

CASH TRANSFER PROGRAMMING IN URBAN EMERGENCIES

A TOOLKIT FOR PRACTITIONERS



TIARE CROSS AND ANDREW JOHNSTON

THE CASH LEARNING PARTNERSHIP

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PREPARED BY TIARE CROSS AND
ANDREW JOHNSTON FOR THE CASH
LEARNING PARTNERSHIP

The Cash Learning Partnership (CaLP) aims to promote appropriate, timely and quality cash and voucher programming as a tool in humanitarian response and preparedness.

Originating from the will to gather the lessons learnt from the Tsunami emergency response in 2005, the CaLP is today composed by Oxfam GB, the British Red Cross, Save the Children, the Norwegian Refugee Council and Action Against Hunger / ACF International. The five steering committee organisations have come together to support capacity building, research and information-sharing on cash transfer programming as an effective tool to support populations affected by disasters in a way that maintains dignity and choice for beneficiaries while stimulating local economies and markets.

In 2010, the CaLP partnered with the International Federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent societies (IFRC), with support from ECHO and Visa Inc.

For more information, visit: www.cashlearning.org

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

<i>Executive Summary</i>	v
<i>Introduction: Best Practices in Urban Cash Programmes</i>	vii
Topic 1) Assessments in Urban Areas	1
Topic 2) Response Analysis for Urban Emergencies	18
Topic 3) Targeting and Verification in Urban Environments	28
Topic 4) Implementation of Cash Transfer Programmes in Urban Disasters	37
Topic 5) Fraud and Corruption Prevention in Urban Settings	48
Topic 6) Monitoring and Evaluation for Urban Cash Programmes	53
Topic 7) Coordination of Urban Cash Transfer Programmes	58
Conclusion and Future Directions	59
Annexes	
Annex 1 - Training Agenda and Facilitator Notes	61
Annex 2 - Tools (on DVD)	
1. <i>Sample Focus Group Discussion Questionnaire to Establish Urban-Specific Vulnerability Criteria</i>	
2. <i>Sample Urban Household Survey</i>	
3. <i>Template in PowerPoint of Commodity Market Map</i>	
4. <i>Template in PowerPoint of Cash-for-Work Labour Market Map</i>	

5. *Sample Urban Assessment Reporting Format*
6. *ICRC Cash and Voucher Response Analysis Flow Chart*
7. *Sample Vulnerability Criteria Prioritisation Flow Chart (Weighted)*
8. *Sample Household Applications with Beneficiary Selection Criteria*
9. *Sample Verification Spreadsheet*
10. *Sample SOP format and Operational Guidelines for Urban Cash Programmes*
11. *Template for Evaluating Options of Transfer Mechanisms*
12. *Generic Partner Vetting Checklist*
13. *Sample Contract for Private Sector Partners*
14. *Sample Complaint Mechanism Database and Protocols*
15. *Sample Post-transfer Monitoring Forms*
16. *Monthly Price Monitoring Form*
17. *Vendor Monitoring Form*
18. *Sample Format for Programme Evaluation*
19. *Sample Terms of Reference for a Cash Programme Evaluation in an Urban Area*

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In recognition of the increasing urban populations around the world and their increasing vulnerability to disasters, the Cash Learning Partnership (CaLP), with funding from the European Commission for Humanitarian Aid (ECHO), endeavoured to investigate the current status and impact of urban emergency response programmes that utilise cash transfer programming. This study aimed to better understand the collective preparedness for future urban emergency responses, and identify concrete best practices and tools to help organisations better implement cash and voucher programmes in challenging urban environments. The following toolkit brings together the collective knowledge of best practices, key issues in programming, and adaptations of cash transfer programme methodologies for urban settings. The toolkit has been developed following more than 60 in-depth interviews with urban and cash transfer experts in the humanitarian field, two field testing missions to get real-time feedback from participants and field implementers, and rigorous review by the Urban Research Advisory Committee formed by CaLP.

The flow of the toolkit follows the logical order of a project cycle and contains both guidance and examples of tools. It is the aim of the authors to provide users of this toolkit with generic tools and guidance that can be quickly adapted for different urban settings. It is also the aim of this toolkit to promote a variety of options for implementation that reflect the multisectoral and multi-disciplinary nature of cash transfer programmes. All tools described in this toolkit are adapted from real urban projects, from a variety of organisations and contexts. Tools described in this toolkit can be downloaded from the CaLP website in MS Word, MS Excel, and

MS PowerPoint format to facilitate their utilisation in the field. Additional manuals and documents listed in the bibliography provide detailed discussions on how to choose which type of cash programming, and general guidance on cash transfer implementation.

Why focus on urban emergencies? Humanitarian response programming has historically been implemented in rural contexts, and project tools have been developed for use with rural communities and social structures. Following the devastating earthquake in Port-au-Prince in 2010, flooding that inundated cities in Pakistan and the Philippines in 2010 and 2011 respectively, and food insecurity in cities such as Nairobi, Abidjan, and Gaza in the same years, practitioners faced with implementing large-scale humanitarian operations in a large urban areas acknowledged the need for further study, documentation of best practices and lessons learned, and guidance for practitioners. These large urban emergencies highlighted the need to improve speed, appropriateness, and efficiency in humanitarian programmes. Wider recognition of urban risks to disasters has prompted practitioners to invest in preparedness measures for response to urban disasters and risk reduction strategies for urban environments.

Why focus on cash transfer programmes? While working in urban environments poses many challenges, opportunities to harness the resilience of urban markets and capitalise on urban connectivity have led practitioners to see cash and voucher programming as particularly relevant in urban contexts. Work in Haiti, Pakistan, the Occupied Palestinian Territories, and Cote d'Ivoire has proved that cash and voucher programmes have a number of advantages, and warrant further consideration in our response planning.

INTRODUCTION

Recent urban disasters and growing evidence of urban risk to future disasters—such as flooding, storms, tsunamis and earthquakes—underscore the magnitude of the challenge at hand. Many national capitals and large cities are located on coastlines or along river corridors. Proximity to bodies of water and waterways facilitate trade and commerce, as well as increase the risk and vulnerability to natural disasters. Civil conflict, war, or civil unrest often results in displacement into urban areas are other types of humanitarian crisis frequently impacting urban environments. Experts estimated that by 2010 there were **2.5 billion urban dwellers in low- and middle-income nations and roughly half of the world’s population living in urban areas.**¹ Moreover, the very way in which humanitarians respond to crisis—setting up camps, bringing food and other relief items into various locations—also shapes the urban landscape. Frequently, internally displaced persons (IDP) and refugee camps, which are products of crises and hubs for humanitarian response, become permanent urban settlements.

When considering differences in implementation of humanitarian programming in urban environments, as opposed to rural settings, several key issues arise for further consideration.

- **Relief Must Adapt to an Increasingly Urbanised Future:** Humanitarians, along with other professionals, are caught in the pendulum swing from rural to urban population growth. As a result of urban growth, disasters having

an increasing urban impact. Relief strategies, frameworks, assessment tools, and operational modalities have largely evolved to respond to rural settings. Adapting the humanitarian response for urban settings is already underway in the humanitarian community.

- **Nexus of Urban Poverty and Disasters:** The nexus of urban poverty and disasters poses a real challenge for agencies seeking to target the most vulnerable victims of disaster. Many of the characteristics of the urban poor render them invisible or difficult to find and provide assistance to through normal channels.
- **Cities in Armed Conflict:** The impact of conflict on cities is of particular concern for responses to complex emergencies, internal displacement and refugee outflows. Often during conflict, cities, with the increased presence of government or security forces, provide a safe haven for rural populations. Conflict within cities, particularly those with ethnic or tribal dynamics, poses a different set of challenges for those seeking to provide assistance. Cities also offer economic opportunities, even during crisis, and many conflict-affected families send family members to urban areas in search of work.
- **Urban and Rural Inter-dependencies:** A disaster’s impact in urban areas almost always impacts rural areas as well, particularly along economic value chains. Programmes increasingly need to be able to build bridges between rural and urban and ensure practice of “Do No Harm” to mitigate unintended consequences of the aid.

¹ International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC). (2010) *World Disasters Report 2010: Focus on Urban Risk*.

In order to undertake research on the use of cash transfers in urban emergencies, establishing definitions of both cash transfers and urban emergency proved necessary. The working definitions below reflect an evolving collective understanding of these concepts within the humanitarian field.

Cash Transfer Programming Definition: Cash transfer programmes of all types—including conditional cash grants, unconditional cash grants, cash-for-work, cash-for-training, and vouchers—are included in this study. Loans or other types of savings interventions were not considered under this research. In addition, the study was limited to humanitarian and recovery cash transfer programmes.

Urban Definition: Both urban and peri-urban contexts were considered under the umbrella of urban emergencies. Researchers consulted several definitions of urban and have summarised those most relevant for humanitarians below. Through on-the-ground research, the authors also developed an in-practice definition that captures how humanitarian agencies generally define urban.

The Population Reference Bureau² produces an annual world report of population statistics, including estimation by country of the proportion of people living in an urban environment.

The Population Reference Bureau states that all countries define urban differently using their own definitions. Some countries count places as urban after having 1,000 inhabitants, while others use population density definitions. Furthermore, some define urban areas as not being dependent on agriculture, while others equate urban population with populations living in the national capital city. Yet others use extension of public services or education as indicators of inclusion in the urban category or not.

One example of a national definition of urban versus rural is the U.S. Government's Census Bureau's definition for the 2000 census.

For this census, the Census Bureau classified as "urban" all territory, population, and housing units located within an urbanized area (UA) or an urban cluster (UC).

² Population Reference Bureau website: http://www.prb.org/pdf11/2011population-data-sheet_eng.pdf

It delineates UA and UC boundaries to encompass densely settled territory, which consisted of:

- core census block groups or blocks that have a population density of at least 1,000 people per square mile, and
- surrounding census blocks that have an overall density of at least 500 people per square mile³

From the U.N. community, the United Nations Human Settlement Program's (UN-HABITAT) also used national-level definitions of urban for their statistical reporting. UN-HABITAT also introduced the concept of urban agglomerations, a term used to refer to cities and the urban and peri-urban or sub-urban areas that are contiguous to the main city, in the report. The report highlights that cities and urban areas that reach levels of 750,000 to 1 million inhabitants approach a special type of urban area, and many cities referred to as "mega-cities" have populations in the multimillions.

The report further introduced a definition of urban slum dwellers, "individuals residing in housing with one or more of the following conditions: inadequate drinking water; inadequate sanitation; poor structural quality/durability of housing; overcrowding; and insecurity of tenure."⁴

Settlements with urban characteristics, such as multistorey buildings, transportation infrastructure, municipal services, and multiple economic opportunities are in practice considered urban by many humanitarians. For some humanitarian organisations, urban was defined simply as "not rural" or "built-up," as some of the contexts did not feel like organised cities. An example of this is the "overnight cities" in Southern Sudan, settlements that over a few weeks or days received tens of thousands of new residents as the return process preceded the vote for autonomy. On the other hand, consider a case such as Dadaab Refugee Camp in Kenya, where in 2011 more than 400,000 refugees resided in a high-population density piece of land. This camp would not be considered urban purely

³ U.S. Government Census Bureau website. http://www.census.gov/geo/www/ua/ua_2k.html

⁴ U.N. Human Settlements. (2009). *Global Report on Human Settlements 2009: Planning Sustainable Cities*.

using population numbers and density, because it lacks other key characteristics of an urban area, such as public utilities, municipal or other governance structures, and normal commercial activity. In the case of refugee camps, the humanitarian community fills the roles of service provider and governance that would normally be assumed by the government.

Since urban definitions vary from country to country, depending on total population in proportion to relatively densely populated areas, practitioners should start by asking key questions, such as:

- How does that national government define urban and rural and municipalities? What is the structure of the government at each level?
- What is the rate of change for the countries' urban population? Is the country experiencing high levels of urbanisation or other migration trend?
- What are the total population levels per city or urban area?

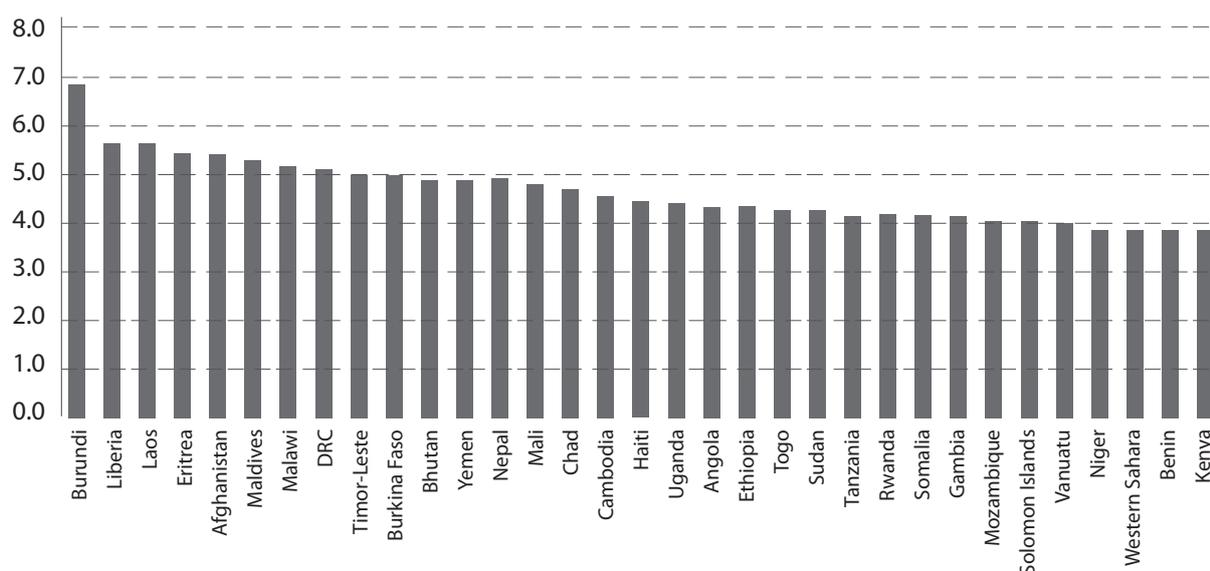
Population areas with hundreds of thousands rather than tens of thousands will require extra skills in planning and implementation. This toolkit will

provide some practical guidance for use in such settings.

Urban Emergencies: This research considered both natural and complex emergencies that had a significant impact on cities or peri-urban areas. The researchers expanded on a list of large disaster events presented in the *World Disasters Report 2010* during the interview process in which relief workers were asked to identify emergencies that had urban elements within the response that they had personally worked on or been involved with. The working list of urban emergencies reflects a growing body of experience in a variety of disaster types. Many emergencies on the list also impacted rural areas, or more likely, the majority of the humanitarian response occurred in rural areas. Researchers have purposely tried to cast a wide net to capture all important and salient definitions of urban emergencies, as this is a new field and level of analysis.

A quick review of the countries with the highest levels of urbanisation (as defined by the average annual rate of change of urban population by the Population Reference Bureau), reveals that a significant proportion of countries with high rates of urbanisation have experienced a natural or man-

Table 1: Countries with the highest levels of urbanisation (between 4 and 6.8% change).



Source: Population Reference Bureau, Data Finder (2011).

made disaster in the recent past. The correlation of urbanisation and disasters are of particular concern to the humanitarian responders, who are responding in increasingly challenging contexts.

Both the underlying causes of urbanisation and the underlying causes of the types of crisis that impact urban environments—displacement, conflict, climate change, and risk to natural hazards—feature prominently in the emerging dialog on urban emergencies and response. Traditionally, urban planners, development experts, and economic growth institutions have undertaken urbanisation studies. At the same time, the international humanitarian community has led research and thinking on disaster risk reduction, emergency response and early recovery. Bringing the two discourses together to better inform and prepare for future urban disasters has begun in a few hallmark publications, such as the *World Disasters Report* of 2010 and the *Forced Migration Review* of February 2010, both of which focused on urban emergencies. The first publication informs from a disaster risk reduction perspective and the later from a migration or displacement perspective. Issues of urban poverty have direct implications for disaster risk. The aspects below should be factored into programme assessment, design and mobilisation.

Aspects of urban poverty and disaster risk implications:

- Inadequate and often unstable income, often problems with indebtedness.
- High unemployment among vulnerable populations.
- Commoditisation of urban markets, meaning that cash is needed to meet basic needs.
- Inadequate, unstable or risky asset base (property, skills, savings, social networks, etc.). Limited or no safety net to ensure basic consumption can be maintained when income falls.
- Poor-quality and often insecure, hazardous, and overcrowded housing, often rented. Often living in low-cost housing that is sited in disaster-prone locations.

- Inadequate provision of public infrastructure, which increases the health burden and often the work burden. Rapid population growth places demands that exceed capacity on infrastructure, such as roads, sewage, water systems and electricity.
- Lack of legalities or official documentation often means not getting post-disaster support. Even prior to a disaster, urban migrants frequently do not have proper identification or other documents, due to lack of issuing in rural areas, lack of ability to pay fees or produce sufficient alternate documentation for replacement, and/or loss. During disasters, particularly when there is large-scale destruction of homes or rapid population movements, documentation is often destroyed or lost as a result of the disaster.

While many of these characteristics of poverty may also apply to the rural poor, differences in income, household economics, and context for urban dwellers make these aspects of poverty particularly salient and, consequently, important for the emergency responders to plan for. The next section discusses concrete differences between rural and urban contexts, with particular emphasis on how the differences influence cash transfer programming. The intention of this discussion is not to draw unnecessary lines between affected populations, but rather to highlight areas of special focus for practitioners working in urban environments.

Tangible Differences Between Rural and Urban Communities and Programmes

In order to understand adaptations needed for urban projects, researchers interviewed key informants to identify common themes around the differences between working in a rural and urban settings. This section outlines the common threads from these interviews, and integrates lessons learned from field work and surveys conducted for this research project. Following recent urban humanitarian responses, practitioners found that the “normal ways of doing business” and our usual forms need adjusting and additional analysis to apply them appropriately in urban contexts.

Urban-Specific Analysis. A common example of an adaptation needed is with the various forms that relief agencies use to collect household information for enrollment in assistance programmes. When used in rural settings, these forms typically ask households to report on the number of livestock they own and how many hectares of land belong to their families. Aid agencies ask these questions not out of particular interest in livestock or farmland, but as proxy indicators to understand where the individual household falls within the rural socioeconomic system. To accomplish the same aim in an urban setting, asking questions about livestock and land ownership is usually a waste of time because these are not often common indicators of urban socioeconomic status. **Instead, urban assessment questions should focus on urban livelihoods, household expenses for public services, or assets that can be used as proxy indicators for wealth estimation.** Even defining who is in a household is more varied and complex than in rural setting, where household homogeneity is greater. **Urban houses may be occupied by multiple and transient groups/families, frequently including individual adults that have migrated for economic reasons into the city, but their family may actually still be living in the rural areas.** Understanding these patterns is worthwhile at the outset of the project to ensure that exclusion or double-counting is minimised.

Complex Beneficiary Selection and Targeting. *Practitioners commonly reported that urban* beneficiary selection requires more time at the launch of an urban project. **Beneficiary selection is time intensive in urban areas because of the targeting issues just referenced, the need to cross-check lists with governments and other organisations operating in the area, and the need to ensure the lists are truly representative of those most in need or those meeting the selection criteria.** This takes additional time in urban areas that have politically aligned community groups, neighbourhoods overlapping with constituencies, and community leaders who lack household details in their area of responsibility. Additional staff will be needed to conduct sufficient levels of verification or monitoring visits to households. Furthermore, a

varied skill set of expertise within the organisation is needed from the outset to work with the multitude of livelihoods and wealth groups in the urban affected population.

Rural programmes can usually cover a greater percentage of the entire affected population in one location, making targeting within one community less needed. For example, aid agencies frequently serve an entire village affected by disaster with food aid or other inputs. In urban settings, agencies cannot cover all disaster-affected households because of the large total numbers of affected in the same area. As a result, additional prioritisation of vulnerability and coordination with other agencies is needed. **Additional prioritisation must be done carefully and transparently to avoid miscommunication and mixed messages with the community.** In urban areas, haves and have-nots reside in proximity, which is a difficult dynamic for organisations and staff to manage during selection processes.

Coordination with Many Government Structures. Working with, not around, the various state governance structures is compulsory in urban environments. Relief agencies must overcome tendencies to avoid or engage with governments only on an “as-needed” basis in urban areas and instead plan, from the start, strategies to engage, include, and work with existing state institutions. **Urban cash programmes require a higher level of country leadership representation with government officials because municipal level officials have an elevated stature and require different protocols for engagement.** In addition, all government officials representing multiple levels of government—municipal, state and national—work and live closer to beneficiaries and implementing humanitarian organisations. The proximity increases the exchange of information with the beneficiaries and the government, albeit often without clear results or solutions to the issues. The proximity also means that implementing agencies need to consult at multiple levels and coordinate with governments in greater depth. As a result, relief agencies with urban programmes should staff the project appropriately and devote time and effort to working with stakeholders. Aid agencies

should also focus more effort on understanding, following the progress, and sharing their results with multiple departments, levels of government, and representational requirements.

Complex Coordination. In many urban emergencies, although not all, the crisis provokes a multitude of agencies to respond. With extremely large numbers of affected populations, agencies prioritise meeting lifesaving needs as quickly as possible. The influx or scale-up of response efforts can lead to a confusing situation on the ground and risks of duplication of services increase. Coordinating among international relief agencies, community-based organisations, existing development or poverty alleviation programmes and government relief efforts is a massive and complex task. **Coordinating effectively requires staff with the right levels of information, decision-making capability and time to attend the schedule of meetings.**

Urban Violence. Various reports explore the relationship between urbanisation and violence and crime⁵ and have noted that media often dramatise the menace of urban violence contributing to an attitude of fear and anxiety. Due to the nature of relief work, humanitarians routinely operate in insecure and violent contexts and have developed strong protocols and risk management strategies to facilitate safe operations. However, many humanitarian security strategies have been developed with armed conflict in mind, where it is possible to determine alliances and, importantly, negotiate with the armed actors for humanitarian access. **Urban violence is not caused by rapid urbanisation, but increased migration into the city coupled with many cities' inability to absorb the new arrivals economically and physically creates struggle over scarce resources.** In many cities, gangs play a large role in urban violence and social control, and are often active in drug trade and other illicit activities, including human trafficking and sex trade. **Working in areas under gang control poses a different type of security risk to humanitarian**

agencies. Urban violence thrives on political instability and lack of governance, conditions that exacerbate humanitarian crises and further challenge relief workers' security strategies in these environments. In general, working in an urban area is not necessarily more dangerous than working in a rural context—humanitarian operations providing assistance in rural areas of Darfur, the Democratic Republic of Congo, or South-central Somalia, for example, face extreme danger. With the different types of security risks in urban areas, strategies to manage risk will need to be adapted accordingly.

The proximity of people in urban areas and the dangers present have influenced cash programme managers to opt for invisible transfer mechanisms, meaning methods of moving money that do not attract attention or increase difficulty for non-recipients to observe or track. These strategies may include electronic transfers, minimising queuing time outside of banks, and other methods that serve to protect agency staff and beneficiaries from protection risks of carrying cash. Urban security risk management is multifaceted, with an emphasis on the safety and security risks to the cash recipients, as well as the implementing field team.

Community Structure in Urban Environments. Community networks in urban settings differ in their organisation from rural communities. Strategies for engagement or community-led response actions need to be adapted to work in the urban environment. Community leaders in urban settings may be government-appointed representatives, school or church officials, community-based organisation (CBO) leadership, or business leaders. Communities may coalesce around schools or livelihood types (fishermen, traders, fruit vendors, etc.) rather than around geographic location. **Urban areas may have multiple community leaders all with different priorities and potentially different alliances that need to be understood and navigated carefully during the project.** In rural areas, aid agencies typically work through the village leadership structures, both official and traditional. In rural areas, fewer representatives exist, which can be a challenge for inclusive representation, but they are generally acknowledged as community

⁵ *ICRC International Review: Urban Violence, June 2010*

representatives. **Urban areas are centres of power and consequently many factions and groups vie for power within the city using different structures—such as government, constituencies, community-based organisations, businesses, or public services—to garner additional power.** In practical terms, relief organisations need to plan to work with several community structures when seeking permissions or approvals, which adds additional time and staffing requirements.

Inclusion of Urban Poor. Undocumented urban poor are hardest to find and involve in humanitarian programmes because they are often outside the obvious community structures, and the surrounding community may not be aware of their existence or consider them to be part of their community. The urban poor have high illiteracy rates and may have difficulty accessing financial institutions without legal identification. In some cases, the urban poor may not want to be “found” by the government at all, as they may be hiding from official authorities due to problems with the law, crime, or taxes. Keeping humanitarian principles in mind, **finding the urban poor and prioritising them for assistance should be a top priority during disaster response.** Pre-disaster vulnerable groups are often more vulnerable after a shock, and lack the coping mechanisms of accessing community assistance through leadership groups. Also, they may be socially marginalised in the urban environment.

Need for Rational Selection of Cash Transfer Mechanism. Urban environments offer a greater range of financial institutions through which one can transfer cash. With more options comes increased need to analyse and evaluate the options to ensure the best fit is found. **Urban environments**

typically offer a greater range of technology—specifically ATMs, mobile phone coverage, and internet coverage—that can be utilised to transfer cash. There are often tradeoffs between cost, speed, efficiency, and security risk. Furthermore, partnering with a for-profit transfer organisation, such as a bank or a phone company, may provide significant ancillary benefits to the corporation, such as creating new accounts or raising its profile in a community. In addition, availability of these services does not always equate to access. Humanitarians will have to work to create access to financial services for groups such as youth, women, minorities, or slum dwellers.

Urban Advocacy and Social Organisation.

A final example of a key difference between rural and urban work is that urban beneficiaries tend to be more savvy and active in advocating for their needs and rights to assistance. **Complaints tend to be more frequent in urban environments, and this requires a more sophisticated set of staff to handle complaints and community relations positively.** The positive side to this trend is that communities can and will hold aid agencies accountable for the services they have promised. The negative side is that competition for relief items and services within the community can be difficult for aid agencies to manage.

The chart below summarises some of the key points of differentiation between urban and rural programming, specifically as they relate to cash-based programming. This chart is intended to illustrate some of the potential differences. Many examples can be found where some or all of the characteristics do not prove relevant or accurate in that context.

Tangible Differences in Programming for Different Environments		
	Rural	Urban
Disaster Impact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Temporary urban-rural migration is likely if massive damage to housing in cities ● Disaster impact can be widespread across a vast terrain ● Access difficulties and logistics can be a major challenge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Higher numbers of affected due to population density ● Disruption of water and electricity services likely ● Rural-urban migration is likely if disaster is worse in rural areas, such as during conflict or drought
Physical Environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Proximity and access to agricultural lands, and natural resources, and often “rights” to the land or access to land in rural areas are uncontested ● Travel to towns and urban areas takes time and money ● Households dispersed in smaller communities, resulting in lower population density 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Built-up environment ● High population density ● Road congestion and overcrowding ● Environmental hazards due to poor sanitation and large amounts of people ● Little access to land
Poverty Characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Low expenses and low income ● Vulnerable to weather and agricultural shocks ● Dispersed populations in villages or agricultural settlements reduce the coverage and proximity to basic services (water, health, education) ● Use of non-cash based coping mechanisms, such as foraging or growing own food 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Many cities have urban poverty rates of 20 to 25% ● Slums and shanty towns, or informal settlements ● Poor in cities have high expenses (rent, utilities, transportation) relative to their rural counterparts ● Issues of undocumented or invisible poor ● Urban services that exist are of substandard quality, black-outs, water shortages, fuel shortages, etc., are frequent
Social Networks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Social networks typically organised along family, tribal, or village lines ● Community leaders generally can identify the most vulnerable groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Community leaders may not know all the vulnerable groups in their area ● Social networks typically organised along political and economic lines
Infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Lower technological infrastructure, such as roads, bridges, and water systems can be maintained at the village-level without specialised machines or technicians 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Higher technological infrastructure that requires maintenance and reconstruction by skilled and specialised technicians and machines, often publicly provided

Political Structures and Governance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Gaps in government support to rural areas may contribute to structural inequities and lack of basic services ● Family and/or ethnic politics may dominate rural areas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Increased presence of government regulation and oversight ● Increased need for coordination with government authorities ● Multiple layers of government (national, municipal, and neighbourhood) all require consultation and coordination ● Community groups frequently advocate with government officials and NGOs
Financial Institutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Reliance on informal savings, savings groups, and exchange of production or assets for cash ● Distances to financial institutions can be a barrier ● Lower level of financial technologies ● Low participation in formal financial institutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Urban populations have better access to banks, micro-lending organisations, and remittance delivery institutions ● Extreme gaps between the wealthy and the poor in urban areas limit the access to these services for the under-privileged groups
Coping Mechanisms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Strong community networks ● Usually able to use own production of food as coping mechanism ● Sale of livestock to enable purchase of needed items with cash ● Households may have food stores that can be used as a short-term coping mechanism ● Migration is a common coping mechanism in search of resources or alternative income-generating opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Savings may be in a variety of institutions and may be inaccessible in the immediate aftermath of a disaster ● Cash is key to coping with disaster because of dependency on cash for daily basic needs ● Remittances are common ● Consolidating the extended family to save on rent and utilities ● Debt incursion ● Temporary relocation of family members, sometimes to rural areas with relatives ● Urban illicit economy provides more opportunity for extremely dangerous coping mechanisms, including human trafficking, drug trafficking, and sex trade
Food Security	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Seasonally vulnerable to crop patterns and seasonal periods of hunger gap 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● More consumption of purchased meals and meals cooked outside of the home ● More reliance on packaged food and prepared food items, such as bread

<p>Livelihoods</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Agriculturally dominated ● Not diversified ● Limited opportunities for expansion ● Tied to land rights ● Vulnerable to weather ● Pastoral livelihoods and mobile populations ● Reliant on rural roads for market access 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Prevalence of salaried workers, although urban poor are not likely to be salaried, impacts overall economics of the city especially if salaries are delayed or stopped. Salaried workers provide economic opportunities for other groups within the city ● Urban livelihoods such as: transporters, traders, service sector, technology, industrial workers, packaging and wholesale, small businesses, etc. ● Diversified opportunities for formal and informal employment
<p>Shelter</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Simple construction materials ● Includes outdoors space for livelihood activities or household activities, such as cooking ● Lower land values ● Ownership and titling issues can be resolved through negotiation in some contexts ● Lack of institutional capacity for planning and regulation ● Housing is usually designed and built by owners themselves or by masons ● Relative ease at which community participation in building can be achieved 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Renters ● Multistorey homes and apartments ● Land tenure issues ● Public housing and government housing programmes ● Electricity usage more common ● Shelter assistance in urban areas is often expensive and highly politicised ● Community-level assistance may be cheaper and less likely to exacerbate conflict between host and displaced communities, but may leave shelter needs unmet
<p>Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Pit-latrines ● Household water collection and storage systems ● Often have access to free water sources ● Water quality an issue ● Household-managed systems for disposal of solid waste (burn and bury) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Municipal water and sewage systems ● Fees for water usage ● Fee for toilet usage ● Collection systems for household solid waste ● Population-density related sanitation issues ● Water and sanitation infrastructure likely inadequate and overwhelmed prior to the onset of the disaster ● Provision of free water/sanitation may disrupt the businesses providing these services

Economic Systems and Markets	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Rural markets dominated by agriculture and production ● Transport to regional markets can be barrier to increased trade and profits ● Dependent on transporter systems and road infrastructure ● May not function daily, only weekly or on rotational schedule ● Limited quality and quantity of goods ● Vulnerable to supply shortages if transportation is disrupted ● Vulnerable to agricultural and weather shocks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Presence of regional or national markets with numerous market actors ● High national government oversight of trade, taxes, and other economic regulation ● Market destruction, in terms of monetary value can be extremely high ● Ability of market to resume trade of basic goods post-disaster is high, due to numerous actors present with better infrastructure
Health and Nutrition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Access to health services is often an issue due to limited coverage ● Diet is usually limited in diversity and heavily dependent on consumption of staple crops and own production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Health services are generally present in urban environment, cost may be a prohibitive factor ● Diet and food consumption often more varied ● Diet may rely on more processed foods, such as white bread and margarine, that are low in nutritional value ● Food consumption is likely to be influenced by promotional campaigns and commercial marketing ● Micro-nutrient deficiency-related nutritional problems may be more prevalent than inadequate caloric intake issues
Protection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Child labour due to agricultural labour demands ● Exploitation of rural poverty by predatory human trafficking groups ● Early marriage (in some societies) ● Human rights abuses harder to document and address due to lack of media and government ● Risk of recruitment of youth into armed groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Child labor in areas such as petty trade can be associated with high risk of sexual exploitation ● Increased risk of exploitation of renters by landlords ● Urban centres often are centres for sex trade, trafficking of persons, and other protection risks for vulnerable groups ● Common usage of transactional sex to meet basic needs (i.e., repayment of shop debt or rental arrears) ● Risk of urban violence is high, including crime, gangs, drug trade, etc.

Advantages of Using Cash in Urban Emergency Responses

Using a cash-based response should be considered first in urban emergency responses, because of several advantages over distribution or in-kind based response, such as the ability to make the transfer “invisible” through use of mobile phone transfers or other methods. Other reports outline all the comparative advantages of using cash transfer programming in general and should be consulted in conjunction with the following section.⁶ The discussion below reviews the advantages of cash transfers in urban settings.

- Conventional material distributions may not be appropriate in an urban cash-based economy with significant market activity.
- Urban areas have more diversified and robust financial institutions, enabling implementers with a variety of options for partners to transfer funds.
- Urban populations are dependent on cash for their household expenses—such as rent, utilities, transportation and food—making cash transfer programmes appropriate.
- Urban markets are likely to provide most, or all, of what beneficiaries need to recover from disaster. Cash programmes support local markets and help them recover faster.

Cash is a comparatively new method of delivering relief assistance and is appropriate in many settings, with growing evidence that it is one of the most effective and appropriate forms of assistance in urban contexts. For example, in the West Bank of the Occupied Palestinian Territories, the World Food Program (WFP) has found that using a food voucher for refugees in urban camps is more appropriate for a household, because it is uncommon for urban households in the West Bank to bake bread, a dietary staple, using flour in their own homes. As is common in many other urban areas, households more

commonly purchase bread from a store or bakery rather than baking their own. Outside the cities, WFP continues to distribute wheat flour as part of a food ration, because households in these areas do bake bread at home and appreciate the ration.⁷

Lessons Learned from Recent Urban Disaster Responses

A number of recent disaster responses have begun to shape the tools and methods utilised by cash-based programme managers. Many aid organisations have responded to recent emergencies in urban settings, most commonly in:

- Port-au-Prince, Haiti (Earthquake, 2010)
- Manila, Philippines (Flooding, 2009/2010)
- Nairobi, Kenya (Food Price Increases and Food Insecurity, 2007/8/9)
- Aden, Yemen (Somali Refugee Influx, 2000–present)
- Sindh and Punjab, Pakistan (Flooding, 2010)
- Gaza, Occupied Palestinian Territories (Cast Lead Military Operation, 2007/8/9)
- Abidjan, Cote d’Ivoire (Food Insecurity and Conflict, 2011)

The responses above have highlighted the need for further work to adapt and prepare for urban emergencies as a community, and furthered knowledge of best practices. Refinement and expansion of lessons learned continues to occur in urban responses. Again, our aim here is not to review general lessons learned in cash-based programming, but rather to identify urban-specific lessons learned in order to inform the next urban disaster responses.

- **Gender.** While experience varies by country, giving cash to women in urban environments often proves to be an effective strategy for food security, health, hygiene, and education-oriented outcomes. In shelter or temporary

⁶ Good Practice Review: Cash Transfer Programming in Emergencies (2011)

⁷ Field work for CaLP in Palestine during October 2011, WFP case study on Urban Voucher Programme.

employment programmes, particularly cash-for-work, involving women continues to be a struggle. Gender dynamics in urban areas often differ from the rural countryside, and adaptations for successful programming are needed.

- **Access barriers.** Urban disasters frequently result in access barriers to basic goods or services for affected populations, rather than availability barriers. Addressing access issues for urban vulnerable populations requires a thorough understanding of a complex set of urban market systems, household economics, and livelihood patterns.
- **Vendors.** Vendor vetting and preselection is still necessary in urban markets. Do not assume that the presence of many vendors will ensure that vendors do not manipulate prices in voucher programmes.
- **Cash-for-Work.** Cash-for-work can accomplish goals of providing temporary employment and injecting cash into disaster-affected households and economies quickly. However, using cash-for-work in urban settings, with more advanced infrastructure, has caused agencies to struggle to support technically sound projects with adequate quality. Cash-for-work in urban areas requires skilled project planning and oversight to produce useful outputs from the labour. Where agencies cannot provide adequate technical support they should consider whether cash-for-work is an appropriate response.
- **Waiting times.** Implementers in urban programmes should factor in time spent queuing at financial institutions and time to travel around the city when considering options for cash transfer mechanisms. Assuming that proximity measured in terms of distance equates to ease of access is often faulty in urban settings. Long queuing times or waits for the transfer should be considered in terms of impact on beneficiaries' daily schedules, and as a potential security risk.
- **Project outcomes.** Linking cash to the intended outcome of the project (i.e., food security or livelihoods recovery) remains difficult in urban

settings because of the multitude of livelihood strategies employed in a single household. The variety of complex livelihood strategies among urban populations makes a strong case for offering cash grants with maximum flexibility and minimum restrictions. Humanitarians continue to report a high correlation between items that beneficiaries indicate would be bought if given cash and actual purchases, but monitoring and analysis of findings should further document complex urban household economies. Through consultation with beneficiaries, implementers can identify when unconditional cash is appropriate, and when restricted vouchers are required to guide choices and achieve intended outcomes. Furthermore, combining sensitisation with distributions of cash or vouchers can help achieve specific objectives. Donor flexibility on project objectives and outcomes is needed.

- **Verification.** Verification of beneficiary lists between 10 and 20 percent is the norm among agencies, for both rural and urban populations depending on agency and donor protocols. Verification in urban projects is a crucial step in ensuring that those that you intend to serve meet the established criteria for relief assistance. Higher levels of inaccuracy in urban environments, as opposed to rural environments, is common due to issues of differing community representation and difficulties and determining urban vulnerability. Spending time sensitising people to selection criteria at the beginning of the project may deter fraudulent behaviour that requires time to fix and re-verify.
- **Urban purchasing behaviours.** Purchasing behaviours often differ significantly between urban and rural populations. In planning an intervention, humanitarians must understand how the monetary value of cash or vouchers and the frequency of payment influence purchase decisions. In general, smaller and more frequent *cash grants will be spent on food, whereas larger one-time payments will be used for establishing livelihoods or replacing assets. For food security and nutrition interventions, larger cash grants will allow beneficiaries to buy staples in bulk,*

achieving increased value for money but less diversity in the diet. Understanding the purchasing patterns of urban beneficiaries is important in planning the value and frequency of transfers.

- **Organisational capacity for cash.** To increase speed and coverage in urban environments, getting the back-end functions of cash programming outlined internally is a major effort and priority for organisations. For example, bringing together finance, contracts, operations, and programme staff to develop standard operating procedures (SOPs) for cash transfer, beneficiary selection, and verification is critical to avoid programme delays. At present, lack of operational capacity is a major bottleneck to reaching more people in the urban environment.
- **Harmonisation of rates.** Urban response brings together many actors, all of which may be offering different levels of cash or voucher assistance. Harmonisation through coordination of rates for cash-for-work, values of shelter grants, and other cash grants is difficult, but necessary to avoid unfair practices, community conflict and dissatisfaction, and cover the needs of the greatest number of people with scarce resources.
- **Calculate household income and expenses.** For urban populations, income data must be compared to expenses. Using income only will lead to a skewed analysis. When asked to self-report on income, households (both rural and urban) under-report financial activity, particularly when the interviewer does not have a relationship with the household. Getting reliable information requires creativity, as urban cash programmes require a nuanced picture of household income and expenses. Surveys that are overly reliant on self-reporting are likely to make erroneous calculations and assumptions in their programming.

The numerous post-intervention evaluations and lessons learned have pointed towards some emerging best practices in the field of urban programming using cash transfers for humanitarian aims. Several of these best practices are reviewed below.

Best Practices in Urban Cash Transfer Programmes

Cash considered first in urban disasters. *Due to the characteristics of urban settings*—such as cash-based economy, robust markets, and strong financial institution—cash should be considered first as a method of relief assistance if the markets are functioning. Experience of practitioners has shown that urban markets resume functioning quickly post-disaster. Households in urban environments rely on cash to a greater extent than their rural counterparts. Therefore, cash is a critical component of recovery from disaster for urban dwellers. Cities, as economies, are extremely cash-based, in which most people require cash to meet their daily basic needs. Cash can be used to achieve a wide variety of sectoral goals.

Target those most in need. By definition urban areas have massive populations, and large numbers of urban-affected can be assumed following a disaster, making deciding who receives assistance first more complicated. Best practice in urban targeting requires clear definition of urban-specific vulnerability criteria, a selection process that prioritises the neediest families, and a verification process that can ensure that exclusion and inclusion errors are corrected transparently and quickly. Focussing entirely on disaster-affected selection criteria will not provide enough of a filter for the assistance, and may target assistance to those with visible signs of damage, such as to a house, while overlooking those with less visible impacts. Failure to target those most in need, or lazy targeting and beneficiary selection will result in use of scarce humanitarian resources for populations that may be able to cope with the disaster effects without outside assistance, and leaves those who cannot cope well without assistance. Targeting problems can also fuel conflict or create governance problems, especially when the targeting is perceived to be biased or unfair. In urban areas, delivering relief through community groups may not be effective because the urban social systems may not ensure aid gets to those most in need. Urban targeting will most often include criteria for disaster-affected, pre-disaster vulnerability, poverty, and/or other *sector-specific criteria*.

Deliberate inclusion of isolated and marginalised urban populations. Relying on geographic or neighbourhood targeting as a single methodology is ineffective in areas with high population density, because it will not include the most isolated and vulnerable. In the 2011 *World Disability Report*, the World Health Organization (WHO) and the World Bank estimated **that 15 percent of the world's population lives with a disability**. Although rural prevalence rates for disability are higher than urban prevalence rates, the poorest people are also most likely to have a disability. Depending on the disaster, disability rates can increase dramatically, particularly in urban emergencies. As such, best practice for urban cash programmes is to actively design programmes to meet the needs of disabled populations. Urban cash programmes are well placed to best assist disabled populations through innovative transfer mechanisms that reduce mobility challenges and facilitate access to health care post-disaster.

Taking relief to scale through cash. Cash transfer programmes can be scaled up fairly and quickly in urban areas if beneficiary selection data are input into a central database that can be sorted for vulnerability criteria and prioritised. Urban mobile phone and internet coverage offers the advantage of using new methods of transfer that allow projects to serve more beneficiaries in the weeks following a disaster, depending on the ability to quickly get partnerships in place with these institutions. Preparedness for disasters and establishing organisational standard operating procedures are crucial to operationalising a rapid scale-up. Economies of scale occur for urban cash-based programmes once the beneficiary selection process is working well and the transfer mechanisms are in place, due to population density and the ability to rely on one system to reach a significant number of people effectively. In particularly disaster-prone countries, organisations should consider making arrangements ahead of time with local financial institutions to facilitate rapid cash transfer to beneficiaries in the event of a disaster.

Partnering with private sector institutions. Financial institutions, phone companies, and micro-finance institutions have facilitated organisations' abilities

to quickly target the most vulnerable in urban areas, because these institutions work routinely with the small enterprises and lower-income households. Other important partnerships to consider for cash programmes are with micro-finance institutions (MFIs). In some cases, MFIs can be contracted with to-do beneficiary selection, using their loan officers and community networks. However, adapting micro-finance selection criteria to meet humanitarian objectives requires training and monitoring to ensure the right people are reached. Partnerships can speed the process of beneficiary selection in urban environments. Consider using a private sector partner to transfer the cash in urban environments, given the advantages and higher prevalence of these institutions in urban areas. Partnerships ensure that local systems and economics are supported, instead of undermined, during crisis and provide a platform for recovery and development activities.

Match your cash transfer method to your objective, have clarity on both. Humanitarian projects prioritise lifesaving and livelihood-saving interventions, and projects must have clear, and realistic objectives. Selecting a method of cash transfer programming and applying conditions to the transfer must be done with the overall objective in mind. In both urban and rural programmes, cash is not an aim unto itself, rather a method towards achieving a particular humanitarian outcome. However, urban cash-based programmes have increased complexities that tend to result in muddled programme objectives and unclear overall aims. Programme planning in urban environments must modify humanitarian objectives for rural areas to urban context. Differentiation of project objectives and methods for urban and rural programmes is advisable because the contextual realities are unique in each setting. For example, you may have a shared overall objective for the project, such as to increase covered living space for displaced populations in both urban and rural areas, but you will need two different strategies to achieve the same goal in different contexts. Considering the effectiveness, appropriateness, and costs separately for both urban and rural programmes may lead to different choices. Furthermore, because cash programmes give beneficiaries choice, they may

ultimately choose to purchase items that meet needs but do not fit with the objectives of the project. Purchasing decisions often indicate the most urgent needs of beneficiaries and should be used to prioritise follow-on interventions or program expansion. Donor flexibility is needed to adjust objectives, even sectors, in response to purchasing patterns.

Back to the basics. Urban programmes will handle a large volume of data. Careful recording, analysis and interpretation of data is crucial in urban projects, where decision-making will rely on collected information to illustrate trends in the large population. Getting back to the basic principles of cash programming—such as ensuring that data is collected and recorded separately for rural and urban communities and disaggregating data by gender and other vulnerability criteria—will continue to create better practice. Strong analysis and information collection will support further learning on cash transfer programming in urban areas. As urban demographic data can mask pockets

of crisis, ensuring that data is correctly collected, analysed, shared, and triangulated is vital.

Before proceeding into the specific topics in the toolkit, it is useful to review a case study of an urban emergency program that highlights challenges and practices identified in this introduction.

Urban Cash Transfer Case Study: Abidjan, Cote D'Ivoire
 Save the Children Sweden (SC/Sweden)

Location: Urban and peri-urban areas in Abidjan, Grand Bassam, and Dabou, as well as rural areas of Western Cote d'Ivoire in and around Man.

Duration: May 2011 to November 2011

Type of Cash Transfer Program: Unconditional Cash Transfer

Cash Transfer Mechanism: a financial institution service for the poor

Objective: Emergency food security

Total Beneficiaries: SC/Sweden targeted a total of 8,000 of the most vulnerable conflict-affected households, including 5,000 urban residents. Assuming an average household size of 6, the total number of program beneficiaries is 48,000 people, including approximately 24,000 children between the ages of 5 and 18 years.

Payments: Selected beneficiaries received a series of three monthly payments of 36,000 CFA each (approximately USD 80). The amount provided was based on government cost of living information.

Urban Beneficiary Selection: SC/Sweden focused on areas that received large numbers of displaced people for the conflict-affected areas of Abobo and Youpogon. In and around Abidjan, SC/Sweden prioritised displaced populations and displaced families as well as their hosts. SC/Sweden expected that by the final cash transfer, a large proportion of programme beneficiaries would have returned to areas of origin, as conditions improved.

Vulnerability Criteria:

- currently displaced
- a host family
- a recent returnee

Additional vulnerability criteria:

- female or child-headed households
- pregnant and/or lactating women
- household size and dependency ratio, particularly the number of children under five living in the household.

Many of Abidjan's poor have traditionally earned their living providing unskilled labour in the ports or in other functions related to the export of cacao, historically the country's main cash crop. Many more earned their living indirectly by providing goods and services to people involved in the cocoa trade. The groups faced chronic economic pressure before the acute humanitarian emergency brought about by the political crisis. The crisis increased unemployment and prices of essential goods, both factors intensified the urban emergency. As a result of the political crisis of 2011, exports of cocoa through Abidjan and nearby ports declined, with much of the country's production moving overland through Ghana or Burkina Faso. The resulting unemployment, combined with an increased cost of living, led to intense economic pressure in Abidjan and the surrounding urban areas. As a result of the economic crisis, urban beneficiaries did not have funds to meet immediate needs such as to pay for food, rent, or school fees. Residents of Abidjan reported selling income-generating assets to meet basic needs, as well as other negative coping mechanisms, such as reducing the amount and variety of food consumed or not sending children to school.

Uses of Cash: The first payment was spent predominantly on food, although some recipients used the payment to recapitalize petty trading businesses. The second cash payment coincided with the beginning of the school year and allowed parents to pay school fees.

Multi-tiered Sensitisation Process: SC/Sweden staff carried out sensitisation activities through radio announcements and face-to-face discussion of cash management and nutrition. Face-to-face sensitisation ensured that beneficiaries understood the program, while radio broadcasts ensured consistency and reach in message.

Urban and Rural Comparisons: Staff reported that targeting and beneficiary selection was easier in rural settings because of overall community cohesion and, particularly, the fact that community members knew each other and agreed on vulnerability. In rural areas, local leadership was clear and uncontested within the community for both the government and chieftain systems. In urban and semi-urban areas, leadership structures existed ("Chef de Quartier" is more or less equivalent to "Chef du Village") but did not have the same level of authority in their communities. Mayors were influential in some places and not in others. As seen in many countries, **there is not only "more government," in terms of more authority figures, in urban programme sites, but also less clarity about who is actually in charge due to overlapping levels of administrative responsibility.** The recent political crisis and the fall of the Gbagbo government further complicated issues of governmental authority in Cote d'Ivoire. In this context, careful coordination with government was necessary. One example of coordination happened in Grand Bassam where rumours of fraudulent beneficiary selection were reported. SC/Sweden staff worked with the Mayor's office to dispel the rumours and instill community confidence in the program. It was important to select staff with maturity, strong communication skills, and charisma to manage the rumours.

In this project, staff characterized rural communities as "closed communities," meaning that it was easier to tell who was a member of the community. **Often, but not always, more ethnic and religious homogeneity was found in Cote d'Ivoire's rural communities than in the urban communities.** In contrast to the rural areas where non-cash forms of subsistence, such as household gardens, are common, residents of urban Cote d'Ivoire earn their living in an entirely cash economy. As a result, staff reported that poverty is often most extreme and "more dangerous" in urban areas, particularly the informal settlements and slums, "Bidonvilles."

Planning, Operations, and Security: To manage security and community relations, SC/Sweden controlled information about the program both internally and externally. Responsibilities for program

implementation were carefully divided between staff to ensure checks and balances and to prevent fraud. **For example, teams that identified vulnerable members of the community were unaware that the program would ultimately be a cash distribution.**

Issues: In this program, only one case in of a stolen card was reported. Due to strict cross-checking measures no one else would be able to use the card. Some beneficiaries reported that community members attempted to extort money from beneficiaries. Radio sensitization that emphasized that beneficiaries were entitled to the full cash transfer and absolutely no payments were due to volunteers mitigated these problems successfully.

TOPIC I ASSESSMENTS IN URBAN AREAS

Overview of Common Assessment Methods Used in Urban Cash Programming

There is a variety of common assessment tools and methodologies that are generally used to assess needs following a disaster. The summary of the most common assessment methodologies provided below includes notes on adapting the assessment formats for urban emergencies. In the following sections, a

format for conducting a rapid urban assessment is described in detail, using forms and concepts from several of these assessment guidelines. This section emphasises the need for preparation for conducting an initial rapid urban assessment, as well as participation in interagency and sector-specific assessments. Quick adaptation of tools used in other contexts will expedite the assessment planning process, and ensure quality results.

Common Issues in Urban Assessments

- ✓ Agencies only sample a small proportion of the urban population. Without purposeful assessment of areas, such as slums, poor neighbourhoods, or marginalised groups humanitarian assessments may overlook acute problems in the urban population.
- ✓ Urban community leaders are not reliable sources of detailed information about family vulnerability, and may have hidden agendas.
- ✓ Agencies are overwhelmed with the size of the urban population and do not know where to begin, sometimes concluding that an assessment is not feasible.
- ✓ Assessments only ask about income and not expenses, resulting in a skewed understanding of urban household economics.
- ✓ Urban assessments utilise rural forms, producing low-quality analysis and information.

Assessment Type and General Description	Considerations for Urban Use
<p>Emergency Market Mapping Analysis</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Assessment that focuses on understanding damage done to markets by the disaster. – It is designed to be used as soon as 3 weeks after a disaster. – Recommended for multi-agency implementation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – EMMA can be directly used in urban settings. – Consider complexity of urban markets. – Collect data on urban markets from local authorities and government entities, as it is more likely to exist for cities. – Capturing the informal market dynamics is key and will not usually be reflected in the government statistics. – Focus analysis on the poorest groups within the urban population and how they are accessing markets post-disaster.
<p><i>Link to Detailed EMMA Guidelines</i></p>	<p>http://emma-toolkit.org/</p>
<p>Household Economy Analysis</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Results in a quantified analysis of livelihood strategies, disaggregated by geography and wealth groups – Uses focus groups and household questionnaires 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Has guidance on urban adaptation. – Remember to capture household expenditures, in addition to income, and compare the two for a complete picture of urban household economics. – Useful to use wealth groups to break down the urban population for better understanding of the most vulnerable groups.
<p><i>Link to Detailed HEA Guidelines</i></p>	<p>http://www.feg-consulting.com/resource/practitioners-guide-to-hea</p>
<p>Household Hunger Scale (HHS)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Considers three fundamental elements of food security: adequate food availability, adequate access to food, and appropriate food utilisation/ consumption. – Simplifies and builds off of the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFAS), a measurement scale used to assess the access component of household food insecurity in resource-poor areas. – The HHS is an indicator for both the United States Agency for International Development's (USAID) Food for Peace programme and Feed the Future Initiative. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The core questions focus on food and are applicable to an urban setting. – If used as an assessment tool while having limited resources, consider targeting the HHS to communities within the urban area that are identified as having poorer populations, to ensure assessing vulnerable groups.
<p><i>Link to Detailed Guidelines</i></p>	<p>http://www.fantaproject.org/publications/hhs_2011.shtml</p>
<p>Coping Strategies Index (CSI)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Measures behaviour, specifically the things that people do when they cannot access enough food. – Used by WFP and FAO. – Used frequently in food security and livelihoods sectors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Core questions need to be replaced with urban coping strategies or the assessment will be misleading. – Urban coping strategies may include incurring debt, pulling children from school to work or beg, sending family members to rural area, etc.

<p><i>Link to Detailed Guidelines</i></p>	<p>http://www.fao.org/crisisandhunger/root/pdf/cop_strat.pdf</p>
<p>Progress out of Poverty Index (PPI)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The PPI™ estimates the likelihood that an individual falls below the national poverty line, the \$1/Day/PPP and \$2/Day/PPP international benchmarks. – The PPI uses 10 simple indicators that field workers can quickly collect and verify. Scores can be computed by hand on paper in real time. With 90-percent confidence, estimates of groups' overall poverty rates are accurate to within +/-2 percentage points. – The PPI can help programmes target services, track changes in poverty over time, and report on poverty rates. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Because the PPI is used frequently by micro-finance institutions in 43 countries, the survey includes questions that would be relevant to urban and rural populations. – In urban environments, simply understanding who is below the national poverty line may not be sufficient to target limited resources, and additional selection criteria may need to be applied. – May be able to link urban beneficiaries of emergency programmes to longer-term government social safety-net cash transfer programmes. – Objective verification requires teams of field workers to make household visits, which may be less costly in urban environments, but care should be taken to randomise the visits to reduce community preparation of visits and time to modify their household assets.
<p><i>Link to Detailed Guidelines</i></p>	<p>http://progressoutofpoverty.org/toolkit</p>
<p>Poverty Score Cards</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The simple poverty score cards are the same as the trademarked PPI that is used by the Grameen Foundation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Same considerations as for the PPI.
<p><i>Link to Detailed Guidelines</i></p>	<p>http://www.microfinance.com/</p>
<p>Proxy Means Test Formulas</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Proxy means tests generate a score for applicant households based on observable characteristics of the household, such as the location and quality of its dwelling, its ownership of durable goods, demographic structure of the household, educational status, and/or the occupations of adult members. – The indicators used in calculating this score and their weights are derived from statistical analysis (usually regression analysis or principal components) of data from detailed household surveys. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Must ensure proxies are urban-specific. – Comparison and ranking for proxies, or scores, must be considered differently for urban and rural populations. – Repeated questioning of the household proxy indicators can lead to manipulation of answers in the urban setting, particularly as people live in close proximity.
<p><i>Link to Detailed Guidelines</i></p>	<p>http://go.worldbank.org/SSMKS9WUT0</p>

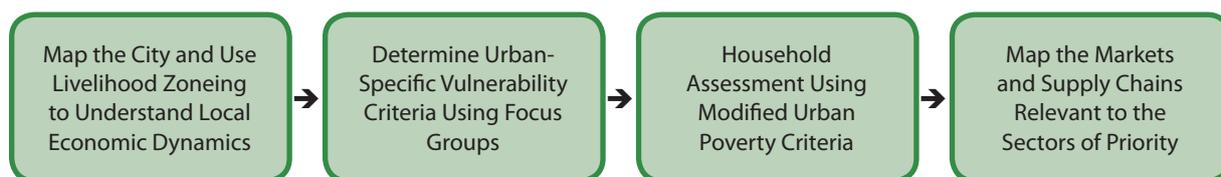
<p>Damage and Shelter Assessments</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Focus on assessing damage caused by disasters at the household, community, or industry-level. – Various types of assessments can be carried out, depending on capacity of the organisation. – Simple damage assessments provide simple rankings of damage to households, for example: damaged, destroyed, or no damage, using categories for roof, walls, and total damage. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – More informal housing present in urban areas, need to ensure assessment captures this group. – Ensure inclusion in your assessment of these categories: more renters and multi-family buildings. – Pre-disaster homeless need to be assessed as well, include question/answer option for homeless.
<p><i>Link to Detailed Guidelines</i></p>	<p>http://www.housingreconstruction.org/housing/Chapter2</p>
<p>IDP Profiling</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Two-stage cluster sampling methodology to profile IDP populations. – Demonstrates that assumptions of vulnerabilities can often be incorrect, and deeper understanding of population movements are needed in complex emergencies. – Provides methodologies used in urban centres of Abidjan, Khartoum, and Santa Marta. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Methodology developed specifically for urban sampling, no adjustments needed. – Methodology can inform cash interventions on multiple levels, but a market study will be needed to complement this type of profiling survey.
<p><i>Link to Detailed Guidelines</i></p>	<p>http://www.internal-displacement.org/urban</p>

Guidelines for Rapid Urban Assessments

The box above reviews some of the common issues that are found in urban assessments. The section below provides information and guidance on how to complete the first phase of a rapid urban assessment. The toolkit focuses on guidance for urban assessments because of several common challenges that occur in urban environments that impact humanitarian assistance. This chapter presents a four-step simplified format for an urban assessment, following the flow pictured in the diagram below.

The first step in an urban assessment is to define the communities in the city, conduct a simple mapping of the city’s social and economic zones, and narrow the scope of the urban assessment. When working in an urban environment, focusing on a specific area, community, sector, or group in the assessment is advantageous, because the population is large and difficult to analyze *en masse*. The overview and guidelines below are not meant to supplant the need for other in-depth assessments, but rather to offer a practical, rapid method for beginning urban assessments that produce useful information for cash-based interventions.

Figure 1 Rapid Urban Assessment Process



Assessment Planning and Urban Mapping

Defining Urban Communities

It is useful to begin the assessment by understanding some of the basic characteristics of the urban area, and how it is defined. Start by looking up population information for the urban area and finding out the national government classifications for urban and rural populations. Next, identify the basic trends in the urban environment—such as economic growth, population growth, urbanisation rates, and government structures—present in the city to frame the basis for the assessment. Most of this information can be gathered through desk research at the start.

In contrast to rural communities, urban communities have unique characteristics that impact assessment planning:

- Urban communities tend to be less cohesive. Unlike rural villages, which may consist only of one ethnic group and have clearly designated authority figures, urban communities tend to be more diverse. Due to multiple levels of urban authority, finding someone to credibly represent the multiple elements within the urban community is difficult. As a result, humanitarians must seek a wide variety of community voices in focus groups to get a more thorough understanding of the community, and to ensure that targeting criteria reflect the most vulnerable.
- Amid the diversity of urban environments, individual neighbourhoods have distinct identities and distinguishing characteristics. Some neighbourhoods will have a much higher proportion of vulnerable people. Vulnerability density is common in cities, particularly in slum areas.
- From an economic point of view, urban households participate in the cash economy to a much greater extent than rural households. Poorer urban households often have diverse sources of income. Urban households also have more diverse cash-based expenses than rural households, including payments for goods or

services that rural households often gather free of charge, such as water and fuel.

Capturing the diversity and complexity is a consideration for assessment planning, survey planning, and overall analysis. Eventually, the urban diversity will need to be factored into the project planning to ensure a range of outcomes and flexible methodology. A common challenge in urban assessments is identifying those in greatest need and their locations. While extreme wealth and extreme poverty exist in proximity in most urban communities, the most vulnerable are likely to be concentrated in:

- Areas that are “off the grid,” not part of the original city plan and not officially part of the city. These areas may be the result of recent migration. Especially, areas that are not connected to utilities or to maintained roads.
- “Slum” areas, shanty towns, and informal settlements.
- Areas that have received large numbers of IDPs or refugees. The displaced and the families that are hosting them are likely to be under economic pressure.
- Areas with a high proportion of ethnic or religious minorities.

A purposeful assessment strategy that targets the most vulnerable is important because cities are not homogenous. Use of random sampling and other more extensive methods are valuable but may not be the first type of assessment prioritised in the aftermath of a disaster, when the priority is to save lives and alleviate suffering.

Step 1: Urban Mapping, Discussion of Vulnerability, and City Livelihoods Mapping

To understand the needs of the most vulnerable people, concentrate the assessment in areas where they live or work. Dividing the urban environment into smaller geographic locations in order to define where you will conduct your assessment is advisable. Make use of existing maps on the internet, including Google Earth.

Simple Mapping Method: Take a city map and divide the city into quadrants or grids. Assign each grid a number/letter. Use the grid map to discuss with local staff or community members the economic characteristics in each grid.

Sample questions for simple mapping method:

- Where is the port located? Train station? Bus depots? Airports? Main trade routes?
- Where are the main markets? Smaller markets?
- Where are the wholesalers? Where are the warehouses?
- Where are poorest neighbourhoods located? Where are IDP camps located? Refugee neighbourhoods?
- Where are the slums and informal settlements? Where are areas that are illegally occupied?
- Where are areas receiving the most migration from rural areas?
- Where are areas of high population density?
- Which neighbourhoods have good public services (electricity, water, sewage)? Which have poor services?
- How do security issues vary from neighbourhood to neighbourhood? Will this lead to protection or security concerns?
- In each quadrant, what are the main economic activities present? (fishing, trading, domestic workers, factory workers, government workers, casual labourers, furniture sales, welding, repair services, etc.)
- Which neighbourhoods are vulnerable during "normal" times? (i.e., low rent, flood-prone, etc.)

While compiling the map, work with local staff and community representatives to categorise the community as locals do, using common names for landmarks, streets, neighbourhoods, and markets. Be aware of inconsistencies between official and informal place names and boundaries. Local guidance during mapping, and later during the focus group and household surveys, will help you understand the different characteristics of each of the neighbourhoods.

Use the initial information to create a map of economic activity, pockets of poverty, and livelihoods. Overlay the economic information with available damage information to visualise the most severely disaster-affected areas and the most vulnerable areas. Use the map to make an initial determination on potential assessment priorities. Use a purposeful sampling approach, or select a few key livelihoods that have been disaster-affected to focus the assessment on. Select neighbourhoods and markets to be assessed by household-level survey and market-mapping methods.

Be prepared for gatekeepers during the assessment phase, as many urban leaders recognise that assessments are instruments that direct or influence future distribution of assistance, and they often seek to direct the assessment team. Having a plan and using a logical process for prioritisation of areas helps to produce a rationale assessment that is not too reliant on local suggestions and influence.

For programme planning and implementation, population estimates will be necessary to include for each quadrant/neighbourhood. In some contexts, population data can be difficult to get and the data that are available may be outdated or inaccurate. In countries with high rates of urbanisation, city and neighbourhood populations change annually, and they do so even more dramatically in the aftermath of a disaster. Government branches responsible for statistics, urban planning, or census data often maintain population information. In a country with an active cluster system it may be effective to funnel requests like these through the U.N. Humanitarian Coordination System. Census data and population figures are often politically sensitive and can be manipulated to under-represent populations or over-represent populations. A case of underestimation occurred in Kenya's Nairobi slums where the official reports underestimated the city's slum population by more than 300 percent. Cases of over-representation often occur in conflict settings or population displacements, such as in Southern Sudan in the lead up to the referendum of 2010. A practical approach is to gather multiple population estimates, note discrepancies and potential issues with the data, and move forward with programme planning.

Concerns with data can and should be raised through the various coordination forums. In lieu of official statistics, satellite imagery that projects population estimates and damage estimates remotely may be available. This method was used during the Haiti earthquake, but requires sophisticated equipment and analysts.

activities and characteristics of each unit outlined, the next step is to establish vulnerability criteria for the specific urban environment. The purpose of the focus group is to help understand how the community defines its needs and who is most at risk of not having their needs met. Developing relevant vulnerability criteria is fundamental to targeting assistance appropriately.

Step 2: Hold Focus Groups to Establish Relevant Vulnerability Criteria and Accurate Proxy Indicators

With the urban area divided into smaller, more manageable geographic units and basic economic

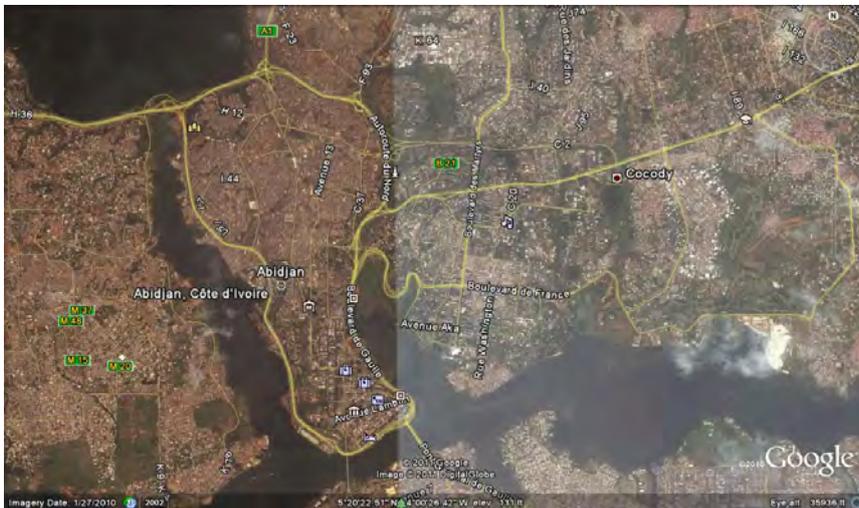
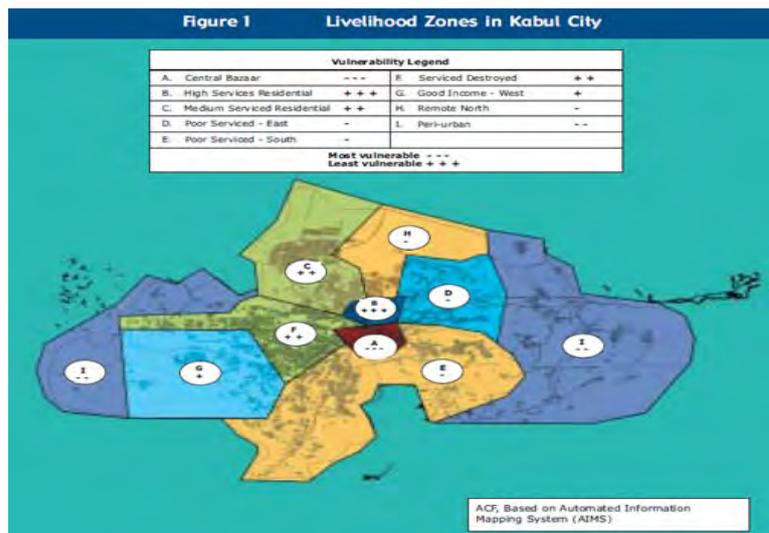


Image 2: Map of Abidjan, Cote D'Ivoire for use in city mapping prior to urban assessment. (Source: Google Earth)

Image 3: ACF mapped livelihoods in Kabul City, Afghanistan, to better understand the most vulnerable and least vulnerable areas. (Source: <http://fex.enonline.net/22/vulnerability.aspx>)



Urban Vulnerability Criteria	
Disaster-Affected Selection Criteria	Poverty and Other Vulnerability Criteria
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● One or more family members killed in disaster ● Home or business was severely damaged in disaster ● Lost household assets in disaster ● Family is displaced ● Lost productive assets in disaster ● Lost income generation activity in disaster ● Family has health issues related to disaster (cholera, malnutrition, injury, etc.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Earns less than _____ each month ● Has one or more children not attending school ● Children receiving treatment/recommended for treatment of malnutrition (identification possible through Mid-Upper Arm Circumference measurement) ● Widow or female-headed household ● Youth-headed household ● Families hosting orphans (important in cities with high HIV/AIDS prevalence) ● Family hosting IDPs ● Family has elderly member living with them ● Only one informal income earner supporting entire household ● High dependency ratio, specifically of children under 5 years of age ● Type of home lived in ● Type of job/income generation activities engaged in ● Preexisting physical or mental illness or disability ● Ethnic or religious minority ● Lower caste, social class ● Child labour ● Living in an area considered vulnerable prior to the crisis

Urban vulnerabilities: Urban vulnerabilities are unique to the crisis and to the city characteristics, and challenge humanitarian notions of minimum standards and standardised assistance packages. Certainly, standard vulnerable groups, as defined in the Sphere Standards, must be included, but in urban environments additional screening criteria is regularly required to further narrow the list of beneficiaries. Similarly, using just disaster-affected criteria or poverty criteria to determine recipients of humanitarian assistance is likely to produce large exclusion errors, resulting in a first-come-first-serve methodology of assistance. Using better defined vulnerability criteria that screen beneficiaries allows better targeting of aid resources.

The list below provides examples of urban vulnerability criteria, differentiating between disaster-affected and poverty/other vulnerability criteria.

Using a focus group to discuss poverty conditions and livelihoods strategies of the different sections of the population can assist with understanding urban and context-specific vulnerabilities and potential proxy indicators. Hold at least four focus groups in at least two different highly vulnerable neighbourhoods, as identified through the initial mapping exercise. Use the analysis and information from the focus groups to develop a rapid urban household survey.

Select Focus Group Discussion (FGD) Locations

Use the initial urban map and assessment of vulnerability to decide on locations for the focus groups. Hold a minimum of two focus groups in each location. Identify community-based organisations in the areas and request assistance convening a focus group.

Invite FGD Participants

For the purposes of holding a focus group discussion to determine vulnerability criteria, invite people who represent different aspects of the community. For example, invite a religious leader, a local businessperson, a school teacher, social worker, mothers, and a local neighbourhood representative.

- Do not invite more than 15 participants, as this will not allow for individual discussion and will more likely turn into a town hall type meeting.
- Ensure that invited participants come voluntarily and do not expect payment for their participation.
- Be aware that organising a focus group will increase expectations about services. Give clear instructions to the focus group facilitators not to make promises and to be careful not to raise expectations.
- Choose a comfortable and public location for the focus. Common meeting places include churches, community centres, health clinics, schools, or local government offices.

FGD Team Composition

- Ensure gender balance among the team and focus group or hold separate focus groups for women and men.
- Ensure ethnic and/or religious balance as appropriate for the context.
- Once the focus group is underway, encourage the participation of the less privileged participants. Consider holding separate focus groups if required for more thorough participation from women or ethnic minorities.
- Team should divide roles and rehearse the questions with assessment team leader prior to holding the focus group.
- Two to three facilitators are needed per group. Each team member should fill out one questionnaire individually. At the end, all the information will be transferred onto one FGD report form for submission to the assessment team leader.

Available Tool: Focus Group Discussion Questionnaire

Focus groups can be used for a number of different reasons, the rationale for using a focus group as the second step in an urban assessment is to address the difficulty in understanding the wealth differences in urban settings and the particular context-specific vulnerabilities that exist. The format suggested for this focus group also collects information that is useful to cash-based programming on household-level income and consumption. Focus group input on these questions can be used to confirm household-level information that is self-reported during surveys or beneficiary selection processes. Self-reporting from households on their income and spending frequently is underestimated. Using a FGD in conjunction with household surveys and interviews provides triangulation of financial information at the household level.

Step 3: Planning and Conducting Urban Household Assessments

Incorporating a household-level assessment into your rapid urban assessment has the benefit of producing quantifiable data and bringing trends and findings from the focus group and initial mapping exercise down to a household unit. In order to expedite the assessment, focus on a limited number of household surveys, but develop a survey tool that can be used in future follow-on, expansion, or verification aspects of the programme.

Urban Household Survey

Now that urban and context-specific vulnerability selection criteria have been developed through the focus groups, the assessment team should compose survey questions to gather relevant information. For urban cash programmes, the survey should have questions that are different from rural surveys. During the survey design, consider:

- If labour markets are disrupted due to the disaster, households will be under severe economic pressure. Try to accurately estimate the gap between beneficiaries' cash needs and income.

- Relative to their rural counterparts, urban households have much higher expenditures on non-food items, such as transport, electricity, water, toilets, rent, and fuel. Ensure this data is captured through the survey.
- Distinguishing between acute emergency issues and chronic poverty issues is difficult in urban settings, but is of utmost important to donors. As such, understanding existing urban dynamics of recent migration, newly poor, and other complex trends will help to focus and justify humanitarian interventions. Review the survey for distinctions between chronic poor and new emergency factors and proxy indicators.
- Capture the different food sources for urban populations. Urban populations often consume more meals outside of the home. Ensure the survey captures this dynamic.
- Capture all urban livelihood strategies. Most households have more than one income-generating strategy, and sometimes as many as eight or nine.
- Capture costs and risks associated with living in tenuous, un-owned homes (i.e., rental costs, threat of eviction, protection issues, etc.).
- Use urban-specific poverty measures developed by the local community through focus group discussions.

Available Tool: Sample Urban Household Survey

Deciding how many household surveys to complete.

There are various approaches to this decision that depend on the level of accuracy desired. For the purposes of this rapid urban assessment, use randomisation and a manageable sample size. A simple option is to select all neighbourhoods or areas from the initial map that were vulnerable or highly vulnerable due to economic or social characteristics. Consider these highly vulnerable areas the potential areas for field work. If the area is still too large, select one or two areas (perhaps

in coordination with other agencies). Within the selected areas, further identify neighbourhoods, blocks, streets, or other groupings that can help define the area of inquiry.

Within the defined area, decide on how many households to survey. Strike a balance between getting a representative sample and available staff, vehicles, and resources. Within each neighbourhood, use the “spinning pencil” method to determine a random starting point and then proceed to skip a specified number of households (calculated by dividing estimated population by total number of surveys being collected). For example, to survey an urban IDP camp with 700 households and collect a total of 10 surveys from the camp, skip 70 households between every survey ($700 / 10 = 70$).⁸

Training of survey teams on proper use of the survey and consistent reporting of the answers is key to a successful household survey. Spot-checks with the interview teams during the assessment can help to identify inconsistencies or other issues that may arise and allow for immediate adjustment. Use an appropriate denominator, such as the population living in the area sampled, when reporting household survey results rather than general citywide population figures.

Step 4: Map the Relevant Markets

As cash and voucher programmes are market-based responses, understanding the market dynamics within which a programme operates and impacts is important. When implementing market-based projects it is critical to ensure that unintended consequences of using cash or vouchers do not impact other populations’ access to goods or services through the non-aid market.

Common market information to map by sector:

⁸ See ACF’s Urban Assessment Guidelines for a step-by-step approach to random sampling in cities.

Food Security	Shelter	Infrastructure Rehabilitation (Cash-for-Work)	Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene	Non-Food Items
<p>Prices and availability of staple foods</p> <p>Prices and availability of hot food vendors</p> <p>Supply chain for staple foods both imported and locally produced</p> <p>Causes for shortages in supplies</p> <p>Vendor food stocks available and ability to replenish</p>	<p>Prices and availability for key shelter repair or construction materials: roofing, timber, cement</p> <p>Pre-disaster process and costs for home construction of different types</p> <p>Rental prices</p> <p>Supply chain for construction materials</p> <p>Number of local construction companies and services provided</p> <p>Number of construction workers employed by companies and independently</p> <p>Land ownership regulations, fees, and informal arrangements</p>	<p>Daily wage rate for unskilled and skilled workers in city and rural areas</p> <p>Seasonal labour migration opportunities</p> <p>Government infrastructure rehabilitation projects and plans</p> <p>Work that is conducted on a volunteer basis by community groups</p> <p>Costs for insurances, taxes, safety equipment, or other requirements for casual labourers</p>	<p>Supply chain for household drinking water</p> <p>Cost per unit for drinking water from various suppliers</p> <p>Causes for shortages in supply</p> <p>Variations in drinking water quality</p> <p>Local prices for water treatment products on local markets</p> <p>Number of water delivery vehicles (donkey carts, trucks, etc.)</p> <p>Number of drinking water suppliers and workers</p> <p>Access to toilets</p>	<p>Prices and availability of basic household items (clothes, bedding, water containers, cooking items, stoves, fuel, sanitary items, soap, etc.)</p> <p>Number of vendors with sufficient stocks</p> <p>Vendor stock availability, lead time to replenish</p> <p>Causes for shortages in supplies</p>

Use focus groups and key informant questionnaires (i.e., vendor and trader interviews) to gather the relevant information in the sectors of interest to your organisation. Always triangulate information in this step. For example, after a focus group with non-food item (NFI) vendor suppliers also talk to individual NFI wholesalers or transporters to confirm the information. Assessment team members working on the market analysis should aim to “follow” the supply chain and interview people at each level of the supply chain—small-scale vendors, wholesalers, transporters, warehouse operators, producers, and consumers. National staff are often best placed

to perform the market survey as merchants are more likely to quote them prices similar to what beneficiaries will pay.

Use visual drawings or flow charts to represent the information that you have received. Below is an example of an empty template for a basic market map. The key to market mapping is to select the right commodities that will inform your assessment and plans for response, and to ask the right questions.

The aim of this mapping process is to understand the supply chain that urban households rely on for basic food and household items. This

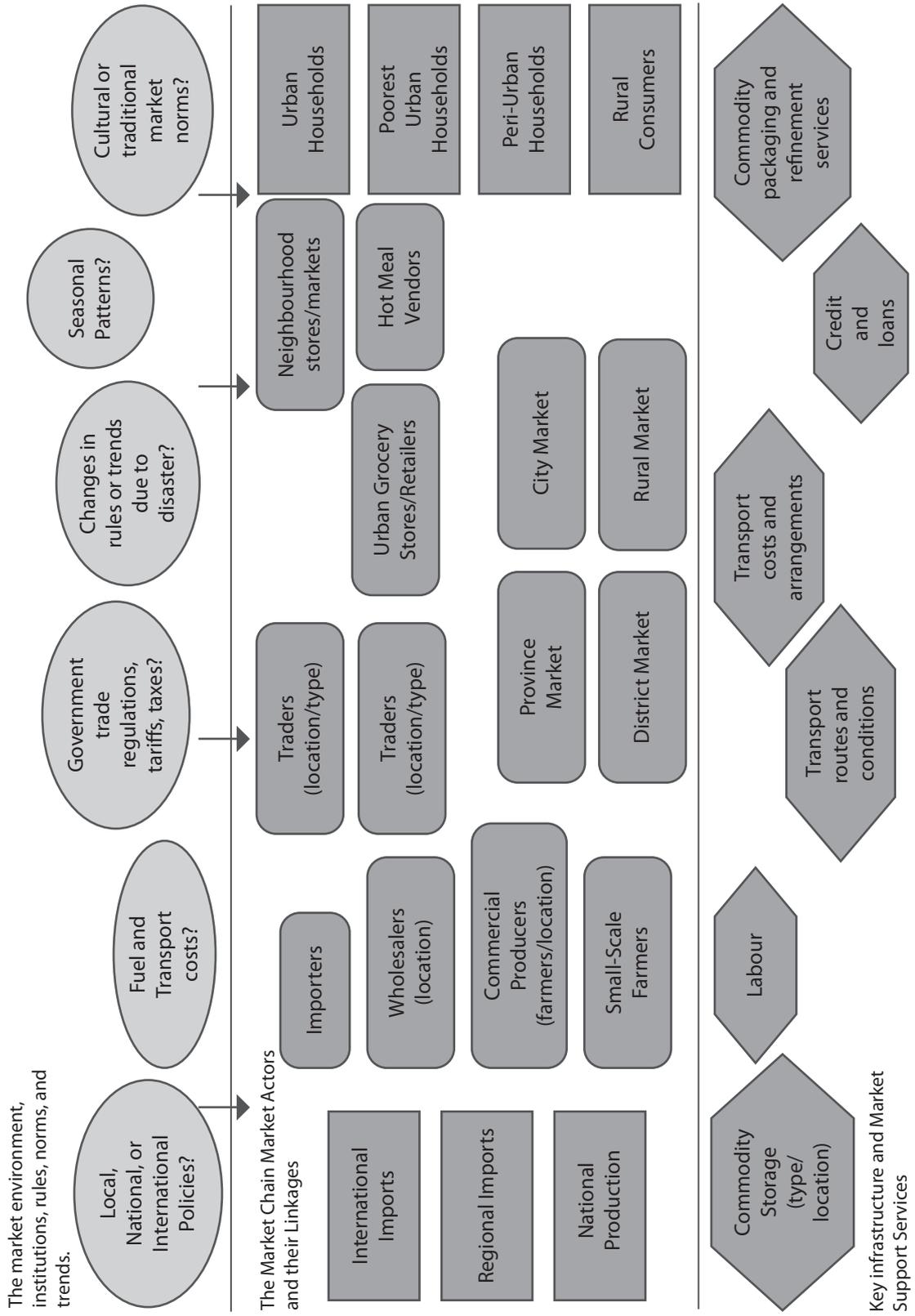
supply chain may vary for rural, peri-urban, and urban consumers, so even the poorest urban consumers may rely on slightly different vendors than wealthier families in the same neighbourhood. Understanding changes in the supply chain for basic goods following a disaster is important to plan market-based initiatives. For example, average or wealthy urban consumers

may rely on grocery stores for purchasing the bulk of their food items, while the poorest households rely on purchasing directly from the central market, neighbourhood hot food sellers, small-scale kiosks in neighbourhoods, and a network of mobile food vendors (i.e., carts circulating the neighbourhood with bread or mangoes).

Checklist of Questions for Commodity Market Mapping

Checklist of Questions for Commodity Market Mapping – Urban Specific	
	<p>Imports / Exports</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – What commodities are imported? Location of import arrival and storage? – What commodities are exported from the urban markets? – Regional and international variations on imports and exports? – What supply chains rely on imported inputs?
	<p>Large Scale / Small Scale Producers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Are end consumers or traders different for large and small scale producers? – Numbers of urban/rural producers
	<p>Urban Commodity Packaging and Refinement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – What commodity processing adds value at the urban and rural levels?
	<p>Transport</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – What urban infrastructure connects urban and rural market actors? – What rural infrastructure is critical to supplying urban markets?
	<p>Government Restrictions, Taxes, Fees</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Is there more restriction, taxation, or fees in the urban market that affect the market actors? – What regulations apply to rural or urban actors? – Where is regulation enforced/not enforced?
	<p>Different Markets and Consumers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Where do the urban consumers purchase the commodity? – Size and number of urban vendors and traders? – What regional markets supply the urban vendors? – Are urban poor consuming different quality/quantity of goods?
	<p>Baseline and Disaster Impacts</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – What elements of the market system are most affected by the disaster? – Which markets have resumed functioning after the disaster? – Are there supply-side bottlenecks caused by the disaster?

Figure 3 Urban Market Map Template



Available Tools: Commodity Market Map Template (in PowerPoint) and Checklist

Tips for Mapping the Urban Market Quickly

1. Focus on staple food commodities, shelter items, NFIs that are necessities for survival, and/or livelihoods markets, where people buy/sell services.
2. Find out how many urban markets exist and what commodities are available and where.
3. Find out how many wholesalers, transporters, market stall vendors, and other market actors are in the urban markets.
4. Initially focus on the main urban market and the neighbourhood markets in your area of assessment.
5. Collect and analyse price information on staple foods and non-food items weekly in the aftermath of a disaster for trends in price fluctuation.

Mapping the Labour Market to Plan Cash-for-Work Activities

Cash-for-work programmes provide temporary employment, usually at the unskilled labour level, to selected beneficiaries. As such, cash-for-work can affect the local urban market for unskilled labour, and at times rural agricultural labour and skilled urban labour. In order to avoid disrupting regular market activities, endeavour to map the urban labour market when planning a cash-for-work activity. The Minimum Economic Recovery Standards outline additional standards, actions, indicators, and guidance that relate to cash-for-work interventions. Of particular note in these standards is the guidance that agencies should, “assess local labour markets to learn wage rates, seasonal trends, demand and supply for various types of labour, and growth potential of specific labour markets in the short and long-term. Rural and urban patterns within labour markets should be considered.”⁹ Using

⁹ P. 93. The SEEP Network (2010).

the provided template, visualise the information collected to understand the labour market and how best to position a temporary employment project.

This section outlines guidance on how to use the cash-for-work labour market mapping tool, which is also available for download as a PowerPoint presentation. The rationale for providing a specialised tool for cash-for-work is that recent emergencies have shown that unintended consequences of cash-for-work have affected rural labour and other labour sectors. The template provides a generic framework of a labour market and prompts/questions for use in the field. It is similar to other commonly used market mapping tools.

Cash-for-work activities provide a temporary injection of cash into a disaster-affected economy, not long-term employment. Furthermore, some donors require that cash-for-work projects address community needs, such as infrastructure rehabilitation, instead of individual needs, such as planting crops. Often, setting wage rates below the market clearing levels will prevent distortion of labour markets, by allowing private sector businesses continued access to labour, as well as attract more vulnerable individuals who cannot find work at the market clearing wage to the programme. However, setting wage rates below the market levels, in some responses, has been found to prevent the transfer of sufficient levels of cash to allow for household recovery from a disaster. In practice, these considerations can be problematic and difficult to sort through to arrive at a reasonable approach. As with any cash modality, cash-for-work projects should be evaluated in comparison to other types of cash programmes and in-kind programmes to ensure the approach meets the identified needs.¹⁰

Using the Cash-for-Work Labour Market Mapping Template

The template for labour market mapping is similar to the commodity mapping, but includes specific

¹⁰ For more guidance, see the Mercy Corps Guide to Cash-for-Work Programming. <http://www.mercycorps.org/files/file1179375619.pdf>

information related to wages and seasonal labour patterns.

1. Fill in bubbles and boxes with the key factors in the market. Feel free to move, resize or delete bubbles as necessary. Add additional bubbles to represent factors in the labour market that are not represented here, such as additional segmentation among types of workers.
2. Draw lines and rearrange the boxes in the “labour market chain” section to ensure that the value chain is captured at the required level of detail. Attempt to distinguish differences in the labour market for the urban, peri-urban, rural, and poorest urban workers.
3. In the bottom section, draw lines that connect the factors influencing the labour market to the appropriate actor in the market chain.
4. Make red circles, stars, or “Xs” to highlight areas that the disaster has disrupted or are of key importance.
5. Fill in unskilled labour rates for each of the levels or market: city main market, neighbourhood market, migrant labour, and rural markets. Collect rates from at least three different reliable sources. Be aware that the informal rate may differ from the government-set minimum wage, and that people may not want to disclose this information to you.
6. Fill in the recorded market rate for skilled labour in each sector. Even though cash-for-work normally employs unskilled labour, record the rates for skilled labour in each sector because cash-for-work programmes can attract or discourage formally employed workers if the wage rate offered is too high or in competition with the formal sectors.

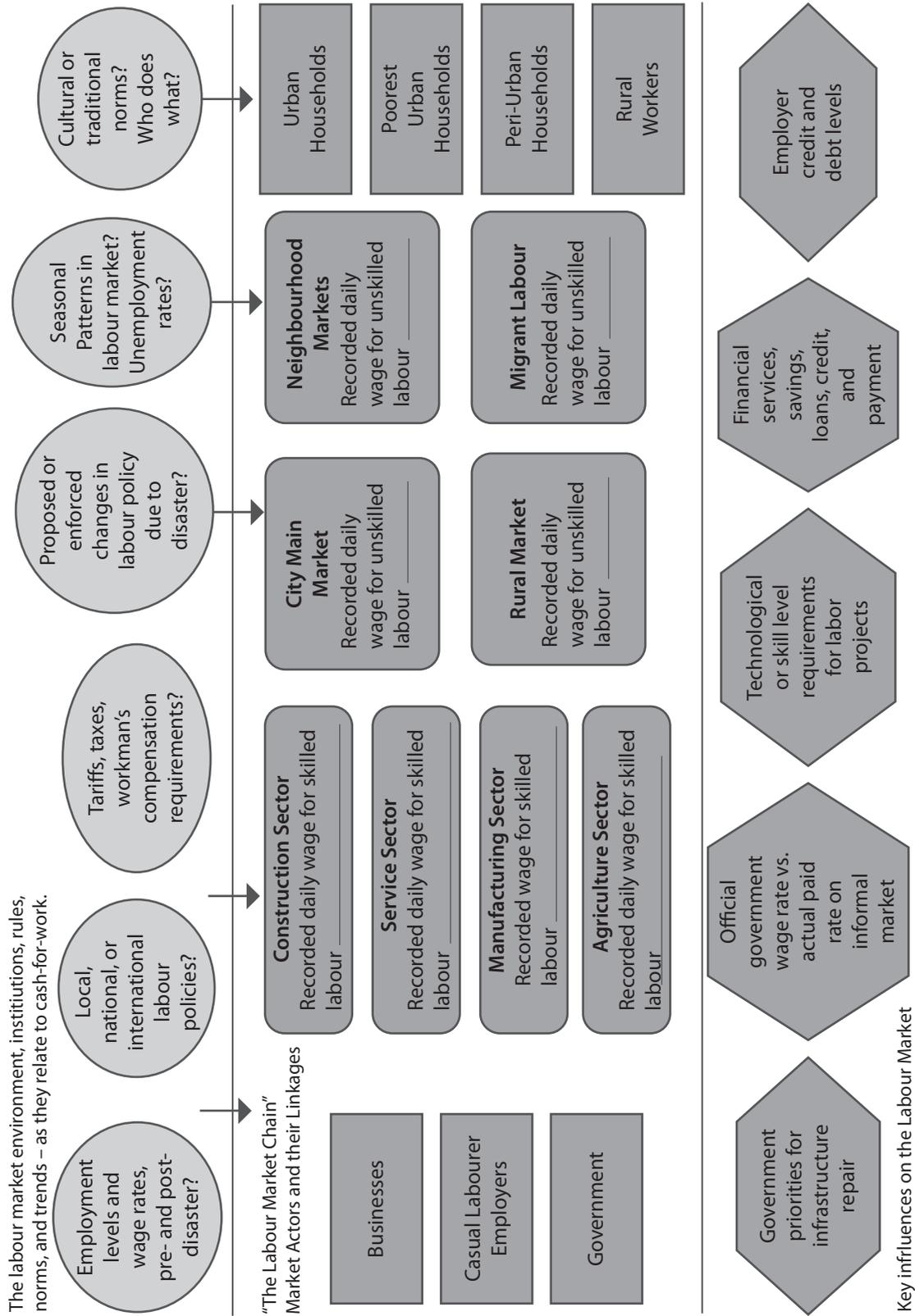
7. Add a seasonal calendar to the urban assessment report, to highlight and further explain seasonal labour patterns.

Available Tool: Cash-for-Work Labour Market Map Template (PowerPoint)

Timeline for Rapid Urban Assessment: All Four Phases

There are many excellent market mapping tools and guidelines available for more extensive analysis and investigation.¹¹ The aim of this urban assessment is to provide a quick appraisal of urban vulnerabilities geographically and at the household level, and to map the markets that will most directly affect a cash/voucher programme in the various sectors. As a reminder, the urban assessment is completed in four phases: 1) mapping the social and economic aspects of the city, 2) using a focus group to define urban vulnerability, 3) household survey using vulnerability criteria developed by the community, and 4) mapping relevant markets. Depending on the urban context, the schedule below may need to be extended and different teams may spend more time on various activities. The illustrative timeline is provided below to emphasise that a rapid urban assessment can be done quickly and can serve as a foundation for further assessments and programme planning.

¹¹ One example is the Emergency Market Mapping and Analysis (EMMA) tools and guidance.



Schedule for Completing an Initial Urban Assessment

	Task	Output	Resources
Day 1	Geographic Mapping	City map with social and economic characteristics	Printed map, internet (if available), focus group of local residents who know the city well
Day 2	Focus Groups on Vulnerability Criteria	4 focus groups completed and report completed, vulnerability criteria proposed	FGD facilitators, vehicles, FGD interview guide, flipchart, markers
Day 3	Household Questionnaire Preparation	Household questionnaire, training for interviewers	Printer; trainer; translator
Day 4, 5, 6	Household Surveys	Completed surveys and data analysis	Data in-putter, GPS, survey team, survey team supervisor; vehicles
Day 7	Market Interviews	Market map	Interviewers, vehicles, camera, GPS
Day 8	Analysis and Report Writing	Initial report	Data analysis, report writer, sectoral staff for analysis

This concludes the first topic in this toolkit. In this section, basic principles for conducting a successful rapid urban assessment have been presented. Resources for further assessment methodologies are listed in the bibliography and most are available online. Assessments help humanitarian organisations determine needs and establish criteria for prioritisation of services. Urban areas require

focused, purposeful, and appropriate assessment techniques. While these guidelines are not only applicable to cash-based interventions, they do cover the fundamental information that cash-based programmes need to consider. The next section focuses on using assessment information to determine an appropriate urban response.

TOPIC 2 RESPONSE ANALYSIS FOR URBAN EMERGENCIES

Determining the impact of the disaster on urban communities, infrastructure, basic services, economic and social networks, and social services, is important for determining an appropriate response. There are other general response analysis frameworks for disasters, sector-specific frameworks, and frameworks for cash and voucher programmes. The aim of this section is to bring together key concepts from existing frameworks and decision guidelines and utilise them with an urban filter, to better focus an urban cash response.

Urban economies are cash-based and usually have robust financial institutions and markets, all of which make cash-based humanitarian interventions a first-line response option. The informal money systems, such as remittances and lending, are complex and should not be overlooked in response analysis.

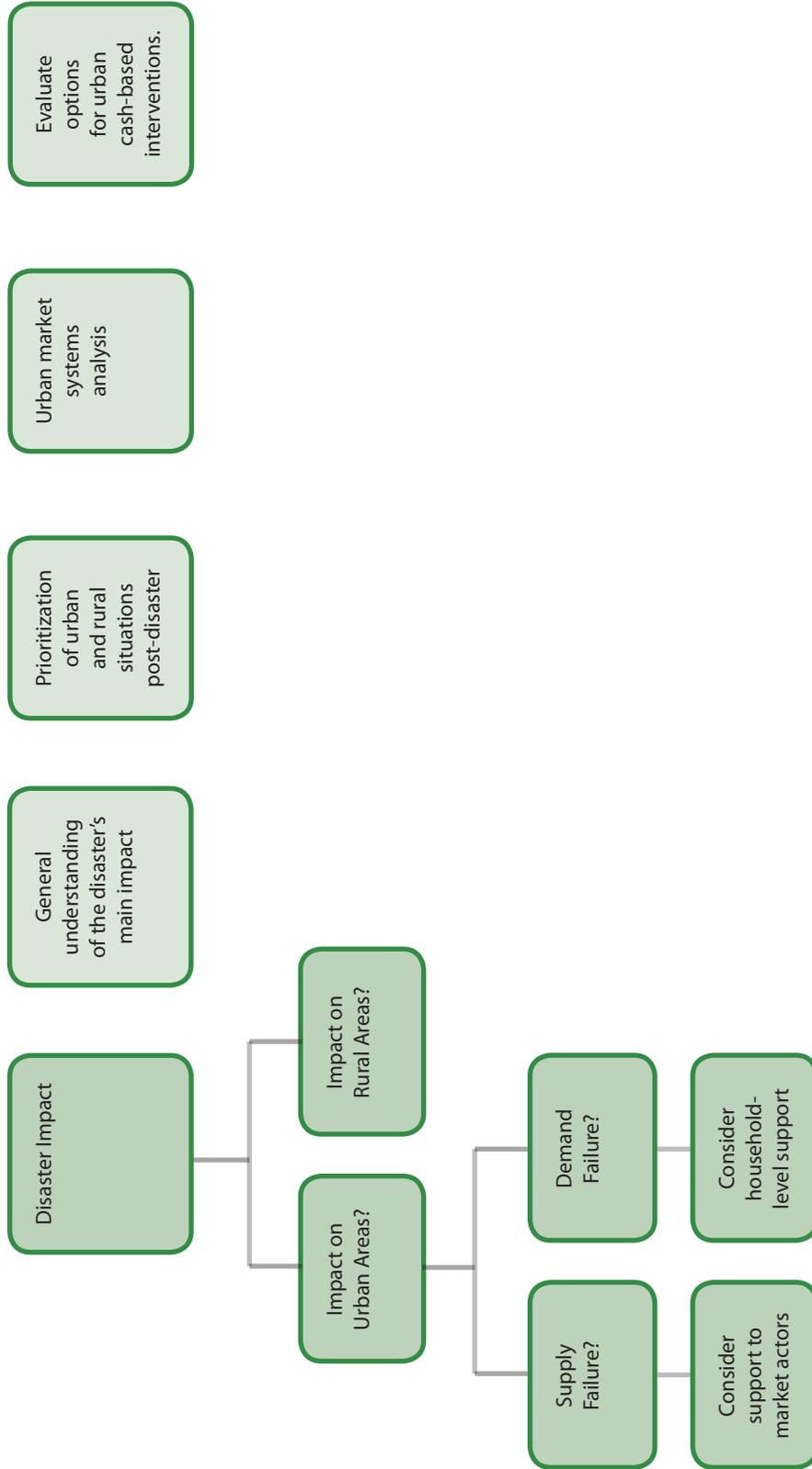
Urban Market Support Interventions

Urban market support interventions that employ a cash-based approach span a wide spectrum of interventions, including urban livelihood fairs. Here vendors bring livelihood inputs to facilitate supply to targeted households of the goods or neighbourhood disaster recovery grants. Therewith small-scale dairy refrigeration or other food processing businesses can be restarted to improve the supply of food commodities. Some organisations work with the community to prioritise which small micro-

enterprises should be resumed first after a disaster. Spurring the recovery of small micro-enterprises can stabilise a community following a shock, potentially even preventing further migration.

Supply-side support programmes should use a full market analysis, such as the Emergency Market Mapping Analysis (EMMA), to identify the disaster-caused bottlenecks or blockages in the market that need to be resolved to resume the flow of goods and services. Since cities are often the economic hubs of the country or region, it is important to consider resolving supply issues in order to indirectly improve the situations of the most vulnerable groups. Urban areas will have a more complicated market system to analyse, ensure focus is in on the right supply chains—meaning those that directly affect basic services for urban poor/vulnerable and those upon which the urban poor rely on for their livelihoods. Urban markets are also likely to have higher levels of government regulation and oversight (e.g., record information on government taxes, fees, policies, subsidies). With all of the complexities in the urban environment, lifesaving and livelihood-saving market systems need to be understood to the greatest extent possible in a short period of time.¹²

¹² Further information is provided in EMMA, particularly the section on “Market Environment: institutions, rules, norms, & trends.”



Supply-side interventions may be designed to improve rural access to goods, but the actual intervention may be located in the urban area. For example, improving warehousing, packaging, or transporting may be supported through cash-interventions in the urban market that delivers to the rural areas.

Examples of urban supply side market support initiatives include:

- Cash grants to warehouse owners in Haiti to re-establish import and supply chains for construction and food materials after it was found the earthquake had had a significant and debilitating impact on warehouses in Port-au-Prince.
- A combination of cash grants to small local vendors or transporters and provision of commodity vouchers to stimulate both demand for the items and enable suppliers to build the transport infrastructure to deliver the goods.
- Cash grants to repair critical food processing facilities, such as ice producers, small dairy cooperatives, and cheese processing facilities. While larger-scale repairs may be undertaken during reconstruction phases and target larger companies through loans, loan guarantees, or other programmes, it is increasingly common for humanitarian agencies to identify selected community-run businesses, such as bakeries, for immediate assistance to facilitate quick resumption of business. This benefits the community by providing access to those goods, normalising economic activity, and preventing prolonged loss of income for that family and those employed.
- Fuel vouchers for key market transporters to ensure that rural goods are delivered into the urban markets and vice versa.

Household-Level Interventions

At the household-level, urban interventions using cash or vouchers are likely to be a preferred option because of the cash-based nature of urban

environments, the dependency of urban poor on cash to meet their basic needs, and the presence of financial institutions.

Household-level interventions include:

- Rental assistance
- Cash grant for basic food or non-food items
- Cash grant for livelihoods reestablishment
- Vouchers for food or non-food items
- Cash grant for rebuilding of home
- Cash-for-work
- Cash-for-training
- Water vouchers
- Health care or school fee grants or vouchers

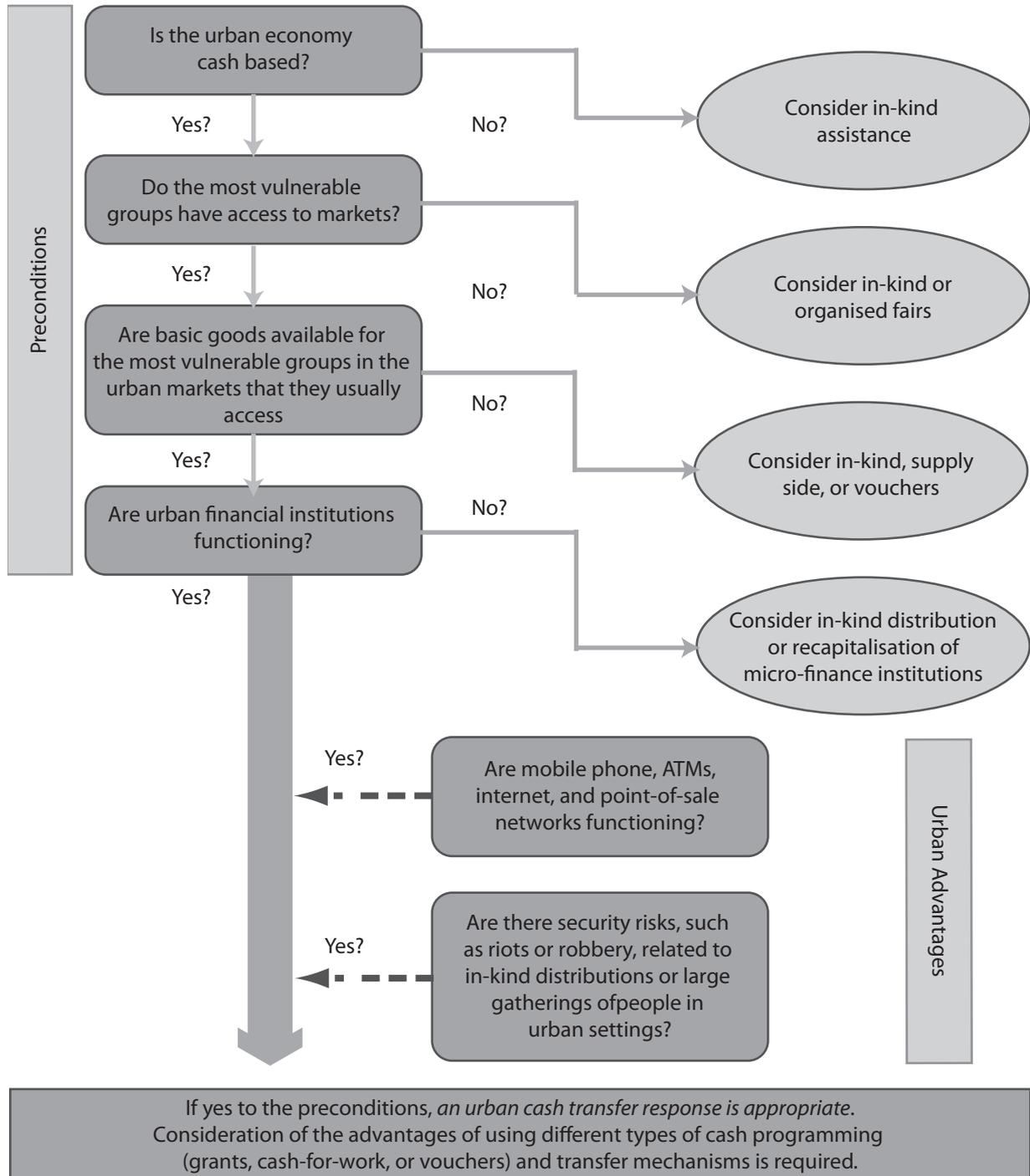
Deciding what kind of household-level intervention should be used can be confusing in a complicated urban environment. The numerous actors working in any given disaster response, who may also be contemplating cash or other forms of assistance, will further complicate the decision on which form of assistance makes the most sense. Coordination and agreement on levels of cash assistance, specifics of conditionality (i.e., what number of hours must be worked to receive a daily cash-for-work wage?), and coverage of the population are a major challenge in an urban large-scale emergency. However, past experience has shown that lack of coordination and agreement among agencies can have negative consequences, create community conflict, and reduce the effectiveness and reputation of humanitarian actors.

Remember that use of cash-based programming in urban areas has many advantages, but reviewing a few key questions in the flow chart on the next page can help to solidify the response analysis. Ensuring that the objective is clear also helps in the selection of an appropriate response tool. Other manuals and documents provide detailed discussions of how to choose which type of cash programming and are referenced in the bibliography.

The next level of analysis includes prioritising the needs found through assessment and understanding

Urban Disaster Response Options

Urban disasters are forecast to increasingly affect countries around the world. Providing humanitarian assistance in an urban environment requires consideration of urban dynamics when deciding on a response action. Cities often have improved financial and technological infrastructure that should be taken advantage of to expedite assistance and provide the most relevant assistance to beneficiaries.



if the barriers to basic goods and services are access or availability related. **In urban areas, more often access barriers are a core problem rather than availability issues.** As urban centres are also economic hubs, markets typically have goods and services available, but the problem is often that the goods/services are unaffordable to the poorest families. Access barriers for the urban poor are often directly related to loss of income due to the disaster, or to reduced purchasing power of households due to fluctuations in the market following a disaster. With the density of urban markets, it is necessary to consider access barriers from the vantage point of vulnerable groups, such as the urban poor, women, semi-urban populations, etc. Urban populations access basic goods through a variety of avenues, including differing points of sale, financing mechanisms, market intermediaries, etc.

Access Barriers?

- Increase household purchasing power
- Cash grants, cash-for-work, and voucher interventions

Availability Barriers?

- Increase supply of basic goods
- In-kind or supply-side interventions
- Cash grants to small micro-enterprises

The basic framework for response analysis should begin with the problem identification and analysis of urban versus rural impacts from the disaster. If the urban impact is significant, the planning team should formulate an objective and determine if cash is the best method to achieve the objective. Humanitarian minimum standards, such as the Sphere Standards, provide basic parameters for survival needs.

In some cases, both access and availability barriers may exist simultaneously and interventions can be matched accordingly. If the main barrier is availability, meaning that markets do not have enough food or other basic goods/services to

meet the demand, increasing the supply of basic goods may be appropriate if individuals have the ability to purchase the supplies. On the other hand, if the supply is there but there is a problem with consumers lacking cash or other resources to access the basic goods, it is an access issue. Addressing access barriers is often best-done through use of cash-based approaches, as long as the supply is sufficient to meet the increased demand. Further considerations for urban response analysis should factor in risk for inflation, comparative security risks of the different approaches, and beneficiary preferences. Additional frameworks for analysing if cash is the best option are outlined in the ICRC Guidelines for Cash Programming.¹³

Available Tool: ICRC Cash Programme Decision Tree

Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats (SWOT)

After evaluating if a cash response is appropriate in an urban environment, selecting the appropriate cash transfer method (cash-for-work, cash grants, or vouchers) is the next step. Transferring cash is not an objective in itself. As humanitarians, we aim to save lives, reduce suffering, and mitigate the economic effects of a disaster through using a cash-based response. Set an objective that meets most urgent needs. Objectives are often linked directly to a sector and some examples are listed in the table below. Some programmes select two or more objectives, when this occurs it is useful to have a clear understanding of the priority objective or the programme runs the risk of trying to meet a variety of needs that may be better achieved through different approaches. Coordinating between the sectors that are using cash-based approaches to meet humanitarian needs is key to understanding the total package of assistance provided to different beneficiaries, with an eye towards rationalising the assistance.

¹³ See Annex for full decision tree. Source: ICRC Guidelines for Cash Programming

Sector	Sample Objectives for Urban Cash Programmes
Shelter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Repair damaged homes to meet Sphere Standards ● Provide temporary shelter in rental units for displaced and vulnerable families in line with Sphere Standards ● Clear rubble or sites for rebuilding of homes
Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Provide access to safe drinking water for disaster-affected households ● Provide NFIs to displaced households ● Utilise temporary employment to improve community sanitation
Food Security	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Increase household kilo-calorie intake to 2,100 kilo calories per person per day of grains, legumes, and fats ● Increase household micro-nutrient consumption ● Reduce negative coping mechanisms due to food insecurity
Health	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Provide access to primary health care services for displaced populations ● Provide regular access to needed medications for vulnerable populations
Nutrition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Improve household consumption of food in families with moderate malnutrition ● Provide access to foods that contribute to a diversified diet ● Provide access to locally available foods for children's consumption
Livelihoods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Support households to reestablish their pre-disaster livelihoods or alternative income-generating activity to improve household purchasing power ● Re-establish key livelihood sectors that were affected by the disaster to promote economic recovery ● Provide short-term temporary employment for disaster-affected populations

Keeping the programme objective at the forefront of project planning can help to create a realistic, achievable programme plan and ease monitoring and evaluation of the project. Project planning for urban cash and vouchers should consider the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats

for the different types of cash transfer programming. Urban contexts have different strengths and weaknesses for cash programming and should be evaluated separately from rural interventions, even when they are part of the same overall country program or proposal.

General SWOT Analysis for Cash Transfer Programmes in Urban Settings

	Strengths	Weaknesses
Cash-for-Work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Can provide temporary employment for urban affected populations. ● Can contribute to community recovery through labour-intensive projects. ● Provides assistance that is considered dignified as beneficiaries are working for the assistance provided. May be a normalising form of assistance, as people are used to working for income in urban settings. ● Self-selection occurs through offering wages below the normal wage rates theoretically, but is difficult to achieve in practice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Limited shovel-ready labour projects in cities as infrastructure requires higher skill levels. ● May affect private-sector labour force or rural labor market indirectly. ● Materials for projects add costs. ● Urban officials may be more directive in establishing cash-for-work wage rates. Using the official wage rates may result in reduced self-selection as the unofficial labour rates may not be as high as the official rates and, therefore, present an attractive employment opportunity. ● Depending on context and type of labour planned, involvement of women may be limited.
Cash Grants (unconditional)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Assistance does not require beneficiaries to spend time doing activities outside of their normal routine, such as work or training. ● Most flexible form of assistance for urban beneficiaries. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Difficult to show causal linkage between receipt of cash and improvement in sector indicators. ● Desirable form of assistance, high motivation for manipulation of the system and requires strong countermeasures to prevent fraud and corruption. ● Market analysis needs to be comprehensive as the cash is likely to be used for the full spectrum of urban household expenses: food, utilities, rent, debt, transportation.
Cash Grants (conditional)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Conditions for assistance can ensure payment of specific costs, such as water, utilities, or rent, and ensure achievement of project objectives. ● Conditions for assistance can demonstrate progress towards achievement of humanitarian goals. ● Cash-for-training can have dual benefits of providing an educational opportunity for beneficiaries, as well as temporary income to households. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Urban households are affected by a variety of costs and shocks, meaning that restricting the assistance to one sector or type of goods or services prevents the beneficiary from using the assistance for multiple household expenses. ● Adding conditions requires additional levels of monitoring to ensure compliance with conditions.

Vouchers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Can be set at values and increments that respond to inflation and purchasing behaviour of the consumer. ● Urban markets offer more sophisticated food markets and expand the possibilities to use electronic or mobile-phone voucher systems. ● Vouchers can provide a normalised form of assistance, reducing any social stigma in the community linked to receiving assistance, and if implemented well seem like a normal shopping trip for the beneficiaries. ● More effective at increasing food consumption of nutritious commodities than food aid. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Paper vouchers require multiple levels of monitoring, data entry, and cross-checking, increasing costs for staff and printing. ● May not be as cost effective (cheaper) as import of food aid due to terms of trade for international grains/bulk commodities.
All Cash Transfer Programmes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Inject cash into the economy ● Support local markets ● Offer greater beneficiary choice, as compared to in-kind distributions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Risk of causing price inflation if the amount of cash injected is limited to several key items and in localised markets/neighbourhoods

Opportunities	
Cash-for-Work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Labour projects improve urban community infrastructure. ● Temporary employment skills link to longer-term improvement in employment and livelihood activities. ● Psycho-social benefit for communities to be supported in initiating their own recovery.
Cash Grants (unconditional)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Cost-effective support to beneficiaries. ● Preferred by beneficiaries. ● Ability for assistance to be discrete and “hidden” from elements in the community that may want to benefit through use of mobile banking or smart cards. ● Ease of targeting women and other vulnerable groups as removing conditions, such as to contribute labour; allows participation of vulnerable groups that may have complicated and busy daily schedules.
Cash Grants (conditional)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Reassurance that humanitarian indicators (i.e., Sphere Standards) will be achieved ● Ease of targeting women and other vulnerable groups because conditions can be crafted in ways that permit participation rather than reduce it. ● Utilising conditional training or education sessions to complement project objectives (i.e., financial literacy skills, hygiene education, and social supports).

Vouchers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Ability to target specific commodities and ensure quality of items. ● Easy to transition from paper vouchers to Smart Cards, if technology allows. ● More appropriate form of food assistance in urban settings. ● Useful to transition urban beneficiaries from in-kind distributions of food rations to food vouchers.
All Cash Transfer Programmes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Supporting urban supply chains with appropriate demand and supply side interventions. ● Using a variety of new technologies to expedite transfer. ● Ability to spread out transfers between different urban financial institutions to avoid delays caused in one institution, ensure proximity to the institution for beneficiaries, select the most appropriate institution for the beneficiaries, and expedite transfers. ● Opportunity to preposition assistance prior to urban disasters. ● Opportunity to scale-up quickly.
Threats	
Cash-for-Work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Safety and security for workers. ● Unintended negative impact on other labourers not selected for the programme. ● Quality of work completed is substandard. ● Vulnerable groups may have low participation. ● Use of cash for unintended purchases.
Cash Grants (unconditional)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Beneficiaries selected are not the most in need. ● Use of cash for unintended uses. ● Extortion post-transfer.
Cash Grants (conditional)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Conditionality may prevent addressing the beneficiaries' most urgent needs. ● Conditions may exclude beneficiaries that are vulnerable unintentionally. ● Protection risks. ● Adding the condition of labor may impact other laborers or employers.
Vouchers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Unavailability in market of selected commodities. ● Price increases. ● Forced to give/sell goods to others after exchange.
All Cash Transfer Programmes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Security threats. ● Fraud and corruption. ● Pressure on local staff. ● Inability to assist all in need. ● Delays in payment may reduce the effectiveness of the programme.

Defining the Problem: Chronic Urban Poverty or New/Acute Emergency

Emergencies are defined by a variety of measures outlined in the Sphere Handbook, among other documents.¹⁴ The most widely accepted measures of emergency are morbidity and mortality rates, expressed as a crude mortality rate (CMR). In calculating mortality rates, the denominator used is a population estimate. This is where an issue becomes apparent for defining urban emergencies. With urban populations expressed per municipality or city, the denominator can be large, often in the hundreds of thousands. When mortality or morbidities are found in urban areas, the total number of affected is often larger than rural affected populations, but the rates reported and relied on to trigger relief assistance still appear within the acceptable thresholds, due to the denominator. In rapid onset disasters, measuring excess mortality is often expressed in casualty and death rates due to the initial disaster, with monitoring of CMR rates occurring in subsequent weeks to ensure early warning of excess mortality trends due to knock-on effects from the disaster or “second wave” of fatalities due to disease, hunger, or other secondary disaster impacts. In sum, the denominator agencies use to report humanitarian situations is problematic for urban areas.

Another issue is that funding for chronic poverty normally falls outside the mandates of the humanitarian donors. In urban areas, understanding the chronic poverty dynamics, in addition to the effects of the current acute disaster or emergency, is critical to articulate in order to illustrate the needs

Example from Concern International’s Programmes in the Nairobi Slums

A survey conducted in Nairobi, Kenya, in March 2009, found a prevalence of global acute malnutrition of only 3.5% in children under five years, which is well below the threshold of >15% used by the WHO to define a critical situation. If a prevalence of 3.5% is used to calculate a caseload, however, the scale of the problem becomes apparent. In Mathare, one slum in Nairobi, with an estimated population of 423,000 people, a Global Acute Malnutrition (GAM) prevalence of 3.5% translates into a caseload of 2,961. To put this in perspective, the total number of under 5 cases treated for GAM in one of Concern’s emergency response programs in rural Kenya (Kajiado and Loitoiktok) over 3 months (January to March 2010) was 3,294. Thus, one neighbourhood in Nairobi contained almost as many cases of malnutrition as two rural districts experiencing severe drought in rural Kenya, yet according to currently available definitions of emergencies, Nairobi would be classified as acceptable while Kajiado was classified as critical.

Source: Concern’s Project Documents

of the population. In some cases, donors may want to exclude the segment of the population that is chronically poor from humanitarian assistance to avoid overlap with development funding that targets these groups. However, this exclusion can be problematic in that it may exclude the very people that cannot recover from the shock on their own.

¹⁴ The Sphere Project (2011).

TOPIC 3 TARGETING AND VERIFICATION IN URBAN ENVIRONMENTS

Common Issues in Urban Targeting

- ✓ Agencies utilise only the general criteria for targeting, resulting in a beneficiary list that includes those who may not need the assistance and excludes those that desperately do need the assistance.
- ✓ Targeting in urban areas is where fraud and corruption frequently occur in urban cash transfer programmes, due to political manipulation, as well as different and complex social networks and leadership.
- ✓ General targeting that does not relate to the project's objective, sector standards, and/or urban context reduces the impact of the project.
- ✓ Research for this toolkit revealed targeting and verification as areas of particular concern and reported difficulty in urban environments. Confusion due to the magnitude of the population can lead to reduced efforts in targeting and negative outcomes.
- ✓ General targeting overlooks groups of particular concern in urban environments, urban poor, slum dwellers, refugees/IDPs, and socially marginalised groups.

Targeting and Beneficiary Selection Procedures

Targeting beneficiaries in urban environments is especially challenging for humanitarian agencies because of the high population density and overwhelming number of people in need of assistance and scarce humanitarian resources, such as funding, necessitate additional levels of selection and prioritisation. The likelihood that one agency

will be able to serve all disaster-affected people in an urban environment is low, underscoring the need for effective coordination and harmonisation of approaches.

- 1. Geographic targeting:** Understand the overall economic and social characteristics of the urban area and select areas that are underserved, including those not served by other relief agencies and those areas not served

by public services (i.e., electricity, water pipes, or sewage).

- ✓ Project locations should be selected in order to ensure that the most vulnerable populations and groups are targeted for assistance.
- ✓ Urban cities should be broken down into sub-units, such as neighbourhoods or street groups, to better facilitate analysis.
- ✓ Develop a map of the city with key infrastructure labeled and the poorest neighbourhoods identified.

2. Vulnerability targeting: Within a selected geographic area some residents will suffer from the effects of the disaster to a greater degree than their neighbours. Urban poverty is extremely prevalent in cities, with many cities having between 25 and 60 percent of the population living in poverty. In contexts where not all poor people can be assisted, agencies should strive to target assistance to the poorest of the poor and the most severely disaster affected.

- ✓ Conduct a focus group discussion in geographically targeted areas to understand city-specific characteristics of the poorest groups.
- ✓ From the focus group discussions, define targeting criteria and a system for prioritisation. Select and document a relevant targeting method.
- ✓ Define vulnerability criteria, proxy indicators that the project will use to verify this vulnerability, and hold a meeting with community leaders to explain the vulnerability criteria and targeting process.

Sensitise Communities on Criteria: Agency staff should sensitise beneficiaries to the targeting criteria, both geographic and vulnerability. Beneficiaries will be able to understand the rationale for who was selected for the programme and who was not. Sensitisation activities may include town hall meetings, posting information bulletins, advertisement, canvassing by community mobilisers, and radio announcements. It is important to use

more than one method of sensitisation to ensure adequate transmission of information. For instance, word of mouth sensitisation may be necessary for reaching illiterate members of the population, but posting of official criteria is still necessary for transparency and consistency of messaging.

Available Tool: Sample Vulnerability Criteria Prioritisation Flow Chart (Weighted)

Targeting teams should be different from the initial assessment team members and not involved in project management or implementation. For this reason, many NGOs consider partnering (or paying) a local community-based organisation to undertake targeting for the project. The targeting teams should receive training on the vulnerability selection criteria, how to collect potential beneficiary names, and how to interview households to gather additional targeting data. Incentives for accurate targeting can and should be provided as this will save the project time and money in the verification and revision of selection lists at a later stage.

- ✓ Targeting teams may consist of between 5 to 10 people and should be representative of gender, ethnic/tribal affiliations, and religious affiliations.
- ✓ Targeting should be done as quickly as possible to minimise the time for beneficiaries or groups to understand the targeting format and organise to manipulate the system.
- ✓ Targeting teams should be different from beneficiary registration teams and different from verification and M&E teams.
- ✓ Targeting should be undertaken at families' homes/sleeping locations to facilitate the use of visual observation to confirm some vulnerability criteria, such as damage to home due to disaster.
- ✓ Targeting teams should produce completed household targeting forms (no more than one page) that record basic household information and document targeting criteria.
- ✓ Targeting form data should be consolidated in MS excel or a database and saved.

Targeting teams can propose and collect information for more beneficiaries than the project can support initially. Plan to replace up to 10 percent of the initial beneficiary list with other eligible beneficiaries after verification. As such, it is a time-saver to gather more information during the targeting stage, and the prioritisation process using vulnerability criteria allows for explanation to those who were not selected initially. If appropriate, use beneficiary information to advocate for additional resources with donors or other agencies which may be able to support the caseload that you cannot. Targeting, vulnerability, and verification information should be kept confidential so as to respect the privacy of beneficiaries. This can be accomplished by restricting access to the completed forms to certain staff, keeping forms in locked cabinets, and using agency-produced identification numbers instead of beneficiary names once the enrollment is completed.

Available Tool: Sample Household Applications with Beneficiary Selection Criteria

Review the Beneficiary List: Field office staff should conduct an internal audit of the beneficiary list collected by the targeting teams to check for errors, missing information, or inconsistencies. Using a committee format for this review works well. Corrections can be made at this stage, but any major changes should be documented in meeting or committee notes.

Approval of the Beneficiary List: Field office staff should get local community leaders to review and approve the initial targeting list and confirm that information is accurate in their knowledge and sign the list. Country Directors should also be asked to sign a hardcopy of the list. Verification procedures are outlined in the next section.

Overview of SOPs for Targeting and Identification of Involved Staff

Targeting Procedures	Who?	Documentation / Outputs
Hold focus group discussion to determine vulnerability and targeting criteria	Field Office	Focus group discussion reports, maps, notes, interview guide
Select geographic areas	Field Office HQ programme team	Map of city labeled with key economic and social characteristics
Establish urban-specific vulnerability criteria and proxy indicators	Field Office HQ programme team Technical staff	Project vulnerability criteria flow-chart and household selection form
Sensitise community on targeting criteria	Project team	Sensitisation materials (posters, information bulletins)
Recruit and train targeting teams	Field Office programme staff Human resources	Targeting team member list and training agenda
Collect household targeting information (names and forms)	Targeting teams Supervisor; project officer	Household targeting forms (1 page) Proposed list of beneficiaries
Review beneficiary selection forms and lists for consistency and errors	Field project staff Field office finance staff Country Director (approver) Community leaders (signature needed)	Final beneficiary selection list, notes on errors or modifications made

Verification of Beneficiary Lists in Urban Cash Programmes

It is best practice to verify the eligibility of selected beneficiaries from the consolidated list prior to provision of assistance or at certain stages during programme implementation. It is common to select to conduct verification either before distributing any assistance, particularly if beneficiary selection and targeting has not been conducted on a household-level but only through local NGOs, community leaders, or government eligibility lists. If targeting is done by an external partner, it is important that the partner is well aware in advance of the verification process and the consequences of errors in the list, which can include rejection of the list and repeating the targeting process. Another common time to conduct verification in urban cash transfer programmes is after the first payment is made to beneficiaries, or with the baseline survey information collection exercise. This allows for an initial verification of use of cash and confirmation that the beneficiaries meet/still meet the established selection criteria. Verification is not optional, it is mandatory. In general, humanitarian organisations strive to verify 10 percent of beneficiaries on the initial list.

Determine how many beneficiaries to verify from the list. Verify at least 10 percent of the list in person through visits to the households. Additional verification may be accomplished through mobile phone calls or analysis of banking information. For example, for a project with 4,000 households enrolled, verify 10 percent or 400 households at minimum. Verification has budgetary, time, and resource implications.

Determine which beneficiaries to verify from the list. Programme supervisory staff should randomly select the names for verification. The names should be randomly selected using a process such as choosing every fifth name from each neighbourhood or area of implementation. The supervisory staff should keep this list secret until the day of the verification to avoid opportunities for manipulation of the list.

Determine which selection criteria will be verified. It is important to check if the selection criteria were

correctly used in targeting and beneficiary selection. In dynamic disaster contexts, some groups move and change situations in relatively short amounts of time. The verification exercise allows agencies to identify changes and adjust accordingly. Develop a short verification format (no more than one page) for use by the verification team.

- ✓ Verify disaster-affected criteria (loss of assets, loss of income generation opportunities, injury/illness, migration, etc.) again. Check to see if the household has regained any lost assets or has a changed living situation. It is possible for beneficiaries to “graduate” out of the programme if their situation is improved to the extent that they no longer qualify.
- ✓ Verify household needs and poverty situation to check to see if the initial categorisation was correct. At times, beneficiaries lie to the targeting team. If this happens, beneficiaries should be removed from the programme.
- ✓ Verify receipt of cash and how it was used through post-transfer monitoring methods.

Select and train the verification team. Verification teams can be made up of CBO staff, community leaders, and agency staff. Verification teams should be different from the targeting and selection teams to ensure the cross-checking and fraud prevention mechanisms function well. Verification teams should be trained on the survey format they will use. Focus on definitions of vulnerability and how to record information consistently. Verification team members do not have the authority to add or remove people from the programme and must adhere to the survey format. Verification team members may encounter reports of problems with the programme. Problems reported should be taken seriously and followed-up on. One team member should be assigned to log all reports of problems in the programme so that the project staff can follow up immediately.

Conduct verification at the household level. Verification surveys should be conducted face-to-face for a minimum of 10 percent of the list. Visual observation should be used to verify household assets/damage/needs as appropriate. Understand

gender roles and dynamics, especially if women are likely to be home and not men.

Compare verification forms with targeting forms to identify any changes or discrepancies. At the field office, a committee should review the verification forms with the original targeting forms. The committee will consider each beneficiary's two forms and make a determination that is recorded on the verification form that the: 1) beneficiary still meets project eligibility criteria, 2) beneficiary no longer meets eligibility criteria, or 3) beneficiary lied or provided wrong information to the targeting team. The committee should summarise findings in meeting notes that are presented to senior project staff for approval of the revised beneficiary list.

Replace removed beneficiaries with other eligible beneficiaries that have the highest priority ranking according to the targeting forms. Should the verification exercise reveal incorrect beneficiary selection, meaning they do not meet the established criteria, corrective actions are needed, possibly a full verification. Full verification, or 100% of the beneficiary list, is time consuming but is necessary if more than 10 percent of the beneficiaries selected do not meet the criteria when verified at the household-level.

Explain the results of the verification to community leaders and individuals who have been added to or removed from the programme. Enforcement of verification lists at this stage should serve as

Overview of SOPs for Verification and Identification of Involved Staff

Verification Procedures	Who?	Documentation / Outputs
Determine how many beneficiaries to verify	HQ programme team / Agency-wide policy	# of beneficiaries established, risk analysis memo
Determine which beneficiaries to verify	Supervisory staff	Memo on random selection process, list of names to verify
Determine criteria to be verified	HQ programme team Field programme team M&E staff Technical staff	Verification form
Select and train verification team	Field office	List of verification team members, training agenda
Verification at household-level and via other methods	Verification team Team supervisor	Household verification forms completed
Revision of beneficiary list	Field office committee	Revised beneficiary list HH verification forms categorised
Communicate results of verification to beneficiaries and community	Project team	Completed beneficiary exit forms from project, info bulletin for community
Analyse the usage of cash transfer	Project team HQ programme team Technical staff M&E staff	Report on usage patterns and problems identified

a deterrent to future fraudulent behaviour or attempts to manipulate the programme. Ensure that the revised list is provided to finance and the cash transfer institution to warrant that the second payment goes to the correct beneficiaries.

Analyse usage of cash transfer. Check to see if beneficiaries have used cash for the intended purpose of the programme, such as to meet basic food and non-food needs. Check to see if beneficiaries are using cash for any undesirable expenses, such as alcohol, tobacco, etc. Analyse these issues and propose corrections if needed.

Available Tool: Sample Verification Spreadsheet

Accountability and Fraud Prevention Procedures for Targeting, Beneficiary Selection, and Verification

Although targeting, beneficiary selection, and verification occur before any cash has left the agency coffers, this time in the project cycle is particularly exposed to risk of fraud and corruption. Understaffing teams, improper oversight, and rushing procedures are common field-level issues that compromise efficacy and accuracy. The risk in urban cash programmes is further heightened because communities tend to share cash less as compared with in-kind donations. Margins of error that are accepted in in-kind distribution because of the frequent sharing of commodities in rural areas, which results in the assistance being spread throughout the community, cannot be accepted for cash programmes in urban environments. As such, steps to improve targeting and reduce fraudulent beneficiary lists are important.

Practical steps to avoid fraud and corruption in targeting and verification are listed below:

- Targeting team staff are not the same staff that will conduct verification or programme implementation.
- Initial beneficiary lists are signed by community leaders and supervisory staff of the field office.

- Initial beneficiary lists are reviewed by finance staff to ensure lists are of sufficient quality to use for cash transfer programmes.
- Any changes or alterations made to beneficiary lists are documented in committee meeting notes and given to project managers for tracking purposes. It is best to keep a single Excel spreadsheet or similar, from which names are never removed, but instead are identified as deselected. This way the project does not end up with several lists, all with different spellings, in which it is complicated to cross check and verify an individual's identity.
- Communities are involved in establishing selection criteria and defining urban vulnerability in order to ensure accuracy of targeting and transparency of selection process.
- Beneficiary lists and forms are auditable documents and must be translated into headquarters' language of operation, kept on file at the field office and sent to headquarters for filing as well.
- Beneficiaries can be removed from programme if verification reveals inaccuracies in information.
- Supervisory staff can analyse verification outcomes to identify any internal issues, such as staff manipulation of process.
- Beneficiaries confirm amount received of the payment to independent staff.
- A fraud reporting system is put in place and can include complaint boxes, an email address, or a phone number. Staff, beneficiaries, and community leaders are briefed on how to report suspected fraud.

Available Tool: Sample SOPs for Beneficiary Selection in Urban Programmes

Guidance on Adapting National Poverty Score Cards for Use in Beneficiary Selection and Verification in Urban Cash Transfer Programmes

National governments with social safety net programmes or micro-lending schemes are increasingly developing and using a simple poverty score card to determine likelihood of poverty. The score cards have 10 simple questions and each response is given a set amount of points. Points are recorded during field interviews and calculated by hand or electronically. The score card is used to determine which households are most likely to be living under the national poverty line and/or the international poverty lines of \$1 per day per person.¹⁵

Why use a national poverty score card in humanitarian programming?

- To ensure consistency in selecting beneficiaries and/or defining poverty with national programmes.
- To quickly have a field-ready set of pre-tested questions and values that are nationally endorsed to use in your own programme.
- To help expand the government's data set and contribute to a national process, rather than just an individual organisational process.
- For coordination and information sharing with other humanitarian agencies.

Adapting a national poverty score card for urban cash transfer programmes

- Administer the score card as a selection tool to determine the poorest or most vulnerable beneficiaries.
- Use the score card to verify that you have selected the most vulnerable beneficiaries or to confirm that the poverty ranking conducted by the selection teams was accurate.

- As a monitoring tool to understand the poverty situation in an area of operation.
- It is advisable to use the same scoring chart the national programmes use to interpret your results. Analyse the results considering humanitarian objectives and current resources.
- Capture basic information on the beneficiary family in the introductory section.
- Train staff on scoring and interviewing households to ensure that consistent scores are given between different interviewers.

Cautions on Using Poverty Score Cards in Urban Cash Programmes

Poverty score cards offer many synergies with existing programmes and an objective way to determine poverty levels, and assist with targeting of humanitarian resources. However, some caution and considerations should be evaluated before deciding to use these tools.

- Assessment of poverty in urban households differs from assessing food insecurity. Relying on poverty indicators may not be appropriate if the aim is to improve food security, nutrition, or other objectives. Poverty score cards can be used in addition to other questions on the same survey.
- Because the questions are simple, they will be easily repeated throughout the community, which may result in distorted answers. Care should be taken to randomise household visits and the order of verification to individual households to ensure a "surprise" element in the verification/observation.
- In some countries, the beneficiaries have answered the poverty score card questions on an application form filled out at locations outside of the home. This does not allow for independent observation of the answers by the surveyor and increases the opportunity for inaccurate reporting on the forms.
- The poorest of the poor may feel that questions, such as "do you have a satellite," are embarrassing.

¹⁵ Additional information on poverty score cards can be found at: <http://progressoutofpoverty.org/our-vision-0>

Figure 1: Sample Poverty Score Card for Yemen¹⁶

Indicator	Value	Point	Score
1. How many members does the household have?	A. Ten or more	0	
	B. Eight or nine	8	
	C. Seven	11	
	D. Six	18	
	E. Four or five	21	
	F. Three	26	
	G. One or two	38	
2. How many household members aged 12 to 18 currently attend school?	A. None at all	0	
	B. All	2	
	C. No children aged 12 to 18	8	
3. What is the main material used for the floor?	A. Concrete, mud/soil, stone, or other	0	
	B. Floor tiles or marble	15	
4. What is the main material used for the ceiling?	A. Wood and mud, wood, hay, mud and hay, metal sheets and mud, or other	0	
	B. Reinforced concrete, wood and concrete, or metal sheets	4	
5. What type of toilet does the household have?	A. Non-flush toilet, other, or no toilet	0	
	B. Flush toilet	4	
6. How many rooms are there in the house, excluding bathrooms and kitchens?	A. One	0	
	B. Two	2	
	C. Three	3	
	D. Four	5	
	E. Five	7	
	F. Six or more	13	
7. Does the household or any of its members own a TV?	A. No	0	
	B. Yes	6	
8. Does the household or any of its members own a gas cylinder?	A. No	0	
	B. Yes	4	
9. Does the household or any of its members own a radio/cassette recorder?	A. No	0	
	B. Yes	2	
10. Does the household or any of its members own a washing machine?	A. No	0	
	B. Yes	5	
Total Score			

¹⁶ Source: Microfinance Risk Management, L.C., <http://www.microfinance.com>

Skilled surveyors need to be trained to conduct the survey with sensitivity when interviewing those that do not possess the household items. Removal of items that do not apply to the situation of the poorest groups will prevent the use of calculation formulas and results may end up being skewed.

- In some countries, the formulas and thresholds for the poverty scoring have not been widely disclosed in order to prevent manipulation of the questions by communities. This can result in a cloak of mystery about beneficiary selection because the community does not clearly understand what answers led to inclusion or exclusion from the programme.

TOPIC 4 IMPLEMENTATION OF CASH TRANSFER PROGRAMMES IN URBAN DISASTERS

Since many other resource guides detail the various steps of the cash and voucher project cycle, this section seeks to discuss specific implementation challenges and provide adaptable tools for urban projects. At the outset of a project, establishing clear roles and responsibilities for the urban cash programme will increase the projects' speed, transparency, and impact. An overview of information to be included in an urban cash programme's operational plan is provided in the annexes. Before reading further in the details of urban implementation, it may be helpful to review the key components needed in an operational plan.

Available Tool: Operational Plan for Urban Cash-Based Programmes (Overview of Topics to Include)

Estimating Household Asset Loss in Urban Environments

Traditionally, relief organisations think about household asset loss in terms of damage caused by the disaster, such as that to a home, productive assets, household items, or business. In urban areas, asset loss due to a disaster has different common

characteristics. Rural areas typically have single family home dwellings and damage is calculated by individual dwelling damage assessments. In urban areas, many families reside in multifamily buildings, informal settlements, or rentals. An estimation of urban asset loss should be expanded to include:

- ✓ House owner-occupier
- ✓ Apartment owner-occupier
- ✓ Apartment tenant
- ✓ Land tenant
- ✓ House tenant
- ✓ Occupancy with no legal status (squatting)
- ✓ Makeshift housing

Using a livelihoods analysis, household asset loss differs in urban settings, because urban families are less likely to own land and animals, which are major assets for rural population. In the urban environment assessment of livelihood/productive assets should include:

- ✓ Transportation assets: cars, bicycles, carts
- ✓ Kiosks and small vending stands

- ✓ In-home production: sewing, food preparation, packaging
- ✓ Casual labour equipment: tools, carts, uniforms, etc.

From a financial asset lens, urban households have surprisingly high levels of cash flow. Disasters can affect the financial system by reducing the amount of cash available for loans or reducing store credit availability. Households that regularly rely on these strategies will suffer from the impact of the disaster and will be unable to access their normal sources of cash savings or loans. Calculating household financial assets and liabilities should include:

- ✓ Loans: both interest-free and interest-bearing
- ✓ Wage advances
- ✓ Shop credit
- ✓ Remittances (both a savings strategy and income source)
- ✓ Formal savings accounts
- ✓ Household petty cash
- ✓ Placing cash with relatives/friends for safe keeping
- ✓ Rental arrears
- ✓ Debt

Selecting an Appropriate Cash Transfer Mechanism

Urban settings offer a multitude of financial institutions to partner with for cash or voucher programmes. Common transfer mechanisms in urban programmes include:

- ✓ Mobile phones
- ✓ SMART Cards – these contain beneficiary and program information on a magnetic strip or chip. They use the same point-of-sale electronic systems as ATMs or debit cards. Both of these cards usually require the purchase of specialised software to allow tracking of the point-of-sale transactions and recharging of funds. Point-of

Lesson Learned: Under-Reporting of Household Cash Flows

A research project across rural and urban locations in India and South Africa, collected evidence that demonstrate that households when asked about income and financial resources often under-report to strangers. This research found that under-reporting of cash flows occurred at rates between 50 and 350 percent in initial interviews. After six rounds of interviews, which built relationships and trust with the participants, the reported cash flows improved in accuracy to only a margin of error of 6 percent. The lesson for relief organizations, which often rely on a beneficiary selection application, post-distribution monitoring form, and end-of-project evaluation, is that full understanding of cash flows is unlikely with current methods. Therefore, humanitarian surveys calculating urban household asset loss and financial cash flows must be designed to counter the margins of error in self-reporting. In one view, household income data is often so inaccurate that it is little use to program designers, while others argue that even though the data is unreliable in absolute terms the proportions of expenditures are of use to program planners. Triangulating income data gathered from households with focus groups and key informant interviews will help to better understand the true income levels for various groups. In addition, analyzing income and expense data using proportional piling methodology to understand the percent of income gained from various sources and expenses for different categories can help to avoid the problems that under-reporting may cause.

Source: P.209, *Portfolios of the Poor* (2009)

sale-machines often use the local mobile phone networks for transmission of data.¹⁷

- ✓ Paper vouchers
- ✓ Checks
- ✓ Direct deposits into bank accounts

Common institutions contracted by relief organisations to conduct the transfers:

- ✓ Banks
- ✓ Post Offices
- ✓ Micro-lending organisations
- ✓ Remittance receipt/transfer agencies
- ✓ Money transfer businesses
- ✓ Mobile phone companies

Compare the shortlist of options for cost effectiveness and for ease of access for the beneficiaries. Cost effectiveness comparisons should include:

- ✓ Consideration of clear costs per beneficiary (card, check, transfer feeds)
- ✓ Hidden costs (withdrawal fees, contract signing fees, startup costs)

Options should be reviewed to determine the ranking of options in terms of preference for the beneficiary. Key considerations here include:

- ✓ Time to travel to the location to receive cash, and time to wait in line to receive transfer
- ✓ Proximity to beneficiary homes
- ✓ Flexibility of schedule of transfer—only one day to redeem or multiple days to redeem
- ✓ Portability of mechanism—can the transfer be redeemed if the family returns home, moves for livelihood reasons, etc.
- ✓ Exclusion errors—do the rules of any mechanism

¹⁷ For more information see the CaLP booklet on implementing cash through cards at <http://www.cashlearning.org/resources/library/235-delivering-cash-through-cards---a-quick-delivery-guide-booklet>

prevent certain groups from access the transfer site? What mitigations can be negotiated or implemented?

Available Tools: Evaluating Options of Transfer Mechanisms Matrix and Criteria

Paper Vouchers versus Electronic Transfers

Recently, organisations have shown a demonstrated decrease in costs when shifting from paper vouchers to electronic vouchers, such as mobile phone vouchers or Smart Card vouchers. The costs that are saved by the organisation are largely due to reduced numbers of staffing for distribution of vouchers on monthly basis, reduced staffing for monitoring of paper records at the shops and at the home office, and reduced costs for printing paper vouchers on a monthly basis. New technology can come with additional costs for equipment, software, and cards. The case study below provides insight from a prominent urban voucher programme on the benefits of switching from paper vouchers to an electronic system.

Tailoring the Value and Frequency of Payments to the Urban Setting

Setting a voucher value or cash transfer value will depend on three key factors: level of vulnerability, objective of the transfer (i.e., what costs are you trying to cover?), and family size. One level of vulnerability can be measured by looking at household income versus expenses in comparison to an average cost of basic goods, using market prices. In urban settings, it is crucial to factor in household expenses to understand vulnerability. Relying on income data only skews vulnerability for urban populations that have higher expenses than rural counterparts. In disaster settings, household assets are often considered beyond financial assets to include basic household items, such as cooking utensils, sleeping materials, and hygiene items. For livelihoods programmes, productive assets are also factored into the analysis, and the level of loss of productive assets due to disasters is an important

Case Study – Cash Transfer in Urban Conflict Setting Using Mobile Phones

Source: Agency for Technical Cooperation and Development (ACTED) in Cote d'Ivoire

In 2011, ACTED responded to the humanitarian emergency caused by post-election violence in Cote d'Ivoire in the communes of Abidjan, Abobo, and Yopougon, which are historically poor neighbourhoods that were heavily impacted by the crisis. Both neighbourhoods experienced fierce fighting, during which homes and shops were looted and burned and civilians displaced. The community of Abobo developed spontaneously as a result of economic migration from the Muslim north of the country and is centered around a major railway station. During the fighting in the spring of 2011, Abobo was a center of resistance to the Gbagbo government through the efforts of local partisans known as the "Invisible Commandos." On the other hand, Yopougon, the most populous section of Abidjan was pro-Gbagbo. ACTED implemented a programme to transfer 20,000 CFA (approximately USD44) to meet immediate food needs.

Cellular Transfer Mechanism: When registered in the programme, beneficiaries received a SIM card free of charge and an identification number. Once the transfers were made, beneficiaries accessed cash at MTN outlets using their SIM card and ID numbers. MTN provided this service for free. It was not necessary to own a cell phone to make the transaction. Beneficiaries could keep the SIM card and add cell phone minutes to it. Other NGOs involved in cash transfers chose to not work with MTN citing that it is in the company's advantage to distribute SIM cards and MTN stands to profit as beneficiaries use the cards for their communication needs. ACTED was satisfied with the programme because the phone transfers were an efficient, effective, and secure way to transfer funds to beneficiaries, despite the fact that cellular service had only recently resumed after being interrupted by the fighting. An advantage of this mechanism is that MTN uses its information management systems to regularly provide ACTED with a spreadsheet containing updated account information for all beneficiaries, listing dates of withdrawals and amounts dispersed.

This case study highlights how mobile phone transfers work, even without use of a phone. Also, the case study shows the added levels of reporting that are available for reconciliation and monitoring.

Case Study – the U.N. World Food Program's (WFP) Urban Voucher Program in the Occupied Palestinian Territories

In the occupied Palestinian territory (oPt) in 2011, the poorest families experienced stagnant living standards due primarily to the military occupation, which restricts movement, limits control of natural resources, and limits access to employment opportunities in Israel. The blockade on Gaza continued to severely damage economic opportunities for its population. In 2011, signs of nascent GDP growth in the West Bank were a positive trend. However, this growth did not have an immediate impact on the food security levels of the poorest populations. The 2010 WFP/FAO Socio-Economic and Food Security Survey estimated that 33 percent of the total oPt population was food insecure. While food insecurity levels in Gaza and the West Bank remained high, there was a measure of market stability, especially in the urban areas.

The West Bank voucher programme started in April 2009 and was designed to address issues with poor food consumption and low dietary diversity. In the West Bank, the food voucher activity assisted 35,000 non-refugee beneficiaries in selected urban areas in 2011. Beneficiaries received food vouchers worth USD 12 per month/per person. Food commodities that could be received through the programme included: bread, milk, yoghurt, white cheese, eggs, pulses, vegetable oil, and salt. **Since December 2010, WFP transitioned**

these families away from paper vouchers and provided them with a magnetic swipe-card, or an e-voucher. Shopkeepers received an electronic terminal, similar to a credit card machine. This system increased cost-efficiency and improved the analysis of purchasing patterns.

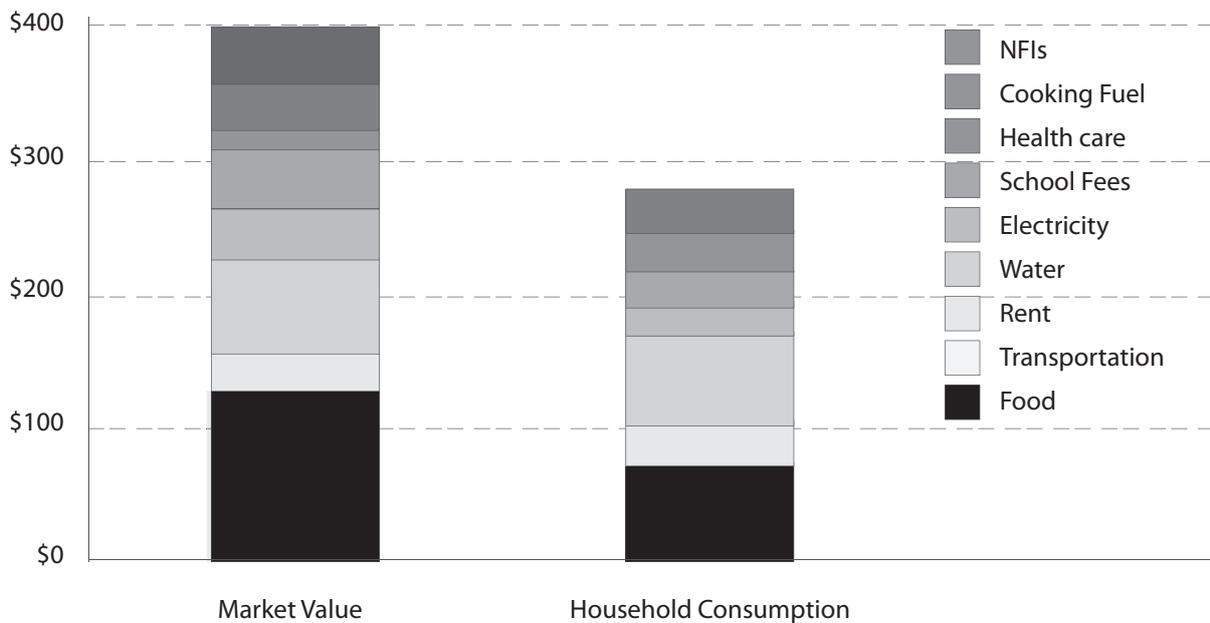
In Gaza, the Urban Voucher Program also had important outcomes for the local economy, particularly important as the economic blockade of the Gaza Strip continues to impede normal economic activity.

- The Urban Voucher Program participating shops’ sales increased by 62 percent (of which 38 percent can be attributed to the vouchers and the remaining 24 percent to the spill-over effects on the shops’ businesses, i.e., shop expansions made possible due to the capital gained by the voucher programme). Thirty-five additional employees were hired in shops participating in the programme, corresponding to an increase of employment from an average of 0.9 to 2.4 employees per shop, or one new employee for every 67 beneficiary households.
- At least 28 percent of the voucher value was spent on local Gaza production of eggs and white cheese, specifically. **Approximately USD 175,000 are injected into the Gaza economy on a monthly basis.**

This case study illustrates several key points of urban cash programming that have been reviewed in the toolkit. First, having clarity on the programme objective leads to clear and measurable results. Second, use of technology to transfer cash can result in cost-efficiencies and enable improved accounting, transparency, and monitoring. Third, in urban environments, particularly in conflict-affected urban environments, injecting cash into local market actors has secondary benefits to the economy and local community.

Source: WFP Fact Sheet on the E-Voucher Program (June 2011). Occupied Palestinian Territories Field Office.

Table 2 Example of how to use graphs to illustrate the difference between the market value for a basic household needs and average reported consumption by households surveyed. The gap between the market value and actual household consumption helps set the value of cash assistance provided.



calculation. Calculating the cash value of a grant or voucher should compare the cost of basic items on the local market with what is currently being purchased by the disaster-affected households. The grant should be calculated at the difference for this urban household, ensuring that categories are relevant to urban expenses. The principle here is that even after disasters households will endeavour to meet their family's basic needs, but often fall short and reduce consumption to levels below humanitarian standards.

In the example above, the household has a deficit of 125 units of local currency. As such, setting a grant value to provide for the 125 units through a cash grant, vouchers, or cash-for-work is rationale. Oxfam notes in its guidelines on cash programming that setting a food voucher or grant level equivalent to only the difference in the food market value versus consumption may not improve overall household recovery from disaster, as the other expense categories will be barriers to recovery.¹⁸

To make this calculation, use the urban expenses checklist below to help capture all relevant household expenses.

Available Tool: Checklist of Urban Expenses for Calculation of Cash Value

To the extent that this analysis can be done through a coordinated multi-agency discussion at the cluster-level or other coordination body, the better harmonised all actors will be with cash values. In addition to coordinating among agencies using a cash-based response, coordinating levels of assistance with in-kind actors is also important. At times beneficiaries prefer to receive a food aid ration, simply because the total value of the full ration exceeds what is being offered by food voucher or other cash-transfer programme.

Several factors will influence decisions related to the frequency of the payments. Typically, transfers for shelter items or other materials are a one-off payment

or a few sequential transfers linked to a fixed price for materials. Transfers to meet food needs or other reoccurring urban expenses, such as rent, school fees, or health care, are often made on a monthly basis. Transfers that support livelihoods recovery from disaster tend to have fewer disbursements with large amounts, to facilitate access to a lump sum of capital needed for small business recovery.

In-kind distributions rely on using an average household number or average family size because the logistics of procurement and transport require distribution in equal units of goods. Cash transfer programmes do not have the same logistical procurement challenges and can adapt the value of the cash transfer to the family size. In urban areas, this adjustment is particularly important because there is less collective sharing of resources due to the different social fabric of cities, in comparison to rural areas. In addition, research shows that cash resources are shared with others less frequently than food or other in-kind resources.¹⁹ Therefore, in order to achieve humanitarian outcomes a focus on adjusting for family size is important. In effect, using an average household number penalises large families.

Selecting and Vetting Private-Sector Partners

In urban settings, partnering with a private sector entity, either a company or financial institution, is often advantageous. In urban settings, understanding population dynamics can be overwhelming, and established private sector partners have already conducted market research on target audiences and may understand consumer behaviours well. Working with local businesses and systems supports these institutions in the post-disaster phase, fostering recovery rather than exclusion from the relief assistance. Aid workers need to adjust their traditional approaches to partnership when seeking to work with the private sector. Specifically, negotiation for services and contracts should be prepared for by the organisation. Transparency in bidding may also be needed to ensure equal

¹⁸ Oxfam's Cash Transfer Programming in Emergencies (2006).

¹⁹ Project evaluations from Concern's Zimbabwe projects.

Checklist – Urban Household Expenses	
	Food <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Dry food purchased and cooked at home – Hot meals purchased outside of home (from vendors, restaurants, etc.)
	Cooking Fuel <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Kerosene – Gas – Wood / charcoal
	Rent <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Monthly rent – Fees for arrears – Level of current arrears (how many months not paid?) – Fees to reverse eviction
	Utilities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Water bill – Water fees for delivery – Electricity bill – Debt to companies for past bills unpaid? – Sanitation tax or fees – Payment for removal of household waste – Mobile phone bill (how much credit purchased per week?) – Landline phone bill
	Household Items <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Cooking items (pots, pans, utensils, stove, gas canister) – Bathing items (buckets, water storage containers, basins) – Sleeping items (blankets, beds, sleeping mats, mattresses) – Mosquito Nets – Hygiene items (soap, sanitary napkins, toothpaste, shampoo, towels)

	School Fees <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Tuition – Uniforms – School meals – Books
	Health Care <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Clinic Examination costs – Laboratory costs – Medicine costs – Reoccurring? – Health insurance payments
	Social Costs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Funeral / burial costs – Church / mosque contributions – Community collections for public events
	Rebuilding or Reconstruction Costs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Cement – Wood – Roofing – Labour – Level of damage?
	Livelihood Costs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Banking fees – Capital (lost in disaster?) – Costs for rebuilding or purchasing livelihoods assets – Debt

opportunity, this would be similar to the approach used for typical procurement but may be more rigorous than the standard approach for selection of project partners. However, sole source procurement of services may be justified if the cost comparisons and beneficiary considerations narrow the options to only one that will meet all of the project’s aims.

Types of Private Sector Partners for Cash Programmes:

- ✓ Banks
- ✓ Micro-finance organisations
- ✓ Mobile phone companies

- ✓ Vendors (shop-keepers)
- ✓ Traders
- ✓ Remittance transfer companies

Typical Criteria for Selecting Private Partners:

- ✓ Cheapest cost per beneficiary
- ✓ Fastest distribution schedule
- ✓ Flexibility to ensure special considerations (no ID cards, provide dedicated teller, etc.)
- ✓ Provides all business and tax certifications
- ✓ Most fraud-resistant accounting procedures

Typical Criteria for Selecting Vendors (Voucher Programmes):

- ✓ Willingness to participate
- ✓ Sells some to all items approved by the project
- ✓ Sufficient capital and supply chains to increase stocks to meet the new demand generated
- ✓ Ability to accept vouchers in lieu of cash for a defined period until payments are made
- ✓ Products are of acceptable quality
- ✓ Proper sanitation
- ✓ Vendor has a trading license
- ✓ Vendor has bank account
- ✓ Inclusion of men and women

Available Tools: Generic Partner Vetting Checklist and Sample Contract with Financial Institution

Lessons learned in previous urban emergencies have highlighted the value in NGOs forming collective positions on fees and other specifics when contracting cash transfer institutions, such as a mobile phone company. In order to avoid the company charging NGOs differently for the same service, NGOs are encouraged to coordinate with other field offices on the specifics of payment and rates. For example, in Kenya NGOs are advocating that the fees per transfer not exceed 2 percent of the transfer amount. Coordination and joint negotiation

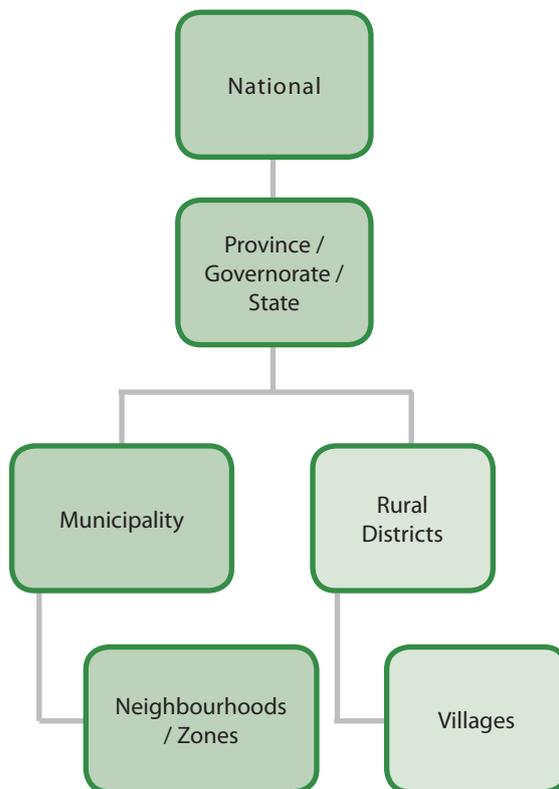
can achieve consistency in rates and ensure a common approach to the transfer system, ensuring a fair transfer process for beneficiaries.

Navigating Municipal Government Structures for Effective Coordination

Practitioners in urban cash programming consistently reported that a major difference with urban programming is that the organisation must invest time and qualified personnel to coordinate with multiple levels of local government to achieve positive programming outcomes. Government officials can be stakeholders, as well as gatekeepers. Neglecting to inform, coordinate, and collaborate may result in delays. The urban government structure is more complex than the rural governance structure.

Urban coordination on cash programming likely requires communication at the national, state, municipal, and neighbourhood levels.

Figure 4: Urban and Rural Governance Structures



For example, the national labour department will likely request that NGOs use the national wage rates for unskilled labour in their cash-for-work programmes and/or national poverty lines for beneficiary selection. At the neighbourhood level, beneficiary selection, sensitisation, and resolving complaints will be key areas of coordination and communication for the cash programme staff. The municipality level, particularly the Mayor's office, will want to be involved in ensuring sufficient coverage of the cities' population and coordination of programming with the various departments, such as sanitation, water, and social services.

Many organisations have found that urban coordination with the local structures requires a sufficiently senior level staff member, often the Country Director, to attend numerous meetings with government officials to ensure the project has local support. This should be planned for in advance with urban programmes planning to increase senior level staffing, such as with a Country Director and Deputy Country Director, who can both coordinate with the government structures.

Working with Government Systems

Relief programmes seek to work with existing structures during disaster responses to avoid the creation of parallel structures and to avoid undermining the local systems. Furthermore, relief agencies are obligated to work with local government, which bear primary responsibility for post-disaster relief assistance and protection of the population. However, two issues that urban cash implementers need to be particularly ready to engage with government on, are:

Wage rates. Government authorities often want aid agencies to use national wage rates for unskilled and skilled labour. The government often employs cadres of workers through public infrastructure programmes. On the one hand, relief organisations want to be equitable with their wage rates and opt to align their cash-for-work wages with the official rates. On the other hand, relief organisations want to encourage self-targeting in the cash-for-work programme and, therefore, must set rates below

the official rates to ensure that only those most in need of temporary employment will apply. A further complication is that the official wage rates are often higher, and in some cases much higher, than the unofficial wage levels for unskilled labour and skilled labour. This means that the private sector is employing labourers at a rate potentially much below the official rate. If relief organisations align with the official rate or even just below it, they are likely to be overpaying for labour in comparison with the private wage rates or unofficial rates. This can potentially impact a sector of labourers who do not normally work for the official wage levels and will reduce the effectiveness of the targeting scheme.

National poverty lines. Depending on the country, it may be useful to utilise the national poverty line as part of beneficiary selection criteria for the urban cash programme. Recent urban programmes have found that the relationship between poverty and food insecurity, and other problems caused by a disaster, is at best not well understood, making it potentially erroneous to use the poverty line as a criteria for selection. In addition, there are a number of ways to calculate the poverty line that can have implications for who is included or excluded depending on the particular statistic used. However, aligning emergency programme targeting criteria with the government social safety net criteria can be advantageous if the assistance provided is complementary and not duplicative.

Framework for Adapting the Cash Intervention to Adjust for Inflation in Urban Markets

Inflation is a common problem in urban market systems, and it impacts the populations immensely because they are cash dependent for their basic needs.

Definition of Inflation: the persistent, substantial rise in the general level of prices related to an increase in the volume of money and resulting in the loss of value of currency. According to the World Bank, inflation is often measured by the annual consumer price index (%) and reflects the annual percent change in the cost of a basket of goods

to the average consumer.²⁰ Simple price increases post-disaster would not be counted as countrywide inflation, and price increases need to be understood in terms of supply or demand issues.

A common problem in relief responses is analysis of fluctuating market prices. Often initial post-disaster reports state that markets are “totally destroyed” and “prices are skyrocketing.” Neither is usually true, it turns out, when investigated further. Analysing shifts in prices remains a mystery for many implementing organisations. The table below helps a non-

economic expert to walk through a situation where price increases have been documented to analyse the cause and potential effect of the fluctuation.

If aid agencies detect price increases for the goods targeted through the cash transfer programme, a steady price increase will result in a reduction in purchasing power. As a result, the objectives of the programme will likely be unmet if the value of the cash transfer is not adjusted for inflation. Adjusting for inflation should be done quarterly or bi-annually to ensure the price trends are consistent and not

Using Price Data to Diagnose Supply or Demand Side Market Problems			
Source: EMMA, section 8 Market Systems Analysis			
	Prices rising or much higher than baseline	Prices stable or similar to baseline	Prices falling or much lower than baseline
Volumes higher than baseline	<p>Demand is very strong. Supply response is good.</p> <p>Indicates market system is performing well. However, high prices may indicate that suppliers are still unable to satisfy surge in demand or the bottlenecks are increasing costs for traders.</p>	<p>Demand is very strong. Supply response is good.</p> <p>Indicates market is responding well in comparison with baseline: meeting increased needs without creating price distortions.</p>	<p>Demand is normal. Supply is excessive.</p> <p>Indicates system is being saturated by oversupply. This is most often caused when desperation causes people to sell labour, assets, or livestock, on poor terms.</p>
Volumes similar to baseline	<p>Demand is strong. Supply response is constrained.</p> <p>Indicates demand levels are normal but supply is insufficient to meet increased demand. Alternatively, bottlenecks are increases costs for traders.</p>	<p>Demand is normal. Supply is normal.</p> <p>Indicates little impact on market in comparison with baseline.</p>	<p>Demand is relatively weak. Supply is normal.</p> <p>Indicates (income) market system is being saturated due to weak demand.</p>
Volumes lower than baseline	<p>Demand normal or strong. Supply response weak.</p> <p>Indicates supply problems are severe. Despite high prices, supply is insufficient to satisfy either normal or increased demand.</p>	<p>Demand is weak. Supply response is uncertain.</p> <p>Indicates that demand is constrained: buyers probably lacking spending capacity.</p>	<p>Demand is very weak. Supply response is uncertain.</p> <p>Indicates that demand is highly constrained: buyers lack spending capacity.</p>

²⁰ <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/FP.CPI.TOTL.ZG>

just temporary shocks; this is easier for programmes addressing protracted crises than for programmes focusing on rapid-onset ones. Price and wage setting is an approach used by governments to control inflation. When working in a country that uses fixed

pricing, it is likely that voucher or cash programmes will utilise those prices. Programme staff need to be aware of when the government makes changes to the prices, which can be on a monthly basis.

CASE STUDY – ACF’s Approach to Dealing with Inflation in its Urban Voucher Program in West Bank

In an urban voucher programme in four urban areas in oPt, ACF anticipated issues with inflation and followed the guidelines below.

- ✓ If inflation is contained and the increase is consistent with historic values, ACF will revise the price list with vendor shops at the end of the 6-month period. In order to plan for this financially, ACF’s project budget contained a 10 percent contingency to deal with inflationary demands.
- ✓ If inflationary increases in prices resulted in the voucher purchasing power reductions of 20 percent, ACF would revisit the project modality. If this scenario transpired, ACF would have reconsidered the project effectiveness and either increased the voucher value by injecting new funds, after negotiating with the donor, or reverted to providing food rations to beneficiaries.

Source: Urban Voucher Programme (UVP) project documents for West Bank

TOPIC 5 FRAUD AND CORRUPTION PREVENTION IN URBAN SETTINGS

Humanitarian practitioners, donors and other stakeholders continue to cite corruption as a top concern for urban cash transfers. Identified corruption risks in urban cash transfer programmes include fraudulent beneficiary selection, manipulation of cash transfer processes, and bribery from intermediaries. For voucher programmes, reported risks included counterfeiting of vouchers, discounting of vouchers to—particularly when beneficiaries lacked basic literacy—and sale of unauthorised items. Corruption is not unique to cash transfers or to urban settings. Endemic corruption is both a cause and a consequence of poverty in many relief contexts, both urban and rural. As a result, constant vigilance related to corruption throughout the project cycle is fundamental to good humanitarian practice, regardless of context and type of transfer. As expressed in interviews, all programme stakeholders—from beneficiaries, community members, vendors, and programme staff—are susceptible to corruption but can also prevent corruption. In this section, the different forms of corruption and fraud are defined and discussed. In addition, practical tools to strengthen fraud and corruption prevention and detection within urban cash transfer programmes are provided.

Preventing Corruption in Cash Transfer Programmes: Despite the perception of heightened risk, urban cash transfer programmes have advantages related to corruption prevention and mitigation. Cash transfer programming does not have the same logistical challenges of procurement, transport, and storage of goods, all of which have been historical trouble spots for corruption. Some concerns related to corruption are over staff unfamiliarity with cash transfer programmes.

Evidence that cash transfer programmes are not necessarily riskier than direct distribution programmes is being documented. As Transparency International²¹ reported:

Cash is an inherently more attractive kind of transfer to try to intercept, but in many cases agencies that use cash transfer programs have developed robust mechanisms for preventing the diversion of cash, and cash can be distributed in a much less public way than food usually is.

²¹ P. 15. Transparency International, Feinstein International Center, and Humanitarian Policy Group. (2008).

Therefore, it is perceived as a lower risk for corruption.

What urban factors increase corruption and fraud? The urban environment presents specific challenges related to corruption. For example, the more anonymous nature of urban life, as opposed to rural life, can make it more difficult to determine who is vulnerable and, indeed, who is from the targeted group or geography. As a result, savvy beneficiaries may seek to register for more than one distribution. Also, the anonymity of the urban environment can make it easier for beneficiaries to manipulate the situation because it is often unclear who is a member of a given community. The complex nature of the informal economy in cities can make improper arrangements between staff and beneficiaries easier to enter into and more difficult to detect. At present, the humanitarian community has more experience in rural implementation than in urban implementation. Systems, procedures, and expertise currently reflect a rural bias in programming. Adjusting systems and processes to urban contexts is advisable to mitigating the risk of corruption.

Political Pressures to Divert Aid. Extensive presence of government in urban areas can lead to more pressure from authorities to channel aid for political or personal advantage. Government officials may be more likely to intervene on behalf of individuals who are dissatisfied with the programme or feel cheated. NGOs with urban offices have reported that urban beneficiaries are more likely to advocate on their own behalf, either by visiting the agency in person or indirectly through government officials or local organisations. Humanitarians working in urban environments must be prepared for this challenge and ensure that staff have adequate communication skills to handle complaints. Interactions with the community, when handled correctly, can be an opportunity for sensitisation, relationship building, and gaining information about potential fraud or corruption in programme operations.

Key Definitions

Corruption: A challenge in addressing corruption in humanitarian relief is that the definition of corruption

varies significantly between individuals and cultures. Ensuring that both staff and beneficiaries have common standard definitions that distinguish between corruption and acceptable practice is important. Transparency International defines corruption as “the abuse of entrusted power for private gain.”²² This definition includes theft from programmes, fraud (i.e., manipulation of records for financial gain), bribery or kickbacks, as well as “non-financial” forms of corruption including exploitation (and bias in targeting practices) or allocation of aid for personal, family, or political gain.

Fraud is “the act of intentionally deceiving someone in order to gain an unfair or illegal advantage (financial, political, or otherwise)”²³. Urban cash or voucher programmes must be carefully designed to manage the risk of fraud through manipulation of documentation. Humanitarian practitioners have reported fraud from both staff, in terms of manipulated program records, and beneficiaries, including attempts to counterfeit vouchers. Strong internal controls are fundamental to protection against employee fraud. Carefully designed vouchers, combined with strong internal organisation, protect against beneficiary fraud in voucher programmes.

Exploitation refers to humanitarian aid workers using their position of relative power to demand goods or services from beneficiaries. Exploitation often involves pressure to provide non-monetary favours, such as labour or sexual contact in exchange for relief services. Exploitation and other forms of abuse and violence may also be present in the urban context that beneficiaries live and work in on a daily basis. Aid agencies are obligated by humanitarian principles to attempt to identify channels of exploitation, and ensure that provision of assistance does not expose beneficiaries to increased risk of exploitation. In cash programming, examples of this include a landlord exploiting the tenant for higher rent when it is known that they are receiving a cash stipend, or a neighbourhood gang member exploiting beneficiaries to purchase goods for them

²² Ibid

²³ P. 158. Transparency International (2008)

with cash or vouchers. Checkpoints and “taxes” by military or armed actors are common in conflict contexts and must be identified. They are clear points of exposure to exploitation for beneficiaries.

Communicating About Corruption. Aid agencies have not yet learned to effectively communicate about corruption with staff and beneficiaries. A fundamental element of confusion is that, in practice, “zero tolerance” of corruption is often conflated with “zero communication,” particularly by frontline staff.²⁴ Formal systems that allow anonymous communication of threats, such as complaint boxes and hotlines, can facilitate increased flow of information about corruption. However, country-level management needs to model effective communication about possibilities of corruption to help build staff capacity to discuss the risks and mitigation protocols. Management needs to be aware of their own emotions in addressing corruption issues, because corruption is often an emotional issue for staff. This is due to concerns about job security and the pressure that many national staff face to provide for their families in a difficult economic environment. Corruption is also an affront to many social, religious, and cultural mores. Even though communication about corruption is difficult, it is absolutely essential. Prevention of corruption requires not only careful attention to corruption in programme design, but ongoing adjustments to policies and procedures to adapt controls to the realities of the environment.

Corruption and the Project Cycle

Corruption mitigation strategies for urban cash transfer programmes must encompass the entire project cycle. Particularly at the programme elements:

- ✓ Assessment
- ✓ Targeting
- ✓ Beneficiary Selection
- ✓ Cash Transfer
- ✓ Monitoring and Evaluation

Corruption and Cash Transfer Methods

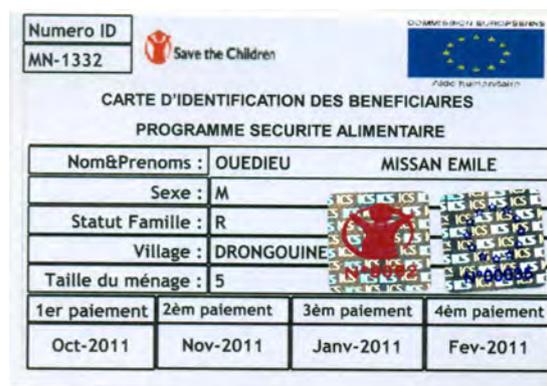
Each of the cash transfer mechanisms has strengths and weaknesses in terms of managing the risk of corruption. Programme design and implementation must be informed by the risks inherent to the method of transfer. For each of the major instruments, the risks identified by practitioners, as well as strategies for mitigation, are summarised below.

While the potential for fraud and corruption in humanitarian assistance exists, proven strategies to mitigate the risks are also well known. Agencies in the field continue to strengthen methods to manage risks in cash programming. Advocacy is needed to educate donors, both institutional and private, on the current best practice in fraud detection and prevention in humanitarian operations.

Figure 5: Example of a Fraud Resistant Beneficiary ID Card (Save the Children’s Cote D’Ivoire Cash Program)

CASH CARD EXAMPLE (image on right)
 Fraud Resistant Features:

- ✓ Hologram stickers (2 different ones)
- ✓ Serial Number
- ✓ 2 different logos (design and color different)
- ✓ Boxes at the bottom that can be punched to indicate payment receipt or monitoring



²⁴ P. 23. Transparency International (2008)

Programmatic Phase	Risk	Mitigation
Assessment/ Targeting	<p>Fraud: Inaccurate information that leads to inappropriate prioritisation</p> <p>Political Corruption: Government officials direct agencies to the “most affected areas” within their constituencies</p>	<p>Clear targeting criteria</p> <p>Use of different teams to target, distribute, and verify</p> <p>Independent assessments by NGOs to verify government-provided lists and assessment information</p>
Beneficiary Selection	<p>Fraud: Registration of individuals for reasons other than selection criteria</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – “Ghost beneficiaries” – Registration of friends and family of staff <p>Exploitation: Inappropriate demands in exchange for registration (i.e. registration fees)</p>	<p>Organised beneficiary selection process that is structured to include checks and balances</p> <p>Verification of beneficiary lists</p> <p>Monitoring and evaluation conducted by independent, non-project staff</p> <p>Community sensitisation on how beneficiaries are selected and that registration is free</p>
Finance	<p>Delays in wire transfer to earn interest by staff at financial institution</p> <p>Unsolicited payments from transfer company, local partner, or financial institutions</p> <p>Corruption: Theft of project cash at any point before cash is received by beneficiaries</p>	<p>Ensure standardised timing for transfers</p> <p>Scrutiny of extended or inconsistent transfer times</p> <p>Strong internal controls and separation of responsibilities within the finance unit</p> <p>Random, unannounced spot checks of financial records</p> <p>Scrutiny of gaps in records or computer “crashes” in which data is lost</p>
Operations – Logistics	<p>Bribes or unsolicited payments related to the sourcing of cash transfer mechanisms (i.e., in return for preferential treatment for one cell phone company versus another)</p>	<p>Ensure that procurement procedures are adhered to for financial institution or transfer company</p>
Monitoring and Evaluation	<p>Fraud: Deliberate falsification of documents or manipulation of M&E processes to prevent the detection of fraud in the programme</p> <p>Fraud: Failure to implement SOPs on M&E to prevent the detection of fraud in the programme</p>	<p>Separation of M&E responsibilities from implementation staff</p> <p>Close, ongoing relationship with community to ensure that concerns come to the attention of NGO staff</p> <p>Complaint mechanism in place, such as complaint boxes or a hotline, to provide a safe, anonymous way for the community to communicate with NGO management</p>

Available Tool: Complaint Mechanism Log Template and Protocols for Responding

Method	Risk	Mitigation
Cash Transfer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Payments solicited from beneficiaries in exchange for transfer – Transfers to non-existent beneficiaries – Illegal “tax” on cash received by government officials, military, or powerful members of the community – Bribes from transfer institution to influence selection – Fraud: Changes in banking reports or other documentation to hide leakage or diversions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Consistent sensitisation on right to aid and on cash transfer process – Separation of responsibility between beneficiary selection and cash transfer functions – Open communication with community and immediate response when problems arise – Audit of records from transfer institution – Pre-screening of transfer institution to ensure they are reputable and follow the national laws and regulations
Voucher Programmes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Discounting vouchers: Providing goods or services for less than the face value of vouchers, allowing the vendor to profit – Forced sale of voucher – Duplication/counterfeiting of vouchers – Vendor collusion: To conspire to set prices for voucher programme goods or deliver lower quality goods than agreed upon 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Clear indication of voucher denomination, such as through clear labeling and the use of different coloured paper for different monetary values – Thorough communication with merchants, beneficiaries, and community – Sensitisation strategy for most vulnerable, least educated beneficiaries – Voucher design to make duplication difficult, using system of serial numbers, stamps, and other features such as hard to find paper and holograms – Close supervision of printing process to prevent voucher duplication by staff – Minimise time between issuing vouchers to beneficiaries and recovering them from merchants – Mechanism in place, such as complaint boxes or a hotline, to provide a safe, anonymous way for staff and the community to communicate with management
Cash-for-Work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Unsolicited payments in exchange for enrollment – Nontransparent or corrupt process in selection of job (i.e., whose road is getting cleared and why?) – “Ghost workers” (i.e., attendance and payment records manipulated to include workers who were not present), allowing additional payments to be pocketed by staff – Paying less than the agreed wage to beneficiaries, often with a plausible excuse, such as “fees for government” or “safety equipment purchased” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Thorough understanding of the community – Check and balances, audits of registration and payment documents – Surprise visits to sites for verification of registration and identity – Ensure that beneficiaries know the wage rates – Internal controls in the payment process

TOPIC 6 MONITORING AND EVALUATION FOR URBAN CASH PROGRAMMES

This section provides information and guidance on the monitoring and evaluation of urban cash and voucher programmes. The purpose of monitoring and evaluation is to ensure that the programme activities were carried out effectively and achieved the project objective. Although the terms are often used together, it is important to distinguish between monitoring and evaluation. Monitoring is done during the project to verify that the activities are taking place and are supporting the desired objectives. Monitoring helps identify what midcourse corrections are necessary. Evaluation, on the other hand, is performed after the project and will inform the design of future programmes. In an urban cash or voucher programme, core questions are:

- 1) Did the intended beneficiaries receive the transfer in the correct amount?
- 2) Did the transfer process meet the needs of the beneficiaries? Can it be improved?
- 3) What did the beneficiaries actually purchase?
- 4) If program objectives been met and to what degree. For example, has nutrition improved or have shelters been rebuilt?

Monitoring and evaluation takes resources and time. Urban environments create additional challenges for monitoring and evaluation due to their complexity, but also provide opportunities to realise efficiencies due to stronger communication networks and proximity to beneficiaries and market stakeholders.

Multilayered strategy. A multitiered strategy for receiving beneficiary feedback is recommended, the strategy can include one-on-one interviews with some beneficiaries at their residence, phone calls to a wider number of beneficiaries, and potentially text messages to a much broader number of beneficiaries. The one-on-one interviews should be an important source of qualitative information about the intervention. Staff should seek to fill out the assigned form, but should also be looking for additional details about the results of the intervention. At each stage, the project will receive a different level of feedback from beneficiaries.

Post-transfer monitoring. This process is similar to post-distribution monitoring and aims to confirm receipt of the initial tranche of funds, gather further information on household needs and recovery, and allow for any problems to be corrected before the program moves forward. Post-transfer monitoring can include reconciliation of the transfer records and

in-person verification of a percentage of the case load. Do not neglect to ask basic questions, such as: "How much did you receive?"

When and how often? Post-transfer monitoring should take place after every major group of transfers or every voucher distribution. A percentage of the beneficiaries need to be contacted to ensure that the transfer mechanisms are functioning, that the beneficiaries are getting the resources, and that there are no major problems. More in-depth monitoring with beneficiaries should take place at regular intervals during the programme cycle, as well as after implementation to assess the effect of the intervention. In general, following the same principles as outlined in the verification section of using different teams or staff to conduct monitoring of the project and ensuring independent lines of reporting to key decision-makers is a good practice. Monitoring can also be out-sourced to community-based organisations, possibly adding a level of community accountability to the project.

Methods. Use varied methods in monitoring and evaluation because each method may inform different aspects of the intervention more clearly. Household visits, cell phone calls, and text message monitoring of beneficiaries can all be used in the same programme. Post-intervention cross-checks and audits of programme documents are needed to ensure the distribution functioned as staff reported. In voucher programmes, monitoring of vendors can be facilitated by requiring vendors to record what beneficiaries purchased with the vouchers. These records can be cross-checked with beneficiaries and help to answer questions, such as: Are vouchers being exchanged at a discount and what goods are beneficiaries purchasing?

Text message monitoring. Text message monitoring often involves sending a simple question to verify whether or not the beneficiary received the transfer. With text message monitoring, process is critical. It is important to have a designated cell phone with a designated number to be used exclusively for monitoring. The phone must have adequate memory to handle a high volume of text messages. For text message monitoring, it is *critical* that more than one staff member independently verify the

text messages to reduce the risk of manipulation of messages for fraudulent purposes.

Monitoring via transaction records. When using technologies such as ATM cards, checks, mobile phone money transfer, or other remittance transfer systems, it is necessary to monitor the transactions via records. Foresight into what will be monitored, who will monitor, and recording information is needed during the project setup. Negotiate with the money transfer partner to receive the type of records and schedule for provision that is needed. Agreement on costs for correcting mistakes is best done during contractual negotiations. This step is often thought of as a financial department task, but it is best if programmes and finance cooperate to monitor this activity together. Effective use of transaction records requires a different mindset from in-kind post-distribution monitoring.

Voucher vendor monitoring. In addition to monitoring purchase records of voucher vendors, it is often helpful to interview beneficiaries about their experiences with vendors. Monitoring vendor prices before and during an intervention is also important if price inflation is a concern. Using "secret shoppers" (i.e., staff posing as beneficiaries) can help to determine if vendors are treating beneficiaries well, are exchanging vouchers on equitable terms, and are not selling antisocial goods to beneficiaries.

Common course corrections. Monitoring will help to identify unintended issues in the programme, and this should be a constructive process where midcourse adjustments can be made. Common aspects of the programme that were strengthened or adjusted after monitoring include community mobilisation and sensitisation (i.e., what information beneficiaries were told about the intervention and *how* they learned about it) and the voucher format (i.e., denomination, color, and printing of vouchers to ensure that value of vouchers was clearer to illiterate beneficiaries). Other course corrections could include putting increased restrictions on vouchers, such as fresh food only, adding commodities, or changing the schedule of payments to meet the objective.

Unintended or antisocial spending. Antisocial or unwise spending is a risk in cash distributions.

Antisocial spending is counter to the humanitarian objectives of the programme and can often interfere with compliance to donor regulations. Vouchers can (and should) be written to exclude the purchase of alcohol, tobacco, other addictive substances or weapons. For cash transfers, beneficiaries can be sensitised to discourage antisocial spending, and in programmes involving multiple transfers antisocial spending can, in extreme cases, be grounds for expulsion of a beneficiary from the programme.

Available Tool: Sample Post-transfer Monitoring Forms and Shop Monitoring Form

Overview of Challenges in Monitoring and Evaluation in Urban Settings

Overall, monitoring and evaluation techniques commonly used in cash transfer programmes work well in urban settings. However, urban projects can capitalise on the presence of technology, specifically cell phone usage among beneficiaries to improve monitoring practices. For example, simple text message questions can check the amount of cash received by beneficiaries rapidly and spot any inconsistencies with the intended cash transfer amount. Furthermore, once beneficiary selection and verification processes have been correctly established, monitoring for programme compliance and impact can be relatively easy in urban settings as less travel to multiple locations is required.

Evaluating the impact of the programme on the overall urban disaster-affected population can be challenging because obtaining data that demonstrate impact for the selected beneficiaries in comparison to non-selected ones can be difficult. Furthermore, the myriad of urban challenges such as violence, urban poverty, slums, and food insecurity can be difficult to interpret and isolate for evaluation.

Market Monitoring

Within the humanitarian community, market monitoring is a required, standard practice for market-oriented programmes. The Minimum

Economic Recovery Standards provide the following guidance,

“markets are dynamic, particularly in crisis environments, requiring ongoing monitoring of the market system and the targeted enterprises or households to identify emerging opportunities or constraints. Regular monitoring will help interventions determine how best to adjust investments for the greatest impact. Effective strategies can range from tracking changes in the availability of services and input supplies that are critical to small farmers, to local price monitoring and meetings with regional wholesalers, to more complicated tracking of regional and international commodity prices and trends.”²⁵

Market monitoring for urban projects may be easier than in rural programmes, as the government routinely collects price information in large cities and economic hubs and distance to markets may be shorter and allow in-person collection of price information in the specific market of interest.

Why should cash programmes monitor market prices and dynamics?

- to understand if the cash intervention is causing inflation or other negative impacts in the food market
- to understand the actual purchasing power of the cash transfer for the beneficiaries

Price Monitoring for Cash Programmes

Collect existing data sets from any source that is responsible for price monitoring. Government sources include bureau of trade and industry, agricultural departments, statistics units, or all three. The data might need to be electronically input and graphed to show trends. Check on seasonality of price data. Include locally appropriate commodities, both basic food and non-food needs. Check whether the government or other agencies are monitoring market prices, and harmonise with these systems where possible, supporting the improvement of existing systems or adaptation to fit the disaster context. Government systems might be good, but

²⁵ The SEEP Network (2010)

constrained by lack of staff or computers to store or graph the data.

Compare at least three different outlets in each location (private trader, government-managed cooperative, and the informal market). In other contexts, another sampling strategy may be required to monitor price trends in different outlets. Consider where people get their commodities from and whether this changes according to availability or price. Create formats for data collected from markets. The prices that go into the existing spreadsheets will come from raw data collection forms from each market. Each price collected on these data collection formats should be the *average price among three sources* for each commodity.

Wholesale prices (from wholesalers) should be monitored in addition to retail prices. Retail prices are important for knowing what people's basic needs actually cost, as most poor people buy retail. Wholesale price monitoring is useful for regional market comparisons. Establish standard units of measurement. The units of measurement used by traders in the market will be the same as people use at home, but they may be different from the units used by government price monitoring systems. Make sure that the conversion factors are clear, and ask the field monitors to collect the price of whatever unit is used in the market, and to convert it *on a duplicate form* into a standard unit of measurement.

Market monitoring data should be collected weekly and the weekly prices recorded and graphed. Missing data should be left as blank rather than a zero. Later, when the situation is more stable, prices should still be collected weekly, but the trend can focus on monthly price changes. Each monthly price being the average of the four weeks of data collected for that month.

Available Tool: Monthly Price Monitoring Form

Evaluating Impact of Urban Cash Transfer Programmes

There is no one way to evaluate an urban cash transfer programme. However, there are several

urban specific questions to consider in cash evaluations.

- ✓ Did the urban cash transfer programme target the most vulnerable households?
- ✓ Did the cash injected into the economy benefit the urban markets and local economy?
- ✓ Did the urban project achieve the project objectives?
- ✓ Did the urban project reach humanitarian standards relevant to the project, such as Sphere Standards? If not, was it due to urban-specific problems?
- ✓ Was the use of cash in the urban project more cost effective than in-kind distributions? Did it achieve the objectives more efficiently?
- ✓ Did the project utilise technology to improve accountability, fraud proofing, and beneficiary satisfaction?
- ✓ Were corruption and fraud risks managed effectively?

Common Unintended Consequences to Review in an Evaluation

- ✓ Look for impacts on rural populations from urban cash programmes, such as migration into urban areas and/or changes in agricultural labour force.
- ✓ Look for impacts on the labour market and private sector businesses that rely on unskilled labour.
- ✓ Analyse any large exclusion errors to understand if factors of urban poverty or marginalisation led to exclusion from the project.
- ✓ Urban conflict over project due to proximity of beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries.
- ✓ Corruption or inaccurate beneficiary selection may impact urban political structures.

Unintended consequences are a reality and must be documented and addressed to further collective practice.

Disaster Assistance Committee (DAC) Criteria for Humanitarian Evaluations

1. Relevance / Appropriateness

Is the project in line with local needs and priorities? Appropriateness is the tailoring of humanitarian activities to local needs, increasing ownership, accountability and cost-effectiveness accordingly.

2. Connectedness

The need to ensure that activities of a short-term emergency nature are carried out in a context that takes longer-term and interconnected problems into account.

3. Coherence

The need to assess security, developmental, trade and military policies, as well as humanitarian policies, to ensure that there is consistency and, in particular, that all policies take into account humanitarian and human-rights considerations.

4. Coverage

The need to reach major population groups facing life-threatening suffering wherever they are.

5. Efficiency

Efficiency measures the outputs—qualitative and quantitative—achieved as a result of inputs. This generally requires comparing alternative approaches to achieving an output, to see whether the most efficient approach has been used.

6. Effectiveness

Effectiveness measures the extent to which an activity achieves its purpose, or whether this can be expected to happen on the basis of the outputs. Implicit within the criterion of effectiveness is timeliness.

7. Impact

Impact looks at the wider effects of the project—social, economic, technical, and environmental—on individuals, gender and age groups, communities and institutions. Impacts can be intended and unintended, positive and negative, macro (sector) and micro (household).

Source: ODI (2006).

Available Tool: Sample Format for Program Evaluation

TOPIC 7 COORDINATION OF URBAN CASH TRANSFER PROGRAMMES

While coordination of humanitarian actors post-disaster is always a major undertaking and challenge, several factors often seem particularly challenging in urban settings. In urban emergencies:

- More agencies are working in a smaller geographic space, and it is more difficult to divide responsibilities by village or district.
- Urban disasters are often high profile, quick onset disasters that attract many agencies—resulting in competition over areas of implementation, and confusion over gaps and coverage.
- Cash is difficult to coordinate, because it can be used for multiple objectives and does not fit neatly into the cluster system.

At present cash programming is coordinated in a variety of mechanisms, all dependent on the specific dynamics of the disaster, and the capacities of the U.N. or other agencies on the ground.

- **Cash Focal Points:** The Cash Learning Partnership (CaLP) has deployed cash experts to serve as in-country focal points on cash-based programming. The model has been used in Kenya, the Philippines, Pakistan, and Haiti.

- **Cash-for-work and Cash Programming Cluster:** In a few circumstances, the U.N. Country Team has created a separate cluster for cash programming, including a separate cash cluster appeal for funding and reporting mechanisms. This model is currently in place in the oPt, and is coordinated by the U.N. Relief and Works Agency for Palestinian Refugees, who is the largest implementer of cash.
- **Coordination of Cash Issues within Various Clusters:** Some clusters organise sub-clusters of implementers using cash to achieve the aims of the sector, such as cash grants for shelter reconstruction or food vouchers. This model was utilised in the West Sumatra Earthquake in 2009.

In several country contexts, international NGOs have formed steering committees or advisory groups that have coordinated points of advocacy on cash. NGO steering committees or advisory groups have negotiated with government counterparts on issues such as application of taxation or workman's compensation regulations to cash programming. Countries such as Kyrgyzstan, Sudan, Haiti, and Pakistan have recent experience with these types of NGO-led advisory groups.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Use of cash-based programming in urban environments has significant advantages over other forms of relief assistance. However, the difficulties associated with beneficiary selection and appropriate targeting in urban settings can impede cash-based programmes. Overcoming the persistent rural bias in humanitarian work is a collective necessity, as urban risk to disaster is higher than ever before. This toolkit has endeavoured to provide practical guidance on overcoming some of the most challenging factors of operating in an urban environment.

From research amongst practitioners, it is clear that the potential for scaling-up urban humanitarian responses in the future is anticipated. Cash is also anticipated to play a substantial role in responding to future urban emergencies, as it has proven to be an effective form of assistance that supports markets, lays foundations for early recovery, and meets the needs of urban disaster-affected populations. As the humanitarian community continues to evolve best practices around both urban responses and cash-based interventions, further lessons will be learned and experiences collected.

Suggestions for donors:

- Develop urban humanitarian policies or guidelines that cover all lifesaving sectors, and disseminate to implementing partners.
- Move towards evaluating urban proposals using separate criteria for urban and rural interventions in order to ensure that urban-appropriate criteria and approaches are being employed by the proposing agencies.
- Aggregate funding by urban and rural, and disaggregate funding for cash transfer programmes by modality (cash-for-work, vouchers, cash grants), to allow for meta-level analysis, advocacy, and reflection by the humanitarian community.
- Monitor and evaluate beneficiary selection criteria and vulnerability for urban-appropriateness and ability to reach the most vulnerable.
- Reduce donor-restrictions and institutional resistance to using conditional cash grants to enable taking programmes to scale in urban settings.
- Apply equitable levels of scrutiny to cash and in-kind programmes. Strengthened oversight of all forms of humanitarian assistance is needed using a risk management approach rather than risk aversion.
- When making funding decisions, understand the problems with humanitarian indicators and thresholds for urban populations and endeavour to analyse the problems within the larger urban demographics.
- Support the review and adaptation of various humanitarian needs classification systems to better inform on urban hazards and risks. For example, the Food Security and Humanitarian

Phase Classification (IPC) is a standardised scale that integrates food security, nutrition, and livelihood information into a common classification of the severity of acute food insecurity outcomes. It can be used to highlight priority areas and populations in need of emergency response that have been identified based on food security analysis.²⁶ At present, this early warning system provides an essential analysis of humanitarian crises at a macro-level. Similar to how macro-level data masks pockets of crisis within urban communities, the IPC maps treat urban areas as a single unit of analysis rather than a complex network of populations and communities that include some extremely vulnerable groups.

- Be flexible on outcomes of urban cash programmes, given the multitude of livelihood strategies, high household expenses, and fluid self-recovery of beneficiaries.

Suggestions for implementing agencies:

- Develop urban policies or guidance for staff to promote preparedness for response in urban areas.
- Share evaluations from urban cash programmes widely to inform the collective knowledge base.
- Continue to develop improved methods for targeting, selection, verification and monitoring, using new technologies.

²⁶ The Famine Early Warning Network (FEWS NET) <http://www.fews.net/ml/en/info/pages/scale.aspx>

- Convene preparedness committees in cities with high urban risk where several humanitarian agencies are already operational.
- Revisit the Inter-Agency Standing Committee's Action Plan for Meeting Humanitarian Challenges in Urban Areas, set forth in 2010 to identify additional areas for collaboration, improvements, and advocacy.
- Aggregate funding by urban and rural to allow tracking the proportion of relief assistance going into each environment.
- Continue to harmonise cash values, selection criteria, and other programme elements through informal and formal cash coordination mechanisms.
- Utilise existing guidelines and standards on market-oriented programming and humanitarian programming, such as the SEEP Network's Minimum Economic Recovery Standards.
- Advocate for consideration of urban emergency situations using neighbourhood-level of analysis, rather than analysis at the entire city-level, to highlight acute emergency conditions that compel humanitarian response.
- Make linkages with organisations that work on poverty alleviation in urban settings in the development sector to foster integrated understanding of urban risk to disaster and pre-disaster vulnerabilities.
- Conduct in-house training and continuous learning forums on cash and urban issues that include operations, finance, logistics, security, and programme staff.

ANNEXES

ANNEX I TRAINING AGENDA AND FACILITATOR'S NOTES

Urban Cash and Voucher Toolkit			Activities
Time	Learning Objective		
30 minutes	Introduction	Brief overview of entire toolkit and review of modules that will be covered and familiarity with response decision-making tools for urban cash projects.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Short presentation of content and learning objectives for the entire toolkit or the selected modules that you have chosen to cover. ● Review the response analysis decision trees and discuss how they apply to a few contexts that your group is familiar with.
45 minutes	Focus Area 1: Urban Rapid Assessment	<p>Understand how assessments in urban areas differ from rural areas.</p> <p>Understand four key steps to an urban assessment for a cash or voucher program: 1) city mapping, 2) focus group to understand vulnerability, 3) household level survey, and 4) market analysis and mapping.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Provide a general overview of the reasons humanitarian assessments should make adjustments to our usual assessment methodology in urban environments. Particularly important are concepts of "urban poverty" and "invisible urban populations." ● Review sector objectives of an assessment and common assessment types. ● Review the four recommended steps from this toolkit on how to conduct a rapid urban assessment.

45 minutes	Focus Area 2: City Geographic and Livelihoods Zoning	Describe different ways to gather information on a cities key economic and social features. Understand how to divide a city into smaller areas for improved analysis and decision making.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Give participants a chance to read through the Focus Group Discussion Questionnaire (Annex in Tool-Kit). Break group into four groups, have each group prepare to role-play the four different parts of the focus group: community mapping, neighbourhood information, social networks, and food basket. ➢ Tip: Ask the group members to answer the questions using their own knowledge from their own community, to have a more realistic discussion. ➢ Make sure to limit each group's role-play to 5- 10 minutes, you will have to cut them off. ➢ Debrief with the whole group and have the facilitator point out the techniques that were positive, and areas to improve.
45 minutes	Focus Area 3: Urban Vulnerability and Developing Household Surveys	Demonstrate knowledge of at least four strategies for understanding urban vulnerability. Describe common problems in understanding urban vulnerability.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Discuss purposeful targeting strategies to ensure assessment of hidden vulnerable groups. ● Discussion of community-based targeting versus individual versus livelihoods or other group targeting in different contexts, such as with a conflict overlay, rapid-onset disaster; IDP/Refugee situation, etc. ● Brainstorm different characteristics of rural and urban vulnerability in the country that you are training in (or focusing on as an organisation). ● Analyse current surveys, questionnaires, or other project documents to identify areas that might be different for urban contexts. ● Highlight that household expenses are equally important in urban households and demonstrate how to calculate income versus expenses to understand household economic activity.
45 minutes	Focus Area 4: Market Mapping and Analysis	Able to make a basic commodity market map.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Discuss the reasons that cash and voucher programmes should be monitoring market dynamics to determine an appropriate intervention and throughout the life of the project. ● Take the group through the process of mapping a local commodity that everyone is familiar with (bread or rice perhaps). Fill out the market map as a group on a flip-chart paper, or on the computer using the Toolkit Annex template provided. ● Point to the EMMA and other market resources for more in-depth market mapping exercises.

2 hours	Focus Area 5: Targeting, Beneficiary Selection, and Verification	Understand how targeting in urban areas is potentially more challenging and strategies for accurate targeting.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Discuss the key terminology of targeting, beneficiary selection, registration, and verification so that all participants have a shared understanding of the terms and processes. ● Give the group a fictional project description and break the group into smaller working groups. Have each group use the guidelines in the SOP template to create a targeting plan for the project. Discuss the strategies as a group and have the facilitator make observations of best practice and changes that could be made.
2 hours	Focus Area 6: Implementation in Urban Areas	Understand household expenses for urban populations and how to plan appropriate cash transfer projects. Demonstrate ability to engage private and other partners to work effectively with you in an urban cash transfer project.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Review the key topics covered in this section, emphasizing that these topics are highlighted under implementation because of the challenges they can pose in urban settings. ● Review the household expenses checklist, ask the group to add and adapt the list to the local context as you review it (i.e. replacing local names for the items or crossing out those that do not apply). ● Have the group break up into "banks," "micro-lending organizations," "community-based organizations," and "cell phone companies". Ask each group to spend 10 minutes making a "commercial" to present to the group that highlights all of the advantages of working with their institution for a cash transfer program. Have the facilitator evaluate each option and ask questions to the group to "vet" them according to the partner vetting check-list.
1.5 hour	Focus Area 7: Fraud and Corruption Prevention and Detection in Urban cash transfer programmes	Ability to conduct a risk analysis of a cash transfer project and provide concrete examples of how to create "fraud proof" tools.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Start the discussion by asking each participant to give one brief example of an instance of corruption or fraud. Ask the participants to rate the context that they are working in as high risk, medium risk, or low risk for corruption. ● Facilitator should review the framework for risk analysis in a project, and emphasize when this should be done and by whom. ● Facilitator should ask each participant to work with a partner (or two) to complete risk analysis for a fictional project that is described by the facilitator for one of the levels in the framework. ● Review best practices in fraud prevention, specifically for cash transfer programmes. ● Give a quiz at the end to review key messages from this section.

<p>1.5 hour</p>	<p>Focus Area 8: Monitoring and Evaluation of Urban Cash Transfer Projects</p>	<p>Understand minimum standards of best-practice monitoring of urban cash-transfer programming. Demonstrate knowledge of the principles of evaluation and specific criteria in an urban cash programme that should be evaluated.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Review key steps in how to design a monitoring plan and tools that are urban-appropriate, specifically capitalizing on the use of technology and monitoring urban issues rather than rural issues. ● Role-play using the two monitoring forms (the in-person interview and the cell phone quick-check monitoring form). Discuss the pros and cons of each and when you might want to use one or the other. ● Understand how to take appropriate action on key issues uncovered through monitoring. ● Brainstorm topics that should be included in a cash-transfer evaluation and highlight ones that are particularly important for an urban programme, such as evaluating impact at different levels (urban population, neighbourhood, livelihood group) to isolate key humanitarian problems that were addressed through the programme.
<p>30 minutes</p>	<p>Review and Closing</p>	<p>Recap modules presented and key learning objectives.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Direct participants to accessing the toolkit electronically, specifically the downloadable tools. ● Encourage further reading in the toolkit and other publications that particularly pertain to the key issues in the context you are working in. ● CaLP encourages feedback and fosters a community of learning. Please join the discussion group at www.cashlearning.org and send feedback to the CaLP team on this tool-kit.

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CASH TRANSFER PROGRAMMING IN URBAN EMERGENCIES

A TOOLKIT FOR PRATCITIONERS

In recognition of the increasing urban populations around the world and their increasing vulnerability to disasters, the Cash Learning Partnership (CaLP) endeavored to investigate the current status and impact of urban emergency response programs that utilise cash transfer programming. This study aims to better understand the collective preparedness for future urban emergency responses and identify concrete best practices and tools to help organisations better implement cash and voucher programmes in challenging urban environments.

This toolkit brings together the collective knowledge of best practices, key issues in programming, and adaptations of cash transfer program methodologies for urban settings. The flow of the toolkit follows the logical order of a project cycle and contains both guidance and examples of tools. It is the aim of the authors to provide users of this toolkit with generic tools and guidance that can be quickly adapted for different urban settings.



THE CASH LEARNING PARTNERSHIP

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