

Unit 4

Transforming Youth Development Needs into a Logical Framework and Action Plan

Unit Overview

In this unit we will continue from where we left off in Unit 3. We will begin the process of converting the priority issues that were identified into clear goals and results and a logical framework. The unit will cover two important techniques in strategic planning: **PROBLEM TREE ANALYSIS** and **RESULTS MAPPING**. These two techniques are extremely helpful in developing a logical framework and defining the specific programmes and projects needed to achieve your organisation's objectives. The problem tree analysis and results mapping techniques are used by many organisations to either develop their strategic plans or to formulate programmes and projects. The techniques are versatile and can be used for different types of planning exercises.

The Unit is again practice based, and provides an opportunity to continue developing practical skills in strategic planning utilising methods and techniques commonly used by development organisations. Formulating a logical framework is a task many individuals find very challenging and it often takes a lot of time and effort before some persons fully grasp the concepts and techniques. For this reason, you will find some repetition of definitions, examples, and tips from previous units and further opportunities to practice what you have learnt. You are strongly encouraged to complete all the exercises, post your workbooks online, provide comments on other workbooks, and make adjustments to your own workbooks based on feedback received.

There is also a useful reference material, the CIDA 2000 RBM Handbook on Developing Results Chains available at <http://www.mosaic-net-intl.ca/documents/RBM%20HANDBOOK%20ON%20DEVELOPING%20RESULTS%20CHAINS.PDF>. The Handbook contains 100 examples of logframes for CIDA staff. We will discuss the Handbook in this unit when we begin to formulate our logical framework.

Throughout the unit you will continue to populate your Workbook and to engage in active online discussions with your peers.

TIP Many of you may have had prior experience developing a logical framework; do not let this fact distract you from completing all the exercises and readings in this unit.

The unit is divided into 3 sessions as follows:

- Session 4.1: Problem Analysis and Results Mapping
- Session 4.2: Formulating Key Components of the Logical Framework – Impacts, Outcomes, Outputs, Risks and Assumptions
- Session 4.3: Measuring Performance – Indicators, Baselines and Targets and Means of Verification

Unit 4 Learning Objectives

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

1. Construct a problem tree and results map.
2. Demonstrate understanding of the relationship among the Problem Tree, Results Map and Logical Framework matrix.
3. Develop a better understanding of the logical framework model and its key components.
4. Complete a logical framework matrix as part of the strategic planning process.

Unit Readings and Additional Online Resources

a) Recommended Readings:

- International Trade Centre, Results Based Management Guide and Toolkit, at http://www.intracen.org/uploadedFiles/intracenorg/Content/About_ITC/Where_are_we_working/Multi-country_programmes/Pact_II/RBM%20Tools%20and%20Guide-Fev%202011-FINAL.pdf
- United Nations Development Group RESULTS-BASED MANAGEMENT HANDBOOK, at <http://www.undg.org/docs/12316/UNDG-RBM%20Handbook-2012.pdf>
- CIDA 2000 RBM Handbook on Developing Results Chains available at <http://www.mosaic-net-intl.ca/documents/RBM%20HANDBOOK%20ON%20DEVELOPING%20RESULTS%20CHAINS.PDF>

b) Recommended videos:

- Problem Tree Analysis video by DMF courses at <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=udOh1iLoiC8>
- Objective Analysis video by DMF courses at <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cP3DvddMmp8>

c) Optional video:

- Performance indicators and targets by DMF courses at <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=X4gk-cHgk0w>

Session 4.1

Problem Analysis and Results Mapping

Introduction

In this session we will begin the process of drilling into the priority issues you had identified for your organisation in unit 3. Our aim will be to analyse the causes and effects of the issues and start the process of formulating our goals and long term objectives. We will introduce the **Problem Tree** analysis and **Results Mapping** techniques which are often used in strategic planning exercises for new programmes and projects. The Problem Tree analysis will be used to analyse the issues selected during the strategic prioritisation process undertaken in unit 3; while the Results Mapping technique will be used to help formulate our results and objectives. The session will prepare you for the next step of the strategic planning process, which is the creation of a logical framework.

UNIT 4 LEARNING ACTIVITY 4.1

If you have ever worked with the Problem Tree analysis or the Results Mapping technique, take a few moments and briefly explain to your colleagues the purpose of these tools.

Session 4.1 Objectives

At the end of this session, you will be able to:

1. Demonstrate understanding of the Problem Tree and Results Map analytical techniques.
2. Construct a Problem Tree for at least one key youth development issue.
3. Create a Results Map based on a Problem Tree analysis.
4. Formulate draft youth development goals based on the problem tree and results map.

Problem Tree Analysis

At the end of unit 3 you had identified and prioritised a few strategic youth development issues for your organisation to address. It is not unusual for an organisation to come up with 3 or 4 major issues that it will tackle. Of course, as we have stated before, the number of issues will depend, in part, on the capacity of your organisation, the resources it has or can mobilise, and the support it expects to receive to work on those issues. Nonetheless, let us continue with the assumption that there is a core list of 2 priority issues. What next?

Most development organisations will, at this stage, undertake a problem analysis of each of the key issues identified as part of their strategic planning process and before developing their goals and objectives. A **problem analysis**, which is also known as a cause-effect analysis, allows stakeholders to drill into the specific issue and better understand what are the various causes and effects of the problem. This process of analysis deepens and enriches our understanding of the issue, and ensures that we do not move forward with pre-conceived ideas and assumptions. There are many problem analysis techniques and the process also goes by many different names – you may have heard of, or used, the *Fishbone Analysis*, *Problem Tree analysis*, *Root Cause*, or *Cause-Effect* analysis. Whatever the name and format, ***the aim is generally the same: to take a problem and look closely at all the possible causes of that problem, and all the impacts it has on the society or target group.***

Table 4.1 Alternate Names for Problem Analysis

1. Cause-effect Analysis
2. Fishbone Analysis
3. Problem Tree Analysis
4. Root Cause

It is recommended that prior to the problem analysis stakeholders should review all the available information, studies and data to deepen their understanding of the specific issue. This can be the same data you had collected during the initial general situation analysis.

You should pull together all the main stakeholders relevant to the particular issue. You can refer to the stakeholder analysis which you had done earlier in this course to see which stakeholders

are most important to your organisation and to the issues that you have selected. Make sure you have a good cross-section of persons represented, including the youth themselves.

The problem tree analysis is best done on a large wall or on large sheets of paper which allow stakeholders to start with the main issue and then look at all the causes and root causes of that issue as well as the main impacts. The same analysis would be done for each of the main issues prioritised by your organisation.

Let us assume that your organisation had identified two major issues - youth unemployment and juvenile criminal activities in inner city communities – from the exercise you did in unit 3. We will work with this assumption from this point forward.

The basic technique is to start with the main issue and ask the question, “*What has caused this situation?*” For example, for the youth unemployment issue we would ask, “*Why are youth 15-24 years old in x communities unemployed?*” Or, for the youth juvenile crime issue, we could ask, “*Why are these youth involved in crime?*” Then you would start writing down the responses to this initial question and organising these responses. As you go through the process, you should try to identify immediate causes, underlying causes and root causes of the problem. For example, some stakeholders may say that youth are unemployed because companies won’t employ them. This would be an immediate cause. Or someone may say it is because the youth are not looking for a job (immediate cause). Then we would ask, *Why won’t companies employ these youth or why are they not looking for jobs?* This will help us find the underlying causes. We may find that an underlying cause is that the youth do not have the skills that the companies are looking for. Then we would continue asking, “*Why don’t the youth have those skills?*” We would continue this questioning until we get to the **root** of the problem.

In the problem tree analysis the problem or issue is known as the *Tree Trunk*, and the causes of the problem are seen as the *Roots*. The effects of the problem are the *Branches*. The diagram below illustrates a partial problem tree analysis (there are many other issues not included in the analysis given the space available.) Study it carefully. Note that the problem tree both helps us to visualise the causes and effects of our problem/issue but also begins to prepare us to understand the **logic** of the solutions needed – the logframe.

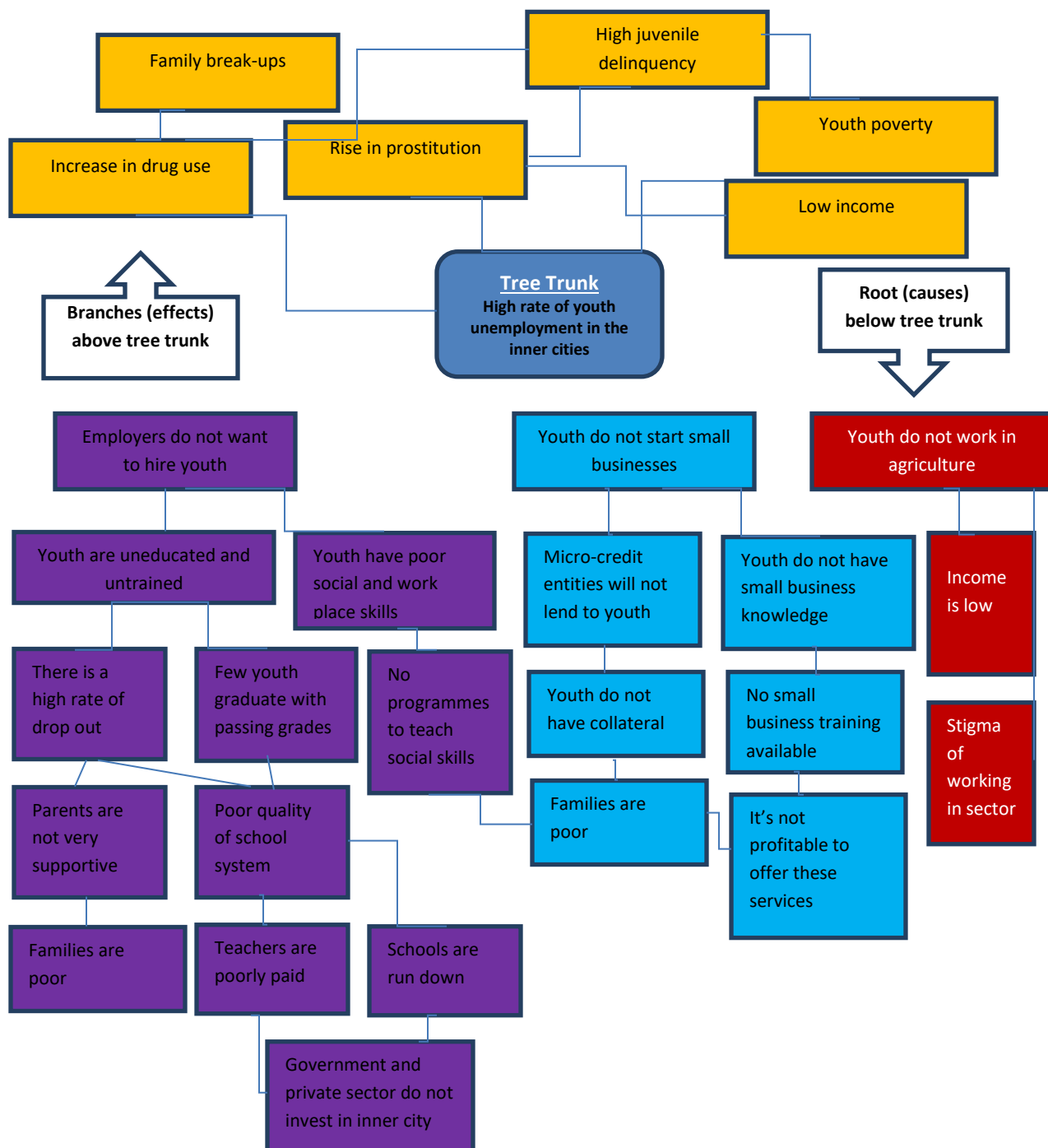


Figure 4.1: Sample Problem Tree on Youth Unemployment

Please take note of the following four additional points:

1. The problem/issue should be stated as a negative condition. This is important; otherwise the method will not be as effective.
2. Avoid the temptation of stating the problem as the absence of a solution. For example, take this case where a problem was stated as “There are not enough Golden Age homes for the elderly.” Can you see the weakness in this phrasing? The weakness is that this phrasing makes the solution seem obvious: build more Golden Age homes for the elderly. This solution may not, however, be the most appropriate or could prove costly. What if it were more cost efficient to provide families a government stipend so that they could afford to pay a nurse to take care of their elderly at home? If the problem had been stated as “The elderly are not receiving adequate services” then the analysis could look at all the possible reasons and also all possible solutions.
3. Spend some time reviewing your problem tree to ensure that it is complete and accurate, and that all the major causes and effects have been identified. Do not rush the process. Look to see whether you have identified policy, institutional, social, cultural, and economic causes of the problem/issue.
4. Think outside the box! Try to avoid thinking of the same traditional causes. Gather unique perspectives and ideas, and look at the issues from a different angle.

HINT Prior to completing the activity below; reread the section above titled, Problem Tree Analysis. Be sure you understand what is being explained. Reach out to your e-Tutor or CC for help if you have difficulties.

=====

UNIT 4 LEARNING ACTIVITY 4.2

- Please watch the following short video by DMF courses on how to conduct a problem analysis: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=udOh1iLoiC8>.
- In your pre-assigned group, choose an issue that was prioritised from Activity 3.9 in the previous Unit. Prepare a problem tree for the selected problem. Ensure that your tree has immediate, underlying and root causes of problems on it.
- Upload your problem tree to the online discussion board (if you had prepared a tree using a flipchart you can take a high quality photograph of the problem tree and upload that; make sure that the images are visible and clear.)

- Comment on the problem trees posted by other groups.

=====

In real situations, the problem analysis exercise is often done by a smaller group of stakeholders with an interest in the particular issue. You could therefore have 3 or 4 smaller groups of stakeholders working on the 3 or 4 priority issues selected, and then pull the various analyses together into one overarching document (this is normally how UN agencies prepare their country strategies which may have 3-4 broad thematic areas built around different problems.)

Note that this method is useful in many situations. It is often adopted by agencies aiming to formulate their overall strategies, but it can also be used to design a programme or a project. The technique helps us to have a thorough understanding of whatever the problem is and can be applied to macro, meso or micro level problems.

The Results Map or Results Tree

The Results Map goes by many different names: objective analysis, results tree, solution analysis, solution tree, and so on. The essence of it, however, is that it turns each of the negative causes and effects on the problem tree into a solution, and therefore begins the process of pointing us towards how to design our programmes and projects.

In constructing the results map we generally do two main things:

1. Reword each of the negative causes and effects that we identified into a positive condition. For example, our negative issue of high youth unemployment would be stated as a positive condition such as low rates of youth employment. Similarly, a negative cause such as high drop-out rates could be converted into a positive condition such as reduced drop-out rates or more young people remain in school until graduation.
2. The second very important part of the process is to ask, what would we need to have in place to ensure that we create these positive conditions? While many of the answers will already be on the map after having reworded our negative problems into positive conditions, this extra step often generates additional ideas, and should therefore not be overlooked.

The completed results map will provide a powerful image for all stakeholders to see what the positive outcomes are, and how to get to that point. The map will contain all the information necessary for you to formulate your objectives, outcomes, impacts, and outputs in your logical framework table later on. For example, on our results map our objective may become “To increase youth employment rates in the inner cities...” (This will support our broader goal of improving the welfare of young people in the inner cities.) We could formulate a specific

outcome that says “Increased employment rates for young people (15-24 yrs old) in the inner cities by 2025.” One of our expected impacts could be “Lower rates of poverty among young people by 2025” (because they are employed and earning an income.) Another possible impact could be “reduced rates of criminal activities committed by young people.” We will get to the step of how to formulate impacts and outcomes more precisely later; our intention here is to show how the results map begins to provide the information that will feed into our logical framework.

Note also that this is the point at which you will begin to assess your risks and assumptions. For example, if you look back at our problem tree we will see that we had a set of causes related to poor school facilities and teachers being poorly paid. On our results map we would be indicating that improved school facilities and better pay to teachers working in the inner city schools should lead to improved education performance. But there are many assumptions being made here. We are assuming that with better pay teachers will be attracted to work in the inner city and will be more motivated. This is not necessarily true, however. Similarly, there may be a risk of increased violence which makes teachers unwilling to go into the area. As we construct our results map we should therefore ask the questions: ***What are we assuming? And what are the possible risks?*** Place these risks and assumptions on the map as well.

You can use the following as a guide when formulating risks and assumptions

Table 4.2: Notes on Assumptions and Risks

Assumption	Risk
• Should be outside of the control of the organisation	○ Is outside of the control of our organisation
• Should not be a result that can be included in the result map	○ Has a reasonable possibility of occurring
• Refers to a condition which is necessary for us to achieve our results	○ Could significantly jeopardize our plans or programmes
• Is not a risk stated differently	○ Is not an assumption stated differently

=====

UNIT 4 LEARNING ACTIVITY 4.3

- Please watch the following short video by DMF courses on how to prepare an objective analysis: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cP3DvddMmp8>. (This is the same as a results map.)
- In your same pre-assigned group, construct a results map from the problem tree that you had created in activity 4.1.
- Upload your results map to the online discussion board and comment on the results maps posted by other groups. **Note:** We will use the major components of your results map to construct a

logical framework in the next session. The logframe will be part of your workbook and form a key portion of your graded exercise for this course.

=====

Session 4.1 Summary

In this session we commenced the task of analysing our priority issues using the Problem Tree analysis method. We have also created a results map showing what our desired future situation should look like. We have also begun to look at risks and assumptions as key components of the strategic plan and logframe. We will continue this work in the following session.

Session 4.2

Defining the Key Components of the Logical Framework – Impact, Outcomes, and Outputs

Introduction

Having completed our problem tree and results map, we are now at the point of working on our logical framework and articulating our goals and objectives. In this session we will go through the process of constructing a logical framework, and formulating the key results – impact, outcomes and outputs - as well as the risks and assumptions. In session 4 we will complete the logframe with the remaining components – the indicators, and means of verification.

Session 4.2 Objectives

At the end of this session, you will be able to:

1. Articulate goals and objectives for your youth development programmes.
2. Demonstrate understanding of the format and construction of a logical framework.
3. Construct a logical framework and enter the core components – impacts, outcomes, outputs and risks and assumptions.

Moving from Results Map to Clear Goals and Objectives

We have previously stated that in some organisations goals and impacts are treated as the same. For this reason, in most logical frameworks you will only see impacts, outcomes and outputs. You may also see terms such as Purpose, which is used instead of Outcome in some logframes.

For this course we will focus on constructing a logframe with ***only impacts, outcomes and outputs*** – no goals or objectives. Nonetheless, we will take a few minutes to look at goals and objectives, given that you may come across these terms and also see logframes in which goals and objectives also appear alongside impact, outcomes and outputs.

We will continue to work with the two major issues - youth unemployment and juvenile criminal activities in inner city communities – as before. These are the issues we felt were very important

to address (value), and which our organisation had capacity to address (capacity) and could mobilise resources to address (support). We have now done a problem analysis on these two issues and created a results maps.

Converting these issues into goals and broad objectives is relatively straightforward. For issue one, youth unemployment, we could state that our overarching goal is to help reduce youth unemployment or, alternatively, to help increase youth employment across inner city communities in Jamaica. Likewise, for juvenile criminal activities, we could develop a similar type of goal. The goal essentially paints a picture of what we want to see by the end of the programme(s) that we will be implementing (we will get to the programme later).

A goal can therefore be defined as:

The higher-order objective to which a development intervention is intended to contribute (OECD and USAID global definitions)

Or

- ***“A specific end result desired or expected to occur as a consequence, at least in part, of an intervention or activity. It is the higher order objective....”*** (United Nations Development Group RESULTS-BASED MANAGEMENT HANDBOOK)

Note how both definitions incorporate the word ‘objective’ in them. The idea is that goals and objectives are similar, but goals are higher. A good way to think of goals and objectives is this: ***goals are broader and more general (but not vague) statements of what we are working towards in our programmes, while objectives are narrower and more specific statements of what we will do to get there.*** For example, we may say that our goal is *to help young people achieve their full potential and live more productive lives*; while our objective is *to create employment opportunities for youth in the 15-24 age group*.

You will note that very often goals and objectives start with “To”, as in “Our objective is *to...*” For this reason RBM purists tend to regard goals and objectives as statements of desire, rather than as specific descriptions of the development changes that will happen by a certain time. While many strategic plans and programme and project documents may have these statements of goals and objectives, the tendency is therefore to only include the more measurable results statements (impact, outcomes, outputs, etc) in the logframe. The choice is yours to include or not to include goals and objectives. For our exercise, we will not include them.

Of course, your goal and objective statements, if you decide to include them, would come from your results map. The goals would be based on the highest branch of the results tree, while the objectives would be based on the Tree Trunk and the branches immediately above the tree trunk. If you refer back to the problem tree example we used in session 2, to create our results map we would have reworded the problems of “High juvenile delinquency” and “youth poverty” into something positive such as “reduced juvenile delinquency” and “reduction in youth poverty”. We could then frame our goals around these results. For example, we could state that our goal is “To help young people escape from poverty and juvenile delinquency, and live happier, more productive lives”. At the objective level, we could state that one of our objectives is “To help young people become lawfully and gainfully employed” and another objective could be “To provide young people with attractive alternatives to drug use and crime.” In this way, we would have addressed the results on the highest branches of the results tree.

As stated, for the rest of this session we will not be focussing on creating goals and objectives, but you will see that we adopt the same approaches to create the results statements in the logframe.

UNIT 4 LEARNING ACTIVITY 4.4

Based on the definition and guidance provided above on goals, take a moment to review your Results Map and create at least one goal statement. Upload your statement and comment on two statements posted by your colleagues.

The Logical Framework

We are now at the critical stage of converting our results map into a logical framework. As we have outlined before, the logical framework is simply a formal way of organising the information so that anyone can see the ‘logic’ of how we get from one point to another – from activities to our outcomes and impacts. There are many formats for the logical framework table/matrix but in general a logframe will show *impacts, outcomes, outputs, and indicators*. Some will also show activities, inputs, risks and assumptions.

All the information from your problem tree and results map should help you to prepare the logframe. For example, the impacts are normally the highest branches of the problem tree that were converted into expected impacts on the results map. Going back to our example, when we solve the main problem of youth unemployment what would we expect to see in the long term? The answers are our goals and impacts for our logframe – reduced youth poverty, reduced juvenile delinquency, more stable families. These were our highest branches/effects on our problem tree/results map.

Likewise, to find our outcomes, which are the short to medium term changes we expect to see from solving the problem, we look at the result of solving the main problem – youth unemployment. In this case, the short to medium term outcomes would be the reduction in youth unemployment as well as the increase in youth income, reduction in drug use, and so on.

At the output level, we are looking to find the things that need to be produced and put into place for us to solve the main problem and achieve the outcomes that we expect. In our case, we may need rehabilitated schools, a new salary supplementation or incentive scheme for inner city teachers, a micro-credit programme for young people in the inner cities etc. These would all be outputs/initiatives.

Our activities would be the specific actions that we need to take to produce the outputs, such as putting out a tender for a contractor to rehabilitate 20 schools, or organising a workshop for parents.

Indicators, as we have said before, are how we will know if we are on track to achieve our results, or how we measure our performance. We would measure at all levels – from outputs to impacts. At **the output level** we could be measuring number of new schools built or % of schools rehabilitated. At **the outcome level** we could be measuring the change in youth income or youth drug abuse. At **the impact level** we could measure rates of poverty among youth, rates of youth crime, and family health and stability (perhaps through a study).

The table below shows one of the standard formats for a logframe.

Table 4.3: Standard Format for a Logframe

Results	Indicators	Means of Verification (MOV)	Assumptions and risks
Impact	Impact Indicators	MoV	Impact level assumptions and risks
Outcomes	Outcome Indicators	MoV	Programme or Outcome level assumptions and risks
Outputs	Output Indicators	MoV	Project or Output level assumptions and risks
Activities Inputs		MOV	Activity level assumptions and risks

There are two points worth repeating before we go further with the logframe. First, you will recall that in unit 2 we stressed that there was a difference between strategic planning and a strategic plan. The same applies to the logframe – it is best to see this as a dynamic process and a living document rather than a rigid matrix that constrains our action. We must always feel free to revisit and review our results logic, test it against new information, update it based on stakeholder feedback and on new information derived from our M&E processes.

Second, while the logframe provides a succinct summary of the key results and assumptions of the strategic plan, programme or project, it does not capture all the strategies and actions that need to be used to achieve results. The logframe will generally not provide a guide to how things need to be done and how you need to operate within your particular social/political context to achieve results. We should therefore not become overly wedded to the matrix and lose sight of the dynamic processes needed to implement our programmes and projects.

(For example, the stakeholder analysis tool may have given us tremendous insights into which stakeholders are most influential to the achievement of some of our objectives. Holding meetings and negotiations with those stakeholders may have a far greater impact on what we aim to do than anything outlined in the logframe matrix. Also, the logframe will not include key actions that we need to take to improve areas of management weakness in our organisation. We will need to address some of these weaknesses in other sections of our strategic plan. The matrix should therefore be used along with other tools and with a heavy dose of common sense.)

In unit 2 we provided a set of definitions of these key components of the logframe. (The table is copied below for ease of reference).

Table 4.4: Concepts and Definitions

Result	Definition
Impact	<p>Impact refers to changes in the lives of people or long-term development condition of the country or region. Or we can define the impact more concisely as the Ultimate benefits to the country and its people.</p> <p><i>Example 1:</i> Reduce the percentage of Barbadian youth who are unemployed by 2020.</p> <p><i>Example 2:</i> There will be a significant improvement in the health and education status of the Indigenous people of Papua New Guinea (PNG) by 2030.</p>
Outcome	<p>Outcome refers to a short- to medium term change in the development condition of a country. Another definition is The likely or achieved short-term and medium-term effects of an intervention's outputs.</p> <p><i>Example 1:</i> Increased training opportunities available to Barbadian youth by 2018. (Note that the outcome is part of the process of getting to the impact – meaning, with increased training opportunities plus other things, youth will have jobs and there will be</p>

	<p>a reduction in youth unemployment.)</p> <p>Example 2: expanded social protection scheme and social services covering the majority of Indigenous people in PNG by 2020. (Again, the idea here may be that as part of trying to reach the goal of ensuring that the indigenous people are healthier and more educated, the government may need to put in place a better social protection system for these population groups, so that they can have access to health care).</p>
Output	<p>Outputs refer to The products, capital goods and services which result from a development intervention; may also include changes resulting from the intervention which are relevant to the achievement of outcomes.</p> <p>Example 1: Redesigned national youth training programme and curriculum developed in partnership with the private sector. (Note that the output addresses something concrete which is produced. Outcome refers to some of the effects that come from having produced those outputs.)</p> <p>Example 2: New national social protection policy drafted.</p> <p>Example 3: Comprehensive database and management information system put in place to facilitate more efficient targeting of social assistance to the poor and Indigenous people.</p>
Activity	<p>A specific action or process undertaken over a specific period of time by an organization to convert resources to products or services to achieve results.</p> <p>Activity example: Organise workshop and recruit consultants to draft new national social protection policy.</p>
Indicator	<p>Indicators are qualitative and quantitative measurements of results. Indicators are used at the goal/impact, outcome, and output levels.</p> <p>Impact level example: % of young people 15-24 who are unemployed. Outcome level example: % of Indigenous people in PNG who are enrolled in the social protection scheme and are receiving benefits.</p> <p>Output level example: Level of progress in developing a new social protection policy (qualitative measure), or % implementation of the comprehensive database and MIS (quantitative). It is often said that indicators (as well as results) should be SMART:</p> <p>Specific: Is the indicator specific enough to measure progress towards our result?</p> <p>Measurable: Can we actually measure this result? Is data available?</p> <p>Attainable: Is the result that the indicator is aiming to measure actually achievable?</p> <p>Relevant: Is the indicator the most appropriate or relevant to measure the result?</p> <p>Time-bound: Does the indicator (or target) provide a clear time frame for when the result will be achieved?</p>

Baseline	<p>The baseline tells us where we are now (or at a specific point in time) in relation to the indicator. (The target tells us where we want to be in the future.) Baselines should be established for the indicators set at the impact, outcome and output levels. An easy way to think about indicator, baseline and target is this: let us say that an individual has a personal goal to increase his/her weight. The indicator would be <u>actual weight</u>; the baseline would be his/her <u>actual weight</u> is 160 pounds as of June 12, 2014; and the target would be to achieve an <u>actual weight</u> of 180 pounds by January 31, 2015. So, going back to our examples above, for the impact indicator which states “% of young people 15-24 who are unemployed” the baseline could be “As of February 2012 (date of last official statistics) 14.7% of young people 15-24 were unemployed. (Note that the indicator, baseline and target have to be completely consistent. So, if the indicator says percentage then the baseline must be percentage. In this same example, we would not want a baseline that says “As of February 2012 300,000 young people were unemployed – this is neither a % nor is it clear whether these 300,000 young persons are in the 15-24 age group.)</p>
Target	<p>Target refers to the specific measurable result, expressed as a value of an indicator, that a project or programme is designed to achieve. Again, targets would be set for the indicators at the impact, outcome, and output levels. Using our same example above re the impact indicator “% of young people 15-24 who are unemployed”, the target could be “11% or less of youth 15-24 unemployed by 2020.” (It is also possible to set yearly targets along the way to achieving the 11% by 2020. So we could have 14% by 2016, 13% by 2017 etc.)</p>
Risks	<p>Risks refer to a future event which is beyond our control and which may impact the achievement of objectives.</p> <p><i>Example:</i> The current government may lose the next election and there is a risk that the new government and Minister may not see the social protection policy as a priority.</p>
Assumptions	<p>Assumptions refer to things that need to be in place for us to achieve our results (or for our programme or project to be successful). These things are normally also outside of our control, but we believe there is a moderate to high probability that they will occur.</p> <p><i>Assumptions</i> are positive – we assume they will happen.</p> <p><i>Risks</i> are negative – we think they might happen and negatively affect our efforts.</p> <p><i>Example:</i> We assume that once the national youth training curriculum is developed the government will allocate the resources it has pledged to finance the national training programme. (Note here that we assume here that the government will follow-through on its commitment; however, if there was an upcoming election or a planned change in the Minister, this assumption could be changed into a risk.)</p>

In results based management we often say that the inputs and activities refer to how we work, the outputs and outcomes refer to what we are trying to achieve, and the impact refers to why we are trying to achieve our outputs and outcomes.

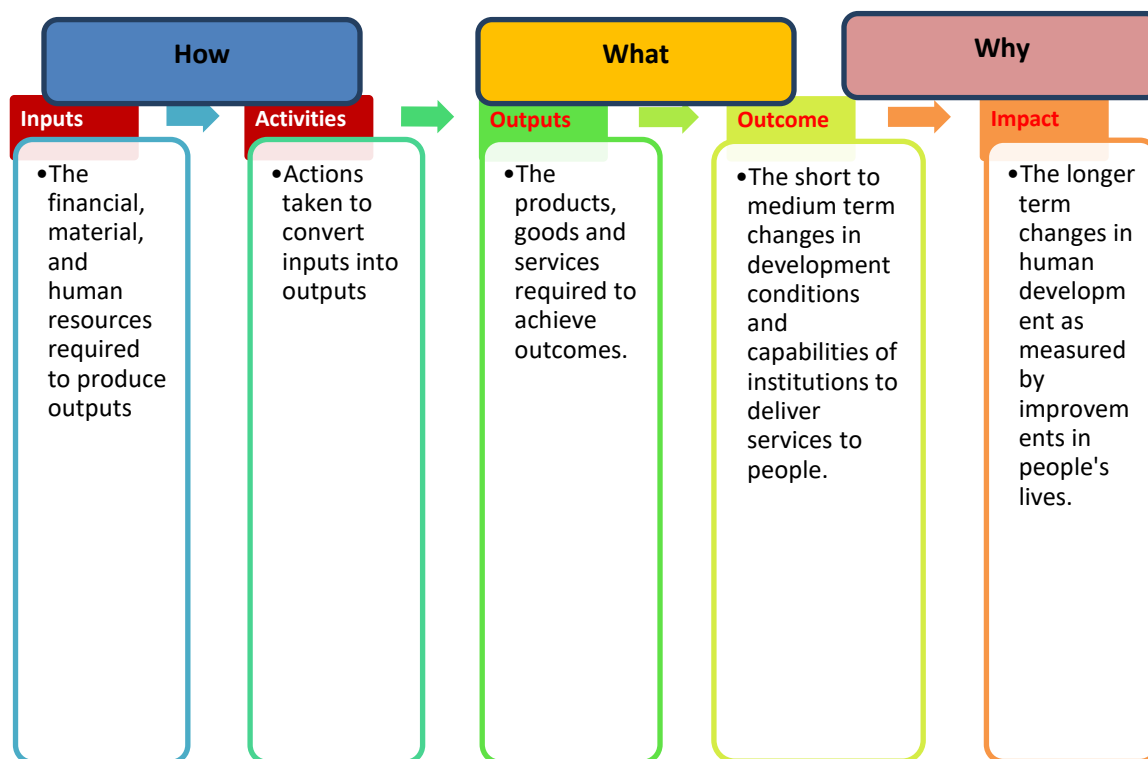


Figure 4.2: The How, What & Why of Results-based Management

Tips for formulating Results Statements

Impacts and outcomes represent the changed condition in the future – impact over the long term, outcome over the short to medium term. As such, when you prepare impact and outcome statements you should use a verb expressed in the past tense, such as ‘reduced’, ‘increased’, ‘reversed’. If you find yourself starting a statement with word such as ‘to’ then you are likely drafting an objective – your objective is ‘to’ achieve such and such. The impact and outcome must signal that the result or change has already been achieved at the end of a certain period of time.

Impacts deal with substantial changes in development conditions over the long term. Generally, at the impact level we are dealing with changes in people’s education, health, poverty, and welfare levels, and changes in the environment. We often use national indicators to track

progress at the impact level. Note, however, that if you are preparing an impact statement for a project which will only be implemented in one province or community, you would likely narrow your impact statement to that province or community instead of keeping it at the national level. Your impact could therefore become reduced poverty levels among youth 15-24 in X Province or District. The level of impact your programme/organisation will have will often depend on the amount of resources you have combined with your reach and the size of your target population.

Impact relates to:

1. Results that occur over the longest period of time;
2. Results that relate to the most people;
3. Results that relate to the biggest development change in the country, province or region.

At the outcome level, we are dealing with the intermediate changes on our way to achieving desired impact. You will see that some organisations refer to short and medium term outcomes, some to immediate and intermediate outcomes and so on. The idea is to signal that after addressing the main problem that our programme and projects are intended to address, these are the immediate and intermediate effects we expect to see before we achieve our long term impact. For example, if the desired impact we want to achieve is “reduced rates of HIV infection among youth 15-24 years old” then we may have a range of intermediate outcomes before we get to this impact, e.g.:

- Improved use of condoms and other contraceptives (can be measured through national surveys that measure what percentage of young people in the 15-24 age group use some form of contraceptive during sexual intercourse)
- Improved knowledge and awareness of HIV among youth 15-24 years old (often measured through national surveys designed to see whether persons have accurate information on how to protect themselves)

Note that improved knowledge could be a short-term outcome which could contribute to improved use of contraceptive (behaviour change) as a medium term outcome, which then leads to reduced rates of infection (impact.)

Outcomes relate to:

1. Changes that begin to take place immediately and over the short to medium term after we have produced our outputs;
2. Immediate and short-medium term changes in people’s lives or the capacity of institutions to perform their functions better;
3. Results that affect a large number of people in a country, province or region.

At the output level, we are generally speaking about things produced and delivered. Hence, most outputs are nouns and are followed by a verb again stated in the past tense. For example, we could say Draft national youth development strategy *produced*; or revised curriculum *developed* and 6000 youths *trained*; or youth advocacy campaign *designed* and *implemented*, etc. When we prepare outputs we should bear in mind that these are the things our projects will have the most control over. Impacts and outcomes are normally outside our control – even if we did everything right, we could still not achieve our outcomes and impacts because of circumstances outside our control. At the output level, however, we pay our project managers and consultants to produce specific things needed. When you draft output statements you should therefore check to see that the outputs are achievable and directly within our control.

Outputs relate to:

1. Results that are within the control of the project or programme;
2. Tangible goods and services that are produced
3. The narrowest set of beneficiaries.

Table 4.5: Comparison of Impact, Outcome & Output

Concept	Relates to
Impact	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Results that occur over the longest period of time; 2. Results that relate to the most people; 3. Results that relate to the biggest development change in the country, province or region.
Outcome	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Changes that begin to take place immediately and over the short to medium term after we have produced our outputs; 2. Immediate and short-medium term changes in people's lives or the capacity of institutions to perform their functions better; 3. Results that affect a large number of people in a country, province or region.
Output	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Results that are within the control of the project or programme; 2. Tangible goods and services that are produced 3. The narrowest set of beneficiaries.

Activity level – as we have stated before (see course on Results Based Budgeting) activities are not results. When we write activities we often use action verbs. For example:

- *Recruit* consultants to draft national youth strategy
- *Organise* workshops to develop training curriculum
- *Design* advocacy programme in consultation with stakeholders

Input level - Inputs are also not results. Inputs and activities are part of the process of producing results. In many logframes inputs are shown only as monetary costs, but you can also show inputs in terms of staff time, consultants required, equipment, and materials.

Let us look at another brief example to illustrate the results logic or **results chain** as it is sometimes called. (The term ‘results chain’ comes from the fact that the planning process generates a series of results – impact, outcomes, outputs – which are linked together like a chain. One set of results must be achieved before the next set can be achieved, so each set is a key link in the chain.)

The diagram below shows a results logic with the long term impact being reduction in greenhouse gas emissions. This means that the country overall wants to reduce the amount of greenhouse gasses emitted into the atmosphere, as these gases contribute to global warming.

In the short to medium term we will need to see certain changes in the society before we can achieve this long term impact. Specifically, we will need to see (a) a reduction in the rates of deforestation (whenever we destroy the forests, greenhouse gases are released into the atmosphere); (b) people using more energy efficient equipment and appliances; (c) a lowering of society’s dependence on fossil fuels (petroleum) and greater use of renewable energy; and (d) a general improvement in public awareness of the importance of this issue accompanied by appropriate changes in behaviour, among other things.

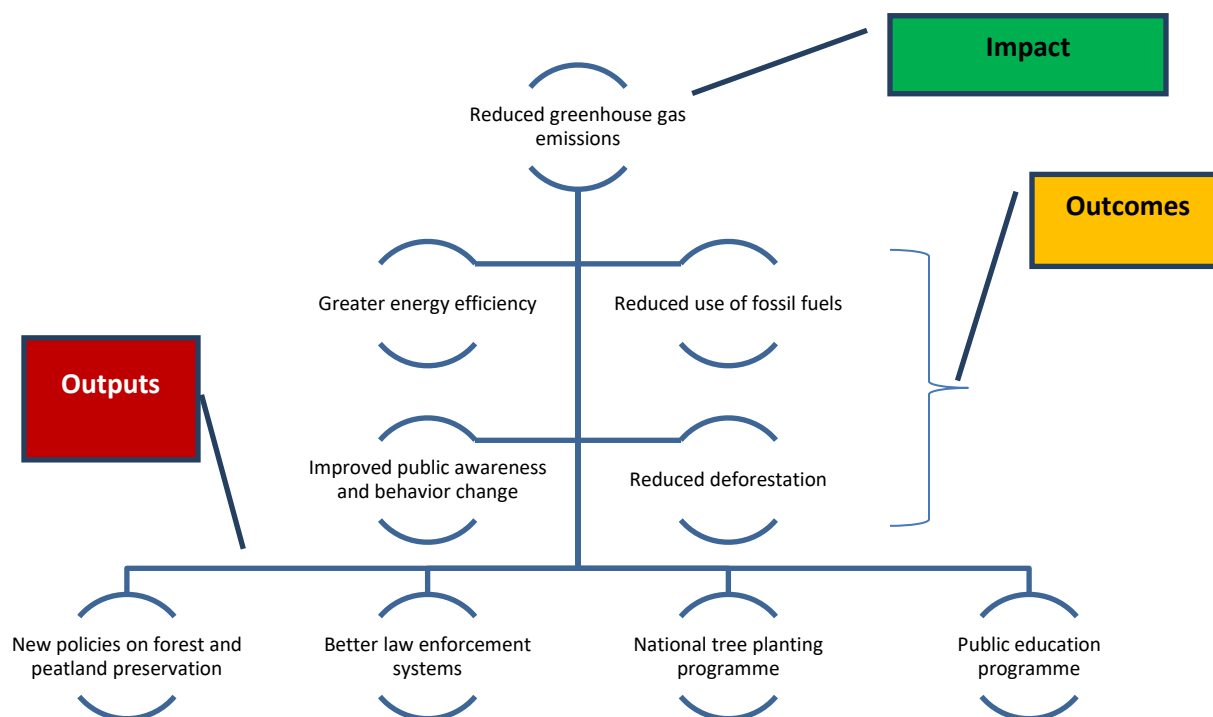


Figure 4.3: Example of Impact/ Outcome/Output

In order to get to these outcomes, the country would likely need to put in place certain concrete measures such as new policies and incentive systems to motivate behaviour change, public awareness campaigns, training of law enforcement officials to deal with environmental crimes, tree planting programmes and so on. These would then be our tangible outputs. Note that we would have control over these things, in that we can do training, draft new laws, develop and implement public awareness campaigns and the like. While we expect these outputs to lead to the desired outcomes, we have no control over whether they will – people may continue to use energy inefficient appliances, companies may continue to cut down forests illegally and so forth. **This is why we say that at the outcome and impact levels, our degree of control and influence diminishes.**

UNIT 4 LEARNING ACTIVITY 4.5

1. Take some time to review CIDA's 2000 RBM Handbook on Developing Results Chains available at <http://www.mosaic-net-intl.ca/documents/RBM%20HANDBOOK%20ON%20DEVELOPING%20RESULTS%20CHAINS.PDF>. The handbook is somewhat out of date and some of the terms used by international development organisations, including CIDA itself, have changed. Nonetheless, the handbook

remains an extremely useful reference for students of results management. Go directly to the examples which start on page 35 – the handbook contains 100 examples of logframes. Study a number of these examples to become familiar with the logic model. (Note that while the handbook adopts the format of showing activities leading to outputs which lead to outcomes, current practice is generally to begin with the goals and impacts and then work down to the activities. The style of presentation is, however, less important than ensuring that there is a clear logic behind the framework.)

2. Review the definitions of RBM terms and concepts provided in table 4.4 above along with the tips provided.
3. Use the information from your problem tree and results map to prepare two columns of the Logframe for your youth development organisation. Create a table similar to the one below. Use word or excel. In the table create a set of impact, outcomes, outputs, risks and assumptions based on your results map. (We will insert Indicators and Means of Verification after the next session.)
4. Post your draft Logframe online for comment. Comment on other group Logframes and revise your group Logframe based on the comments you receive.

Workbook Section 4: The Logical Framework

Results		Assumptions and risks
Impact:		Impact level assumptions and risks:
Impact Indicators:	MOV:	
Outcome 1:		Outcome level assumptions and risks:
Outcome 1 Indicators:	MOV:	
Output 1.1:		Output level assumptions and risks
Output 1.1. Indicators:	MOV	
Activities	1. 2. 3.	Activity level assumptions and risks
Output 1.2:		Output level assumptions and risks
Output 1.2 Indicators:	MOV:	

Activities	1. 2. 3.	Activity level assumptions and risks
Outcome 2:		Outcome level assumptions and risks
Outcome 2 Indicators:	MOV:	
Output 2.1:		Output level assumptions and risks:
Output 2.1 Indicators:	MOV	
Activities	1. 2. 3.	Activity level assumptions and risks
Output 2.2:		Output level assumptions and risks:
Output 2.2 Indicators:	MOV	
Activities	1. 2. 3.	Activity level assumptions and risks:

Session 4.2 Summary

In this session we spent some time drafting core components of the Logframe based on the Results Map we had prepared before. The session reviewed some of the core definitions of terms, and provided examples of what these result statements would look like in a real example. We now have the main sections of the Logframe in place; we will complete the remaining sections in the next session.

Session 4.3

The Logical Framework – Indicators and Means of Verification

Introduction

In this session we will continue where we left off from the previous session. We will however devote special attention to the indicators component of the planning process/logframe as these are often a main source of weakness.

HINT Before proceeding forward, ensure that you have received feedback on your posts for previous activities. Review the feedback and make the necessary adjustments prior to moving on in this unit.

Session 4.3 Objectives

At the end of this session you will be able to

1. Prepare indicators for your strategic plan or logframe.
2. Develop means of verification.

Indicators

Indicators are vital for completing the planning process and having a robust strategic plan/logframe in place. The results map and the set of impact, outcomes and outputs outline in narrative form the various results we want to achieve. Indicators provide the key final ingredient to help us measure performance and figure out whether we have in fact achieved our results.

Strong indicators will help us to:

1. Measure progress , assess whether we are on or off track, and determine if there is a need to adjust our strategy;
2. Report on progress and achievements to our donors and stakeholders;
3. Assess management and staff performance.

There are a number of pointers you can use to help you formulate good quality indicators. Let us look at a few.

✓ **Data Availability**

The starting point in formulating indicators is asking the question, “What type of data or information can meaningfully tell us whether we are making progress?”

We have inserted the word *meaningfully* into the question for a very important reason: very often logframes contain indicators that merely measure numbers of activities but don’t really tell us whether we are achieving our objectives. For example, there is a big difference between measuring number of people trained and measuring number of trainees who were able to secure a job within 6 months to a year. Do you see the difference? Weak logframes tend to focus on process-type indicators – number of people trained, number of persons involved in workshops, number of policy documents drafted and so on. While these indicators are useful, they don’t really tell us whether we are on track to achieve our real outcomes and impact. We therefore need to ensure that we have a mixture of indicators including measures that can answer the question of whether we are achieving our objectives and making a difference.

Before we include the indicator however, some conditions must be met:

1. The data must be available. This should be checked from the beginning. Often it is during monitoring or evaluation that we discover that the data does not exist.
2. We should be able to get the data on a timely basis so that we can use it to make real-time decisions. There are some data that are updated or published every two or three years. Within a four year strategic plan or programme/project, this may not be frequent enough to support decision-making.
3. It should be cost-effective to collect the data. This is a common problem with indicators relating to awareness. We often see programme or project documents with outcomes relating to improved public awareness. Measuring public awareness, however, often requires large scale surveys which may be too costly to undertake given the budget allocated to the programme or project. This does not mean that we should not use surveys or indicators relating to public awareness, but rather that before selecting the indicator we should think through how we will obtain the data and whether the cost of data collection will be reasonable.

✓ Types of indicators

Indicators are either quantitative or qualitative and we should think carefully about what type of indicator would be best to provide us with meaningful information. Examples of quantitative indicators are:

1. Number of persons trained
2. Percentage of youth 15-24 years old who are unemployed
3. Rate of birth or death (e.g. infant mortality rate) per 1,000 population
4. Ratio of males to females in senior positions in an organisation

Unlike quantitative indicators which tend to provide a plain numerical figure, qualitative indicators provide more information on quality, satisfaction, opinions, perceptions and attitudes. Some qualitative indicators will also use numerical figures – such as stating that 80% of trainees were *Highly Satisfied* with the training provided – but the number reflects a deeper analysis of the issue and gives us more information on quality or effectiveness. Let's look at a practical example to get a better sense of the difference and how qualitative indicators can sometime provide more meaningful information.

There is a donor-funded project that is helping a government of a country to address poverty in some inner city communities. The traditional indicator that most programmes would use to measure progress is % change in the income of the inner city residents benefitting from the programme. The donor, however, decided to complement this indicator by using another qualitative indicator "*Extent to which people's lives are changing for the better.*" To measure this indicator they sent a consultant into the inner city at the start of the programme to spend a few weeks living and interacting with a number of families. They repeated the process every year for four years. The report by the consultant was the data used to assess whether people's lives are changing. A key issue the donor wanted to assess was whether, after receiving increased income, people were actually able to use this additional income to improve their lives. Measuring only the increase in income would not provide the real information that they wanted. The consultant's report was able to show, however, that in most of the households the increased income was used to (a) send the children to school more often, (b) provide more frequent meals and nutrition, (c) switch to healthier stoves and cooking utensils, and so on. This is what the donors wanted to see – and it assured them that the extra income was not being wasted or spent only by the male heads of household, but was being used for the benefit of the family.

Similarly, you may notice that in the promotional material for some business schools they will show % of their graduates who obtain a job within 6 months or a year. But more and more, these schools also use data to show the *before* and *after* change in the salaries of their graduates. For example, they may show salary before coming to the school and salary 1, 5 and 10 years after graduation. They collect this data to show that not only do their graduates get a job, but also their graduates have faster salary increases than graduates of other business schools. In other words, the data is intended to show that the market places value on the quality of their programmes. The school would therefore use two indicators:

1. % of graduates who obtain a job within 6 months (or a year) of graduation, and
2. Level of salary increase of graduates 1, 5 and 10 years after graduation.

The level of salary increase is more of a qualitative indicator as it shows that people don't only graduate, but because the market values these graduates they get faster salary increases.

Many qualitative indicators start with terms such as

Quality of – (e.g. care received in public hospitals)

Extent of (or extent to which) – (e.g. compliance with government regulation)

Level of – (e.g. satisfaction with service, or level of salary increase)

You can use this test of *quality* when next you see certain quantitative indicators. (For example, a common practice for organisations is to use quantitative indicators such as number of policies put in place by the government. If you see this indicator you should be asking, “How do we measure whether the policies are effective? Is there a budget allocated to support policy implementation? Are enforcement mechanisms in place? Were the policies developed in a consultative manner?” and so on. Subject it to the test of quality. Likewise if you see an indicator on number of people trained, look to see if there are other indicators to measure the effectiveness of the training.

✓ **Proxy Indicators**

There will be occasions when the data you need to measure performance is not available or too costly to collect and you need to use a substitute indicator to provide a ‘reasonable estimate’ – this is what we refer to as a proxy indicator. A common example of this is proxy indicators for corruption. Many programmes that have outcomes relating to reduced corruption have no direct way of measuring levels of corruption. No data are available on how many bribes are paid, how much is stolen, and so on. So these programmes often use a survey capturing people's perception of corruption. Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index is an example of this type of proxy indicator. It does not measure the actual level of corruption in a country but rather

people's perception of the level of corruption in the country. **Perception is therefore a proxy for reality.**

Another popular area where proxy indicators are used is where indicators relate to the capacity of institutions. In some cases we can measure changes in capacity – especially if the institution provides a service to the public such as motor vehicle licences or water. We can measure speed of service, level of coverage and so on. But there are many cases where the institution only does policy and planning (such as a national planning agency) or provides regulatory functions. It is not uncommon in these cases to either use surveys to gather opinions on whether people believe the capacity of the institution has increased or to use external data to make a judgement – for example, frequent media reports of corruption could be a proxy of whether a State anti-corruption agency is seen as effective.

Another good example of a proxy indicator is the United Nations Development Programme's Human Development Index, which combines three indicators – (i) longevity, (ii) education, and (iii) per capital income – to provide an overall measure of a country's level of development. The idea here is that (i) if people are living long, and (ii) they are well educated, and (iii) they are able to earn a good income, then the country is developing. It is a rough estimate, of course, and this is why we refer to this as a proxy indicator of development.

✓ **Indicators must be SMART**

Finally, we will repeat here what was stated earlier in Unit 2 – indicators, like all other results in the logical framework, must be SMART – Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Reliable and Time-bound.

Specific – There is a difference between saying “% of youth who are unemployed”, and “% of youth, 15-29 years old, in the 10 target provinces, who are unemployed.” A general rule in logframes and strategic planning processes is that your results should be as specific as possible.

Measurable – The change or result that we want to see must be clear and measurable. We should not include any output, outcome or impact that cannot be measured. This may seem fairly obvious, but then you may not have encountered an outcome such as “The Poverty-Environment nexus is enhanced.” What does this mean? The staff that had it in their programme document could not explain it properly; they had an intention to better integrate their poverty and environment programmes and ensure that activities in their environment portfolio contributed to poverty reduction. The problem was that the outcome was so poorly worded that the evaluators of the programme could not decide what was to be measured and concluded that the result was not measurable.

Achievable – The results must also be achievable. Similarly, it should be possible to gather the data to measure the result. (Sometimes, the A in SMART is used to mean Affordable, suggesting that it should be affordable to collect the data.)

Relevant – The indicator must be relevant to the result that it is being used to measure.

Time-bound– Results and indicators should give a clear sense of the time-frame for achievement. For example, we have previously indicated that a good outcome would include a time frame (reduction of youth unemployment by 2019). The indicator would likewise be time-bound - % of youth, 15-29, who are unemployed by 2019. Sometimes the **T** in SMART is also used to mean **Timely** – suggesting that we should be able to obtain the data on a timely basis so as to inform decision-making and changes in our programmes and projects.

It is generally a good idea to use a few good, meaningful indicators that are simple, useful and easy to collect, than a lot of indicators. You should always think of the effort to collect the data and whether it is worth it.

We will not go into baselines and targets again in this session, but you can refresh yourself by reviewing what we have stated before in Unit 2:

BASELINE

The baseline tells us where we are now (or at a specific point in time) in relation to the indicator. (The target tells us where we want to be in the future.)

Baselines should be established for the indicators set at the impact, outcome and output levels. An easy way to think about indicator, baseline and target is this: let us say that an individual has a personal goal to increase his/her weight.

The indicator would be actual weight;

The baseline would be: His/her actual weight is 160 pounds as of June 12, 2014;

The target would be to achieve an actual weight of 180 pounds by January 31, 2015.

So, going back to our examples above, for the impact indicator which states “% of young people 15-24 who are unemployed” the baseline could be “As of February 2012 (date of last official statistics) 14.7% of young people 15-24 were unemployed. (Note that the indicator, baseline and target have to be completely consistent. So, if the indicator says percentage, then the baseline must be percentage. In this same example, we would not want a baseline that says “As of February 2012 300,000 young people were unemployed – this is neither a % nor is it clear whether these 300,000 young persons are in the 15-24 age group.)

TARGET

Target refers to the **specific measurable result, expressed as a value of an indicator**, that a project or programme is designed to achieve. Again, targets would be set for the indicators at the impact, outcome, and output levels. Using our same example above re the impact indicator “% of young people 15-24 who are unemployed”, the target could be “11% or less of youth 15-24 unemployed by 2020.” (It is also possible to set yearly targets along the way to achieving the 11% by 2020. So we could have 14% by 2016, 13% by 2017 etc.)

Means of Verification

Indicators must be measurable, and it must be possible to collect independent data to verify progress. The MOV column in the logframe is particularly important because it pushes planners to think of what sources are available to obtain data before they finalise their indicators. When the MOV column is left out or not properly filled in, many programmes and projects run into difficulties during monitoring and evaluation because that is when it is found out that there is no source to collect the data or verify achievement.

The key question to ask yourself when deciding on your indicators is “where will I get this data from?” In some cases secondary data may be available in official government publications or other published sources. (Secondary data refers to data that has already been collected or published by other entities such as the government or the private sector. Primary data refers to data that your organisation has to invest in collecting for itself because it does not already exist.) In other instances you may need to invest in collecting primary data – such as conducting surveys, focus group discussions, etc. to gather evidence of the performance of your programme and whether you are achieving your results.

It is important to note two things at this stage:

1. When we specify means of verification, we should not only indicate where we will get the data from, but also how often. If we say, for instance, that we will do a survey to gather data on public perception on corruption, we should say whether the survey will be done once every two years or once a year, etc. In some cases it could be useful to indicate who is responsible for collecting the data. We will come back to this in the final unit of this course when we look at implementing your strategic plan or programme/project with your logical framework results.
2. There is likely to be some cost involved in collecting both primary and secondary data. These costs should be budgeted and funds set aside to finance the data collection. This

can make a huge difference in terms of actually being able to tell the story of the success of your programme or project later down the road.

UNIT 4 LEARNING ACTIVITY 4.6

1. Reopen Section 4 of your workbook containing your impact, outcome, outputs and assumptions and risks. These results should by now be revised based on the inputs you received from your peers online.
2. Complete the workbook by inserting indicators for your impact, outcomes and outputs as well as the means of verification sections.
3. Post your completed workbook to the relevant Dropbox for your Tutor to assess.

=====

UNIT SUMMARY

In this unit we completed the main elements of the strategic planning process by finalising a logical framework. The unit was primarily about how to convert the priority issues selected during unit 3, and making these into a concrete logical framework.

The process we have used in the unit has relied heavily on some traditional methods of strategic planning. These methods are equally applicable to planning an overall organisational strategic plan or planning a programme or project. The problem tree analysis was used to analyse the causes and effects of the priority issues selected from unit 3. Subsequently, we used the Results Mapping technique (also known as the Objective tree, or Results Tree) to define the major results we want to achieve. This then led to the stage of converting these results into a logical framework table.

In the unit we revisited the definitions of impact, outcome, output, activities, indicators, risks and assumptions and further practised drafting these components of the logframe based on the definitions and examples. We have noted that formulating a logframe is generally a difficult process, which requires a lot of practice; and we have encouraged the student of strategic planning and logframe development to review as many examples as possible and practise the techniques.

At the end of the unit we now have a logical framework. In unit 5 we will look at how to implement the logframe and monitor performance.

References

Most references are fully cited in the unit or given as recommended reading at the beginning. The following additional documents were used as core preparation material for the unit and overall course:

1. Asia Development Bank, *Introduction to Results Based Management*, available at <http://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/pub/2006/Introduction-to-Results-Management.pdf>
2. Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) *RBM Handbook on Developing Results Chains (2000)*, available at <http://www.mosaic-net-intl.ca/documents/RBM%20HANDBOOK%20ON%20DEVELOPING%20RESULTS%20CHAINS.PDF>
3. Glenn Farrell, *Results-Based Monitoring and Evaluation at the Commonwealth of Learning*, available at http://www.col.org/PublicationDocuments/pub_MEHandbook_web.pdf
4. International Trade Centre *RESULTS BASED MANAGEMENT GUIDE AND TOOLKIT*, available at http://www.intracen.org/uploadedFiles/intracenorg/Content/About_ITC/Where_are_we_working/Multi-country_programmes/Pact_II/RBM%20Tools%20and%20Guide-Fev%202011-FINAL.pdf
5. Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs. *Results Management in Norwegian Development Cooperation*, available at <http://www.norad.no/en/tools-and-publications/publications/publication?key=109837>
6. OECD *Glossary of Key Terms in Evaluation and Results Based Management*, available at <http://www.oecd.org/development/peer-reviews/2754804.pdf>
7. The World Bank, *Ten Steps to a Results-Based Monitoring and Evaluation System*, at http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSPContentServer/WDSP/IB/2004/08/27/000160016_20040827154900/Rendered/PDF/296720PAPER0100steps.pdf

8. United Nations Development Group (2012). *RESULTS-BASED MANAGEMENT HANDBOOK* available at <http://www.undg.org/docs/12316/UNDG-RBM%20Handbook-2012.pdf>.
9. United Nations Development Programme (2009). *HANDBOOK ON PLANNING, MONITORING AND EVALUATING FOR DEVELOPMENT RESULTS* available at <http://web.undp.org/evaluation/guidance.shtml#handbook>