually implemented, the percentage being higher for water and sanitation projects (83%), which probably

represent the satisfaction of a critically perceived essential need. A similar pattern is observed in the Control Group sample, where 78% agreed with the project chosen.

When people disagree, they tend to look mostly for roads and footpaths projects; and many beneficiaries of footpath projects would like to get a road rather than a footpath (table 25). The main rationale is to allow easier access to homes, either to park vehicles closer to the dwelling, being able to take sick persons out more easily, or just avoid walking in the mud, making the community cleaner and preventing the spread of mosquitoes. Other desired community facilities include day care centers, community centers, and post offices; or community activities such as environmental cleaning, youth activities aimed at avoiding idleness, or elderly population activities; finally, the "others" category refer mostly to demands for individual home improvements or for jobs, because of high unemployment.

All instances consulted agreed that the projects executed (or to be executed, in the case of the control group) were solutions to problems felt by the community, and agreed as to their priority. The consultation process was considered helpful for the establishment of priorities, and in some cases led to changes in the perception of problems and priorities. Similar reconsiderations were the result of limitations on type of projects offered by the PRF. Some of the more isolated agricultural communities –especially those most affected by the changes in banana export economy—would have preferred production projects. In Mongouge, the younger persons wanted a dance hall, but the community opted for the adult day-care center, as it was considered a higher priority. In some instances, the beneficiaries realized the true priority of the projects only once project execution began, or they began to receive benefits.

Table 25. Alternative choice of project type proposed by households

Alternative choice of project type	Education	Water	Footpaths	Refore station	Intervention Total	Control
Education	1				1	
Water and Sanitation		1	3		4	1
Road/footpaths/drains	2	6	31	2	41	10
Sports/youth facilities	3		7	1	11	1
Other community facility	2	1	2	1	6	2
Community activities	2			3	5	1
Other	3		6	1	10	
N	15	10	54	8	87	15

3.2.3 Satisfaction with completed projects

Beyond the consensus on priorities, a second important aspect in assessing the correspondence between the community needs and the projects undertaken, as well as the "ownership" of the project by the community, is to investigate the perceived quality of the work done, under the assumption that community members will cherish and better maintain a facility they deem to be of acceptable quality. The same question was asked in the project survey and in the household survey, and the results are shown in Tables 26 and 27.

Table 26. Quality of PRF work as perceived by key informants (project survey)

Perceived quality of work	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforest.	Intervention group total
Good	100.0	75.0	95.0	100.0	91.7
Moderate		25.0			5.6
Bad			5.0		2.8
N	6	8	20	2	36

The opinion of the project survey's respondents, who are more directly involved in the execution of the project, and might therefore be better informed, is generally more favorable than that of the households. Complaints in the case of water projects involve the poor water quality (2), small pipes, and irregularity of supplies. Poor design of the bridge is the only problem mentioned in the works at La Plois Glos.

Table 27. Quality of PRF work as perceived by household survey respondents

Perceived quality of work	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforest.	Intervention total
Good	50.4	78.9	82.3	54.3	73.1
Moderate	4.5	4.4	7.4	0.0	5.8
Bad	0.8	7.0	4.0	8.7	4.2
N	133	114	350	46	643
Totals do not sum to 100% due to exclusion of non-respondents					

Three quarters of household survey respondents thought that the quality of the completed works was good, while 10% had some reservations. For education projects, the main complaint is community members do not have access (2 cases), a finding which casts doubt on the project survey's finding that the IT Centers are fully open to the community. For water projects, the quality and quantity of water supply are still high on the list of dissatisfied beneficiaries (7 cases), the water being either still dirty, or with too much chlorine; in one case, the road/path was destroyed in the process of installing the water system. Incompleteness of the works tops the list of complaints for footpaths projects (9 mentions) followed by insufficient drainage or bad positioning leading to accumulation of mud on the bridge or persistent flooding in the rainy season (8 mentions). Other reasons deal with the fact that community people were not offered work on the project (3) or that the footpath used people's property without their agreement (2). Finally, excessive closeness of the planted trees preventing enough sunlight on the banana crops (2 observations) or interruptions of the works leading to the untimely death of some of the trees (2) were mentioned by households in the reforestation projects' areas.

The qualitative survey also found a high level of satisfaction with project execution. All projects were providing the services intended, with only few cases of projects not working to full capacity due to pending work or equipment. For example, the IT center at the Upton Gardens Girls' center was still not fully functional because the supplier hadn't provided transformers, and had yet to install the network that would allow all of the girls to work with one printer for all and increase the center's capabilities for group teaching.

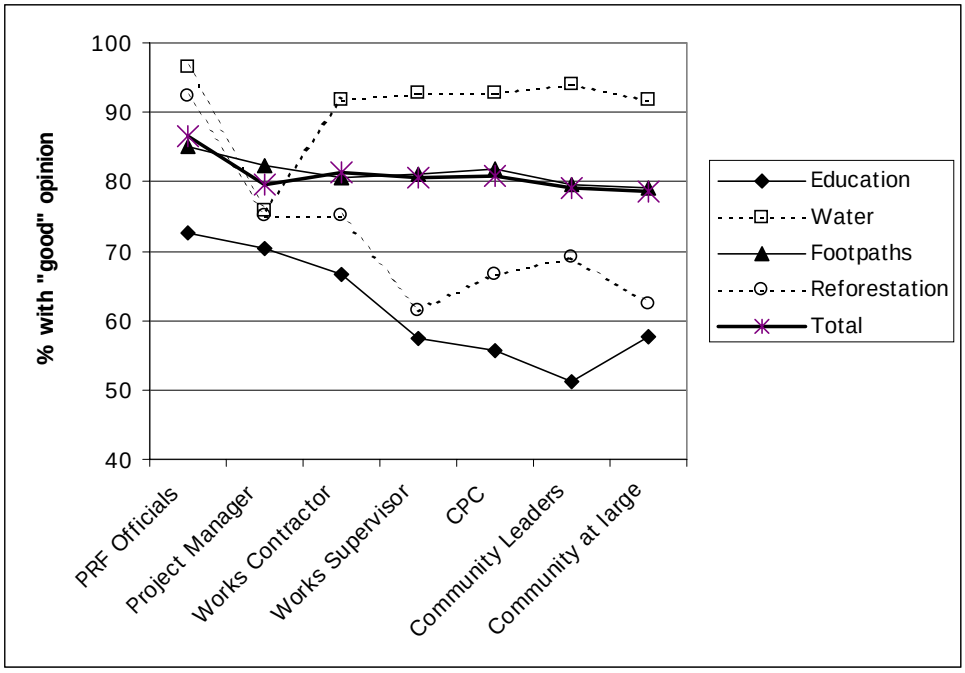
The larger, more complex projects, such as water systems, generated complaints about prolonged execution calendars. Some communities also had grievances about incomplete coverage. However, these were not the results of poor project design, but rather were ascribable to unsolvable technical difficulties.

The household survey assessed opinions on the role of different individuals or institutions in the execution of the sub-project. Table 28 shows that overall appreciations were better for water and footpath projects, and low for education and reforestation projects, where respondents may not have been as aware of the details of project implementation. Community participation (be it from the CPC, the community leaders or the community at large) is also less favorably rated for these two types of project (Figure 1).

Table 28. Household opinions on the role of various actors in project implementation

% of respondents who rate as "good" participation of:	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforest.	Intervention
PRF officials	72.5	96.6	85.1	92.3	86.6
Project manager	70.3	75.9	82.4	75.0	79.5
Building/works contractor	66.7	91.9	80.6	75.0	81.4
Works supervisor	57.5	92.9	81.2	61.5	80.6
Community Project Committee	55.8	92.9	81.9	66.7	80.8
Community leaders	51.2	94.0	79.7	69.2	79.0
Community at large	57.8	91.7	79.2	62.5	78.7
N	133	114	350	46	643

Figure. 1. Households' opinions on the contribution of various actors to project implementation (%)



Another approach to assessing satisfaction with the project is to ask about the perceived value of the finished product as compared to the resources (both the community's and the project's) invested in its development (value-for-money), as shown in Table 29.

Table 29. Perceived value for money of the PRF works among project survey respondents (%)

Value for money	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforestation	Total
Good	100.0	87.5	65.0	50.0	75.0
Medium		12.5	30.0	50.0	22.2
Low					
	6	8	20	2	36

Three quarters of the respondents thought the community was getting a good deal for the investment made, and none though it was low value for money. For those who thought that the investment was of medium value, the following reasons were mentioned:

- **Footpaths**: need for wider footpaths, with less stairs (Vanard, Derriere Fort), or for better design (San de Feu); high costs, in particular of engineering (La Plois Glos, Arundell Hill)
- **Reforestation**: need for continuing support for maintenance and providing information for training the community youths.

The problems remaining after the PRF intervention, according to the project survey's respondents, were as follows:

- **Education**: poor economic status of families (La Croix Maingot, Blanchard), sometimes preventing the payment of fees (Dennery); lack of parental interest and support (Monchy, La Croix Maingot, Laborie); need for more community involvement (Banse), need for supplies of basic school materials (Monchy).
- **Water**: no problems in five cases; quality of water in one community (Lumière), heavy sedimentation and insufficient pressure for highest places (Morne Panache), catchment area not suitable (Richfond)
- **Footpaths**: no problems in six cases. Obstacles remaining in the way (St. Peter's lane, VF Market Area); need to extend/join paths (Vide Bouteille, Au Leon), to add/complete sections (Ciceron, Tou Cochon, Richfond), to repair through-road (La Plois Glos, Fonds Gens Libres) or improve maintenance (Balata).

3.2.4 Perceived benefits and ownership of project

In assessing the opinion of communities about a development project, it is important to inquire whether people feel that they are directly benefited by the project, as this may affect their perceptions of the project's benefits and their opinion on the quality of work, and influence their commitment to maintain the project.

Table 30 shows the proportion of households in PRF intervention communities who feel that they benefit directly from the project. This is highest for footpaths (82%) and water projects (80%). In reforestation projects, 72% expect to benefit now or in the future. Residents in education project communities have a lower expectation of benefiting (30%). This probably reflects their not having children in the school. In the control group (where sub-projects are not yet implemented), the proportion of households defining themselves as future beneficiaries is very high, at 81%.

Table 30 – Households' perception of their beneficiary status in PRF projects

Household considers itself:	Educa-tion	Water	Foot-paths	Refores-tation	Interven-tion group total	Control group
Beneficiary now %	18.0	79.8	81.7	28.3	64.4	
Future beneficiary %	12.0	2.6	1.1	43.5	6.7	81.2
Does/will not benefit %	69.2	16.7	16.0	28.3	28.0	18.8
n	133	114	350	46	643	207

Benefits for the footpaths projects, which provide a footbridge over the river or change muddy slopes into concrete lanes and steps, are mainly perceived in terms of improved access from home to main roads during the rainy season: people can cross the river on the bridge, go to shops and visit friends, children can walk safely to school, clothes and shoes do not get so dirty and last longer, etc. A few mention the better look of the community or the fact that they worked on the project.

Households in water project areas are unanimous in recognizing that they now have water right in their home, which allows them to drink quality water and to get baths at home. Not having to walk to fetch water, they save both time and energy. In sanitation projects, getting a private toilet is the main benefit perceived.

Education project benefits are expressed in terms of children or grandchildren attending the school where the works were done, without being very specific (one mention of computer uses, three mentions of being able to use the bathroom at school); it is in this area that future benefits are more often expressed ("when/if my children/grandchildren attend the school"). Finally, respondents in reforestation areas recognize the gains in quantity and quality of water that is or will be available and the impact of the project on soil erosion for those who have lands close to the river.

In all the projects visited during the qualitative evaluation, the main benefit perceived was the improved access to services that were previously unavailable. Many other secondary benefits were also reported, varying according to project type, modality of execution, degree of community involvement, and training program received. Many projects also recognized potential benefits that will be received in the near future.

The following is a list of some of the more relevant secondary benefits registered during the qualitative evaluation:

- **Temporary jobs**: provided income for covering expenses like food, school supplies, children's' clothing, etc. Most people would have liked a more prolonged opportunity to work.
- **Training**: through project experience and accompanying training program; helped acquire marketable job skills; in many cases, was already helping to generate income.
- **Increased pride in the community**.
- **IT**: access to computers, Internet, communications. For some, especially children, this is their first exposure to a computer: "It's like a reward." It benefits all students, including both slow and quick learners. The

institutions also benefited, through computer availability for administration, research, etc.

- **Footpaths**: increased mobility, improved access to transportation, especially in rainy season, reducing the loss of workdays and schooldays. Increased social activity due to footpaths becoming social gathering places and increased facility for visiting neighbors; some are used for jogging; improved safety through elimination of dangerous walkways and river crossings
- **Water projects**: Improved quality of available water, resulting in improved cleanliness and hygiene; time saved by not having to go to the river or waste time in lines at the pipes (though some missed the social opportunity this implies).

A sense of project ownership was seen in all projects visited. However, it is important to note that this sense of ownership does not necessarily result in a commitment to project maintenance. "Ownership" is greater in communities that participated directly in project execution. Communities with water projects felt that the project was theirs, but differentiated between their home installations and the public system: "from the street in, it's mine, the rest belongs to WASCO." Their sense of responsibility for maintenance made the same differentiation.

Understandably, limitations in project scope –for example, water projects that could not benefit persons living in the higher parts of a community—generated variations in feelings of ownership among individuals. In San de Feu, where footpaths and drains were constructed, the community as a whole expressed a considerable sense of ownership and pride in their project. However, maintenance chores, like cleaning the drains, are assumed individually and some individuals do not participate in them as an expression of their dissatisfaction with some aspect of the project.

The sense of project ownership doesn't derive exclusively from the sense of benefits obtained. It is also a reflection of local social dynamics, like the relationship between project beneficiaries and project or community leaders, or between families or neighbors.

Project ownership is also affected by beneficiaries' perception of projects of the government and of international donors. The generalized perception sees government projects, particularly internationally funded projects, as being gifts. This leads to a low level of appropriation and a reduced sense of community / beneficiary responsibility for maintenance and sustainability. A focus group in Banse La Grace expressed that there was a need for more PR during the whole project process in order to "defeat the idea that everything that comes from the government and donor agencies is free."

3.2.5 Participation of beneficiaries/potential beneficiaries

Participation of project beneficiaries, whether actual or potential, can take place at various phases: project identification and design, voluntary or paid labor or other contribution during the building/works phase, and project maintenance. In principle, beneficiaries' participation at all stages of the project yields a wider use

of the facility/works, an increased ownership of the same and improved sustainability of the project.

Knowledge of projects

Beneficiary participation starts with knowing that a project is being or has been implemented. When asked whether they knew about the PRF-funded project in their community, 73% of the households in the intervention groups said they did, and 71% of these knew that community meetings had been held to discuss support to the project and 68% of households who knew of meetings had participated in them (table 31). The proportion of all households participating in meetings was highest for water projects (56%) and footpaths projects (39%), and much lower for education (14%) and reforestation projects (13%). In about a third of projects, discussions between community and project staff led to modifications of the initial project design originally proposed by the community.

Table 31 Knowledge of project and preliminary discussions

	Educa-tion	Water	Foot-paths	Refores-tation	Intervention group total	Control group
PRF-funded project has been/is/will be implemented	49.6	76.3	80.0	76.1	72.8	31.9
N	133	114	350	46	643	207
Meetings held to discuss project support	50.0	88.5	73.9	40.0	70.7	71.2
N	66	87	280	35	468	66
Household participated in community meetings	54.5	83.1	66.2	42.9	68.0	72.3
Changes in design occurred as a result of meeting						
Yes	42.4	42.9	36.2	14.3	37.4	21.2
No	9.1	23.4	27.1	14.3	23.9	27.7
N	33	77	207	14	331	47

In the control group, the level of knowledge is lower (32%), as are the levels of participation (16.4%, versus 35.0% in the intervention group overall). Most of the control group sample was composed of communities whose project proposal was held up due to lack of funding, often for quite long periods. This may explain the relatively low level of awareness in the control sites.

The qualitative investigation showed a variable level of knowledge among the beneficiary population. Variations occurred according to the different modes of implementation and consultation mechanisms employed. Though the PRF has a high level of recognition in the communities visited, some believed their project to have been the result of requests to their local government representative. Direct approaches to MPs are a common and often effective practice for obtaining community projects; therefore, representatives are generally seen as responsible for development activities reaching the communities. The Representatives themselves may foster this perception, as it is politically beneficial.

The people involved in social assistance projects had a high level of knowledge about all aspects of the projects. Consultation was undertaken in staff meetings of the institution being funded which discussed problems, solutions and priorities. In the Upton Gardens Girls Center, the decision–making process took into consideration feedback about client needs and training requirements of girls participating in internships with private businesses. The parents of hearing-

impaired students (Ciceron) or of interned girls (Castries), were informed of decision-making but were not directly involved in the process.

When projects were executed through community contracting, beneficiaries reported better knowledge of the projects, and higher satisfaction with consultation procedures. In these cases, the PRF held community assemblies to subject the project proposal and design to public scrutiny and approval. Attendance to these meetings was generally high. Both men and women attended, though women were more numerous and constant. Some men reported that they did not attend due to work obligations, and relied on their wives to inform them about the discussions held. Their own perceived role in the project was to undertake physical work during project execution.

Participation in project design

Community discussions provided non-technical input for project design. They allowed the people an opportunity to express their perceived needs and preferences regarding the project. They were an important source of information regarding local characteristics that could affect the technical design, which was the responsibility of the PRF staff or contracted firms. Some focus group participants wished they had more technical know-how in order to understand the design stage of the project and be able to offer better contributions.

Knowledge of project's estimated costs is an alternative way to assess community participation in the project's design. Only 28 respondents (8.5% of the households in the intervention group) could mention an estimate of the project cost; those estimates ranged from EC20,000 (one respondent from an education project) to EC$99,667 (three respondents from water projects) and EC$103.905 (24 respondents from footpath projects), for an average of EC$100,040. This is something of an under-estimate: the average cost of PRF projects is EC$126,600. In the control group, only one respondent could mention a cost (EC$50,000). In neither group was any respondent able to mention the amount that the community was supposed to contribute to the project.

Contributions during project implementation

Communities' contributions can take several forms: donation of money, working days, land, or materials for construction. Overall, only 17% of households stated that they had contributed materially to the project (table 32). Contributions are lowest in the case of education projects and highest (yet only at 25%) for water and sanitation projects. The percentage of households in the control group willing to contribute to upcoming projects is slightly lower (13%).

Table 32. Proportion of households that contributed to project implementation

	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforest	Intervention group total	Control group
Supported or contributed to project implementation	2.3	24.6	20.6	8.7	16.6	12.6
N (Household survey)	133	114	350	46	643	207

Table 33 provides more detail on the proportion of households that participated in the projects and the average amount (money-equivalent) of this participation, according to the household survey. Voluntary labor is the most usual community contribution in all type of projects, especially for education and water. Cash contributions only arise in water and sanitation projects and usually cover the

costs of the household connection to the main system. Other modes of contribution (for the footpaths projects) include carrying water (17 cases), cooking (5), planning/supervision/administration of works (4) and others (5); in the case of water projects, some people also mention digging pit holes or moving dirt.

Similar information is available from the project survey showing that labor contribution is the most usual form of community participation (table 34).However, project data on water projects indicate a lower participation than the household survey data; the latter most probably are inflated by people referring to the establishment of the intra-household infrastructure which is a private responsibility.

Table 33. Frequency and amount of household contribution to PRF projects

	Education		Water		Footpaths		Reforestation	
Type of participation	%	Amount (EC$)	%	Amount (EC$)	%	Amount (EC$)	%	Amount (EC$)
Money	0.0		35.7	5.9	4.2	35.0	0.0	
Donated labor	100.0	1 day	92.9	9 days	50.0	21 days	75.0	4 days
Materials	0.0		3.6	200.0	8.3	100.0	0.0	
Lent tools	66.7		10.7		12.5		0.0	
Other	0.0		13.6		80.5		50.0	
Total	3		28		72		4	

Source: IES 2003 – Household survey. Amount of days worked or money contributed calculated on the basis of those who mentioned a specific contribution (often less than the totals on the last line).

Table 34 Proportion of projects for which community contributed, by type of contribution (project survey)

	Education	Water	Footpaths
Money			5.0
Labor	50.0	25.0	65.0
Materials	33.3	12.5	25.0
Other	50.0	12.5	25.0
# projects	6	8	20

The qualitative survey confirmed that community and household involvement in project implementation varies according to project type, mode of execution and social capital strengths.

Projects executed through community contracting generated the highest level of direct participation at all levels. In these projects, the CPC helped motivate community participation, undertaking the organization of labor, and assuming administrative and supervisory duties. The use of local labor was the most frequent and important form of participation, especially through ***k****oudmain*, a traditional form of communal volunteer work that has the added benefit of strengthening the sense of unity in the communities.

In contrast, private contracting presented no possibility of resorting to this traditional form of communal work. Some community members helped with paperwork; others reported that participation had been limited to attending meetings to obtain information. Nonetheless, these projects did elicit other forms of support, such as providing food and water to workers, planting flowers near a

bridge and cleaning the area of project execution. This show of community approval and support for these projects was spontaneous and was frequently the result of the active participation of women.

Social assistance projects – due to their non- community based nature - had no community participation, but they did motivate high level of involvement among direct beneficiaries (institutional staff). In the case of education/ correctional institutions, the parents of beneficiary children/ adolescents had a low level of participation, limited mostly to sending food for the workers. In an exemplary case, a relative of one of the elderly beneficiaries of the Club 60 Adult Day-Care center donated the 4,000 square feet plot of land where it was constructed.

Water projects required the beneficiaries to purchase materials such as pipes, in order to get the household connection. In one group from the control area, some people expressed the fear of losing project benefits, due to their not being able to afford such materials.

Participation was not always easy to motivate, nor was it uniform. It was usually limited to those who derived a direct benefit from the project. For example, in footpath projects, participation was often higher among those whose houses were adjacent to the new footpath and they sometimes lost motivation once the segment directly in front of their house was completed. However, other benefits, like temporary employment, provided a motivation for participation regardless of beneficiary status. Other motives for participation included: pride in the community, and the desire for the community to be well known.

3.3 Sustainability of PRF projects and their benefits

In general, maintenance costs are not contemplated in the PRF project budget. It is therefore important to the sustainability of the investment that the community or the receiving organization assumes responsibility for the operation and maintenance of the service and that a budget is available as necessary to cover the resulting costs.

The issue of community-level maintenance arises most clearly for education and footpath projects. For water projects, maintenance is assumed by WASCO, covered by the payment of water service fees; and the issue of maintenance requirements is less clear for reforestation projects.

The project survey reports that three out of the six education projects and 23 of the 20 economic infrastructure projects had a formal maintenance component. But the household survey shows that knowledge about who was responsible for maintenance is low among resident households, as was active participation in maintenance.

The qualitative evaluation shows that the prospects for maintenance and sustainability are better in well-organized communities and institutions. Project appropriation is another key factor. Communities with higher levels of appropriation of their projects show more interest in working towards their sustainability. However, practically none of the communities had designed maintenance plans, even though some of the project documentation recorded that such plans existed. Some had discussed the need for maintenance and devised strategies, but few projects had any formal organization for this purpose.

Water projects have the lowest level of community participation in maintenance, which is seen as WASCO's responsibility. Social assistance projects and those executed through community contracting have generated a higher level of conscience about the importance of sustainability. However, this doesn't automatically translate into planning and execution of maintenance strategies.

In road and footpath projects, in spite of the lack of organized maintenance, households often assume the responsibility of cleaning the drains in front of their house. But resistance to this pattern was also encountered: in San de Feu, a woman refused to clean in front of her house because she felt that the project didn't satisfy her needs. In the same community, it was reported that some persons avoided cleaning responsibilities because they felt it unnecessary, since "the rainfall cleans it by itself, automatically." It seems likely that the weakness of collective maintenance organization is likely to lead fairly soon to problems of "free riding" and the resulting deterioration of the works.

Social assistance projects have a better potential for sustainability since the beneficiary institutions are well organized and knowledgeable about the importance of maintenance and its costs.

IT centers require periodic maintenance and have fixed costs for consumables like paper, ink, diskettes, etc. Strategies implemented for meeting maintenance costs in these centers include:

- provisions for maintenance in the school budget
- obtaining government subsidies for maintenance as well as for covering other fixed costs like electricity bills
- demanding that equipment provided be of good quality, and that it include all manuals
- organizing committees
- fundraising activities like tea parties, sales, etc.
- in schools, parents will pay nominal fee for maintenance
- charging low fees for services to community members
- training personnel in IT maintenance
- volunteer work in areas like site monitoring.

Charging fees for services has produced good results. In general, beneficiaries are willing to accept the charges, as long as they are kept low. Some resistance to paying fees was encountered, based on the view that government services –and thus projects—should be free of charge: "If the government put that in place for us, why are we going to charge fees?" However, this perception is not generalized.

One of the main preoccupations expressed about IT projects concerns the cost of Internet connection. Having an Internet connection gives these projects the ability to offer the most demanded and marketable services (web browsing, e-mail and VOIP long distance telephone communication). Initially, the government assumes the cost for this service, but projects fear that they will have to take over in the mid-term. A Memorandum of Understanding has been signed between the PRF andf the Ministry of Education under which the latter agrees to take responsibility for the IT facilities. However, in some cases, the teachers at local level are not aware of Ministry of Education policy in this regard

Maintenance capabilities in other projects vary mainly according to their organizational strengths. Few projects had organized committees to assume maintenance duties. In the few instances in which the CPC has continued to exist after the project is complete, it assumes responsibilities for designing maintenance strategies. However, such strategies usually stop short of designing a detailed maintenance plan. The Fond Gens Libres project, which was under the responsibility of the Tour Guide Association, hired two persons to clean the drainage and footpaths. This community draws tourists for excursions up the Gros Piton Trail, and must care for its image as a tourist attraction.

3.4 Targeting of PRF investments on the poor and the vulnerable

Poverty targeting is a key feature of the Poverty Reduction Fund. This section reviews the targeting outcomes looking at distribution of program resources from two different perspectives: by the poverty characteristics of the beneficiary communities; and by the poverty characteristics of individual beneficiary households.

3.4.1 Geographic targeting

A first approach to targeting is to analyze to what extent project sites are located in communities/settlements known to be poor. This is a very relevant question since the PRF's own declared methodology uses spatial indicators of poverty to validate project requests by checking that the community is really poor.

The basis for assessment of poverty levels is the official Poverty Index calculated for each settlement in the island on the basis of the 1991 Housing and Population Census. Ordering the island's 359 settlements by decreasing order of poverty and accumulating their populations, each community can be assigned to a poverty-index population decile (so that the communities which – when ranked by their poverty index number - accumulate the first 10% of the island's population, fall in the first decile, and so on).

These data were used to identify the poverty index decile for each community that has received PRF funding. A table was prepared showing the investment of PRF in each decile, by sub project type, and in total.[9] The results of this analysis are reported in table 35.

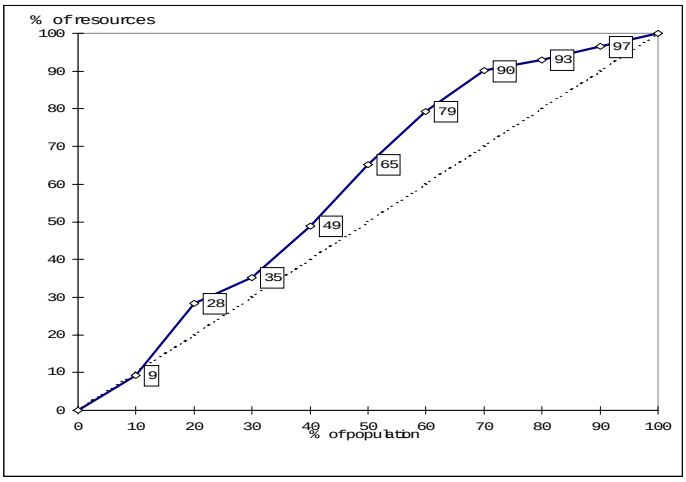
The graph below illustrates the cumulative distribution detailed in the last column of table 35. It shows that 28% of PRF funds were invested in the poorest 20% of the population; 49% were invested in the poorest 40%; and 79% were invested in the poorest 60% of the population. Only 10% of the total was received by communities in the top three deciles (this was all for road or footpath projects). This is a reasonably progressive distribution, showing that PRF has been quite successful in avoiding the financing of projects in non-poor communities. However, it is disappointing to note that less than 10% went to communities in the poorest decile.

[9] Data were available for the budgeted expenditure for 39 PRF projects and for the executed budget of 36 projects. The latter were used for the analysis since there might be important divergences between the budgeted and executed investment.

Table 35 - St Lucia PRF resource distribution by poverty decile of beneficiary community

Decile	Education	Refores-tation	Roads & footpaths	Water & San	Total	Total	Cumula-tive
	Investment in EC$					%	
1			157,172	195,367	352,539	9.2	9.2
2	46,565		371,938	310,110	728,613	19.1	28.3
3	80,529		140,936	39,486	260,951	6.8	35.2
4	141,571		380,890		522,461	13.7	48.9
5	340,104		286,505		626,609	16.4	65.3
6		102,787	433,450		536,237	14.1	79.3
7		154,732	116,691	143,395	414,818	10.9	90.2
8			103,781		103,781	2.7	92.9
9			141,564		141,564	3.7	96.6
10			128,067		128,067	3.4	100.0
Total	608,769	257,519	2,260,994	688,358	3,815,640		
Distribution coefficient	0.245	–0.220	0.120	0.537	0.192		

Based on 36 projects for which executed expenditure data were available. A very similar pattern is yielded analyzing 39 projects based on budgeted expenditure.



The overall distribution can be characterized by a distribution coefficient with a range of –1 to +1, where a positive value indicates a progressive pattern of distribution and a negative value a regressive distribution. A value of zero is reported if each decile receives exactly 10% of total program resources.

Overall, PRF yields a distribution coefficient of 0.192 (table 35, last row). The various types of sub-project have different patterns of distribution. Water projects, with a coefficient of 0.537, are clearly the most progressive, as the communities favored with water supplies are all in the lower end of the socio-economic scale. Education projects all lie in the bottom half of the overall distribution, but with a strong emphasis in the 5th decile, and yield a progressive overall index of 0.245. Footpaths projects are less progressive still, with a coefficient of 0.120, which is much less progressive, reflecting the fact that some of these projects are in the upper deciles. Finally, reforestation projects have a regressive pattern with a coefficient of –0.220, due to the two projects both favoring communities in the upper part of the poverty distribution. It should be noted in this regard that the targeting of the EU SFA projects was not predicated on relative poverty considerations; rather, they were targeted on the banana farming communities.

3.4.2 Household level analysis of targeting outcomes

The problem with the analysis reported in section 3.4.1 is that there may be differences between the poverty characteristics of the direct beneficiaries of PRF

projects and the average poverty level of the community where projects are located. As a result, the projects that appear in the top end of the income distribution range may actually be located in poorer segments of relatively large communities whose overall poverty rating is low. This is especially likely to happen in urban areas, where households with very different poverty levels may be grouped in the same community. If this were so, the result would be an understatement of the progressiveness of the PRF resource distribution.

This can be corrected by undertaking a household-level analysis based on income data for the beneficiaries of the program's investments, which allows them to be located in the national household income distribution. The analysis then shows what proportion of program resources benefits each decile of the household income distribution. This approach, sometimes called "benefit-incidence analysis", requires the use of survey data to document the income of beneficiary households.

There are three different classes of beneficiaries in PRF projects: *a) Project beneficiaries*: the households and individuals who could benefit directly or indirectly by services to be produced by the project. The foregoing analysis concentrates on this definition. *b) Employment beneficiaries*: who get short term employment on the project. This is particularly important for projects funded by the EU (co-implementation)[10]. Beneficiaries were enlisted through a simple sign-up process. [11] *c) Training beneficiaries:* Training was open not only to the projects' direct beneficiaries, but to the community in general. Beneficiaries of training programs were selected mainly through personal show-of-interest. Surveys were conducted to determine training needs and to establish demand.

The targeting analysis reported in this section relates to the first of these categories of beneficiary: that is, the households who use the services produced – or expected to be produced in the future – by the project.

The household survey conducted for the impact evaluation documented the number of persons in each sampled household and collected data on income for all persons over 15 years of age who held a job during the two weeks preceding the survey, using questions modeled on the 2001 Housing and Population Census. This was intended to allow each sampled household to be located into the national income distribution. However, only 46% of respondents provided income data. To offset this, a predicted per capita household income was estimated using instrumental variables, including characteristics of the dwelling such as main material of the outer walls and main material of the roof, main source of water and type of hygienic services, and ownership of household goods/equipment.

The estimation procedure was as follows:

[10] Generally, the private and community contracting approaches favored under the World Bank funding do not allow for much paid employment in the beneficiary community. Private contracting generates paid employment elsewhere, however.

[11] In the EU-SFA projects, the selection of workers was determined using the following eligibility criteria: Household economy affected by banana restructuring; Current employment status; Gender equity; and Age. A limit was placed on the number of laborers from same household

- For households where the income is declared, per capita household income is calculated.
- Per capita income, thus calculated, is regressed on the set of instrumental variables to obtain the coefficients of an equation for predicted income.
- The resulting coefficients are used to predict per capita household income for all households in the sample, on the basis of the observed values of the instrumental variables (which are available for all households in the dataset)..

Benefit incidence analysis also requires data that allow us to locate the beneficiary households in the national income distribution. To generate this reference-frame, data from the 2001 Household and Population Census were analyzed in the same manner as the data from the Impact Evaluation Survey, using instrumental variables to predict per-capita household income. This provides a basis for defining the per capita income ranges for each decile of the national income distribution, into to which each household observation from the Impact Evaluation Survey can then be inserted.

For each project covered by the evaluation, the value of the investment was found from the PRF's MIS. The value of each investment is then imputed to the deciles of the income distribution, pro-rata with the distribution of the potential beneficiary households located within its area of influence[12]. For instance, if 15% of a project's potential beneficiary households belong to the third decile of the income distribution, 15% of its value is attributed to that decile; and so on. The analysis is then repeated, limiting the analysis to those households where respondents indicated that they are really using the project (actual beneficiaries).

The results of this analysis are reported in Tables 36 and 37. In Table 36, the analysis is conducted including all the households in the potential beneficiary population of each sub-project; in Table 37, it is restricted to households who stated themselves to be actual users of the sub-project's services either at present or in the future.

Table 36 - Household level distribution of PRF resources based upon potential beneficiary population

			Population deciles from poor (1) to rich (10)											
Type of sub-project	No.of pro-jects	Program resources (EC$)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Tot.	Distri-butive Index
			Proportion of resources received by each decile (%)											
Education	6	608,769	11.4	1.4	21.5	4.9	12.5	15.7	10.9	13.2	6.7	1.6	100	0.070
Reforestation	2	257,519	16.4	9.8	30.5	3.9	5.2	8.8	12.5	3.8	9.2	0.0	100	0.256
Footpaths	20	2,261,294	21.7	8.9	17.9	7.1	13.9	7.1	12.5	7.3	2.6	1.1	100	0.273
Water/Sanitation	8	688,358	22.3	8.2	21.2	10.4	11.6	15.2	8.5	1.4	1.2	0.0	100	0.351
Comm. contracting	14	1,695,850	17.1	7.4	21.7	7.4	10.4	10.4	13.2	6.2	4.9	1.3	100	0.220
Private contracting	22	2,120,090	21.9	7.8	18.5	6.9	14.5	9.7	10.1	7.5	2.2	0.7	100	0.280
World Bank-funded	28	2,749,885	19.0	8.1	19.3	7.4	13.5	11.0	9.7	7.8	3.4	0.8	100	0.249
EU-funding	8	1,066,055	21.8	6.4	21.6	6.5	10.5	7.5	16.2	4.7	3.5	1.2	100	0.264
All	**36**	**3,815,940**	**19.8**	**7.6**	**19.9**	**7.1**	**12.7**	**10.0**	**11.5**	**6.9**	**3.4**	**0.9**	**100**	**0.254**

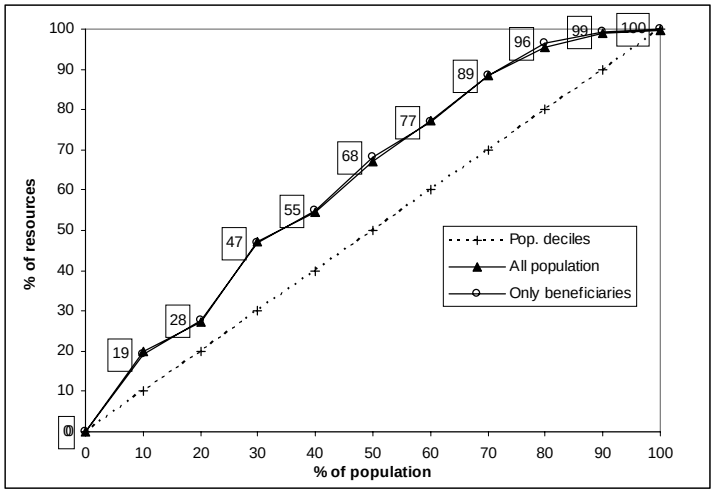
[12] It is implicitly assumed that each beneficiary derives equal benefit from the investment.

Table 37 - Household level distribution of PRF resources based upon actual beneficiary population

Type of sub-project	No.of pro-jects	Program resources (EC$)	Population deciles from poor (1) to rich (10) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Tot.	Distri-butive Index
			Proportion of resources received by each decile (%)											
Education	6	608,769	12.2	0.0	21.5	7.2	14.9	12.2	6.7	17.0	6.2	2.0	100	0.075
Reforestation	2	257,519	16.6	6.1	28.0	5.2	2.6	9.0	15.3	4.5	12.6	0.0	100	0.184
Footpaths	20	2,261,294	21.2	9.8	16.4	7.5	14.3	7.2	13.2	8.0	2.0	0.4	100	0.274
Water/Sanitation	8	688,358	20.8	10.4	23.0	13.1	11.8	10.2	9.6	1.1	0.0	0.0	100	0.381
Comm. contracting	14	1,695,850	15.7	6.8	18.5	8.2	12.1	9.8	14.0	9.4	4.5	0.8	100	0.180
Private contracting	22	2,120,090	22.3	9.1	19.8	8.4	14.0	7.8	9.8	6.7	1.8	0.3	100	0.317
World Bank-funded	28	2,749,885	18.8	8.8	19.9	8.6	13.7	9.0	8.9	9.0	2.8	0.7	100	0.263
EU-funding	8	1,066,055	21.0	6.3	17.5	7.6	11.7	7.9	18.9	5.3	3.5	0.2	100	0.238
All	**36**	**3,815,940**	**19.4**	**8.1**	**19.2**	**8.3**	**13.1**	**8.7**	**11.7**	**7.9**	**3.0**	**0.5**	**100**	**0.256**

The results – which are illustrated in the graph below - confirm that the distributive impact (targeting) of the PRF's interventions at household level is very positive. 47% of the program's resources benefit directly households in the bottom 30% of the income distribution; and only 11% are received by households in the top 30% of the distribution.

This result is almost identical for potential beneficiaries (Table 36) and actual beneficiaries (Table 37) of the projects, which indicates that there is no bias against the poorer people in the beneficiary communities getting access to the program's resources.



The overall distributive index number for the program's targeting impact, which is reported in the final column of tables 36 and 37, is calculated at 0.256. This compares well with indices calculated in recent studies that used a similar methodology to assess household targeting outcomes for the Honduran Social Investment Fund (FHIS), which reported at progressiveness index number of 0.25 and for the Yemen Social Fund for Development which reported an index number of 0.204.[13]

The sub-project types with the most progressive distributional impact are water and sanitation projects (0.380) and footpath projects (0.274). These types of project are strongly "self selecting" for poor beneficiaries, since communities without water and sanitation services and without footpaths are normally relatively poor. In contrast, educational projects (0.075) and reforestation

[13] These results are reported in: Ex-Post Evaluation of the Honduran Social Investment Fund (FHIS 2) – ESA Consultores, July 1999; and Yemen Social Fund for Development Impact Evaluation Study – Final Report, ESA Consultores, 2003

projects (0.184) are found not to be strongly pro-poor: their benefits are received more or less evenly across the income distribution.

Community contracting projects (0.180) are found to have a less progressive distributive impact than privately contracted projects (0.317), but this reflects the concentration under community contracting of sub-project types which tend not to be so progressive in their targeting impact. It does not reflect an intrinsic bias of community contracting against targeting on the poor. Finally, the groups of sub-projects funded by the World Bank (0.263) and the EU (0.238) report almost identical distributive outcomes.

The household-level targeting result reported in this section is considerably more positive than the finding of the spatially-based (geographical) analysis reported in section 3.4.1, where it was reported that 35% of resources went to poorest 30% of communities. The likely explanation for this divergence is that the PRF has been successful in identifying the relatively poorer communities and households within each of the areas where it has intervened. This is the product of the program methodology which requires officers to verify the specific poverty conditions of the proposed beneficiary community; coupled with the promotion of projects which have a self-selecting bias towards poorer communities, such as footpath and water and sanitation projects.

3.5 PRF's impact on Social Capital

Social capital is the capacity of individuals and communities to work together to the common good. It is usually disaggregated into two components: structural social capital, which includes the extent and intensity of associational links or activity, and cognitive social capital, which covers perceptions of support, reciprocity, sharing and trust in the community. The amount of social capital is an important factor determining a community's developmental potential. It was a specific goal of the PRF to increase social capital through its interventions, by promoting organization and building trust. The following sections explore whether the PRF contributed to the creation of social capital in the beneficiary communities. As explained in the section on study methodology, the findings are based on a comparison of observed social capital in the intervention group (and its sub-groups) with that in the control group sample.

3.5.1 Community organization

Table 38 reports on the organization of community meetings related to the PRF project. Almost all project sites had organized community meetings. The proportion of households aware of these meetings is 40% in the intervention group and 28% in the control group.

Structural social capital is also reflected in participation in other activities pertaining to the life of the community (table 39). The level of participation ranges from close to zero up to one third of households for any given activity. Attending council meetings or public hearings, and planning community development are common, while participating in a protest or notifying the press about a local situation are uncommon. Overall, the communities in the control group tend to be more actively involved; and the differences are most noteworthy for meeting with a politician, participating in a protest or alerting the media.

Table 38. Organization of and participation in community meetings

	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforest.	Intervention group total	Control group
Proportion of households indicating community meetings are held	48.9	38.0	36.0	52.2	40.1	28.0
Proportion of sites where community meetings are held	100.0	87.5	90.0	100.0	88.9	91.7
Proportion of those households participating in community meetings in last six months ( ) from all households	30.8 (15.1)	53.1 (20.2)	41.3 (14.9)	33.3 (17.4)	40.2 (16.1)	55.2 (15.5)
N	133/6	129/8	350/20	46/2	658/36	207/12

A good measure of the impact of the PRF support on social capital is the emergence of other community-driven projects (or requests for projects) in the aftermath of the PRF's intervention. According to household survey responses (table 40), this has happened in fully half of the sites where a PRF project has been completed (18 out of 36). This is a very positive finding. The follow-up projects mentioned by the household respondents were as follows: 3 education projects; 14 water and sanitation projects; 18 footpath projects; and 5 reforestation projects. However, the proportion of households knowing about those projects is much lower, barely reaching 6% in the reforestation projects' area, suggesting that the social capital is concentrated in leadership groups.

Table 39. Participation of households in public activities

	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforest.	Intervention group total	Control group
Attended council meeting, public hearing, discussion group	21.8	33.3	25.7	26.1	26.4	29.0
Met with a politician, called him/ her, sent a letter	18.8	17.8	22.0	15.2	20.1	30.4
Participated in protest or demonstration	8.3	1.6	3.1	0.0	3.6	13.0
Participated in information or election campaign	11.3	7.0	12.3	13.0	11.1	15.9
Alerted newspaper, radio or TV to a local problem	4.5	2.3	6.6	8.7	5.5	14.5
Notified police or court about a local problem	16.5	15.5	21.7	37.0	20.5	26.1
Joined in the planning of community development activities	15.0	20.9	24.0	23.9	21.6	22.2
Overall participation average	13.7	14.1	16.5	17.7	15.5	21.6
N	133	129	350	46	658	207

Individual motivation and participation were important to the procurement and execution of follow-on projects. The individuals involved were community leaders, not political leaders. Their leadership derived from factors such as higher educational levels and having lived abroad. All had a high level of motivation and sense of community, and the ability to motivate others. Their participation was most evident in the decision–making processes, though they also assumed important functions in project execution, including participation in the CPC. Generally, their educational background made them the best qualified to assume administrative and coordinating tasks.

Table 40. Incidence of additional community-driven project proposals after PRF intervention

	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforest.	Intervention group total
Proportion of households mentioning other community-driven initiative or project proposed for funding (%)	2.3	12.3	5.1	10.9	6.2
Proportion of sites where other community-driven initiative or project was proposed for funding (%)	50.0	50.0	45.0	100.0	50.0
N (households / projects)	133/6	129/8	350/20	46/2	658/36

A good example of individual motivation and participation is the case of the Fond Gens Libres footpath project, in which a Mr. H. played a key role. He returned recently from abroad and has a considerably higher educational level than that of local residents. These factors equipped him for dealing with bureaucracy and project organization and administration. In another case, in La Bordlais, an 11 year-old boy wrote a letter to the government, telling of the need for a water project; the Minister to whom he addressed his letter forwarded the request to the PRF.

Trusting local institutions first implies knowing about them and their role. Respondents were asked to name up to three associations or groups active in the community that they might join. Only a quarter of the households could name any such organization (table 41, upper part). The results were similar in the intervention and control groups, with an average, respectively, of 0.38 and 0.42 associations named per household.

Table 41. Knowledge of and participation in community-based organizations

	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforest.	Intervention group total	Control group
# (%) hhlds mentioning groups	63 (47.4)	14 (10.9)	66 (18.9)	18 (39.1)	161 (24.5)	54 (26.1)
# groups mentioned	114	15	97	23	249	87
# groups mentioned per hhld	0.86	0.12	0.28	0.50	0.38	0.42
Hhlds participating in activities of:						
1 group	16 (12.1)	8 (6.2)	35 (10.0)	8 (17.4)	67 (10.2)	26 (12.6)
2 groups	7 (5.3)	0	11 (3.1)	1 (2.2)	19 (2.9)	8 (3.9)
3 groups	1 (0.8)	0	2 (0.6)	1 (2.2)	4 (0.6)	5 (2.4)
Avg. # of members participating	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.3
Avg. # of persons in responsible position	0.8	1.2	1.0	2.7	1.2	1.0
Avg. # of meetings last month	2.5	2.0	3.6	2.1	3.0	3.6
Avg. # of meetings last year	12.5	11.0	17.8	15.9	15.6	19.5
N	133	129	350	46	658	207

Note: the average values in the next-but-last four lines of the table are calculated on the basis of the number of households participating in at least one group's or association's activities.

Fourteen percent of households in the intervention group and 18% in the control group said they participate in at least one such association. For those who participate, the average number of participating persons from their household is 1.4 (1.3 in the control group) and the average number of household members

holding responsible positions within these groups or associations is 1.2 and 1.0 respectively. People who are involved in those groups are doing it in a responsible and time-consuming manner, attending up to 3 meetings a month.

Reasons given for not participating in such activities vary, the most common being not getting on with the people in the group/association (20 observations), having no time (18), being too old or too sick to participate (11), and belonging to a religious group (6).

Table 42 shows the type of groups/associations and the frequency with which they were mentioned. Mothers and fathers groups, which are recreational associations, were the most frequently mentioned in the intervention communities, followed by sports clubs and youth groups. Communities from control areas report more community development committees, followed by mothers and fathers groups and tourism-oriented groups.

For households participating in the activities of groups, the financial contributions, (fees, gifts or other) were similar in intervention and control groups, reaching a total of EC$40 to 50 per year per household, as seen in table 46.

Table 42. Community-based associations mentioned by households

% of households mentioning each	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforest.	Intervention group total	Control group
Mothers/fathers group	30.8	40.0	21.8	34.8	28.1	23.0
Sports club	24.8	13.3	21.8	0.0	20.7	9.2
Youth group	23.1	6.7	8.9	21.7	16.4	6.9
Community Development Committee	1.7	26.7	3.0	0.0	10.2	28.7
Work-related group	9.4	0.0	1.0	8.7	5.5	9.2
Religious group	3.4	0.0	5.0	8.7	4.3	3.4
Tourism-oriented group	0.0	0.0	9.9	0.0	3.9	14.9
Cultural/musical group	1.7	13.3	3.0	0.0	2.7	0.0
Other	2.6	0.0	8.9	8.7	5.5	4.6
n	114	15	97	23	249	87

Table 43 - Financial contribution to groups/organizations to which household members belong in the last year

	Educa-tion	Water	Foot paths	Reforest.	Intervention group total	Control group
Amount contributed in last year (EC$)	39.25	8.00	44.61	105.14	49.40	41.93
N households	22	10	30	14	76	38

A possible indicator of the impact of PRF project implementation on social capital in the beneficiary communities would be the recent creation of a significant number of these groups or association, especially those that aim at fostering community development. The proportion of groups or associations that were present in the community two years before the survey appears to be slightly lower in the intervention group, meaning that the proportion of new groups – possibly triggered by the PRF support – appears to be higher (table 47). One third of the existing community development committees have appeared in the last year, possibly as a result of the implementation of the PRF-funded projects.

Table 44 Presence of community-based groups before PRF support

% of existing organizations that were already present in the community 2 years ago	Educa-tion	Water	Foot paths	Reforest.	Intervention group total	Control group
Mothers/fathers group	86.1	100.0	95.5	75.0	88.9	80.0
Sports club	86.2	50.0	86.4		84.9	87.5
Youth group	74.1	100.0	22.2	33.3	58.1	100.0
Community Development Committee	100.0	50.0	62.5	75.0	65.4	80.0
Work-related group	100.0			100.0	92.9	87.5
Religious group	100.0		60.0	100.0	81.8	100.0
Tourism-oriented group			100.0		100.0	100.0
Cultural/musical group	100.0	100.0	100.0		100.0	0.0
N	111	15	88	22	236	83

Survey respondents were asked their opinions on the importance of existing groups for community development and on whether their executive committee is representative of the community (table 45).

Table 45 - Perceived attributes of groups or associations present in the community

Type of group/ organization	Number of groups/ organizations	Intervention group		Control group		Intervention group		Control group	
		Importance for community development				Representativeness of executive committee			
		Very	Fairly	Very	Fairly	Very	Fairly	Very	Fairly
Mothers/fathers group	72/20	41.7	30.6	50.0	30.0	41.7	30.6	30.0	25.0
Sports club	53/8	54.7	32.1	87.5	0.0	52.8	35.8	62.5	25.0
Youth group	43/6	32.6	44.2	83.3	0.0	20.9	46.5	66.7	16.7
Community Development Committee	26/25	88.5	11.5	80.0	12.0	61.5	30.8	52.0	44.0
Work-related group	14/8	64.3	28.6	75.0	12.5	35.7	35.7	62.5	25.0
Religious group	11/3	63.6	36.4	100.0	0.0	36.4	54.5	33.3	66.7
Tourism-oriented group	10/13	80.0	20.0	84.6	15.4	50.0	50.0	69.2	15.4
Cultural/musical group	7/0	28.6	42.9			42.9	42.9		

In the intervention group sample, community development committees and tourist-oriented groups are seen as most important for the development of communities and their boards are viewed as representative (along with sports clubs). The intervention group respondents are apparently more focused on community development than the control group communities where sports and religious entities get high marks too.

Overall, the household survey evidence presented in the foregoing paragraphs does not suggest that there is any systematic increase on standard measurable indicators of structural social capital in PRF intervention communities, compared with the situation observed in the control group communities. However, the fact that in half the intervention communities, there is evidence of follow-on projects is a heartening finding.

The qualitative evaluation provided a wealth of information about community organization. The analysis covered organizational strengths, motivation to embark in a new project, trust in leaders, opinion on community improvement through project, and community participation in project execution. Perception of the PRF and its project was also discussed, as it has a direct bearing on several of the other areas detailed above.

Organizational capacities at the community level were generally found to be weak. This reflects a low level of community organization throughout the island. Community Development Committees (CDC) are the communal organizations most promoted by the island's Government. Few of the communities visited had one, and in those communities that did have one, it was not functional, or it didn't constitute a driving force in community development (a finding that contrasts with the relatively good opinion expressed in the household survey).

Mothers & Fathers Groups are practically the only other type of community organization. However, these groups seldom get involved in community development activities and projects. The general population perceives them as socially elite groups, and thus grants them a very low level of trust. One community had also organized a Disaster Preparedness Committee with the help of their Community Development Officer, while another reported belonging to an association of rural communities. Most communities reported having social organizations like dance groups and religious congregations, but these do not become involved in development activities (though their members may).

The qualitative study found that the organization of Community Project Committees strengthened social capital in most communities. In most cases, the CPC was the only community organization. Their organization brought towns together, generating a new sense of community. Communities were strengthened by the experience, especially through the increased capacities acquired in the process. Organizational strengths were found to be greater in social assistance projects due to the better organizational capacity of the institutions in charge. However, this has little bearing on the communities where they are located

Unfortunately, in most cases this was temporary, lasting only as long as project execution. In some cases the CPC dissolved even before the project was finished, giving way to suspicion and rivalries. Continuity only happened in a few instances where the CPC had shown effective leadership, organizational capacity, and were considered to have done an efficient job in project execution. A closer follow-up by the PRF could have improved this; and a more consistent national policy on community organization could reinforce development prospects.

The qualitative study found that control group communities had similar organizational weakness to those observed in the intervention communities, thus confirming the findings of the household survey on this point. One community in line for a water project expressed a fear that, since their project will complete coverage of existing water system, those who already have the service may not be willing to participate in the new project. In the control sites of Balca and Dubonnet, organizational capacity was limited. In Dubonnet, the residents expressed that they will form community groups after they have received assistance, rather than using community organization as a means of acquiring assistance.

3.5.2 Trust

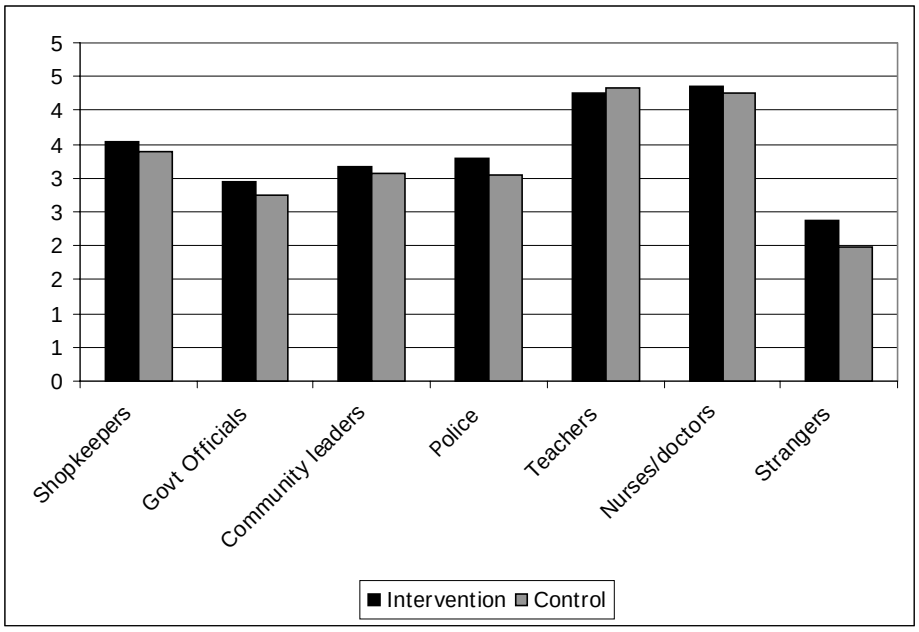
The development of social capital in a community is rooted in the trust that community members have in their leaders and representatives. Household respondents were asked to what extent they trusted the people in the listed categories on a scale from 1 (to a very small extent) to 5 (to a very great extent) (table 46).

Table 46. Trust in leaders and representatives of civil institutions

	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforest.	Intervention group total	Control group
Shopkeepers	3.7	3.6	3.4	3.9	3.5	3.4
Government officials	3.2	3.1	2.9	2.7	2.9	2.8
Local community leaders	3.3	3.3	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.1
Police	3.2	3.8	3.2	2.9	3.3	3.0
Teachers	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.4	4.2	4.3
Nurses and doctors	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.5	4.4	4.2
Strangers	2.0	2.8	2.5	1.8	2.4	2.0
N	133	129	350	46	658	207

There is a higher level of trust towards providers of social services (teachers, health staff) and more distrust towards political leaders, especially those from central level government. The levels of trust and distrust expressed are not fundamentally different in the intervention and control groups, as can be seen in Figure 2.

Fig. 2. Expression of trust towards leaders and representatives of civil institutions



Mutual trust between community members another important dimension of cognitive social capital. A well-known indicator of mutual trust is peoples' confidence in getting support from neighbors and friends when they face problems (table 47).

Table 47. Estimation of levels of mutual trust between community members

	Educa-tion	Water	Foot paths	Reforest.	Intervention group total	Control group
# of persons in community, willing to help with small loan	2.5	1.3	2.0	6.4	2.3	2.7
Neighbors would care for children:						
Definitely	18.0	17.1	23.7	26.1	21.4	23.7
Probably	18.0	14.7	5.1	6.5	9.7	11.1
Probably not	11.3	6.2	6.3	8.7	7.4	4.8
Definitely not	16.5	20.2	18.0	6.5	17.3	12.6
Perception of change in level of trust over last three years:						
Gotten better	10.5	17.1	17.1	19.6	16.0	18.4
Stayed about the same	42.1	50.4	42.9	26.1	43.0	45.4
Gotten worse	36.1	23.3	29.7	47.8	31.0	30.0
Better trust in the community as a result of PRF-funded project:						
Yes	21.1	58.8	41.4	28.3	39.3	N.A.
No	18.0	8.8	24.6	26.1	20.5	
N	133	129	350	46	658	207
(for last question)		(114)			(643)	

Most of the respondents estimated at 2 or 3 the number of persons beyond their immediate family whom they could ask for a small loan. This is not an unusual figure[14]. About a third of respondents could count on their neighbors to keep their children in case of an emergency. Responses are similar in the intervention and control group samples.

Households' perceptions of the trend in the level of trust in the last three years is pessimistic, with only 16 to 18% thinking that it has improved and almost a third thinking it has worsened. Once again, the figures are similar for both the intervention and the control group. However, in the intervention group, about 40% of the households thought that the project implementation had contributed to improve the level of trust in the community, thus counteracting somehow the general trend.

3.5.3 Cooperation to address community problems

The concrete result hoped for from strengthening social capital is increased and more effective community activity to address major problems. Table 48 reports the time spent on activities that benefit the community. Households from the intervention group spend on average 14 hours (that is, two days of work) per year for community-oriented activities. This figure is higher that of the control group, reported at 8 days.

Table 48. - Time spent in community-oriented activities

	Educa-tion	Water	Foot paths	Reforest.	Intervention group total	Control group
Average time spent in last year by household members in active-ties benefiting the community	12.6	6.3	17.4	11.6	14.4	8.3
N	16	25	86	8	135	54

[14] A survey by ESA Consultores for the evaluation of a child health program in Nicaragua showed that half of the respondents could count on one or two persons for such a loan and about 17% mentioned more than two; the average was 1.5.

The type of activities mentioned include building or rehabilitation of road or footpath (61 mentions), community cleaning activities (41), work on other buildings (21), digging/construction of latrines (15), fund raising (12), sports (7), productive (5) and cultural (4) activities, others (53).

Close to half of the respondents believed that the implementation of the PRF projects had improved the willingness of people to work together in the community (table 49).

Table 49. Opinions on the impact of PRF project on willingness to work together in the community

	Educa-tion	Water	Foot paths	Reforest.	Intervention group total	Control group
Improved willingness to work together as a result of PRF-project:						
Yes	30.1	64.0	52.0	37.0	48.5	N.A.
No	13.5	5.3	19.4	19.6	15.7	
N	133	114	350	46	643	207

Survey respondents were also asked if they would contribute time or money towards a community activity that would not benefit them directly. 85 to 90% expressed their willingness to contribute time, and 60 to 65 % to contribute financially (table 50). However, these responses probably reflect respondents' natural wish to seem to be generous, and are likely to exaggerate the real willingness to contribute, which is best measured by revealed preference in the face of a real project.

Table 50. Stated willingness to contribute to projects when not a direct beneficiary

Willingness to contribute to community project, even if not a direct beneficiary:	Educa-tion	Water	Foot paths	Reforest.	Intervention group total	Control group
Time contribution:						
Yes	77.4	86.8	86.9	91.3	85.3	88.9
No	18.8	6.2	9.7	4.3	10.5	7.2
Money contribution						
Yes	57.9	71.3	57.7	67.4	61.1	64.3
No	35.3	15.5	29.7	26.1	27.8	26.1
N	133	129	350	46	658	207

The perceptions of the qualitative study participants that the community had been improved through PRF project execution were unanimous and often emphatic. All communities and institutions in which projects were executed or in the process of completion reported deriving benefits from the project.

Stated motivation to work in future projects was generally high, especially in social assistance and community contracting projects. In both cases, those involved were conscious of the potential strengthening of their capacities through the project experience. Projects with less community involvement generally lacked this sense of motivation. Projects with firm organizational bases showed a high motivation to work in new projects in the future, even though this first experience "was tough." They also had a clearer idea of the benefits of organization and of the strengthening they underwent as a result of their project experience.

Motivation for organization is negatively affected by a generalized distrust in organizations, institutions and leaders and a negative attitude towards organization in general. This happens in spite of the equally generalized recognition of the potential benefits from working collectively for community improvement. Complaints were registered about evaluation visits by institutions and individuals (politicians, officials) that produced project offers that never materialized.

Respondents were asked to assess their own impact in making their community a better place to live in. The residents of control group areas are more confident of their own contribution, with 68% thinking they have made a significant impact, versus 55% in the intervention group (table 51).

Table 51. Perception of impact made by household on community well-being

	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforest.	Intervention	Control
Perception of own impact in making the community a better place to live:						
Big impact	16.5	26.4	26.6	28.3	24.6	27.5
Fair impact	29.3	34.9	28.9	30.4	30.2	40.1
Small impact	27.8	26.4	27.7	27.2	27.2	18.4
No impact at all	25.6	10.9	15.7	16.9	16.9	13.5
N	133	129	350	46	658	207

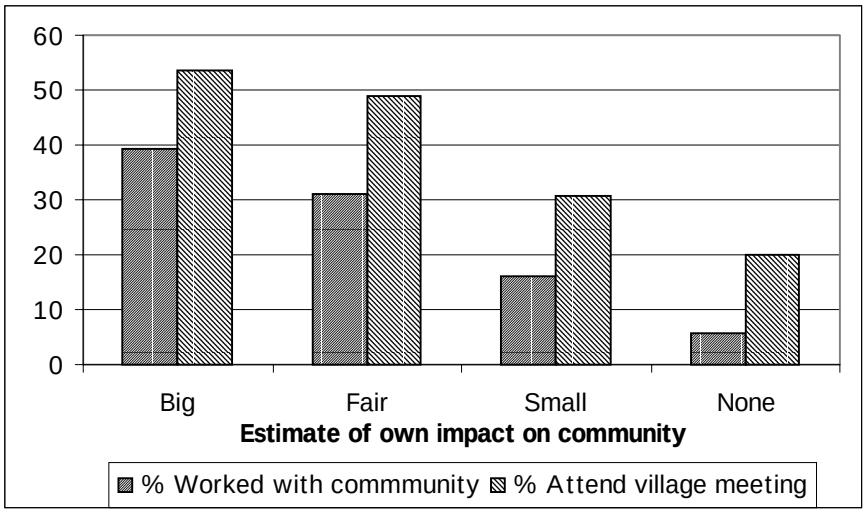
The perception of one's own impact on community well being is more positive among those with community involvement or whose household members attend village meetings (table 52).

Table 52. Perception of impact made on community well-being

	Have worked with community in past year		Member(s) of household attended village meeting		Household has members participating in the activities of 0, 1, 2 or 3 associations or groups active in the community			
	Yes	No	Yes	No	3	2	1	0
Perception of own impact in making the community a better place to live:								
Big impact	39.8	20.4	37.0	24.0	33.3	25.9	30.1	18.6
Fair impact	40.3	30.4	40.6	31.7	33.3	51.9	36.6	30.2
Small impact	16.2	28.3	17.4	29.0	33.3	11.1	22.6	31.4
No impact at all	3.7	19.9	5.1	15.3		7.4	10.8	19.8
N	216	642	138	183	9	27	93	86

Figure 3 illustrates the correlation between the proportion of people who work with the community or whose household members participate in village meetings and respondents' confidence in their contribution to improving their community.

Fig. 3. - Proportion of respondents with community involvement according to their estimated own impact on community well being



3.6 Employment generation

The main goal of the EU-SFD projects was to generate employment to compensate for possible future job losses related to the liberalization of the EU banana market. For this reasons, these projects were targeted on banana growing communities. Table 53 shows the total employment created by the SFD projects, by sub project.

In all, the SFA component generated 10,858 person-days of work. It employed 335 people – 199 men and 136 women. Of the EC$1.07 million invested in this component, 66% was spent on wages; 29% was used for tools and materials and 5% for transport. It is clear that the component had the desired effect of generating a large amount of temporary employment.

Table 53 - Job creation in EU- SFA projects

Community / Project type	Number of jobs created			Person Days	Total Project Cost, EC$	Wages as % of cost
	Total	Male	Female			
Ravine Poisson / Footpaths & Drains	43	26	17	1,265	171,414	57
Vanard / Footpaths & Drains	22	18	4	1,054	102,848	64
Thomazo / Reforestation	56	24	32	1,147	102,787	88
Garrand / Footpaths & Drains	24	14	10	1,645	137,195	66
Richfond / Footpaths & Drains	24	14	10	828	98,971	58
San de Feu / Footpaths & Drains	60	37	23	1,468	157,172	56
Aux Leon / Footpaths & Drains	36	24	12	1,394	140,936	66
Talvern / Reforestation	70	42	28	2,058	154,732	75
TOTAL	**335**	**199**	**136**	**10,858**	**1,066,055**	**66**

Source: PRF M&E system

Table 54 summarizes the salary rates paid on PRF projects. A laborer is paid between EC$40 and $50, that is, between US$11.4 and $14.3 per day. Skilled workers can earn about double this and the salary range for supervisors goes up to EC175 (US$50) a day.

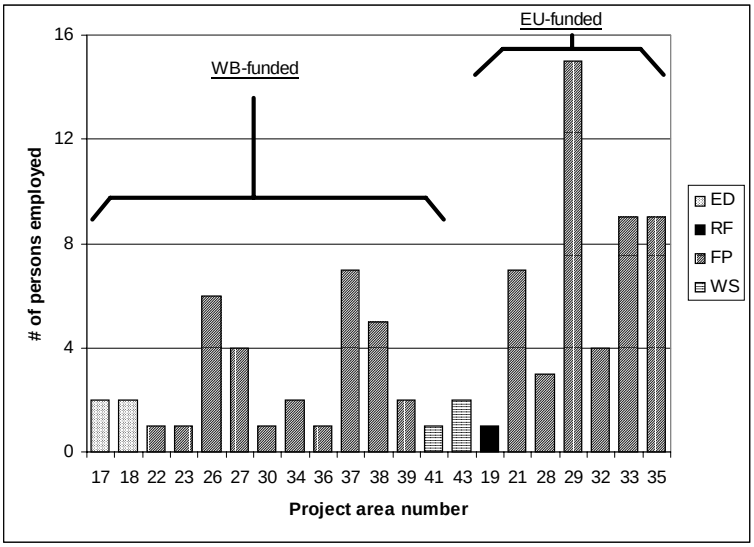
Table 54 - PRF Salary Scale for Labour Intensive Projects

Job	Salary range (EC$)	Period
Labourer	$40 to $50	Daily
Supervisor	$500 to $1750	Fortnightly
Mason	$90 to $100	Daily
Timekeeper	$40	Daily
Steel Bender	$60 to $80	Daily
Foreman	$60 to $120	Daily
Carpenter	$90	Daily

Source: PRF M&E system

Information on employment generated by the PRF projects was also obtained from the household survey. Figure 4 summarizes the household survey observations on employment creation.

Fig. 4. - Household sample of persons employed in PRF by funding source



Data were reported from 72 households in 21 project sites, referring to 85 persons in total. 48 persons had been employed by seven EU-funded projects (six footpaths and one reforestation projects) and 37 persons were employed by 14 WB-funded projects (2 education, 2 water and 10 footpaths projects). Only in one EU-funded project (reforestation in Thomazo) did the sampling process fail to pick up any household where members were hired by the project.

Table 55 shows the distribution of persons employed by type of project, sex, age group and marital status from the household sample. Two thirds of the persons employed are men (68%), and most of the persons who got a job are between 30 and 49 years old (56%) and are married or in union (61%).

Table 55. Distribution of persons employed by type of project, sex, age group and marital status

	ED		WS		FP		RF		Total	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Age group										
10-19					4				4	
20-29	2				13	5			15	5
30-39	1		1		8	8			10	8
40-49	1		2		17	10			20	10
50-59					4	3			4	3
60 +					5				5	
Unknown								1		1
Marital status										
Married/in union	2		3		29	17		1	34	18
Single	2				18	8			20	8
Visiting partner					3	1			3	1
Unknown					1				1	
Total	4	0	3	0	51	26	0	1	58	27

Table 56 shows the distribution of jobs provided by the PRF according to the funding source and to the worker's labor category before he/she took the job. 35% of employed persons were farmers, farm laborers or members of farming families; however, this information is missing for 38% of the persons employed, preventing a full analysis.

The percentage of farm-related workers is higher among the EU-funded projects (42%) as expected according to the program's objectives, than for WB-funded projects (27%).

Table 56. Distribution of employment by source of funding and previous job category

Funding source	Employment category before taking the PRF job					
	Farmer	Farm laborer	Farm family	Other	DNK/ Blank	Total (%)
WB	8 (21.6)	2 (5.4)		13 (35.1)	14 (37.8)	37
EU	8 (16.7)	10 (20.8)	2 (4.2)	10 (20.8)	18 (37.5)	48
Both	16 (18.8)	12 (14.1)	2 (2.4)	23 (27.1)	32 (37.6)	85

Table 57 presents data on the days worked and wages received. On World Bank projects the average is 28 days; for EU projects it is 46 days. However, average earnings per worker are quite similar, because the average daily rate paid on the EU projects is lower.

The average wage for the World Bank funded projects is EC$51 compared with EC$38 for EU-funded projects. The average daily wages paid by the Fund to men are EC$50.43, while those for women are EC$30.79. Women's' work is normally less intense than men's' work, due to their reluctance to perform heavy labor.

Table 57. - Days worked and wages received by sampled persons employed

	Funding	Education	Footpaths	Total
# persons with info on days worked	WB	3	27	30
	EU		45	45
	Both	3	72	75
Sum of days worked	WB	106	731	837
	EU		2,073	2,073
	Both	106	2,804	2,910
Average # of days worked per person	WB	35.3	27.1	27.9
	EU		46.1	46.1
	Both	35.3	38.9	38.8
# persons with info on wages received	WB	3	20	23
	EU		43	43
	Both	3	63	66
Sum of wages received (EC$)	WB	4,960.00	27,930.00	32,890.00
	EU		74,778.00	74,778.00
	Both	4,960.00	102,708.00	107,668.00
Average wages received per person (EC$)	WB	1,653.33	1,396.50	1,430.00
	EU		1,739.02	1,739.02
	Both	1,653.33	1,630.29	1,631.33
Average daily wage (EC$)	WB	48.84	51.53	51.25
	EU		37.72	37.72
	Both	48.84	41.91	42.04

Note: two persons employed in a WB-funded water project worked for 5 days each, but were not included in the table above as wages information was not available.

Only 25% of respondents stated that the PRF was replacing either totally or partially a previously lost job (table 59). In most cases, the PRF employment was a new job (37%),or an additional job (26%).(Table 58) This indicates that the PRF interventions have not provided a permanent alternative to jobs lost due to banana industry restructuring. This is not surprising as these jobs are – by their nature – temporary.

Table 58. Complementarity and substitution of jobs offered by PRF projects

	Employment category before taking the PRF job					
Did the job replace another productive occupation you had before?	Farmer	Farm laborer	Farm family	Other	DNK/ Blank	Total (%)
Replaced lost job	1		1	6	1	9 (10.1)
Temporarily replaces other job	4	2		4	3	13 (15.3)
Additional to current job	10	3		6	3	22 (25.9)
New job	1	5	1	7	17	31 (36.5)
Don't know/blank				2	8	10 (11.8)
Total	16	10	2	25	32	85

In the control group, only 10 people in the 207 sampled households expected to obtain a paid job from pending PRF projects. Nine of these were farmers and seven hoped that this job would be additional to their current work.

3.6.2 Implementation method

Capacity building derived from project execution varied according to project type and mode of execution; variations in capacity building impact were also evident in the training provided to the Community Project Committees (CPC).

- **Private Contracting**

Projects executed through private contracting, particularly water projects executed directly by WASCO, generated practically no capacity building due to extremely low levels of community participation in project procurement and execution. In these cases, CPC were established, but their functions were limited and temporary: they were in charge of drawing up the list of beneficiaries and other similar paperwork required prior to execution. They received capacity building training in other areas, such as monitoring and acting as a liaison with the PRF,but not in project administration.

Social assistance projects did generate capacity building, but only among the involved institution's personnel, as these projects did not involve the community in which they are located. However, within these limitations, impact in this area was high and provided those involved with motivation to attempt to work again in similar projects.

- **Community contracting and co-implementation**

The qualitative study showed that projects executed through community contracting and co-implementation generated the highest level of capacity building. The beneficiaries recognize their improved capacities, and also show a higher motivation to continue working in projects executed this way. Their capacities improved mainly in the areas of project procurement and management. Their interaction with the PRF required extensive preparation and paperwork.

The preparation phase included the assessment of their problems and priorization of alternatives prior to the elaboration of project documents. Participative discussion of problems and proposal of solutions had not been common practices in these communities. Their introduction was a welcome innovation that brought the added benefit of heightening their sense of community. Registered complaints about this phase focus mainly on an excessive amount of paperwork that was often rendered more confusing by the population's low levels of literacy. The other main area of complaints was the often complex communication with the PRF. Projects in the south, for example, suggested that better communication could have been achieved if the PRF project officer had lived in the area, not in Castries.

Project management generated considerable capacity building both through training and hands-on experience. Training in this area was provided only to CPC members, thus limiting a more extensive capacity building experience for the communities. However, since CPC members are usually community leaders and persons most involved in community development activities, their training benefits all of their communities. For many of the persons involved, this was their first experience handling large sums of money, contracting and supervising personnel, project monitoring and supervision, and other project duties that required constant interaction with the PRF, the contractors and the community.

The training received was considered adequate, though some beneficiaries stated that it didn't prepare them adequately for dealing with extensive paperwork and bureaucratic problems. For many, hands-on experience provided capacity building as valuable (perhaps more) than the formal training received. Money management was the area in which most recognized having had the greatest advancement. Training and experience in accounting, dealing with banks, managing expenses, and other such money-related issues were seen as the most valuable of all acquired through the project. In some communities, these newly acquired skills were applied with such success that the projects were executed under budget, leaving surplus funds that allowed one community, for example, to acquire items needed to finish equipping an IT center.

Table 59. - Participation in community activity by type of PRF implementation mechanism

	Community contracting and co-implementation	Private contracting
Worked with others in benefit of community last year	29.0	20.1
Community holds community meetings	51.3	31.9
Household participated in community meeting during last six months	37.1	43.8
	279	379

Table 60. - Beneficiary status, participation and opinion of project by type of implementation mechanism

	Community contracting and co-implementation	Private contracting
Consider household is, or will be, project beneficiary	53.0	73.1
Member of household worked as paid employee during project implementation	16.1	8.2
Household contributed in other ways to project implementation	18.3	15.4
Forms of contribution		
Labor	72.5	55.4
Money	19.6	5.4
Materials	7.8	5.4
N	51	56
Opinion on quality of works		
Good	73.5	72.8
Moderate	3.9	7.1
Bad	2.2	5.8
Rating as "good" contribution to project by:		
PRF officials	47.4	54.4
Project Manager	38.0	50.5
Building/works contractor	45.2	52.2
Works supervisor	43.0	51.6
Community Project Committee	44.4	51.6
Community leaders	42.3	49.5
Community at large	47.3	52.2
Since PRF project was completed, other community-driven initiative(s) have been proposed for funding		
Proportion of sites	50.0	45.8
Proportion of households mentioning projects	4.3	7.7
As a result of project implementation, there is now:		
Better trust between community members	37.6	40.7
Improved willingness to work together	48.7	48.4
N	279	379

The household survey identified some systematic differences between community contracting / co-implementation and private contracting (tables 59 and 60). The most positive finding is that communities where projects were implemented under a community contracting mechanism now have a better community organization (with 51% holding regular community meetings, versus 32% in the private contracting group) and an increased community participation by individual members (29% had participated in community-oriented activities over the last year, as compared to 20% in the private contracting group). It is also noteworthy that there is more local employment generated under community contracting. But on the other reported variables there is nothing to choose between the two mechanisms.

3.6.3 Opinions of the PRF

The PRF, as an institution, has a high rate of recognition and has a positive image. Complaints registered regarded project execution and administrative procedures, not the relationship with the PRF itself. Many suggestions for improving services were offered.

The PRF was readily identified as responsible for the projects, save on one occasion in which the local government representative was believed to have been responsible. Expressions like "friend," and "dependable…reliable" were frequently used to refer to the PRF, and many expressed feelings of gratitude and trust towards the institution.

Suggestions for improved PRF services and community relations centered on improvement of communications with PRF personnel as well as with the institution itself. This could be achieved through more agile, less bureaucratic channels. For example, a focus group in one southern community noted that they see no sense in the PRF having a community officer for the southern part of the island based in Castries, when a locally based officer would be more efficient. Another suggestion regarded inter-community communication among beneficiary communities. It was proposed in one community that the PRF should create network that would allow communities that have similar problems to exchange experiences. They emphasized that this is also a way to build human capital.

Administrative procedures were a common source of complaints. CPC were made up of persons with little or no experience in bureaucratic requirements, so they often found project administrative demands excessively complex and confusing. Suggestions were made for their simplification. For example, the requirement to obtain various quotes for the acquisition of equipment could be reduced. Nonetheless, the administrative experience was also seen in positive terms, as it allowed community members to maximize effectiveness and benefits. Expressions such as: "I am now a better negotiator," and "We could tell contractors, 'you are not working for the government' " showed that people had acquired a sense of self-confidence through the project. This reflects the Fund's ability to enhance their capacity to manage their development needs

Delays in disbursements by the PRF were recorded in various communities. This affected CPC working under the community-contracting model as it had an impact on their relationship with contractors and suppliers, as well as with laborers hired in the community. In one community, some laborers still had not

received their final payment at the time of our visit. This situation motivated such comments as “The PRF Accounts Department is a pain in the neck.”

One complaint of CPC members manipulating project design and execution was recorded in the community of San de Feu. Some members of the community claim that not all persons who needed stairs to access the footpath got them, and they feel that project leaders were unfairly favored with these secondary benefits. Other minor complaints were registered, like noise interfering with classes.

4 Conclusions and recommendations

Access to social and economic infrastructure.

The study found that the impact on access of water and sanitation and road and footpath projects was very positive. In both cases there are clear measurable impacts (such as reduced costs and increased consumption of water and reduced journey times and increases numbers of trips for footpaths). In both cases the qualitative study reinforced the impression of a strong positive impact on the quality of life of the beneficiaries.

The study found a less clear impact from education projects and reforestation projects. In neither case did clear quantifiable benefits arise, and in these cases the qualitative appraisals also tended to generate more questioning of the project.

However, the IT projects were not yet fully operational when the evaluation was in the field. In the opinion of the study team, they will likely have a big impact once they are fully operational so long as the sustainability issues can be resolved by the Ministry of Education meeting its commitment to cover the operating costs.

Based on these findings, the study recommends that the PRF should concentrate in future on water and sanitation, roads and footpaths and IT projects.

Capacity building and strengthening:

The training offered as a integral component of the PRF sub-projects was well received and deemed very useful by all respondents, whether it was directly related to the corresponding project, related to general project management issues, or was aimed at skill building in other areas.

The study therefore validates the PRF's approach to training, but recommends that in future, more attention be given to programming the training in a timely fashion so that the delay in completion of training components does not lead to lengthy delays in closing sub-projects. If this is not feasible, it should consider treating the training component as a separate sub-project, especially where it is not directly related to the physical intervention undertaken on the site.

It also recommends that – in order to establish the lasting economic benefit from the training program - a long-term follow-up study should assess the impact of training in terms of facilitating access to permanent, paid, qualified employment or to development of own business.

Perceived quality of work:

SFD projects are generally perceived to have been of good quality. According to project survey respondents (who might be expected to be more knowledgeable on this point) 92% of projects were classified as "good quality"; only for water projects did the proportion fall below 90%. According to household responses,

the water and footpaths projects get the best marks from the households, with 80% of satisfaction overall, while education and reforestation projects are in the range of 50-55%.

Participation of beneficiaries:

In addition to paid employment in the SFA projects, community members contributed through voluntary labor, donation of materials, financial contribution, or other mechanisms including provision of water and food for the workers, administrative and supervision support for the project implementation. Community participation was higher on project sites with community contracting, often within the concept of *koudmain*.

Sustainability:

The study findings raise some concerns about sub-project sustainability, apart from water projects which are run by WASCO. Although half of the project survey respondents claim that provision for maintenance have been made in the project design, the appropriation of this concept by the communities themselves is very low. There are particular concerns related to footpath projects and IT projects that need to be addressed.

Targeting the poor and vulnerable:

The study's findings on the targeting results of the PRF are very positive. A high proportion of the program's resources go the poorest areas and households and only a small proportion of the funds leaks into the top of the income distribution. Targeting outcomes were especially positive for water and footpath projects. PRF should continue using the same procedures to ensure that it reaches the poor.

Social capital:

The study finds clear evidence of increased participation and involvement in the community as a result of PRF interventions and finds evidence of positive spin-offs such as new project proposals arising in beneficiary communities. However, the household level measures of structural and cognitive social capital in the intervention communities are found to be low and not markedly different from those found in a control group sample. The qualitative study suggests that the organizational impetus of the PRF may be transitory and the underlying resistance to participating in communal efforts remains strong. We conclude that the PRF has made an important step in the right direction but St. Lucia still has a long way to go to promote greater levels of social capital.

Community contracting:

Both the qualitative and quantitative components of the study find clear benefits from the community contracting approach compared with traditional private contracts, in terms of the community mobilization and capacity building outcomes of the PRF interventions. This approach should be continued and reinforced in footpath projects.

However, in water projects, where communities are being connected to the WASCO systems, the water company should continue to be the implementing agency. or order to ensure compliance with the company's norms. However, PRF should explore with WASCO the possibility of building in to these projects a stronger community input through the use of local labor – possibly donated through *koudmain* – for the unskilled tasks such as ditching.

Employment generation:

The SFD has had a clear positive impact in temporary employment generation in the beneficiary communities, especially in EU funded projects and in projects that use community contracting. But in most of the cases, the PRF-sponsored job was either a new, or an additional job, not a fully-fledged replacement for a lost job in the banana growing activity. The SFD is not an appropriate instrument to replace long term jobs as a direct employer. It can, however, help address this issue through the long term impact of its training activities.

Annex A – List of the survey sample for the quantitative and qualitative projects

Annex A 1: Sample of intervention and control sites for the household survey

	Area #	Project #	Project Name	Settlement	Type	Poverty Index	Poverty decile	Funding	Implementation Mech.
Control	1	404	La Guerre School Expansion	Gros Islet - La Guerre	Education	1.55	3		
	2	302	Saltibus Combined Secondary School Expansion	Laborie - Saltibus	Education	1.68	4		
	3	167	Bexon Road and Footpath Construction	Castries - Bexon	Roads	1.97	5		
	4	487	Maynard Hill Footpath Construction	Castries - Maynard Hill	Roads	2.38	8		
	5	187	Pavee Footbridge Construction	Castries - Pavee	Roads	2.52	9		
	6	121	Debonnaire Footpath Construction	Dennery - Dubonnet	Roads	1.15	2		
	7	164	Desbarra	Gros Islet - Desbarra	Roads	0.84	1		
	8	103	Grande Ravine Footpath Construction	Dennery - Village	Roads	1.06	1		
	9	576	Esperance Integrated Infrastructure potable water/	Soufriere - Esperance	Roads	0.98	1		
	10	578	Aupicon Construction of Drains	Vieux Fort - Town	Roads	1.33	2		
	11	430	Morne Paul Water System Expansion	Laborie - Darban	Water and Sa	1.36	3		
	12	333	Balca Water System Expansion	Choiseul - Balca	Water and Sa	0.38	1		
Intervention	13	615	La Croix Maingot Combined School: walkway	Castries - La Croix Maingot	Education	1.13	2	WB	PC
	14	606	Renovation of Pre-School in Dennery Villege	Dennery - Village	Education	1.95	5	WB	CC
	15	604	Expansion of Monchy Combined School, Gros Islet	Gros Islet - Monchy	Education	1.82	5	WB	CC
	16	602	Expansion of Banse La Grace School: IT Center	Laborie - Banse La Grace	Education	1.48	3	WB	CC
	17	607	Construction of ITC and School fence, Laborie Girls Primary	Laborie - Village	Education	1.97	5	WB	CC
	18	614	Expansion of School, GEMS, ECEC	Micoud - Blanchard	Education	1.90	5	WB	PC
	19	636	Talvern Reforestation	Castries - Babonneau - Talvern	Reforestation	2.21	7	EU	SFA
	20	637	Thomazo Reforestation	Dennery - Thomazo	Reforestation	2.03	6	EU	SFA
	21	633	Vanard Footpath and Drains	Canaries - Vanard	Roads	1.93	5	EU	SFA
	22	613	Road Rehabilitation at La Plois Glos	Castries	Roads	2.87	9	WB	PC
	23	630	Construction/Repair of Footpath at Arundell Hill	Castries - Arundell Hill	Roads	2.48	8	WB	PC
	24	612	Construction of bridge Fewe Balata	Castries - Balata	Roads	2.23	7	WB	PC
	25	610	Foot Path and Drains in Lacoudoil Ciceron	Castries - Ciceron	Roads	2.13	6	WB	PC
	26	616	Construction of a footpath in the Gulf, Ciceron	Castries - Ciceron - The Gulf	Roads	2.13	6	WB	PC
	27	627	Road and drainage works at Tou Cochon	Castries - Marc	Roads	1.60	4	WB	PC
	28	634	Ravine Poisson: Footpath and Drains	Castries - Ravine Poisson	Roads	1.69	4	EU	SFA
	29	639	San De Fe Footpath and Drains	Castries - Sarot	Roads	1.07	1	EU	SFA
	30	626	Construction of a Footpath, Dierre Fort	Castries - The Morne	Roads	2.08	6	WB	PC
	31	617	Vide Boutielle:Footpath & drains	Castries -Vide Boutieille	Roads	3.14	10	WB	PC
	32	632	Aux Lyon Footpath and Drains	Dennery - Au Leon	Roads	1.36	3	EU	SFA
	33	638	Richfond Footpath and Drains	Dennery - Richfond	Roads	1.30	2	EU	SFA
	34	609	Foot Path and Drains in St. Peter's Lane Dennery	Dennery - Village	Roads	1.95	5	WB	PC
	35	635	Garrand Footpath and Drains	Gros Islet - Garrand	Roads	1.66	4	EU	SFA
	36	605	Construction of footbridge in Lower Riviere Mitant	Gros Islet - Riviere Mitant	Roads	1.92	5	WB	CC
	37	619	Fond Gen Librefootpths & drains	Soufriere	Roads	1.27	2	WB	PC
	38	618	Son Avenue:Road and Drains	Vieux Fort - Bellevue	Roads	1.33	2	WB	PC
	39	608	Construction of footpath and drains in Upper Shanty T	Vieux Fort - Town	Roads	2.00	6	WB	PC
	40	629	Vieux Fort Market Area Footpath	Vieux Fort - Town	Roads	2.00	6	WB/EU	PC
	41	601	Industry: pit latrines and health/environmental sensiti	Choiseul - Industry	Water & San	1.49	3	WB	CC
	42	622	Relocation of Water mains in Lumier	Dennery - Lumiere	Water & San	1.22	2	WB	PC
	43	623	Morne Panache: 2" main extension	Dennery - Morne Panache	Water & San	1.18	2	WB	PC
	44	628	New Village (Richfond):2" Water mains extension	Dennery - Richfond	Water & San	1.30	2	WB	PC
	45	621	Terre Vent Water Project	Vieux Fort	Water & San	1.02	1	WB	PC
	46	625	Doe Camel:Expansion of a water system	Vieux Fort	Water & San	2.31	7	WB	PC
	47	624	Construction of a Water System in Fond Maiye	Vieux Fort - de Mailly	Water & San	1.33	2	WB	PC
	48	620	La Bordlais Water Project	Vieux Fort - Vige Cacao	Water & San	0.88	1	WB	PC

Implementation mechanism: PC = Private Contracting, CC = Community Contracting, SFA = Special Framework of Assistance (community contractir

Annex A2: List of communities for the Qualitative Survey

	Area #	Project #	Project Name	Settlement	Type	Funding	Implementation Mechanism
Control	1	404	La Guerre School Expansion	Gros Islet - La Guerre	Education		
	6	121	Debonnaire Footpath Construction	Dennery - Dubonnet	Roads		
	12	333	Balca Water System Expansion	Choiseul - Balca	Water and Sanitation		
Interv. + Quant. Surv.	16	602	Expansion of Banse La Grace School: IT Center	Laborie - Banse La Grace	Education	WB	CC
	29	639	San De Fe Footpath and Drains	Castries - Sarot	Roads	EU	SFA
	36	605	Construction of footbridge in Lower Riviere Mitant	Gros Islet - Riviere Mitant	Roads	WB	CC
	37	619	Fond Gen Librefootpths & drains	Soufriere	Roads	WB	PC
	43	623	Morne Panache: 2" main extension	Dennery - Morne Panache	Water & San	WB	PC
	48	620	La Bordlais Water Project	Vieux Fort - Vige Cacao	Water & San	WB	PC
Interv. No Quant. Surv.			Montgouge Club 60 Community Center	Choiseul	Comm. Employment	WB	CC
			Upton gardens Girls Center	Castries	SAIP	WB	Co-implem.
			Lady Gordon School for the Deaf	Castries - Ciceron	SAIP		CC

Annex B – Tabulation of the statistical significance for the main quantitative indicators

Annex B: Tests of Significance for Differences between Intervention and Comparison Groups./1

		Intervention Group		Comparison Group				***: Sig. 1%. **: Sig. 5%.
Proportions	**Table No.:**	**n1**	**p1**	**n2**	**p2**	**diff**	**One Tail Sig**	***: Sig. 10%
Knowledge of project	31	643	0.728	207	0.319	0.409	0.0000	***
Discussions previous to project	31	468	0.707	66	0.712	-0.005	0.4763	N.S.
Participation in discussions	31	331	0.680	47	0.723	-0.043	0.3323	N.S.
Chosen same project	24	643	0.739	207	0.783	-0.044	0.1764	N.S.
Actual support vs willingness	32	643	0.166	207	0.126	0.04	0.1504	N.S.
Contribute labor	33	107	0.636	18	1.000	-0.364	0.0000	***
Contribute money	33	107	0.121	18	0.667	-0.546	0.0004	***
Contribute materials	33	107	0.065	18	0.278	-0.213	0.0822	*
Contribute tools	33	107	0.131	18	0.833	-0.702	0.0000	***
Benefit from project	30	643	0.711	207	0.812	-0.101	0.0140	**
Village holds comm. Meetings	38	658	0.401	207	0.280	0.121	0.0097	***
Participate in community meetings	38	658	0.402	207	0.552	-0.15	0.0036	***
Attend council meeting	39	658	0.264	207	0.290	-0.026	0.3044	N.S.
Meet a politician/send letter	39	658	0.201	207	0.304	-0.103	0.0203	**
Participated in protest or demonstration	39	658	0.036	207	0.130	-0.094	0.0033	***
Participate in election campaign	39	658	0.111	207	0.159	-0.048	0.1145	N.S.
Alerrted newspaper/radio	39	658	0.055	207	0.145	-0.09	0.0073	***
Notified police or court	39	658	0.205	207	0.261	-0.056	0.1245	N.S.
Planning of dvt activities	39	658	0.216	207	0.222	-0.006	0.4489	N.S.
Groups important/very imp. For development	45	256	0.828	87	0.874	-0.046	0.2230	N.S.
Representative of community	45	256	0.781	87	0.805	-0.024	0.3664	N.S.
Trust neighbors to keep children	47	658	0.214	207	0.237	-0.023	0.3142	N.S.
Do not trust	47	658	0.173	207	0.126	0.047	0.1124	N.S.
Community trust got better	47	658	0.160	207	0.184	-0.024	0.2889	N.S.
Would invest time	50	658	0.853	207	0.889	-0.036	0.1622	N.S.
Would invest money	50	658	0.611	207	0.643	-0.032	0.2775	N.S.
Have a fair impact	51	658	0.302	207	0.401	-0.099	0.0344	**
Have a small impact	51	658	0.272	207	0.184	0.088	0.0260	**
Piped water for domestic use (water projects)	10	129	0.915	129	0.366	0.549	0.0000	***
Have to fetch water	11	129	0.271	129	0.690	-0.419	0.0000	***
Monthly payment water based upon meter reading	13	110	0.949	70	0.7	0.249	0.0013	***
Averages		**n1**	**X1**	**n2**	**X2**	**diff**	**One Tail Sig**	
Trust shop keepers	46	627	3.5	205	3.4	0.1	0.2605	N.S.
Trust govt officials	46	617	2.9	198	2.8	0.1	0.2785	N.S.
Trust community leaders	46	608	3.2	195	3.1	0.1	0.2741	N.S.
Trust police	46	634	3.3	204	3	0.3	0.0501	*
Trust teachers	46	635	4.2	202	4.3	-0.1	0.1826	N.S.
Trust nurses/doctors	46	635	4.4	205	4.2	0.2	0.0481	**
Trust strangers	46	632	2.4	204	2	0.4	0.0053	***
Persons who could lend money	47	623	2.3	192	2.7	-0.4	0.2849	N.S.
Time last year by household members in community activities	48	135	14.4	54	8.3	6.1	0.0640	*
Time to fetch water	11	86	11.5	35	19	-7.5	0.1239	N.S.
Trips to fetch water	11	83	3.8	32	5.3	-1.5	0.0615	*
Estimated water quantity	11	78	31.8	31	35.7	-3.9	0.2131	N.S.
Time to reach main road	15	282	6.1	274	8.4	-2.3	0.0109	**
# persons in associations	41	658	1.4	207	1.3	0.1	0.2744	N.S.
# persons in resp. positions	41	658	1.2	207	1.0	0.2	0.1906	N.S.

Note: The comparison group is either the Control Group or the Ex-ante observation from recall or institutional data, depending on the variable.

Annex C - General and Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Survey Population

This section summarizes the socio-economic characteristics of the sampled populations in terms of education achievements, employment status, levels of income and poverty, characteristics of dwellings, and access to public and community services. Those data provide a useful background for the understanding of the effects of the PRF interventions and the factors underlying those effects.

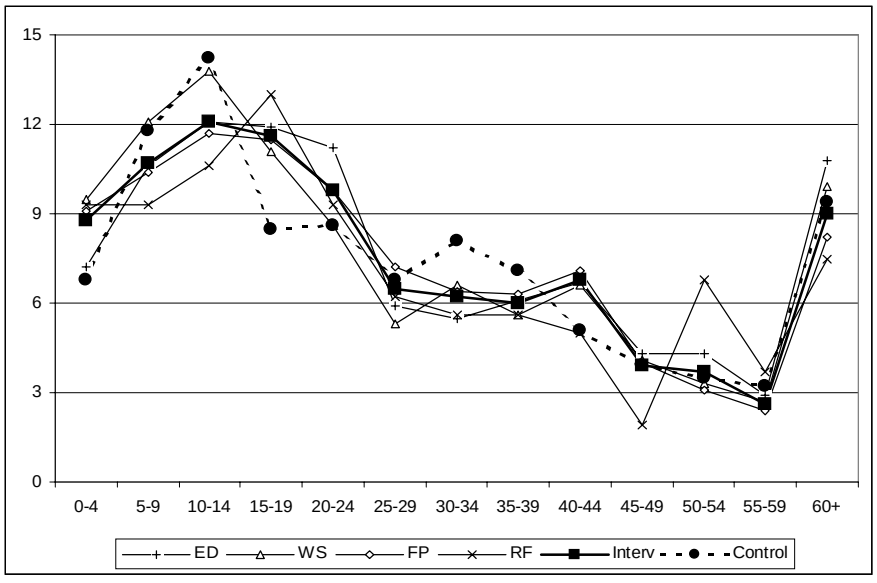
Demographic characteristics

The gender distribution is similar in both groups, with a slight predominance of women (51%, see Table C.1). The only exception is the area corresponding to water projects where the proportion of women is lower than that of men (48%). The age distribution is also quite similar, and can be appreciated in Figure C.1, where intervention group as a whole and control group appear in heavy lines, while individual project-type groups are in lighter lines.

Table C1. Sex and age distribution of sampled population

	Intervention	Control
Gender distribution		
Male	48.9	48.6
Female	51.1	51.4
Age distribution		
0-9	19.5	18.6
10-19	23.7	22.7
20-29	16.3	15.4
30-39	12.2	15.2
40-49	10.7	9.0
50-59	6.3	6.7
60 +	9.0	9.4
Total	2,433	720

Fig. C.1: Distribution of population by age group and type of project



Educational status

Table C.2 - School enrolment and educational achievements of sample population				
	Intervention		Control	
	M	F	M	F
% currently enrolled in educational institution	74.2	80.1	76.6	78.2
Population 5-19 yrs	427	412	124	124
Primary	60.8	56.5	60.9	57.3
Secondary	21.5	25.4	16.9	22.2
Post-secondary	2.1	3.6	1.8	4.3
University	0.8	1.2	1.8	1.0
Population 10 years +	961	997	284	302

Employment status

Agriculture and forestry, construction, trade, hotels/restaurants and manufacturing are, in this order, the main sectors of employment among the sample population, as seen in Figure C.2 below. The control group would seem to confirm a slightly more rural trend, with more jobs in agriculture, fishing and hotels, and less in construction and trade.

Fig. C.2. Sector of employment by survey group

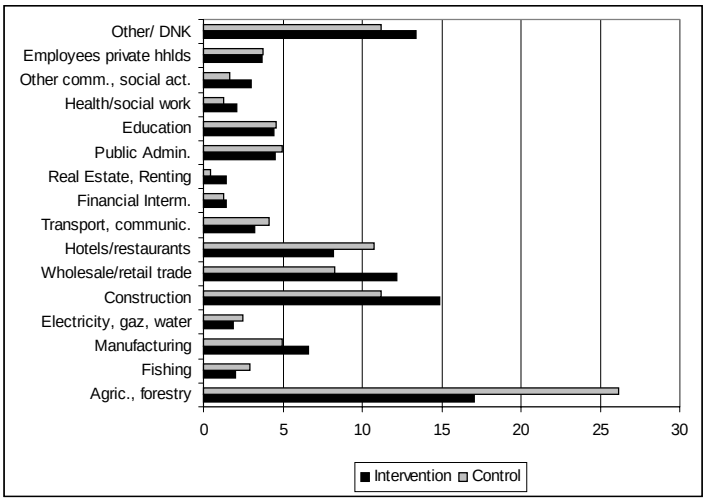


Table C.3. shows the distribution of the main five sectors of employment by type of project for the intervention group, while Table C.4 shows the distribution of those same five sectors by sex and study group.

Table C.3. Distribution of sectors of employment by type of project

Type of business	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforestation	Total
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	12.3	25.7	15.5	21.3	17.1
Construction	10.5	17.9	16.7	8.2	14.9
Wholesale and retail trade	12.9	8.6	13.0	13.1	12.2
Hotels and restaurants	7.0	6.4	8.6	13.1	8.2
Manufacturing	7.0	15.0	4.2	3.3	6.6
N.	171	140	431	61	803

Table C.4. Distribution of sectors of employment by sex and study group

Type of business	Intervention		Control	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	21.9	9.7	30.8	18.9
Construction	23.9	1.3	17.5	1.1
Wholesale and retail trade	9.3	16.7	4.8	13.7
Hotels and restaurants	6.0	11.6	11.0	10.5
Manufacturing	4.5	9.7	4.1	6.3
N	485	318	146	95

There are no major differences between areas corresponding to different types of projects (except a slight tendency for households from water and reforestation project areas to work more in the agricultural sector, a trend consistent with the location of those projects in rural areas when there is a higher need for satisfaction of basic needs such as water. The gender distribution shows the concentration of men in the construction and (to a lesser extent) the agricultural sector, while women dominate the wholesale and retail trade sector.

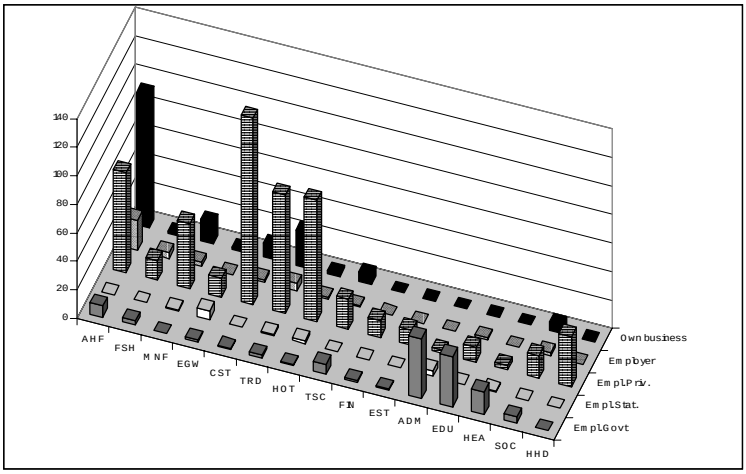
Slight gender differences also appear in the employment status with regards to the type of employment, women being slightly more represented in jobs with the government or statutory bodies, while men predominate in the private sector, as seen in Table C.5.

Table C.5 - Gender differences in employment status

Type of employment	Intervention			Control		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Employee (govt., stat. body)	12.0	20.1	15.2	12.4	19.0	15.0
Employee (private)	63.3	56.6	60.6	55.5	48.4	52.7
Own business (with paid help)	4.3	2.8	3.7	4.1	4.2	4.1
Own business (no paid help)	15.7	14.5	15.2	26.0	23.2	24.9
Unpaid worker	1.0	0.6	0.9	0.0	1.1	0.4
Other	3.7	5.3	4.3	2.1	4.2	2.9
N	485	318	803	146	95	241

Figure C.3 below shows in a graphical way the distribution of type of employment by sector of activity, with private sector employees dominating the scene in construction, trading, hotels, manufacturing and private household employment sectors, and the agricultural sector offering various possibilities for one-person business, employers and employees in the private sector and even in the public sector.

Fig. C.3. Type of employment by sector of activity



The prospects for full time employment, however, appears to differ by sector of activity, with trade and tourism (hotels/restaurants) offering the best opportunities for full-time jobs, while construction and, mostly, agriculture, being more prone to offer part-time or minimal time jobs.

Table C.6.Intensity of work by type of business, sex and study group

	How much time did you work last week?			n
Type of business	Full time	Part time	Few hours	
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	62.8	22.5	14.7	191
Construction	65.0	29.4	2.1	143
Wholesale and retail trade	85.3	9.5	3.4	116
Hotels and restaurants	85.0	7.1	1.2	85
Manufacturing	76.2	9.5	14.3	63
Sex and study group				
Intervention – men	77.4	16.5	4.3	461
Intervention – women	76.9	13.6	7.8	294
Control – men	71.3	14.7	13.3	143
Control - women	80.6	12.9	5.4	93

Based on 991 persons (both intervention and control groups)

It is also interesting to note that women in the control group were more likely to have worked full-time in the previous two weeks (81%) than their male counterparts (71%), when there was no real gender difference in the intervention group.

A final data related to employment is that concerning the travel time from home to the work place. Actually, the time needed to go from home to work is very similar in both groups, with averages of 25.1 and 29.1 minutes respectively (difference not significant).

Assets and income levels

In keeping with the parameters used by the 2001 Population Census, we measured socio-economic level of the households in two ways. The first method consisted in developing a simple index of household appliances (including: water heater, cable TV/satellite, VCR, refrigerator/freezer, microwave oven, stove, telephone/cell phone, washing machine, water pump, computer, 4-wheel vehicle). The index was calculated by adding one point for each item owned by

the household and the distribution of the index by project type and intervention/control group. While there exist some difference between project-type areas, probably linked to low number of observations, the control group and the intervention group as a whole have very similar distribution patterns. The average index by project type and by group is shown in the first line of Table C.7.

The second measure of wealth is obtained from a survey question, similar to the corresponding Census question, about income in the last pay period. Answers were obtained not as a specific figure, but as a category mentioned by the respondent from those listed on a flash card[15]. In order to calculate per capita household income, we used the middle-point value of each category as the value for the person's income, added income figures for all persons from the household reporting an income after having worked in the past two weeks, and divided this total by the number of people living in the household[16]. The second part of Table C.7 provides the average monthly household income, both total and per capita, by type of project and by group. While there is no major difference between groups, the households located in water project areas seem to have lower total household incomes (and, to a lesser extent, per capita income) than the other groups. This would be consistent with the fact that those less-favored groups would have chosen/received a project related to an essential component of day-to-day survival, that is, the availability of drinking water.

Table C.7. Index of household appliances and monthly household income

	Education	Water	Footpaths	Reforestation	Intervention	Control
Index of household appliances	4.4	3.0	3.9	5.0	3.9	4.0
Monthly household income (from work)	1,964.40	1,380.60	1,875.40	1,690.00	1,786.10	1,758.20
Monthly per capita household income	616.60	430.90	677.40	4,88.20	605.10	628.10
N (index/income)	133/66	129/62	350/171	46/20	658/319	207/92

[15] One flash card was used for each periodicity of the last pay period (weekly, fortnightly, monthly); each flash card included nine categories. For instance, the flash card for the monthly income included the following possible answers (in EC$): 1 = < 200; 2 = 200-399; 3 = 400-799; 4 = 800-1,199; 5 = 1,200-1,999; 6 = 2,000-3,999; 7 = 4,000-5,999; 8 = 6,000 + ; 9 = Not Stated. Mean values for end-of scale categories were as follows: < 50: 40; < 100: 75; < 200: 150; > 1,500: 2,500; > 3,000: 4,500; > 6,000: 9,000.

[16] It should be noted that, as per the Census methodology, household income is calculated on the basis of the amount of the last pay period for household members over 15 years of age, which were mentioned as having worked (or having a job, even if they did not work) in the previous two weeks, and for which the respondent provided information on that income. Given these restrictions and a reported reluctance of St. Lucians to talk about this issue, figures for household total and per capita income were only available for 48.5% of the households in the intervention group and 44.4% in the control group. In addition, this calculation does not take into account other sources of income for the household, as listed in Table C.7 below, since quantitative information on the amount of money available from each of these sources is not available.

The distribution of monthly per capita household income, as shown in Figure C.5, below, is highly skewed, with about 34% of households reporting less than EC$250/months in both groups.

Fig. C.5. Distribution of monthly per capita household income

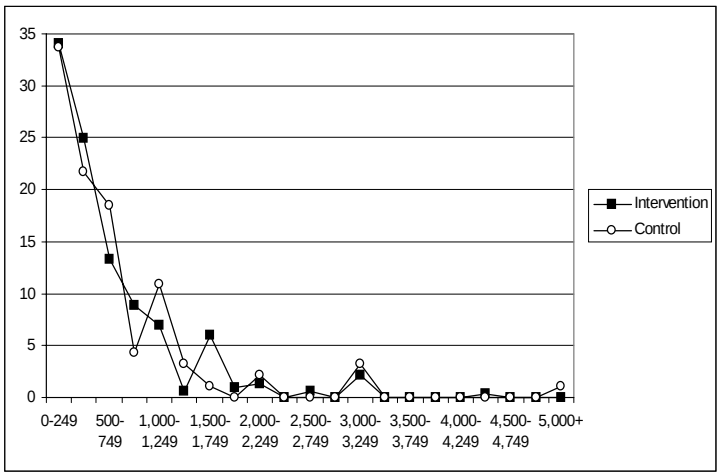
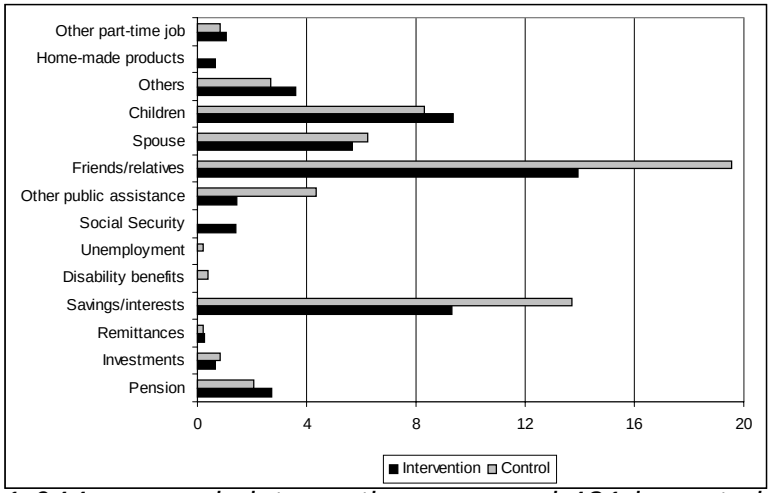


Figure C.6 below shows the distribution of additional sources of likelihood for the intervention and the control group, with the control group appearing to have more contributions from friends and relatives, and more savings than their intervention counterparts, possibly a result of having a more rural sample where cash incomes from salaried work would be less frequent and would have to be replaced by those contributions. Contributions from children are the third category in frequency. Remittances from abroad, which is the only category for which the Census requests quantitative information, is very rarely encountered, in spite of the high level of external emigration.

Fig C.6. Additional sources of livelihood



Based on 1,644 persons in intervention group and 481 in control group.

Characteristics of dwellings

The main physical characteristics of dwellings are very similar in both groups, as seen in Table C.8:

Table C.8 - Selected characteristics of dwellings		
Proportion of households with:	Intervention	Control
Main wall material: concrete	33.1	32.4
wood	51.1	53.6
Main roof material: metal sheet	98.5	97.1
% of dwelling with 1 household	97.2	97.6
Average number of bedrooms	2.3	2.4
Number of persons per bedroom	1.75	1.59
N	658	207

The utility situation is shown in Table C.9:

Table C.9 – Household access to basic services		
Utilities	Intervention	Control
Source of water:		
Piped, into dwelling	54.1	48.3
Piped, into yard	30.5	22.2
Human waste disposal:		
Flush toilet (sewer/septic tank)	41.2	42.5
Latrine inside dwelling	53.0	55.1
N	658	207

Table C.10 shows a few of those characteristics of the dwellings by type of project:

Table C.10. Characteristics of dwelling by type of project

	Education	Water	Footpath	Reforestation
Main material of outer walls = concrete	42.1	38.0	28.6	28.3
Material used for roofing = metal sheet	98.5	98.4	98.3	100.0
Water supply = public pipe in house/yard	83.5	90.7	92.8	84.7
Toilet = WC, linked to sewer/septic tank	51.9	16.3	46.0	43.5
	133	129	350	46

Distance to public and community services

An important aspect of community diagnosis is that of access to community services. Access is influenced by the type of residence areas and by the network of communications to these areas. Household respondents were asked to point out whether there were public services in the area where they live, how they rated the distance from their home to those services and the time needed to travel there. The results are presented in Table C.11 and Figure C.7.

Table C.11 - Presence of public and community services in survey area						
	Intervention			Control		
	% walking to service	Distance in mn		% walking to service	Distance in mn	
		Walk	Car/ truck		Walk	Car/ truck
Public transport	86.3	6.1	6.4	81.6	9.4	14.8
Grocery shop	77.8	7.0	21.2	73.9	9.1	33.5
Church/temple	58.7	11.3	17.3	58.0	14.0	24.1
Public telephone	56.5	8.9	11.7	44.9	10.1	17.6
Primary school	43.6	12.0	14.5	49.3	12.1	17.8
Health Center/clinic	18.8	15.6	14.0	25.1	15.3	24.6
Hospital	***8.4***	17.4	30.4	***3.4***	25.4	38.8
Secondary school	***8.1***	15.5	21.6	***2.9***	19.2	27.8

Figures in ***Bold and Italics*** indicate items for which the value in the ex-post group is significantly different from that in the baseline group (Cldiff 95% does not include 0).

The proportion going by car/bus/truck to hospital or secondary school is not significantly different between intervention and control groups.

Fig. C.7. Mean of transportation time (in minutes) to main services

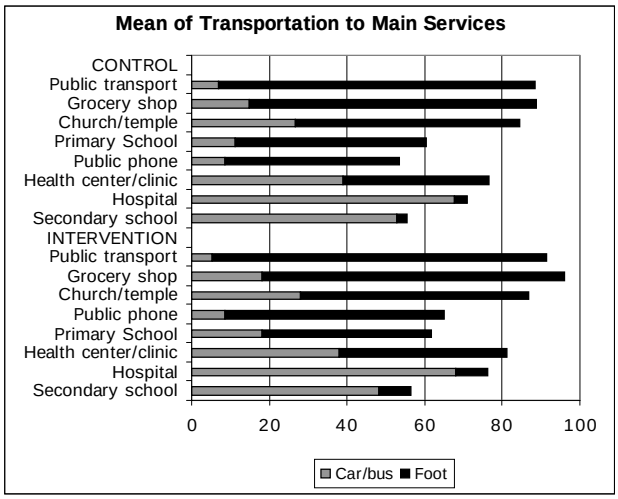
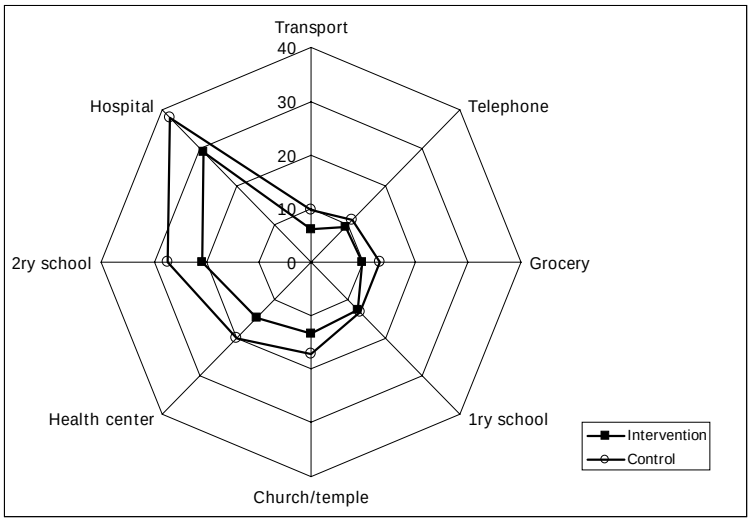


Figure C.8 is a graphic representation of the differences in time needed to reach the services between groups, also showing the relative distance between different types of services.

Figure C.8 - Distance (in minutes) from public and community services



Annex D – Detailed tabulation of survey findings by sub-projects type

Table D1. Main characteristics of the PRF education sub-projects

	La Croix Maingot	Dennery Village	Monchy	Banse – la - Grace	Laborie	Blanchard
Area	13	14	15	16	17	18
A. Implementation mechanism						
Community contracting		X		X	X	
Private contracting	X		x			X
B. Type of school						
Pre-school		X				X
Primary				X	X	
Combined	X		x			
C. Management authority						
Ministry of Education	X		X	X	X	X
Parent Organization		x				
D. Number of communities benefiting	12	2	6	6	2	2
E. Type of project						
Walkway	X					
Rehabilitation of school building		X				X
Creation/Rehabilitation of ITC				X	X	
Other (canteen/kitchenette)			X (not in use*)			
F. Number of classes						
Before PRF support	16	4	13	9	4	2
After PRF support	16	3	13	9	4	2
G. Other structural inputs						
Hallways	1					2
Admin/teachers room		1				1
Stores		1				
Toilets						3
Fence		1			1	
Computer rooms				1	1	
Kitchen and dining area			1			

H. Staff	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Permanent teachers	4	17			2	11		8		9		3
Contracted teachers				3	2	2						
Administrative				1				1		1		1
Support	2	1		1	3	3			2	2		
I. Enrolment before PRF	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Pre-school/kinder	31	22			37	20	10	18			28	14
Primary (1-6th grade)	212	198			117	101	82	76		148		
Beyond 6th	19	6			12	14	23	11		10		
Enrolment after PRF												
Pre-school/kinder	39	23	27	33	16	30				35	15	24
Primary (1-6th grade)	224	171			135	101				182		
Beyond 6th	15	6			22	21				6		

J. Total enrolment						
Before	491	80	301	234	158	39
(year)	(2002)	(2001)	(2002)	(2000)	(2001)	(2002)
After	478	60	325	234	223	39
(year)	(2003)	(2003)	(2003)	(2001)	(2003)	(2003)

	La Croix Maingot	Dennery Village	Monchy	Banse – la - Grace	Laborie	Blanchard
Area	13	14	15	16	17	18
K. School fees charged * *						
Yes, periodic school fees		X			X	X
Yes, for books and supplies	X		X	X		
Yes, facility fee						
No						
L. Existence of a maintenance program		X			X	X
M. Organization in charge of maintenance						
School itself						
Parent/Teacher Committee					X	
Community Project Committee		x				X
N. Existence of PTA		X		X	X	X
Existed before PRF intervention		X		X		X
Number of meetings in last year		4		3	2	2
O. Discussions held in community before proposal to PRF	X	X	X	X	X	X
People involved:						
School staff	X	X	X	X	X	X
Parent/Teacher Committee	X	X	X	X	X	X
Traditional leaders		X		X	X	X
Members of Parliament		X			X	
NGO/church		x	X		x	
P. Community contributed to implementation	X	X	X	X	X	
Number of individuals concerned	20	7	15	50	5	
Type of contribution						
Labor			x	x	x	
Materials	x				x	
Others (time, food, flowers)	x	x	x			

* Kitchenette/canteen in Monchy not in use, as electricity not yet installed (scheduled funding from Ministry of Education)

* * Fees: La Croix Maingot – EC$30 registration fee; Dennery: EC$50 per month (EC$3,000 from 60 pupils); Monchy: EC$20 facility fee; Laborie: EC$10 facility fee; Blanchard: EC$120 per term.

Table D2. Main characteristics of the water and sanitation sub-projects

	Industry	Lumière	Morne Panache	Richfond	Terre Vent	Doe Camel	De Maiye	La Bordlais
Area	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48
New water system			x	x	x			X
Extension of water system		x				x	x	
Latrines	x							
# of communities benefiting	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Source of water is:								
Superficial		x	x					
Underground				x	x	x	x	X
Water is brought to community by:								
Gravity alone			x	x	x	x		
Pumps		x					x	X
Method of water treatment:								
Chlorine		x	x	x	x	x	x	X
Water delivered to beneficiaries:								
By tap in dwelling		x	x	x	x	x	x	
By tap in yard								X
Project's planned outputs and coverage extension	51 latrines	From 18 to 34 taps		From 4 to 30 taps (100%)		From 2 to 36 + taps	From 11 to 15 taps	From 0 to 90% coverage
WASCO assessment of coverage (ex-post)								
No of taps			31	24	71	42	18	15
% coverage			89%	100%	47%	19%		27%
No of persons served			156	96	200	1,000	440	100
Community contribution								
Labor				x				x
Materials							x	
Paid for pipes					x			
Discussions held in community before proposal to PRF			x	x	x	x	x	x
People involved:			x	x	x			
WASCO				x		x		x
Traditional leaders			x	x				
Members of Parliament								
Other community reps.								
NGO				x		x		
PRF staff								

Table D3. Characteristics of the economic infrastructure sub-projects	Vanard	La Plois Glos	Arundell Hill	Balata	Ciceron – La Coudoil	Ciceron – The Gulf	Tou Cochon	Ravine Poisson	San de Feu	Derriere Fort	Vide Bouteille	Au Leon	Richfond	St. Peter's Lane	Garrand	Riviere Mitant	Fonds Gens Libre	Son Avenue	Bruceville (Shanty Town)	VF Market Area
Area	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
World Bank funded		X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X			X		X	X	X	X	X
European Union funded	x							x	x			x	x		x					
Implementation Mechanism																				
Co-implementation	X							X	X			X	X		X					
Community Contracting																X				
Private Contracting		X	x	x	x	x	x			X	x			x			x	x	x	X
Type of project																				
New road section																				
Upgrade of existing road																		X		
New footpath		X		X			X													
Steps	X				X	X			X	X	X		X	X			X		X	X
Footbridge / Bridge			X					X				X				x				
Other															X					
Components of intervention																				
Linear ft footpath																				
Linear ft concrete road/strips	699		774	275	400	435		284	111	212	80	297	910		394	356	845	616	1,095	
Sq. meters retention wall							200		450		120	300		930		256	192		164	
Linear ft open drains										36	400	99								
Linear ft piped drainage		240	421		512	559	143	355	1,131	318		725	690	1,000	255	284	845		2,074	
Bridge	699		10						302				120		183		266			
Other		X		X				225				600			13	x				
Communities benefiting	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	10
# households covered	22											28					27			
# persons covered					65		60			28	200		100				107			
Time in mns to main road																				
Before PRF project	5	15	10		7	1	5				15	5	15	20		2	15			
After PRF project	2	10	3		7	1	5				5	3	5	5		1	15			
Accessibility before PRF																				
By vehicle/whole year							X													
By vehicle/part of year	X	X		X												X		X		
Only by foot			x		x	x		x	x	X	x	x	x	x	x		x		x	x

Table D3. Characteristics of the economic infrastructure sub-projects	Vanard	La Plois Glos	Arundell Hill	Balata	Ciceron – La Coudoil	Ciceron – The Gulf	Tou Cochon	Ravine Poisson	San de Feu	Derriere Fort	Vide Bouteille	Au Leon	Richfond	St. Peter's Lane	Garrand	Riviere Mitant	Fonds Gens Libre	Son Avenue	Bruceville (Shanty Town)	VF Market Area
Area	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
Accessibility after PRF																				
By vehicle/whole year	X	X		X			X				X					X		X		
By vehicle/part of year																				
Only by foot			x		x	x		x	x	X		x	x		x		x		x	x
Existence of a maintenance program				x	x	x	x	x		X	x		x	x		x	x		x	x
Organization in charge of maintenance																				
Local government/council																				
Com. Maintenance																			X	X
Committee								X												
Residents		X			X	X	X				X		X	X		X				
Other																	x			
Mode of maintenance																				
Routine					X	X	X			X	X		X			X	X	X	X	X
Periodic		X		X																
Both								x												
Discussions held in community before proposal to PRF		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X
People involved:																			X	
Road authority staff							X													
PRF staff		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X		X	X	X	X				
Traditional leaders		X	X				x	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	
Members of Parliament		X	X					X		X			X	X					X	
Other community reps.		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X				X
NGO		X	X			x							X	X		x			X	
Community contributed to implementation	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X			
Number contributing	30		10		12	6	30	22	15			15	30	25			50			
Type of contribution																				
Money																X				

Table D3. Characteristics of the economic infrastructure sub-projects	Vanard	La Plois Glos	Arundell Hill	Balata	Ciceron – La Coudoil	Ciceron – The Gulf	Tou Cochon	Ravine Poisson	San de Feu	Derriere Fort	Vide Bouteille	Au Leon	Richfond	St. Peter's Lane	Garrand	Riviere Mitant	Fonds Gens Libre	Son Avenue	Bruceville (Shanty Town)	VF Market Area
Area	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
Labor	x	X	x		x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x		X	x			
Materials			x				x		x							X	x			
Others (tools, food, t-shirts)				x					x			x		x	x					

Table D4. Main characteristics of the reforestation sub-projects

	Talvern (19)		Thomazo (20)	
Assessment of water supply after PRF	Better	Same	Better	Same
Quantity	X			
Regularity	X			X
Quality	x			X
Discussions held in community before proposal to PRF	X		X	
People involved:				
Forestry Department	X		X	
PRF staff	X		X	
Traditional leaders	X			
Members of Parliament	X			
Local residents	X		X	
NGO	x			
Project components				
Forest trees planted	1,000		2,000	
Crop trees planted	1,000		500	
Wattles established			1,000	
Drains constructed			700	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Job creation	42	28	24	32

Source: Project and household survey