MODULE-II
PRELIMINARY NEED ASSESSMENT AND PLANNING

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CHAPTER-1

INTRODUCTION

Usually, the first stage of the project cycle is to **assess the needs** of the community and / or the target group. It is important to carry out a participatory assessment with the communities. This ensures that the project is focused on real needs and that the project team involved in planning understands these needs well. Well-conducted assessments can act as a **baseline** (= a description of the situation before the start of the project) to address the needs. This will provide vital information for monitoring and evaluation work during the project. Using participatory approaches ensures that key informants and stakeholders in the community are consulted about the community's problems and challenges in a non-threatening way, build on trust and in a two-way communication. Participatory tools include social mapping, trend diagrams, seasonal diagram, lifelines, problem tree, tables and charts that help the project team and community to prioritise and rank needs.

Once the needs have been identified, the next stage of the project cycle requires the community and / or target group to reflect on its own responsibility; concerns, strengths and capabilities to decide how it can best contribute to addressing the needs. These ideas can then be explained to the community and if community based organisations (CBO) do exist prior to projects, they can incorporate the community's ideas and suggestions into their agenda or development plans.

Planning the project is the next stage of the project cycle. "Before you start doing anything, you need to plan. The better you plan, the easier your project will be to implement". Often as an NGO / CBO a good plan is needed, because without a project proposal, one cannot get funding.

Failing to plan is planning to fail (Alan Lakein)

Planning involves reviewing the needs assessment, findings and discussing which issues the organisation might be able to address and how. This step is important as the communities may not have the capacity or skills to address some of the problems. There

might be many problems named by the community. It is important that communities or CBOs focus on issues that they can help to solve and / or get involved. The communities / CBOs can also take time to collect good practice information about how to address problems, establish what work they can afford to do, who would be involved and when, and how the work would be organised, monitored and evaluated.

The points below are the core steps in planning and described in this module:

- **Preliminary assessment** (Preparing the ground)
- **Planning** (Outlining the path of the project = where should it go?)
  - ✓ **Assessing participation** (Who should be involved?)
  - ✓ **Situation analysis** (Understanding the problems)
  - ✓ **Defining the goal and related objectives** (What are the desired changes the project wants to make and to which larger development goal does it contribute?)
  - ✓ **Developing indicators for objectives** (How will we know what are the changes of the project?)
  - ✓ **Defining outputs, activities & inputs** (How does the project get there and what does it need to do?)

CHAPTER-2

PRELIMINARY ASSESSMENT (PREPARING THE GROUND)

It is assumed that, before drawing up specific project plans, the organisation has agreed its overall mission, vision and mandate, organisational development goals and policy priorities. This fundamental decision-making falls outside the scope of this training module. A preliminary assessment of any project intervention commonly includes:

- A general assessment of the forthcoming (potential) intervention area, taking into accounts the national and regional context.
- A preliminary identification of the people who would benefit directly from the project - potential 'beneficiaries' or 'target groups' - and their characteristics and concerns, their problems and possible causes of these.
- An analysis of the interests and concerns of those present in the area who may be affected by or may affect the project ('**Stakeholder analysis'**), including consideration of the responses already being made to the problems and concerns of the target groups.
- A preliminary definition of the response that the NGO might give, taking into account its mission, vision and mandate, and its resource base.

At this stage the NGO usually decides whether, given its mandate, it is best positioned and equipped to intervene in the area. Moreover, it forms its opinion on possible priorities and limitations that will affect the planning of a project.

It is important that those involved in the identification or formulation of a project are sufficiently aware of the policy, sector, institutional context within which they are planning their project work. It is advisable to refer to existing key documents relevant for the planning exercise, e.g. sector policy document of the government and other agencies or poverty reduction strategy of government and other agencies.

Context analysis: A crucial element in the planning exercise is to analyse the broader context, national (and sometimes global) in which the implementing organisation operates, with its challenges, opportunities and threats, looking at the various actors in the

development – local organisations, NGOs, governmental bodies, bilateral / multilateral agencies. The main concerns are the social changes, the struggles of the community, empowerment aspects and justice and the NGOs role in implementing the future project. The NGO should seek to form a picture of the existing context, the processes of change at work and the trends for the future and the stakeholder analysis.

Example: Trends, which were identified from a context analysis in an urban project in India:

1. Increase in literacy and girl child education
2. Gender discrimination continues despite awareness on it
3. Dowry harassment and domestic violence prevails
4. Increased health awareness, immunisation, use of safe drinking water
5. Use of toilets increased
6. Quality of life not improved
7. Lawlessness, anti-social elements, drug abuse increasing
8. Migrant workers from outside have become further marginalised
9. Increased political violence
10. Unemployment increasing among youth
11. Insecurity about income increased
12. City bound migration increased due to drought in the state
13. Continued environmental degradation: Tree cutting, construction and no solid waste management system in place, nearby river polluted.
14. Increased awareness on rights, in particular housing rights. Land documents are processed to the slum dwellers by authorities.
15. People's institutions are weak

2.1. STAKEHOLDER ANALYSIS AND GENDER ANALYSIS

Any individuals, groups of people, institutions or firms that may have an interest in the success (Or could harm the success) of the project (Either as implementers, facilitators, beneficiaries or adversaries) are defined as "stakeholder". A basic principle behind a stakeholder analysis is that different groups have different concerns, interests, capacities and that these need to be explicitly understood and recognised in the process of problem

identification, objective setting and strategy selection.

The main steps involved in stakeholder analysis are:

1. Identify the general development problem or opportunity being addressed or considered
2. Identify all those groups who have a significant interest in the (Potential) project
3. Investigate their respective roles, different interests, relative power and capacity to participate (Strengths and weaknesses)
4. Identify the extent of cooperation or conflict in the relationships between stakeholders
5. Interpret the findings of the analysis and incorporate relevant information into project design to help ensure that: (i) resources are appropriately targeted to meet distributional, equity objectives and the needs of priority groups; (ii) management and coordination arrangements are appropriate to promote stakeholder ownership and participation; (iii) conflicts of stakeholder interest are recognised and explicitly addressed in project design. A key purpose of stakeholder analysis is to understand and address distributional, equity concerns, particularly in the context of effectively addressing the needs of vulnerable groups (Such as the poor, women and children and the disabled). **Gender analysis** is therefore a core element of stakeholder analysis, the aim being to help promote equitable access to project benefits.

Gender

The social differences that are attributed to and learned by women and men. These will vary over time and from one society or group to another. Gender differs from sex, which refers to the biologically determined differences between women and men.

Gender analysis

Gender analysis is a systematic analytical process used to identify, understand, and describe gender differences and the relevance of gender roles and power dynamics in a specific project context. Such analysis typically involves examining the differential outcomes and impact of development policies and projects on women and men, and may include the collection of sex-disaggregated or gender-sensitive data. Gender analysis

examines the different roles, rights, and opportunities of men and women and relations between them. It also identifies disparities, examines why such disparities exist, determines whether they are potential barriers to achieving outputs, and looks at how they can be addressed.

A gender analysis includes attention to: (i) The different roles (Productive, reproductive, decision-making) of women and men; (ii) their differential access to and use of resources and their specific needs, interests and problems; (iii) and the barriers to the full and equitable participation of women and men in the project activities and to equity between women and men in the benefits obtained.

Gender equality

The promotion of quality between women and men in relation to their access to social and economic infrastructures and services and to the benefits of development is vital. The objective is reduced disparities between women and men, including in health and education, in employment and economic activity and in decision making at all levels. All projects should actively contribute to reducing gender disparities in their area of intervention.

Practical steps and concept for a gender analysis are given in the Annex 1

Terminology for different types of stakeholders

Stakeholders = Individuals or institutions that may –directly or indirectly, positively or negatively – affect or be affected by a project.

Beneficiaries = Those who benefit in whatever way from the implementation of the project – distinction may be made between:

a. **Target group(s)** = Those groups / entity who will be directly positively affected by the project at the project objective level
b. **Final beneficiaries** = Those who benefit from the project in the long run at the level of the society or sector at large

Project partners = Those who implement the project in the country (Who are also

stakeholders, they may be a target group…)

Tools for conducting stakeholder analysis: There are a variety of tools that can be used to support the stakeholder analysis, for example:

- Stakeholder matrix
- SWOT analysis (Strength-Weaknesses-Opportunities-Threats)

An example of a stakeholder analysis is shown in the matrix below. The type of information collected, analysed and presented can be adapted to meet the needs of different circumstances. For example, additional columns could be added to specifically deal with different interests of women and men and other criteria (See example 2). Also, when analysing potential project objectives in more detail at a later stage in planning, more focus should be given on potential benefits and costs of a proposed intervention to different stakeholders.

Example 1: Stakeholder Analysis Matrix

Stakeholder / basic characteristic	**Interest / how affected by the core problem**	**Capacity and motivation to bring about change**	**Possible actions to address interest**
Stakeholder 1 Fisher folk: Low income, small scale family business, organised into informal cooperatives, women actively involved in marketing Awareness on environment and health is low	Improve their livelihood and income Pollution is affecting fish catch (quality / volume) Family health is suffering, particularly women and children	Keen interest in pollution control measures Limited political influence given by the weak organisational structure Willing to learn about pollution and its effects on environment and health	Support capacity to organise and lobby Implement pollution control measures Identify / develop alternative income sources for women and men Community awareness on environment and health / sanitation

Stakeholder 2 Fish industry: Operation, poorly regulated, influential lobby group, poor environmental record	Increase profits No concern about public image Concern about extra costs if environmental regulations are enforced	Have financial and technical resources to employ new cleaner technology Limited motivation to change	Raise their awareness of social and environmental impact Mobilise political pressure to influence industry behaviour Strengthen and enforce environmental laws
Stakeholder 3 Households at lake: Discharge solid and liquid waste into lake Lake is source of drinking water and fish is source for food	Aware of industrial pollution and impact on water quality Want to dispose own waste in collection points and no sewage into the river Want access to clean water	Limited understanding of the health impact of their own waste / waste water disposal Potential to lobby government body more effectively Appear willing to contribute in cash and kind for improved waste management and water treatment	Raise awareness of households as to implications of their own waste disposal practice Work with communities and local government on addressing water and sanitation issues
Stakeholder 4 Environmental NGO	Good expertise in solid waste disposal and water treatment Strong activists and known in the environmental sector	Mobilise resources for addressing technical issues Community is known to them and has good image in its participatory	Influence pollution control board to enforce law on pollution Negotiate with industries on possible solutions

		approach	with the support of government

Source: Adopted from European Commission, Aid Delivery Methods, Belgium, 2004

Example 2: Stakeholder Analysis Matrix

Stakeholder / basic characteristic	**Agenda (Mandate, mission, strategic objective)**	**Arena (Field of action, scope of influence)**	**Alliances (Relationships with other stakeholders in terms of coordinated action, ongoing exchange)**
Stakeholder 1			
Stakeholder 2			
Stakeholder 3			
Stakeholder 4			

The table is another way of collecting information on stakeholders with different columns

Example 3: SWOT Analysis and Guiding Questions

SWOT analysis (Strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) is used to analyse the strengths and weaknesses of an organisation and the external opportunities and threats that it faces. It can be used either as a tool for general analysis, or to look at how an organisation might address a specific problem or challenge. It can also be used for a stakeholder analysis. The quality of information derived from using this tool depends (As ever) on who is involved and how the process is managed / facilitated – it basically just provides a structure and focus for discussion. SWOT is undertaken in three main stages:

1. Ideas are generated about the strengths and weaknesses of a stakeholder group or organisation, and the external opportunities and threats.
2. The situation is analysed by looking for ways in which the stakeholder

group/organisation's strengths can be built on to overcome identified weaknesses, and opportunities can be taken to minimize threats; and

3. A strategy for making improvements is formulated (And then subsequently developed using a number of additional analytical planning tools).An example of a SWOT matrix, further analysing the capacity of fishing cooperatives to represent members' interests and manage change, is shown below.

Strength

- What are the stakeholder's strengths?
- Can these strengths help the project?

Weaknesses

- What are the stakeholder's weaknesses?
- How to deal with these weaknesses in the project?
- Can they hinder the success of the project?

Opportunities

- What positive expertise, connections and influence does the stakeholder have?
- Could this be useful?

Threats

- What threats could the stakeholder bring to the project?
- Does the stakeholder put the project at risk?
- How can these threats be reduced?

<u>Example</u>: SWOT Analysis of Fishing Cooperatives

Strength	**Weaknesses**
• Grassroots based with broad membership • Focus on specific concerns and relatively homogenous group • Men and women both equally represented	• Limited lobby capacity and environmental management skills • Lack of formal constitutions and unclear legal status • Weak linkages with other institutions • Disagreements among them on limiting fishing effort due to pollution and

	declining fish stocks • Poor awareness on environment, health and sanitation
Opportunities • Growing concern and awareness over health impacts of uncontrolled waste disposal • New government regulation on environmental protection – focused on making polluters pay • New markets for fish developing as a result of improved transport infrastructure to nearby markets/centers	**Threats** • Political influence of industrial lobby who are opposed to tighter pollution control measures and laws (waste disposal) and overfishing regulations • New pollution regulations may impact on access to traditional fishing grounds and the fishing methods employed.

Source: Adapted from European Commission, Aid Delivery Methods, Belgium, 2004

CHAPTER-3

PLANNING (OUTLINING THE PATH OF THE PROJECT)

Having decided, in principle, that the NGO should intervene and support the beneficiaries, it needs to move into the **planning phase of the concrete project (= where should the project go?)**. This is the first step in PME, when objectives are to be defined and strategies developed. Planning should not be seen as being quite separate from subsequent monitoring and evaluation: Provision for monitoring and evaluation should be included in planning - they in turn should feed into future planning.

3.1. ASSESSING PARTICIPATION (WHO SHOULD BE INVOLVED?)

Project interventions at the grassroots require the active participation of the target group throughout the planning process. A majority of NGOs have been practicing "participatory planning processes" with local communities and facilitate the planning process.

In planning community-based interventions, the following should be specified:

- Who is involved, clarifying particularly the role of women, but also the participation of other social groups or categories (E.g. youth, landless, tribal communities, etc.)
- For whom the benefits of the project are intended (= Positive intended changes).
- Which methods and instruments are to be used in the participatory planning process (E.g. PRA, group discussion, semi-structured interviews, etc.)

During the planning process, considerations of gender and environment and questions about the sustainability of project benefits should continuously and explicitly be kept in mind. Attention may also be paid to differences and influences of culture and faith. Some projects that are not grassroots-based will not demand this degree of active involvement of local communities: For example, regional or national advocacy work, or service delivery projects aimed at individuals rather than communities.

3.2. SITUATION ANALYSIS (UNDERSTANDING THE PROBLEMS)

An essential element in a participatory planning process is the situation analysis in which the key problems and possible responses are considered.

A situation analysis identifies:

a) Identification and prioritisation of problems, as locally understood and more widely defined
b) Their main causes, both local and wider - regional, national or international
c) Causes that can be addressed by a local intervention
d) Resources within the community, or from others, relevant to tackling the problems.

General steps / guidance for a situation analysis:

- A participatory baseline survey is the preferred instrument of many organisations for obtaining detailed, reliable and validated information from the grassroots and for determining the problems and perspectives of the people concerned. At the same time, it helps increase awareness of the nature of the problems, their local causes, and the changes desired to occur. This makes possible the definition of specific objectives for an intervention and the identification of corresponding indicators, outputs and activities.
- The identification of problems and the baseline survey should help identify existing opportunities as well as obstacles.
- Grassroots representatives and NGO staff should together consult other key stakeholders to gain a better understanding of the problems, and of their immediate and root causes, and to consider the most appropriate actions to address them.
- Where causes and solutions are concerned, distinction should be made between those at 'micro' and those at 'macro' level; the possibility of combining analysis and action at both levels depends on the interest, awareness and capacity of the community and/or community-based organisation.
- It is important to identify those problems that cannot be addressed by the NGO involved. These may be referred to other organisations (Alliance project / multiple partners).
- It is, therefore, important also to identify what others are already doing or are planning to do.
- A risk analysis is needed to identify external factors that may endanger or threaten the production of outputs or the achievement of the outcomes and/or impact.
- Cost-benefit considerations and time constraints need to be taken into account in

considering what problem or problems might be addressed, and how.

- A situation analysis is rarely complete before project start-up and should therefore be extended and updated through information and insights from monitoring, reviews and evaluation studies / tasks.

3.2.1. IDENTIFICATION AND PRIORITISATION OF PROBLEMS

Discussions with the community can bring to light sometimes a long list of problems. Considering the nature of problems and challenges, the participants of such community discussions should identify the major core issues that are influencing their livelihood and which need to be addressed. For example, the prioritised five **core problems** are:

- Low incomes and unemployment
- Low quality of food, nutrition and health
- Education of girl children
- Women's situation and their rights
- Environmental degradation

After clustering the problems under those five major "headlines", the community members should prioritise the most serious problems that requires an immediate response and is most pressing to them. In a matrix ranking exercise, following a group discussion, numbers from 1 to 10 can be allocated (the higher the number, the higher the priority). In problem identification and prioritisation NGO staff has to take over a more facilitating role. For instance, initially, water pollution was considered a low priority, as its effect was not immediately perceived, but after discussions the community understood the problem better and gave it a higher score.

Problems and priority		**Problems and priority**	
Employment & income • Low income	10	**Education** • High drop out of girls from primary school	9
• Lack of capital to start small businesses	9	• Inadequate access to formal education	8

• Unemployment / under employment	8	**Women's rights** • Dowry	10
• Marketing products	7	• Lack of knowledge about women's rights	8
Health, food & nutrition • Food insecurity in lean season / during drought	10	• Violence against women	7
• Malnutrition	9	• Wife beating	4
• Water pollution	9	• Alcoholism among men folk	3
• Ill health	8		
• Lack of seeds and other inputs	7	**Environment** • Deforestation	9
• Poor unhygienic housing	6	• Draught	8
• No storage for grains	4	• Flood	7

The main causes: The highly rated problems can be further analysed in an open discussion and their causes should be analysed. Example:

Ill health	**Malnutrition**
• Inadequate knowledge of reproductive health and MCH • Environmental pollution • Inadequate access to government health facilities • Poor income • Poor sanitation • Superstition • Lack of trained midwifes and health staff • Poverty	• Lack of functional knowledge of nutrition • Gap between knowledge and practice • Superstition • Childhood diseases / infection • Worm infestation • Insufficient and badly-balanced food • Poverty

• Illiteracy	
Food insecurity special in lean season and after drought/flood • Seasonal fluctuation • Low production, increased price of food grains • Low income, less buying capacity • Unemployment • Lack of knowledge of crop diversification • Lack of good seeds • Insufficient storage facility • Poor income • Natural disasters	**Illiteracy** • Too few educational institutions • Lack of awareness of education • Girl children receive less education • Children working for money due to poverty • Inadequate access to the existing institutions • Poverty
Water pollution • Surface water in water bodies not for drinking water • Pollutions entering water bodies from upper stream	**Dowry** • Unfavorable attitude towards women • Lack of social awareness • Male-dominated social system
Drought • Deforestation • Less flow of water in summer • Environmental pollution • Destruction of ecological balance	**Low incomes / underemployment** • Lack of capital to start businesses • Lack of opportunity for alternative income • Lack of self-employment and vocational education • No access to credit • Difficulties in marketing products • Unjust wages • Landlessness • Lack of employment opportunity • Poverty

Resources within the community

The community can analyse through participatory tools or discussions the resources, capacities and opportunities in their village. Example:

- Cultivable land - 10 acres
- Fallow land 3 – acres
- Ponds 8
- Grazing land – 5 acres
- Wasteland – 5 acres
- Bullocks – 20 / buffaloes – 8
- Agricultural equipment
- Organic manure equipment
- Family poultry small-scale farms – 10
- Paddy harvesting machine – 4
- Trees and bamboo plantations in garden
- Sewing machines – 4
- Tailors – 3
- Small centre for community based organisation – 1
- Community based organisation members – 20
- Volunteers among youth - 8

Resources from outside: NGO, Government, other sources

- Technical support
- Finances
- Access to good quality seeds
- Support for education
- Matching fund support for community based organisation
- Support for mobilising resources and facilities from Government
- Access to credit facilities
- Various kind of training in farm sector and for landless
- Irrigation facilities
- Poultry and livestock vaccination

- Immunisation facilities
- Mother and child care health centres

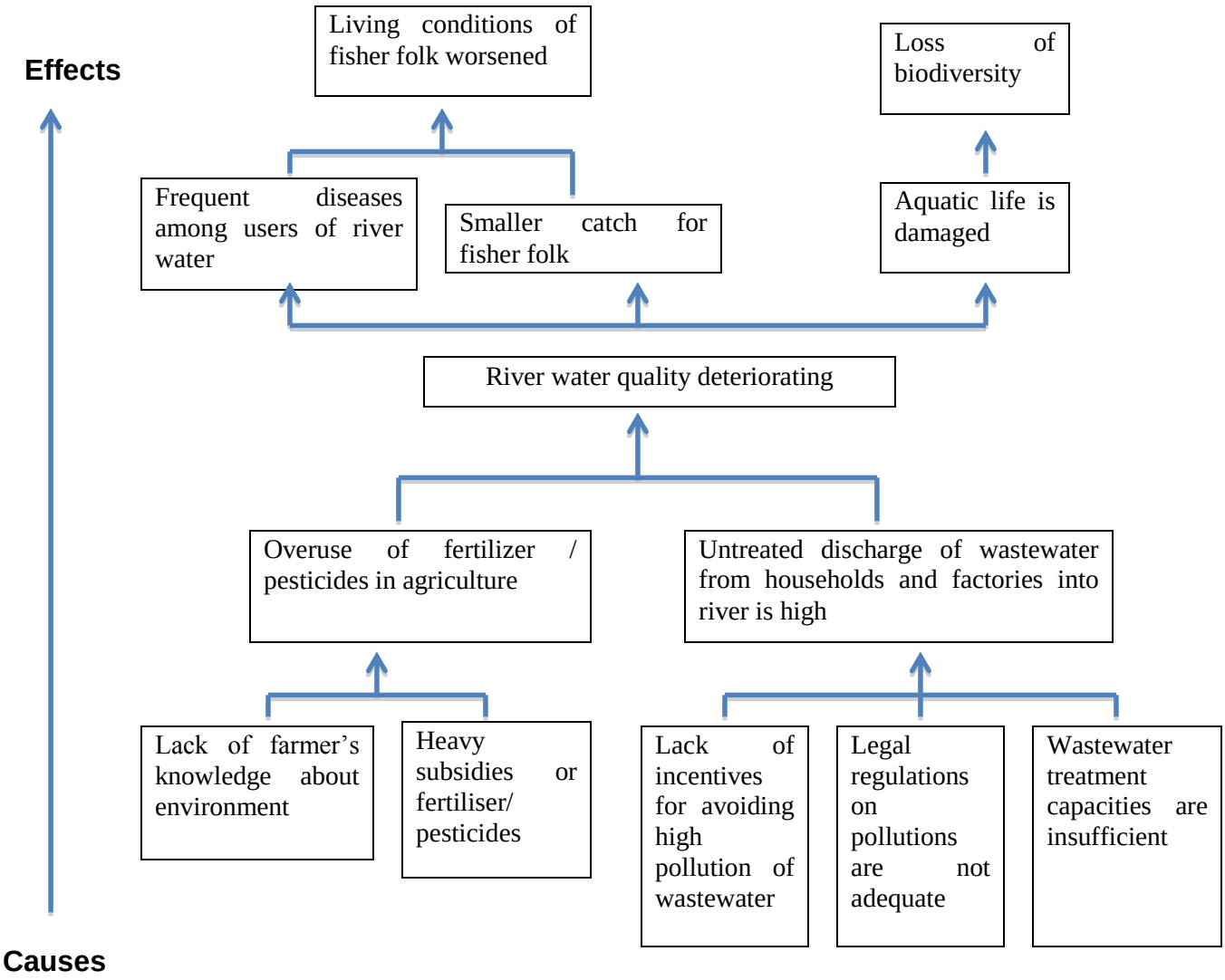
3.2.2. PROBLEM TREE

There are many different types of problem analysis models (The example above is only one such option), including the **problem tree** which can be used as a tool to study the root causes and major effects of problems in order to better design solutions. The problem tree approach is to break down core problems into sub-problems, this helps the planners in understanding the cause of the problem and what are the effects realised by the beneficiaries due to this problem and how it can be solved. The problem tree analysis is best used as a participatory planning tool, in which stakeholders involved identify and analyse the problems and needs together, creating ownership and commitment among the involved parties (E.g. beneficiaries, implementing organisations, local governments).
A well-constructed cause-effect problem analysis diagram will make the process of developing the overall goal, objectives, outputs and activities easier.

The problem tree exercise brings together different people's perceptions into a single agreed set of related problems. No problem exists by itself; it is always part of a **cause-and-effect chain** of problems. If a problem is identified wrongly, the solution is also going to be wrong. That is why problems need to be expressed in concrete and factual terms and not in general and vague terms. The planners may have to design a project using the problem assessment a number of times until they get it right.

An illustrative model of a problem tree is given below: It is assumed that a need for a project exists if there is an undesired situation. The intervention (= project) is meant to help solving the undesired situation. This undesired situation is translated into problem statements in the problem tree. Analysing problems therefore means to analyse an existing situation. During the problem analysis the negative aspects of an existing situation are analysed. Key problems are identified and the causal relationship between them.

Problem tree: Establishing cause-effect relations between problems



Having collected a number of key problems a so-called "core problem" is selected to begin clustering the other problems. A hierarchy of causes and effects is being established between the problems identified, slowly drawing up the "problem tree":

- Problems that are directly causing the core problem are placed below it.
- Problems that are direct effects of the core problem are positioned above it.

In the example here this could mean that after having identified and discussed the core problem "river water quality deteriorating", one problem "untreated discharge of

wastewater from households and factories into river is high" is chosen as a starter problem. Now the other problems identified are screened to see whether there are problems related to the starter problem as causes. Those problems are placed below the starter problem "lack of incentives for avoiding high pollution of wastewater" and "legal regulations are not adequate", etc. Then the pool of problems identified is screened again to see whether there are problems related to the starter problem as an effect. Those problems are placed above the starter problem "river water quality deteriorating" and so on. In the discussion process a problem tree will evolve relating the remaining problems identified to the problems in the tree. Whenever necessary and to keep the cause-effect logic, the tree can be restructured until all participants agree to the way problems are placed.

There are a number of challenges and difficulties that might occur during problem tree analysis:

- Steps are being left out. It is therefore important to review the problem tree established to see whether the logical sequence between different levels of problems is correct or whether something is missing or has to be changed.
- The same problem is mentioned twice while using different wordings in the problem formulations.
- A number of problems are presented as only one problem. They have to be separated in order to be able to identify the cause-effect relationships between them and see "which problem leads to which other problems".
- The problems stated are not sufficient specified in detail and do not communicate the true nature of the problem. For example "poor management" does not specify the real problem and has to be broken down in order to understand the problem in detail and analyse its causes, which could be "poor financial control", "late delivery of key services", etc.
- The absence of a solution is stated as a problem. Instead of giving the negative aspect of an existing situation, the absence of the solution is given as problem. For example: It is not the lack of pesticides that leads to poor productivity but the pest itself that affects the produce. If in the problem analysis "no pesticides" is stated, the only solution can be that "pesticides are available". Pests however can be

controlled in various ways, e.g. biologically or manually, depending on the circumstances.

While establishing the problem tree it should be kept in mind to state problems as negative situations. It is also important to remember that a problem's positions within the hierarchy established do not indicate its importance but shows its casual relation with other key problems. What level of detail the problem analysis should be achieved has to be decided by the team working on it.

Stakeholder analysis and problem analysis form part of the analysis of an existing negative situation. In some organisations the analysis of the potentials form part of this initial analysis phase. It is meant to add to the picture of the problems in a given situation resources or opportunities (= potentials) that might help to solve the problem. Generally, different types of resources such as natural resources, capital, infrastructure, labour force, skill sets of people and other kind of opportunities are considered to be potentials. They might later on be utilised to achieve objectives. Analysing potentials at the beginning helps to get a more dimensional picture of a given situation and might later on help to choose a project strategy, making use of existing resources. **An example of a problem tree is given in the Annex 2.**

3.3. DEFINING THE GOAL AND RELATED OBJECTIVES (TO WHICH LARGER DEVELOPMENT GOAL DOES THE PROJECT CONTRIBUTE AND WHAT ARE THE DESIRED CHANGES THE PROJECT WANTS TO MAKE?)

During the actual planning, the community and NGO should keep in mind the prioritised core problems, their causes and the available resources to address those.

The goal to which the project contributes and the desired objectives for any intervention should be defined as statements of the changes to be brought about with the target groups. A clear distinction should be made between:

a. The goal - often, though not always, long-term - which relates to the key issue or problem that needs to be addressed at a wider level, beyond the project. The project

only contributes to the goal!

b. The specific objectives, which relate to what the project desires to change upon completion and how the target group benefit- addressing immediate causes of the wider problem, in order to contribute towards the goal. It is the positive intended change to be achieved.

3.3.1. OBJECTIVE FORMULATION

Definition of objectives should be written in a change statement = "change language". A change statement should express the desired future situation, which is realistic to be achieved after the project period has come to an end. More particularly, the specification should make clear any boundaries for achievement in terms of location or target group. Indicators related to the objectives should enable the assessment of change over time, relative to the situation at the start of the project.

Some organisations strongly promote the use of only one specific project objective whereas other organisations limited to a few (maximum three) objectives.

An objective:

- Is a **description of a situation** strived for, which shall be reached through a specific project.
- **Provides a clear vision of what has changed** or will change for a specific target group, a particular region, country or community by the end of the project period.
- **Relates to positive intended changes** in institutional performance, the situation or behaviour among the direct target groups or beneficiaries.
- Is a **direct consequence of the project interventions.**

Objectives need:

- To be achievable in a scheduled time frame (Usually three years).
- Have to be realistic. Realistic means that the project has the resources to implement it, e.g. skills, equipment, funds.
- To have to be specific: contain a subject and a clear description of change (a "who"

and a "what").

- Understandable by outsiders who read the proposal.

Examples of objectives:

1. Health and nutrition status of women and children is improved
2. Food production for household consumption and sale is increased and diversified.
3. Employment opportunities are created with new sources of income with a focus on unemployed youth.
4. Children's education is improved with a focus on the support of the girl child.
5. Women self-help groups are strengthened and they have gained influential power on community affairs.

How an objective should NOT be formulated – Typical pitfalls

Often projects formulate their objectives in a rather confusing "**action language**" which has the entire effect chain and strategy in its formulation (= tape worm sentence).

Example 1:"Increasing income of farmers by applying new farming technologies and through the participation in farmer's field schools on organic farming with improved post-harvest management and marketing skills."

- Use change language to emphasise future condition!
- Take out information relating to strategy or activities/outputs (participating in farmers field schools, post-harvest management, marketing skills
- Bring the subject of change to the front (Farmers production and income)!

Better: Farmers have diversified their production and shifted to organic with increased incomes.

Example 2:"Provide practical skills to women farm workers and those residing on farms and resettlement areas so that they are able to start viable economic projects for their sustenance and livelihood."

- This formulation includes a whole effect chain:
- "Provide practical skills" constitutes an activity!
- "So that they are able to" constitutes an output!
- "Start viable economic small scale businesses" constitutes an objective!

- "For their sustenance and livelihood" constitutes an impact!

Better: Women are strengthened to run viable economic small-scale businesses.

Example 3:"To promote equitable economic development and democratic governance in accordance with international norms by strengthening national capacities at all levels and empowering citizens and increasing their participation in decision-making processes"

- Statement too wordy and no change language.
- What is the desired change the project wants to make?

Example 4: "Improved nutrition of poor households among marginalised communities, sustainable management of natural resources and improved water availability and its management"

- Formulation of multiple objectives
- It is better to formulate different change statements.

3.3.2. OBJECTIVE TREE

While the problem analysis presents the negative aspects of an existing situation, the analysis of objectives describes a future situation that will be achieved by solving the problems identified in the problem tree.

During the analysis of objectives potential solutions or a given situation are identified. This involves the reformulation of the negative aspects ('problems") identified into positive ones (envisioned in the future = desired changes) drawing up an objective tree, this means the problem tree will be converted into an objective tree.

In the objective tree, the objectives are structured in a hierarchical order and the former cause-effect relationships between the key problems are tuned into means-end relationships objectives (= what needs to be done to achieve what?). The objectives derived should reflect the future, desired situation but should be realistically achievable. The rational of the reformulation is to derive the objectives directly from the actual existing problems identified and not from elsewhere.

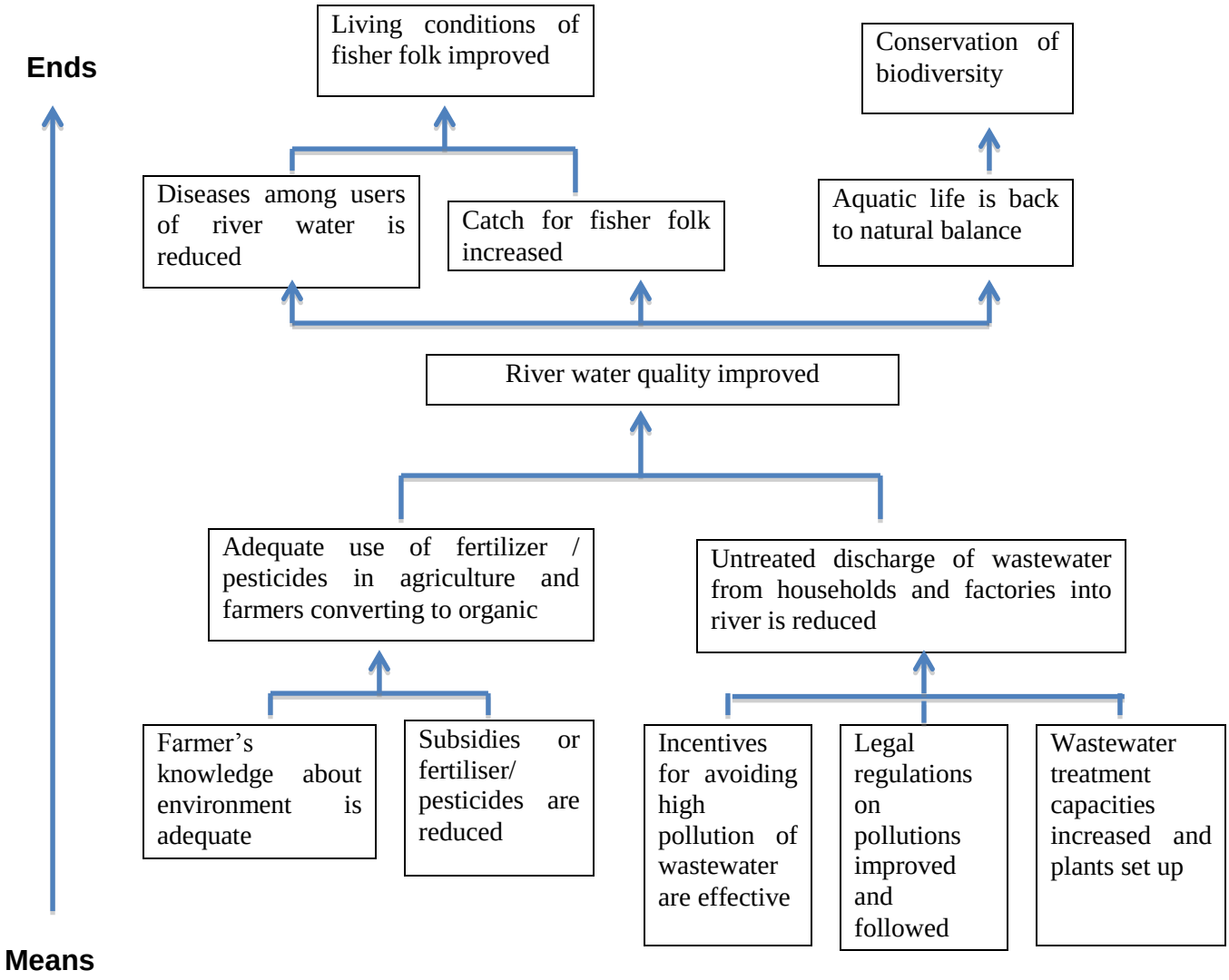
Looking at the "problem" in the problem tree "untreated discharge of wastewater from households and factories into the river is high" is now reformulated as an objective into "untreated discharge of wastewater from households and factories into the river is reduced". By writing "reduced" the objective is not targeted to be an absolute one (= "no

untreated discharge of wastewater from households and factories into the river"). This would be unrealistic! Qualifying the objective (= "reduced) at an early stage will also later on help to define indicators with targets.

It is important to review the objective tree (The means-end relationships) to ensure validity and completeness of the hierarchy of objectives. It might be necessary to revise statements and / or add new objectives in case they them to be relevant and necessary to achieve the objective at the next higher level. Attention has to be paid to the fact that some problem statements cannot be simply reformulated, as they cannot be influenced (E.g. heavy rainfall or insufficient budget made available).

Establishing an objective tree

Identification of potential solutions for a given situation: Turning the negative aspects from the problem tree into future desired but realistic situations



<u>An example of an objective tree is given in the Annex 3.</u>

3.3.3. STRATEGY ANALYSIS (= "ANALYSIS OF ALTERNATIVES")

The strategy analysis involves the identification of possible solutions that could form a project strategy. This is also called the "analysis of alternatives" and a decision has to be taken on which objectives *will* and which objectives *won't* be pursued within the

framework of the project. The starting point for strategy analysis is the objective tree. The choice of one or more strategies is made on the basis of criteria that have to be agreed upon defined with the stakeholders, depending on the specific project context. Possible criteria could be costs, urgency of the problem, resources available, social acceptability, gender aspects, time perspective of benefits, feasibility, development policy guidelines, etc. The information gained during stakeholder analysis (potentials, support, resistance, etc.) and analysis of potentials should also be taken into consideration as a reference for decisions taken on strategies.

In the example given here in the objective tree (above), two possible strategies could be:

a) An agricultural strategy (focus on adequate use of fertiliser and pesticides in farming) and
b) An environment strategy (focus on the reduction of untreated discharge of wastewater from households and factories into the river.

Both of to be pursued in order to improve the quality of the water in the river. This could be done in different projects or in different sub-components tackled by the same project and / or in a wider programme where one agency focuses on the agriculture and the other organisation on the environment.

The scope and amount of work entailed in the strategy chosen determines the size of the intervention – be it a project or a programme (consisting of a number of projects). The review and incorporation of lessons learned from former projects is a useful support tool at this point.

Having selected a project strategy the different levels of objectives (specific project objectives) and overall goal to which the project contributes can be identified which will later on be incorporated into the logical framework matrix / logframe matrix.

3.4. DEVELOPING INDICATORS FOR OBJECTIVES (HOW WILL WE KNOW WHAT ARE THE CHANGES OF THE PROJECT?) AND OUTPUTS

When defining the indicators, distinction should generally be made between:

- Indicators of objectives, concerned with what the project is intended to change

directly, upon its completion and related to the benefits of the target group (Usually within a 3 years period).

- Indicators of outputs concerned with the immediate results of the work upon its completion and related to the services and products the projects create.

Indicators clarify the characteristics of the different levels of objectives of a project. When formulating indicators it should be paid attention that the indicators are:

- Objectively verifiable = that means that different people should come to the same results when using the indicators in a monitoring or evaluation process.
- Independent from each other = each one relating to a specific objective (= not just summarizing the activities).
- Plausible = the effects observed are direct results of project interventions and closely related to it / meaningful).
- Specific = with regard to quality, quantity, target group, time/period and place (= five dimensions of an indicator).
- Measurable (directly or indirectly) so that they can be assessed or described.
- Based on accessible information = in terms of time and money

Specify for each output, objective (and the overall goal) the indicators according to the criteria for good indicators:

Define on the basis of the indicator, "targets = precise aims of the outputs and the objective:

1. Quantity = how much?
2. Quality = what?
3. Target group = who?
4. Time / period = starting when and for how long?
5. Place = where?

Often it is necessary to establish several indicators for one objective – together these sets of indicators will provide sufficiently and reliable information on the achievement of an objective. At times it might be difficult to identify good indicators and it might require very specific professional know-how and experience. Developing meaningful indicators is

therefore time consuming. Sometimes it is good to first draft indicators and have a preliminary list and find out the limitations of each drafted indicator. The final decision on what kind of indicator to use generally revolves around the three factors: Preciseness of an indicator, costs and time connected to its retrieval. (*Chapter 3.6 will have more information on indicators in the logframe matrix*).

3.5. DEFINING OUTPUTS, ACTIVITIES & INPUTS (HOW DOES THE PROJECT GET THERE AND WHAT DOES IT NEED TO DO?)

The next stage of planning is to determine just what needs to be done for those specific objectives to be achieved:

- The outputs that are needed to achieve the objectives should be specified.
- The activities to produce these outputs should be elaborated, making clear who will be involved in each activity, where and when.
- The necessary inputs (including human, material and financial resources) should be listed for each of the activities.

Like the definition of objectives (= desired change), the definition of outputs should be formulated clarity about where and for whom each output is to be produced (= a product or service).

Specifying outputs helps define the levels of accountability of the project management. It is the outputs that, under given assumptions, can be guaranteed by the project and for which the project manager(s) responsible may be held to account. This means that outputs need to be clearly specified and achievable within the project period so that they can be monitored. An output should be specified not merely as the delivery of some input but as the measurable product of activities.

Example of outputs, output indicators and activities

Objective 1: Health and nutrition status of women and children is improved		
Outputs	**Output indicators**	**Activities**
Communities received	75 % of families using	Training in health care, nutrition

loans and have constructed individual toilets Traditional midwives have better skills and knowledge on safe motherhood and provide services to all pregnant mothers Women's awareness and knowledge on mother and child health improved Women learned to prepare healthy and balanced food for babies / children	toilets (men, women, children) and keep toilets and homesteads clean 50 % fewer incidences of infections and among children 90 % hand washing is practices before eating and after defecating 100% infants receive 6 months exclusive breastfeeding and supplementary feeding from 6 month of age 100 % of infants immunised	with practical demonstrations Motivation camps on hygiene and sanitation Providing loans for toilets and training for toilet construction Organising immunisation camps Skill improvement training for traditional midwives
Objective 2: Food production for consumption and sale is increased and diversified		
Outputs	**Output indicators**	**Activities**
Providing good quality seeds for marginal farmers Utilising government facilities for livestock vaccination Community enabled to mobilise government schemes for irrigation. Farmers have increased knowledge and skills in composting, erosion	75% farmers share their learning's in a participatory way through farmers field schools and farmers to farmers exchange 50 % farmers received support to start livestock farming 90 % farmers received good quality seeds and	Training and financial support in livestock promotion Training in dry land agriculture, tree based farming, kitchen garden Demonstrations on diversified crops, erosion control, water harvesting structures such as ponds, etc Training on marketing and prices

control measures, multiple cropping, tree based farming, dry land horticulture. Farmers group organised common market days in area and supply to nearby eateries, restaurants.	planted in time 75 % farmers perceive an increased accessibility and availability of food crops around the year 50 % increased farm production	

The projects that consist of activities are normally specified in annual plans with the inputs they require (which should produce the outputs which in turn are intended to achieve the specific objectives which contribute to the realisation of the overall goal).

3.6. THE LOGICAL FRAMEWORK APPROACH TO PME

The logical framework (Logframe) is a tool for systematically thinking through the structure of a proposed project, describing it in a simple, logical manner from communicating the project to others (e.g. Board members, well-wishers, funders, etc.) and for reviewing the projects progress and adopting it to possible changes (e.g. identified weaknesses, deviations, etc.) and making adjustments in plans. Logframe is not intended as a substitute for detailed plans but is meant to facilitate planning through the development of a clear and simplified representation of a project design.

There are organisations that like to work with the logframe and the logical framework matrix is a vital part of their staff's skill set. Many NGOs swear by them for structured project planning and it has become a standard approach required by many donors as part of a funding application. There are also those people who dislike logrames and see them as a bit too rigid and criticise its top-down approach.

To be used effectively, the logframe is best seen as a flexible tool to be adapted to specific project context and not as a mechanistic procedure for meeting donor requirements. Different formulations of logframes exist, each with slightly different information

requirements and terminology. Which form to follow will partly depend on the project holders planning standards and the donor's formalities. The basic logframe is as follows:

What is a logframe?

The simplest form of a logframe is a 4x4 square table with 16 cells, although this isn't a strict format. In the table the project notes down what it wants to achieve and how it will get there. In theory, writing a logframe should make it easier to plan and manage a project as one can see the sequence in which the actions lead to outputs, objectives and the overall goal.

Project structure		**Indicators**	**Means of Verification**	**Assumptions or risks**
Overall Goal				
Objectives				
Outputs				
Activities		**Means**	**Cost**	**Preconditions**

Putting together a logframe is just one part of a project-planning process for development. It is suggested to write the logframe with everyone who might be involved in the project. Greater inclusivity leads to better and more nuanced project planning. It can be a good opportunity to bring different actors around the table – within a single organisation, and with external partners and stakeholders – to communicate and develop shared objectives.

Process for designing a logframe

There's no standard set way to complete the logframe table but here are some basic principles on how people involved in planning might think about filling it in. The process of the logframe development is what is most valuable. This process might be carried out with the involvement of project staff, project manager, project partners and community (or community based organisations and other representatives of the community). Once a plan has been prepared, the project management can use the logframe to analyse the project's structure and components. The project management must be confident that the outputs can

be achieved and that the objectives can be accomplished. The project can be presented in the form of a matrix as a feasible and conclusive summary of the project, which must be logically conclusive and complete. The method to develop the logframe emphasises a **participatory approach** and the importance of the preliminary assessment and research on the ground, the participation analysis, the problem analysis and stakeholder analysis.

The steps in developing a logframe are:

- Define the overall goal to which the project contributes.
- Define the objective(s) as a change statement (= in change language).
- Define the outputs (= products / services) for achieving the objective(s).
- Define the activities (= the work / tasks) for achieving each output.
- Verify the 'vertical logic' with the 'if ...then...' test (working upwards).
- Define the key assumptions at each level (working upwards).
- Check that the vertical logic still holds given these assumptions - 'if ...and ...then...'
- Define indicators for the objectives, then for the outputs (or check that these are specified with targets) – as smart as possible.
- Define the means of verification at objective and output levels.
- Check the 'horizontal logic' across each row.
- Put inputs and costs to the activities need to be planned in the budget.

The **basic principle** is to move from the general to the specific, start filling the table from the top. Begin with writing the overall goal in the top left box of the table. Guiding question: What do we intend to do? How does this sit with the country development strategy, and are they compatible? To what larger goal does the envisaged project contribute? Define the objective(s) in a clear change statement. Then get into the "grassroots" – what you actually want to achieve (Outputs) and what you want to do (Activities).You have to look at all the boxes in the table as a sequence using an **"if and then" logic**.

As an example:
If the goal is to contribute to create a community of happy children and adults in a village the "if and then" logic would be like this:
If we establish a community committee (Activity) **and** people are enthusiastic (Assumption) **then** we'll have the capacity to build and manage a playground (Output). **If** we have a playground (Output) **and** it will be playing (Output) and it will be easy to maintain and repair (Assumption) **then** children will have fun and are happy (Objective). **If** children are having fun and are happy (Objective) **and** families continue to grow in the village (Assumption) **then** we'll contribute to a larger goal of a "happy community".

When outlining the activities (= Work to be carried out), the guiding question is: What can the project actually do? What is already in place (Outputs already achieved) and the project can use to reach the objective (= Desired change) and contribute to the overall goal. Then, what is the missing and what might be needed? Remember to think about what work the project is going to do with each of the target groups and beneficiaries. For example, what work will need to be done with the local leaders as part of the project, what work needs to be done with the local village council and a particular government department?

Once all the objectives are formulated as change statements to be achieved within the project period, the guiding question is: How can the project assess and measure the progress of the project against the objectives set out. This will be written in the "objectively verifiable indicators and "means of verification" boxes. Choose indicators that will let the project team measure whether the different levels in the project have been achieved. Think about if it realistic to use the chosen indicator in terms of cost and give the indicators a time frame / deadline.

Write the source of information required for the indicators in the "Means of verification" column. These could be sourced from documents, field surveys, training reports, and photos and other sources.

The fourth column is called "Assumptions" – which essentially means a risk analysis. This is about being prepared for external circumstances and how the project will reduce the severity of those risks. This also need to be thought through and budgeted for.

It is recommended to look at three stages of assumptions: risk analysis + mitigation = assumptions. She gives the following example: If the risk is frequent floods in the project area, what can the project do to reduce the severity of this risk? One option is to ensure staff and community is trained in emergency procedures. So in the assumption cell you put: "staff and community training and disaster management to minimise the impact of floods".
It needs to be remembered that logframes are not plans "written in stone". This tool needs to be seen as flexible to the projects needs and responsive to all stakeholders involved. It has to be adaptable to reflect any changes on the ground.

Typical questions to ask when designing the logframe

Project Structure		**Objectively Verifiable Indicators (OVI)**	**Means of Verification (= Sources)**	**Assumptions (or risks)**
Overall Goal	What are the wider problems the project will help to resolve? To which larger goal does the project contribute?	What are the quantitative and qualitative evidence by which the project contributes to a larger goal?	What are the sources of information?	What conditions outside the control of the implementing NGO are necessary if the achievement of the projects objective is to contribute to the realisation of the overall goal?
Objectives	What are the intended short and medium term changes / effects on the beneficiaries? What are the expected benefits and to	What are the quantitative and qualitative evidence by which objectives and benefits can be judged?		

	whom will they go? What changes will the project bring about for the beneficiaries?			
Outputs	What results are to be produced by the project in order to achieve the objective(s)?	What kind of output in which quantity and by when will be produced?	What are the sources of information?	What external factors must be present for the outputs to be likely to lead to the achievement of the objectives?
Activities	Means What tasks and work must be carried out to produce those outputs?	Write a summary of key inputs needed to carry out the activities with costs. What materials, equipment's are to be provided at what cost over what period by the implementing organisation, other NGOs, donors or beneficiaries?		Pre-conditions: What external factors must be present for the implementation of the activities in order to produce the planned outputs on schedule?

Further advise on designing a lograme:

Overall goal

The goal is wider in scope and/or longer-term than an objective. The goal may not necessarily be reached with the project completion but successful completion of the project is necessary but not a sufficient condition for attaining the goal.

Objectives

- Limit the number of objectives that can realistically be managed. Experience suggests that multiple objectives diffuse project efforts and weaken the design.
- Objectives relate to changes which are hoped to occur and bring an improvement in the lives of the beneficiaries. Their realisation is outside the control (and therefore beyond the managerial responsibility) of the project implementation team.
- Be aware of not formulating over-reaching objectives.
- Specify objectives with verbs" "increased - reduced – enhanced - improved ..."

Outputs

- It is for the outputs that the project team can be held accountable, having been given resources to produce them. Outputs are in the control of the project.
- Specify outputs in the past tense: "... trained ...completed…gained….created…"

Activities

- List activities in brief - just enough to outline the strategy for producing outputs and achieving objectives and to provide the basis for a separate, more detailed work plan (= Operational plans / annual plans).
- Specify activities in the present tense: "Construct ...hold ... develop ... distribute ... train ... organise… distribute…"
- Pre-conditions have to be accomplished in order to be able to achieve the project outputs and objectives. A pre-condition is different from an assumption in that it is a condition that must be fulfilled or met before project activities can start.

Assumptions (= as external factors crucial for the project's success)

- Select assumptions by asking "what conditions, outside the implementing organisation's control, must exist in addition to the activities (or outputs, or objectives) in order to reach the next level?"
- Check validity of vertical logic, in the form "*if* (activities) *and* (activities-to-outputs assumptions) *then* (outputs)"; and so on up the Logframe.
- Generally, the significance of assumptions and the degree of uncertainty increases

as you move up the Logframe. There should be fewer uncertainties about whether activities will produce outputs than about whether outputs will lead to objectives.

- There are likely to be many uncertainties influencing the achievement of the overall goal and it is usually not necessary to analyse these in detail beyond specifying the existence of major constraints within the project context (e.g. political instability).
- Check for *'killer assumptions'* that are likely to derail the project - that is, those which are very important for the project success but unlikely to occur. Where these are identified, project design will need to be re-assessed.
- Include only those assumptions/risks which have a reasonable chance of occurring but which are not almost certain to occur.

Indicators (= objectively verifiable indicators - OVIs)

- Indicators describe a project's objectives in measurable terms and provide the basis for performance measurement and project monitoring and evaluation. Indicators are parameters of changes or outputs, indicating as to what extent the project objectives have been achieved.
- The basic principle of the indicators column is 'if you can measure/assess it, you can manage it'. Indicators tell the project team not only what achievements are necessary but also what will be sufficient to make it possible to reach the next level. It is best to begin with setting indicators for objectives.
- Limit the number of indicators to the minimum required to clarify whether the stated objectives have been achieved.
- Begin with describing the nature of the indicator (qualitative or quantitative), ensure it is numerically quantifiable (even if qualitative, e.g. 50% of participating women's group leaders perceive that they are empowered to bring in their needs into the village development plans and participate in the implementation), and then add quality and time dimensions.
- Use proxy (indirect) indicators where necessary (e.g. assets created as a proxy indicating increased income).
- Disaggregate indicators by gender and other significant differences among beneficiaries (such as age, ethnicity or socio-economic group) where relevant and

feasible and / or select a gender sensitive indicator.

- Goal-level indicators may include changes beyond the scope of the project, such as improved standard of living. Such changes may be brought about by the combined efforts of several projects.
- Indicators corresponding to objectives and targets for outputs must be reviewed continuously, during the project, in response to project developments and changes in the external context.

Means of verification (= sources of verification)

- Sources of verification describe where and in what form to find the necessary information on the achievement of objective / output indicators.
- Sources of verification are placed in to the third column of the logframe matrix.
- Do appropriate external sources already exist (e.g. reports or statistics?) Are these sources specific enough? Are the sources reliable and accessible? It the cost for obtaining the information reasonable? Should other sources be created?
- If the indicators chosen are not assessable by some means (or too costly to assess), find other indicators or develop proxy indicators. Indicators require time, staff and have certain cost implications.
- Add to the project budget the costs of collecting, analysing and presenting information on indicators (e.g. monitoring visits, review meetings, documentation).

Means and costs

Means are the human, material and service resources (= inputs) needed to carry out the planned activities and management support activities. Costs are the financial resources needed to carry out the activities. In order to be able to estimate human, material and financial resources needed it is necessary to specify the planned activities and the management support activities sufficiently.

It is important to understand that the logframe exercise will require specific allocation of funds to finance activities such as consultants, ad-hoc meetings, workshops or hiring of advisors/consultants if necessary, to carry out the stakeholder analysis, preparation of the planning matrix, etc. These costs need to be included in the budget for planning. For the

project implementation stage, the collection and analysis of data identified in the indicators and tools used might entail also costs that should be reflected in the M&E budget line within the project budget.

General

Cross-cutting themes such as gender, environment and sustainability should be incorporated where appropriate. These considerations should be tracked at all levels of the logframe regardless of the overall priority to which the project responds.

Advantage

The Logframe:

- Allows the feasibility of a project to be checked by setting out explicitly the internal coherence and the external plausibility of what is planned.
- Provides a focussed summary by forcing tight use of language.
- Facilitates communication about the project among stakeholders.
- Promotes objective-led rather than activity-led planning.
- Facilitates linkage between micro-planning and macro-planning.
- Highlights the limits of control, predictability and therefore responsibility by specifying key assumptions.
- Forces negotiation of consensus among planners by seeking simple statements of a limited number of objectives.
- Facilitates management of diverse activities unified by common objectives.
- Forces those involved to be explicit about the implications of carrying out planned activities, in terms of resources, assumptions and risks.
- Forces planners to think from the outset about how they will monitor and evaluate a project.

Limitations

- Logframe can turn it into an inflexible blueprint if not handled flexible.
- Logframe assumes hierarchical cause-effect logic.
- Logframe is neutral in relation to gender and environment issues and may allow

planners to ignore them.

- Logframe emphasises assessment of effects rather than understanding the process of change.
- With participatory approaches to logframe design, the often inexperience and broad base of participants may lead to unrealistic objectives or certain activities and outputs overlooked.
- Logframe looks only at planned / expected (positive) objectives and outputs but ignores unexpected or unintended changes (*which needs to be included in the effect chain – see Module III on monitoring*)

An example of a blank logframe format is given in Annex 4.

3.7. OPERATIONAL PLANNING AND ALIGNING ACTIVITIES TO BUDGETS

A logframe matrix provides only a summary of the key information on a project. This means that in general only the most important aspects are being included in the framework matrix without elaboration the operational details needed for further planning and implementation (= operational plans). Activity plans and resource schedules are a means to provide the operational detail needed. Following the logframe sequence they are established on the basis of the lograme matrix. Having drawn up an activity schedule that specifies a project's activities in operational detail a resource schedule can be drawn up to elaborate on the costs of the means required.

3.7.1. ACTIVITY SCHEDULES

In an activity schedule a project's activities are broken down into operational detail (= an operational plan) which:

- Lays open dependencies between activities
- Clarifies the sequence, duration and priorities of activities
- Identifies key milestones to be achieved
- Serves as a basis for monitoring
- Assigns management responsibility and implementing responsibilities

Guidance for making an operational plan:

1. **Break the activities down into sub-activities and manageable tasks.**

   The activities should be detailed down so that they provide a good basis to estimate time and resources needed to carry out the activities and they should be detailed enough that the person finally assigned to carry out the activities ahs sufficient instructions on what has to be done.

2. **Clarify the sequence and dependency of the activities.**

   After having specified the activities in operational detail, they must be related to each other to see in which order they have to be undertaken (= sequence and which activity depends on the start up of completion of another activity (= dependency).

3. **Specify start, duration and completion of activities.**

   Specifying the timing of project activities means to make estimates on the duration of tasks, building those estimates into the activity schedule – indicating likely start and completion dates. To make sure that the estimates are realistic people having the necessary technical knowledge or experience should be consulted. Often the time needed to carry out activities is underestimated due to a number of reasons that can be the oversight of crucial activities of tasks, failure to allow sufficiently for interdependence of activities, a failure to allow for resource competition, (e.g. scheduling the same person or piece of equipment to do two or more things at once) and a desire to impress with the promise of rapid results.

4. **Define milestones.**

   Milestones define targets to be achieved by the activities and provide the basis for monitoring. A simple milestone is the completion of a task to a planned date. In an activity schedule the activities, sub-activities and tasks are listed in a consecutive way, therefore accomplishing a certain task in time can be seen as a milestone on the way to achieve outputs.

5. **Assign tasks and responsibilities**

   Allocating tasks also means allocating responsibilities for achieving milestones. It is a means of defining the accountability of the members of a project team. Before allocating tasks the expertise required to carry out respective tasks has to be specified. By doing so it can be checked whether all necessary human resources are available and the schedule is feasible.

Operational plans lay the ground for further planning (resource schedules) and later on for the project management. They provide an initial benchmark including estimates that might have to be revised in the light of changing circumstances or actual implementation performance.

A possible format for presenting an activity schedule is a chart with all sub-activities listed and the 12-month of a year and allocated responsibilities (A, B, C, D and E). This chart allows a rapid overview of the sequence, duration and interrelation of activities to be undertaken.

Activity Schedule

Activities	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June	Etc.		Who
1.									A
2.									B
3.									C
4.									D
5.									E
etc.									Etc.

3.7.2. RESOURCE SCHEDULES

Resource schedules provide the basis for the planned mobilisation of resources (external and local), facilitate results-based budgeting and the monitoring of cost-effectiveness. To establish a resource schedule the list of activities, sub-activities and tasks elaborated n the activity schedule is being copied into a resource schedule form. Then in a first step the

means (human and material resources) necessary to carry out the activities are specified. In a second step the cost of the means are specified following defined categories such as

- Units
- Quantities per defined period (e.g. quarters of a year)
- Unit costs

On this basis cost per period and total project cost can be easily calculated. In addition a column can be included to specify the funding source to indicate the contributions of the different parties involved.

Specifying first the means and then the costs of all sub-activities and tasks indicated in the activity schedule will allow to use simple formulae and calculate the total cost of a project. Attention should be paid whether the cost identified is covered through the financial resources available.

As simple as the mathematical part of calculating the costs at the end might be, estimating the costs for the respective means has to be based on carful budgeting, making use of professional know-how and experience. How realistically a project is budgeted will not only greatly influence the decision on whether or not to finance it, it will later on have a considerable effect on the implementation of the project.

Budget

Activities	Code	Unit costs	Nos.	Total	Rec
1. Land protection					
1.1. Salaries	A.1	200	20	4000	
1.2. Equipment	B.3	350	4	1400	
1.3. Consultant	B.4	1000	3	3000	
2.					
3.					
etc.					

CHAPTER-4

REFLECTION

Here are some questions for you to reflect on and even open up for discussion in your organisation:

- How would you describe your project? Explain as expressively as possible the ultimate, "big picture" vision and objective of your completed endeavor. How will it look, perform, increase productivity, help the community, or otherwise benefit people?
- What are the objectives and overall goal? What is the project trying to accomplish?
- Who Will Benefit From Your Project?
- Examples who are the stakeholder and beneficiaries?
- Will the project creating any products or offering services? What are the outputs
- What are the intended changes? Could there be any unintended changes?
- What are the milestones for those changes? Do you have concrete indicators for performance, progress, outputs, and objectives?
- What methods have you used to plan the project / will you use in future?
- Does your project has a logframe? If yes, revisit it and make up your mind what is good / weak about your logframe.
- How participatory is your project planned?
- What kind of schedule or operational plan does your project have?
- Do you have any partners or collaborators?
- Do you anticipate joining forces with other organisations, consultants, or agencies to complete the project? If so, what experience, expertise, credibility, funding, or other benefits will each party bring and what weaknesses do they have?
- Does your project need specific information or advice?
- Who will be responsible for what? What are the team's roles?
- What risks should your project plan to manage?

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ANNEXURES

ANNEX 1: PRACTICAL STEPS AND CONCEPT FOR A GENDER ANALYSIS OVERVIEW

During project planning **a gender analysis** is a core element of the **stakeholder analysis**, the aim being to help promote equitable access to project benefits. Gender analysis is the process of assessing the outcome and impact that a development activity may have on females and males, and on gender relations (Economic and social relationships between males and females which are constructed and reinforced by social institutions). It can be used to ensure that men and women are not disadvantaged by project activities, to enhance the sustainability and effectiveness of activities, or to identify priority areas for action to promote equality between women and men. During planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, gender analysis assists to assess differences in participation, benefits and outcomes / impacts between males and females, including progress towards gender equality and changes in gender relations. Gender analysis can also be used to assess and build capacity and commitment to gender sensitive planning and programming in organisations; and to identify gender equality issues and strategies at country, sectoral or thematic programming level.

There are a number of different frameworks for undertaking gender analysis. This outline here gives some essential steps that need to be addressed to undertake gender analysis for each of the different levels referred to above, and draws on concepts from a number of different frameworks.

SUMMARY OF KEY GENDER ANALYSIS STEPS – CAN BE FOLLOWED IN PRACTICE.

1. **Collect sex-disaggregated household, workplace and community data and information** relevant to the project for each area below.
2. Assess how the **gender division of labour and patterns of decision-making** affects the project, and how the project affects the gender division of labour and decision-making.
3. Assess who has **access to and control over resources, assets and benefits**, including program/project benefits.

4. Understand women's/girls' and men's/boys' different **needs, priorities and strengths**.
5. Understand the **complexity of gender relations in the context of social relations,** and how this constrains or provides **opportunities** for addressing gender inequality.
6. Assess the **barriers and constraints** to women and men participating and benefiting equally from the project.
7. Develop **strategies to address barriers and constraints**, include these strategies in project design and implementation, and ensure that they are adequately resourced.
8. Assess **partners/stakeholders (who are involved in the project) capacity** for gender sensitive planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluating, and develop strategies to strengthen their capacity.
9. Assess the potential of the project to **empower women**, address strategic gender interests and **transform gender relations**.
10. Develop **gender-sensitive indicators** to monitor participation, benefits, the effectiveness of gender equality strategies, and changes in gender relations *(This is more elaborated in module III: Monitoring).*
11. Apply the above information and analysis throughout the project cycle.

Step 1: Collect sex-disaggregated data/information

This refers to the differentiation by sex of statistical data and other information and is sometimes called "gender-disaggregated data". This means that we must count both males and females when gathering information for planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating activities. Disaggregating information by sex is a basic good practice requirement for gender-sensitive programming. Without disaggregated information, it is difficult or impossible to assess the different outcomes and impacts of development activities on males or females. It is important to disaggregate data not only by sex, but also by age (girls and boys, older men and women), race, ethnicity, caste and any other socioeconomic group, which may be affected positively, or negatively by a projects activity.

There are many ways that NGOs can gather sex-disaggregated information. Data collection methods and the quantity of data required will vary according to a range of factors,

including the sector and type of development activity, the scale of the activity, the resources and time available for data collection during design, implementation and evaluation, and the institutional context. While there are now many sources of quantitative data on the status of women and girls, up-to-date and relevant information specific to the location and activity can sometimes be difficult to get. Sex disaggregated qualitative information based on consultation with key stakeholders and local women's groups are also essential. Participatory methods may provide opportunities to hear from both women and men separately (For example, participatory ways of gathering information on the gender division of labour, or on access to resources), and for women and men to hear each other's perspectives.

The following factors may influence the accuracy and coverage of data:

- **Who is present**: In some cultures women will respond very differently to questions about their economic and social activities, and their views about gender relations if men are present. If men answer questions first, women may remain silent, even if they disagree, or if inaccurate information is given.
- **Time of the day, season and location**: Women may not be available at certain times of day, and men may be less likely to be present at other times. It is important to choose both a time and place which is convenient for women, for individual and group interviews or participatory information-gathering exercises. Women and men may be less available during peak labour periods, such as harvesting or transplanting times.
- **Who is the facilitator/interviewer**: In some cultures and situations, responses to questions will be more accurate if women gather information from women. Training and supporting beneficiaries to collect and interpret data is also one way of involving women in project planning, monitoring and evaluation, and may increase the accuracy and quality of data and its analysis. Class, age, ethnic background and occupation may also influence peoples' responses. It may be necessary to monitor whether these factors are introducing bias.
- **Language difficulties**: Men and women may have different proficiency in national (as distinct from local or ethnic) languages, particularly where gaps in education and literacy between males and females are significant.

- **Collect information on all relevant work**: Overlooking unpaid and subsistence work will result in under-reporting and misrepresentation of both women's and men's workload. Without this information, it can be difficult to identify the constraints, which may face them in participating in or benefiting from project activities. Much of women's work is under-valued or 'invisible' to men and outsiders. Typically, men may not give accurate information about what women do, how long it takes to do it, where the work is done, or who benefits from different activities.
- **Local women's organisations / self help groups**: Women's organisations and groups can be accurate sources of information about the gender division of labour, patterns of decision making, access to resources, women's and men's needs, priorities and strengths, how gender relations are changing, and the factors causing changes in gender relations. Often, these organisations have a rich knowledge of how current development activities and trends are helping or hindering women and men. With adequate resources, they can be effective catalysts for engaging the participation of women, men, boys and girls.
- **Cross check data**: It is always necessary to cross check data for accuracy and bias, including gender bias, regardless of the data collection method used. Local women's groups and local female researchers may be good sources for cross checking, as well as other key community informants. Cross checking may assist with analysis of data, and may indicate differences in perception about social and economic conditions, rather than actual inaccuracy in data collected. Using a range of reliable informants knowledgeable about the target group and women's and men's experiences is critical.
- **Technical and sectoral expertise**: It is helpful to have a social scientist / social worker with expertise in participatory data collection and gender analysis on planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. However, it is just as important for each team member to be responsible for collecting and analysing sex-disaggregated information in his or her own sector or area of expertise.

Step 2: Assess the gender division of labour and patterns of decision-making

This step in the gender analysis process describes who does what, within the household, community, workplace, organisation or sector. Important issues to consider include:

- **What work is done, and by whom** (Female and male adults, elders and children)? One good rule of thumb is to ask how the gender division of labour will affect the implementation of project activities; and how these activities are likely to affect the gender division of labour.
- Different types of work to consider are: **Productive (Formal and non-formal sectors), reproductive, essential household and community services, and community management and politics.** It is also important to explore **who makes decisions** about different types of work, and how this is changing. For example, in the education sector, it is important to know in which areas and at what levels females and males predominate as learners, teachers and decision makers, and why. In the health sector, women are often traditionally responsible for providing basic health care in the family and community. It is important to know how men and women are involved in the provision of health services (formally and non-formally), and how the gender division of labour, responsibility and decision making in the family impacts on women's and men's health. Decision making about reproduction, about who in the family is resourced to go to health centres, tolerance of violence against women, and the physical burden of work can greatly influence women and girls' health. Understanding decision-making patterns can also provide insight into who has control over labour in the community.
- **How much time is needed** to undertake each activity, and when is the work done? This information helps to identify periods when there is a high demand for labour, so that an assessment can be made of any extra demands that project inputs will make on women, men and children. This is particularly important for rural development projects, where the scarcest resource for low-income women is time**.** For example, the different domestic and productive workload of girls and boys has been identified as an important factor in both enrolment and retention rates at school, as well as in educational achievement.

- **Where does each activity take place** (for example, home, village, market place, fields, urban centre or rural area, and how far away from the household)? This gives insight into female and male mobility, and allows an assessment to be made of the outcome and impact of the project on mobility, method of travel, the travel time needed to accomplish each activity, and potential ways of saving time. For example, for women to participate in training activities, timing and location needs to be carefully considered.
- It is important to consider all the above **for each socioeconomic or ethnic group** targeted by the project, or affected by the project. A good gender analysis is undertaken within the context of a broader social analysis.
- With most projects, it is also important to have a **sex-disaggregated employment profile** of the partner organisation.

Step 3: Assess access to and control over productive resources, assets and benefits

This part of gender analysis describes who has what, within the household, community, workplace, organisation or sector, including who has power. Questions to be asked include:

- Who has **access** to productive resources and assets such as land, forests, water supplies, equipment, labour, capital, credit, new technology and training?
- Who has **control** over how these resources and assets are used, and over who uses them? It is important to distinguish between access to these resources (who uses resources informally or traditionally) and control or decision making power.
- Who belongs to **formal or informal groups or organisations,** who gets mentored or promoted?
- Who **benefits** from the product of women's and men's labour, and who benefits from project activities and education and training opportunities? Questions to ask include:
    - Who benefits from income earned and spent? For example, cash cropping projects often rely on the unpaid family labour of women and girls, but women are often less likely to control or have access to income from cash crops.
    - Who owns and uses any assets or goods created?

- Who gains formal or informal political power, prestige or status?
- Who has access to services, for example health and education, and what factors determine access? For example, the location of facilities, and the attitudes of service providers, may influence women's access to health services.
- Who has **access to project resources**, who has access to information from the project, and who participates in project management processes?
- Project participation and consultation processes may be designed to enhance women and men's access to information about the project and the resources, which it offers. For example, the establishment of project implementation groups (such as water user groups, credit groups or farmer co-operatives) may determine who knows about the project, and who gets control over its resources.
- How information is distributed and to whom, may determine who has access to training opportunities by a project.
- Formal education prerequisites for education and training may impact on men and women very differently.
- These factors will have an impact on women and men's current productive activities and will often change existing gender relations.

Step 4: Understand differences in needs and strengths

It is not unusual for men and women to have different perceptions of their needs and strengths. They may also have different ideas about who does what, who uses what resources, and who controls resources or makes decisions in other important areas of life. Women and men may also have different views about gender relations, how they have changed already, and how they should change in future.

Insights into women's/girls' and men's/boys' needs and strengths may be gained from finding out about the gender division of labour, use of and control over resources, and patterns of decision making. Consultation with participants, in a way which allows both women's and men's voices to be heard, is essential.

Step 5: Understand the complexity of gender relations in the context of social relations

Recognising that projects induced changes occur in a complex and changing social context, this aspect of gender analysis considers social, cultural, religious, economic, political, environmental, demographic, legal and institutional factors and trends, and how they will impact on the project. Questions to be asked include:

- How will these factors and trends influence and change the gender division of labour, women and men's access to and control over resources and benefits, and other aspects of gender relations such as decision making?
- How will these factors and trends constrain or facilitate the project, and the likelihood of successfully achieving objectives?
- How might the program influence these factors and trends, either positively or negatively?
- Which factors are changing and why, and which are very difficult to change?

There are many forms of discrimination, which result in violation of basic human rights to both females and males of all ages. It is important to remember that women face multiple barriers through different stages of their lives, and to understand the different types of discrimination that affect both males and females.

This analysis of social context can help to identify assumptions and risks in the logical framework matrix. Both women's and men's experiences and perspectives need to be considered when identifying critical planning assumptions and risks. Project objectives or methods may need to be modified in the light of these factors.

For example:

- The experiences of boys and girls within the education system need to be considered when identifying factors that contribute to access to education, and educational outcomes.
- Demographic trends such as male migration may mean there are large seasonal variations or long-term changes in the numbers of households supported solely by women. If so, assumptions about the availability of women's and men's labour for project activities may need to be reconsidered. Such factors may also affect boys

and girls access to schooling.

- Cultural factors restricting women and girls' mobility may mean that services (for example, health, education or credit services) are under-utilised if they are located outside the immediate locality.
- For cultural and religious reasons, it may be important to establish separate groups for women and men at the community level. Training and consultation may need to occur separately with women and men, and female extension agents and community workers may be required.
- Legal factors and customary practices may make it very difficult to transfer resources directly to women (such as ownership of land or hand pumps, or access to credit).
- Changing attitudes, economic circumstances and trends **may provide opportunities for improving women's social, economic and legal status**. Analysing such factors and trends may assist project staff to identify areas where the project can address both women's practical needs, as well as their strategic gender interests (as defined by women themselves) to redress current inequalities in the gender division of labour, and in women's access to and ownership of productive resources.

Step 6: Assess barriers and constraints to women and men participating and benefiting equally in the project

Key constraints and barriers to men's and women's participation as beneficiaries and decision makers need to be identified during project planning for all components and key activities, based on information gathered in the steps above. This is an essential step in the process of gender and social analysis that is often missed. Who benefits and participates, how and why/why not, also needs to be monitored closely during implementation.

Step 7: Include and resource strategies to promote gender equality in project design and implementation

Strategies and activities need to be identified to overcome barriers to women and men participating and benefiting. It is important to assess which constraints, barriers or

imbalances can realistically be addressed over the life of the project. It is also essential to ensure that strategies are adequately resourced and monitored. For example, gender-sensitive communication, consultation and participation strategies need to be developed and tested. Project staff needs to consider how and when contact is made with target groups, and who may be excluded directly or indirectly by the communication strategies used.

Step 8: Assess project partners / stakeholders capacity for gender-sensitive planning, implementation and monitoring

Other project partners / stakeholders capacity for gender-sensitive implementation is still often overlooked. For most projects in which several partners or stakeholders are part in the planning and implementation, it is important to assess their institutional capacity to implement gender-sensitive activities. This step is essential to carry out as early as possible in the project cycle, so that appropriate strategies for strengthening this capacity can be explored and included in the project design.

Step 9: Assess the potential for the project to empower women and address strategic interests

It is useful to distinguish between practical gender needs and strategic gender interests which may be addressed during project implementation:

Practical gender needs are the immediate and practical needs women have for survival, which do not challenge existing culture, tradition, the gender division of labour, legal inequalities, or any other aspects of women's lower status or power. Projects that focus on practical gender needs may make it easier for women and girls to carry out their traditional roles and responsibilities, and relieve their daily burden of work. All household members share these practical needs. However, because women are generally responsible for providing these needs for the family, they are often more easily identified by women as their highest priority needs.

Strategic gender interests focus on bringing about equality between females and males, by transforming gender relations in some way, by challenging women's disadvantaged position or lower status, or by challenging and changing men's roles and responsibilities.

Women may not always be able to articulate their strategic interests. It is important to have discussions with women about their role and place in society, their rights, and how they would like things to change. It is equally important to have discussions with men on these issues. Strategic gender interests may express women and men's long-term aspirations for equality.

It is possible to address women's strategic interests by working with men as well as women (For example, by raising men's awareness of the impact of their behaviour and power inequalities on women's work burden and health); focusing on practical needs in an empowering way, which also promotes strategic interests (For example, by involving women in decision making in areas where they do not traditionally have a role or power, such as in the management or maintenance of water supplies or purpose of loan); and using practical needs as an entry point for raising awareness about inequality and rights, or about women's and men's roles and responsibilities and their long term interests.

What is strategic in one social and cultural context may not be strategic in other contexts. Some examples of strategic gender interests are women's rights to live free from violence; have equal land tenure; have equal control over other productive resources such as credit, forests, water supplies; be involved in decision making; and have equal educational and training opportunities and outcomes.

Step 10: Develop gender-sensitive indicators

Gender sensitive indicators are essential for monitoring the outcomes and impacts of project activities on males and females, and on changes in gender relations. To be gender sensitive, indicators need to:

- Require the collection of sex-disaggregated information wherever possible on who participates and benefits;
- Assess whether the project has different outcomes and impacts for males and females, and assist the team to analyse why these differences between women and men occur;
- Assess whether the project is bringing about a change in gender relations, and assist the team to analyse how gender relations are changing (positively or negatively), and how this change affects the achievement of overall project objectives; and

- Involve both women and men in developing indicators, and in collecting and analysing information.

It is important to include a mix of both quantitative and qualitative indicators, in order to assess benefits, changes in gender relations and other impacts. Reporting on indicators should always be accompanied by qualitative analysis, to ensure that data is interpreted correctly.

For example:

A quantitative gender sensitive indicator for a sanitation project may measure the number of males and females who attend awareness-raising workshops. Qualitative indicators may assess whether females and males can identify ways to protect themselves from infections, whether they are able to talk about personal hygiene and use toilets instead of open defecation and whether there is increased community acceptance of women and men to increase the overall hygiene situation (personal / community) and stop open defecation.

In a rural water project, a quantitative indicator may be the number of women represented on water committees. Qualitative indicators may assess whether women have actively participated in management and decision-making on water committees and if their needs are reflected in the plans and implemented with women's participation; or assess men's and women's views on the appropriateness of the location and type of water facility provided.

Step 11: Apply information and analysis through the project cycle and to all major project documents

This requires the formulation of a range of questions that will vary according to the nature and sector of the project, and the social and development context. Each project can use the above steps and adjust these points and questions. **Each of the above steps needs to be considered throughout the activity cycle**, beginning with project design and planning, implementation and monitoring and evaluation.

For example, during country and sectoral programming, an assessment of partners capacity and commitment to gender sensitive planning is critical, along with other aspects of gender analysis. During project design and planning, the gender analysis process is not complete until project-specific operational strategies and gender-sensitive indicators are developed to ensure that both men's and women's needs and priorities are systematically addressed.

During implementation, as information is collected for monitoring in line with the indicators, it is important to be prepared to change the way projects carry out projects if one finds that there are unintended or harmful effects (Re-planning based on identified weaknesses and deviations), or if one finds that women's or men's needs or priorities are being overlooked. This may require changes to activities or even strategies (Re-planning).

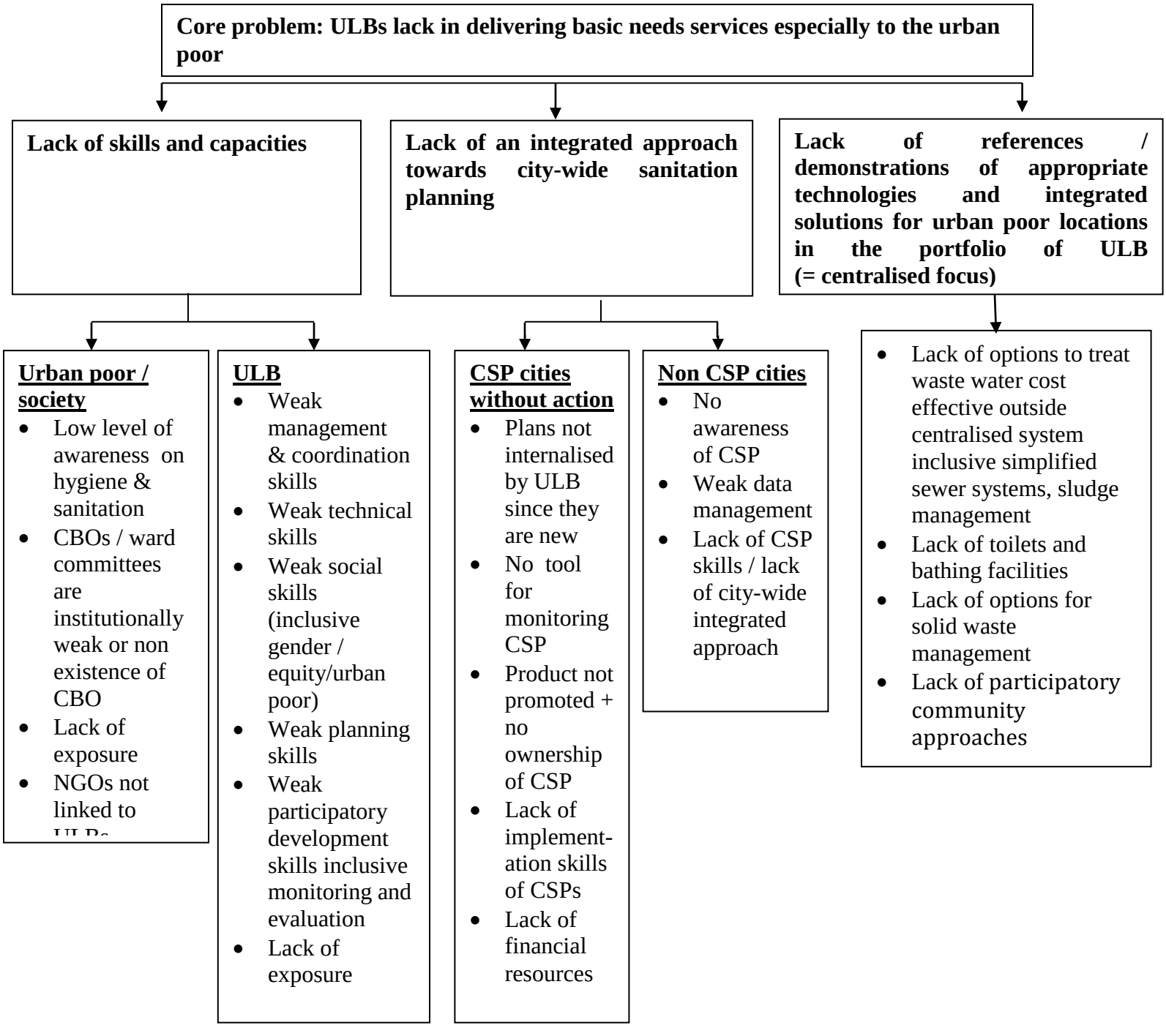
Gender perspectives need to be systematically integrated into all major project documents, rather than confined to a separate section of a document, or to a separate organisations sender strategy. It is particularly important that logframes adequately reflect social and gender analysis undertaken during planning. Explicit references to gender equality outcomes, or to the benefits to be gained by women and men, are needed in the logframe, in the statement of the objectives or outputs. In addition to gender-sensitive indicators, means of verification need to ensure that both women's and men's voices are heard. Formulating assumptions and risk assessment also need to consider gender dimensions.

Conclusion

Gender analysis is most useful when it is applied routinely to all aspects of project planning, implementation and review (rather than as an after-thought or 'add- on'); when it is undertaken in a participatory manner; and when it is applied to project objectives, so that they are modified in response to the needs and interests of both women and men. One major challenge for the future is to ensure that gender analysis is integrated into a broader analysis of projects, along with sustainability and poverty analysis (Also included in the evaluation standard criteria).

ANNEX 2: PROBLEM TREE FOR PROJECT ON "DEVELOPMENT OF URBAN LOCAL BODIES IN INDIA"

ULB = Urban local body
CSP = City sanitation planning



ANNEX 3: OBJECTIVE TREE FOR A PROJECT ON "CITY SANITATION PLANNING (CSP) WITH URBAN LOCAL BODIES (ULB) IN INDIA"

Overall objective: The project contributes to 1.) Integrated action at municipality level to reduce poverty and support inclusive and sustainable economic development and
2.) Environmental safe sanitation and improve the health situation of urban poor.

Specific project objective: ULBs are strengthened to select the right sanitation options and implement them

Output 1: Building of skills and capacities of ULBs personnel to deliver sanitation services and of users to demand the services

Activities to produce output 1
1.1. Training of ULB personnel in decentralised waste water treatment technologies for communities, small enterprises, solid waste management, participatory approaches, project management and social interventions
1.2. Orientation of ULB personnel through exposure visits to learning projects of decentralised sanitation services
1.3. Conduct awareness generation activities and launch sanitation campaigns together with ward committee / CBOs / local NGOs based on IEC study
1.4. Establish competent CBOs for operation & maintenance of decentralised sanitation services and strengthen ward committees

Output 2: ULB's are strengthened in preparing CSPs and planning / implementing sanitation options based on CSP

Activities to produce output 2
2.1. Analysis of gaps / constraints in the CSP implementation
2.2. Create system for improved data base management
2.3. Conduct study on marketing sanitation and support ULB in developing IEC strategy
2.4. Develop monitoring tool for CSP implementation and provide tool for assessing health & sanitation data
2.5. Conduct study on effective CSP marketing with piloting selected interventions
2.6. Train ULB personnel in integrated city-wide sanitation planning
2.7. Develop strategy on gender, equity and urban poor

Output 3: Decentralised basic needs services and technologies are piloted in urban poor locations and serve as a learning project for ULBs.

Activities to produce output 3
3.1. Community based sanitation with decentralised waste water treatment, solid waste management are piloted in poor communities
3.2. PPP model established as learning project

Cross cutting activities
4.1 Provide a platform to disseminate learning's from the sanitation interventions to a larger circle of ULBs: Seminars, documentation, case studies, media work, and exposure.

ANNEX 4: LOGFRAME FORMAT

Project Holder:
Project Title:
Project No.:

OVERALL GOAL/OVERALL OBJECTIVE		**SOURCES / MEANS OF VERIFICATION**	**ASSUMPTIONS / RISKS**
PROJECT OBJECTIVE 1 (Incl. use of outputs)	**INDICATORS** **1** **2** **3**	**SOURCES**	**ASSUMPTIONS**
PROJECT OBJECTIVE 2 (Incl. use of outputs)	**INDICATORS** **1** **2** **3**		
PROJECT OBJECTIVE 3 (Incl. use of outputs)	**INDICATORS** **1** **2** **3**		
OUTPUTS	**INDICATORS**	**SOURCES**	**ASSUMPTIONS**
Output 1: **Output 2:** **Output 3:** **Output 4** **Output 5**			
ACTIVITIES RELATED TO OUTPUT 1	**INPUTS (Quantities and Costs)**		**ASSUMPTIONS**
ACTIVITIES RELATED TO OUTPUT 2			
ACTIVITIES RELATED TO OUTPUT 3			