



Impact Evaluation of the Protracted Relief Programme II, Zimbabwe

Final Report

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Acronyms

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ARIES	Activities Reporting and E-Information System
AusAID	Australian Government Overseas Aid Program
BA	Bachelor of Arts
BCA	Benefit Cost Analysis
BCR	Benefit Cost Ratio
BDS	Business Development Services
BRAC	Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee
CA	Conservation Agriculture
CAFOD	Catholic Agency for Overseas Development
CAP	Consolidated Appeals Process
CARE	Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere
CATf	Conservation Agriculture Task Force
CBP	Community Based Planning
CFR	Case Fatality Rate
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CG	Consultative Group
CHBC	Community Home Based Care
CLP	Chars Livelihoods Programme
CMC	Cluster Management Committee
CWW	Concern Worldwide
DA	Disability Activities
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DDF	District Development Fund
DFID	Department for International Development
DLPD	Development of Livestock and Production Department
EC	European Community
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FCTZ	Farm Community Trust of Zimbabwe
FOST	Farm Orphans Support Trust
FNC	Food and Nutrition Council
FSHHA	Foundation for Hospices in Sub-Saharan Africa
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GMI	Group Maturity Index
GRM	GRM International
GSEA	Gender and Social Exclusion Analysis
GSIS	Gender and Social Inclusion Strategy

HBC	Home Based Care
HDI	Human Development Indicator
HEA	Household Economy Approach
HH	Household
HIV	Human Immuno-deficiency Virus
ICRISAT	International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics
IG	Inclusive Government
IGA	Income Generating Activities
IIA	Independent Impact Assessment
IOM	International Organisation for Migration
IP	Implementing Partners
ISAL	Internal Saving and Lending
KST	Khula Sizwe Trust
LIME	Longitudinal approaches to Impact assessment, Monitoring and Evaluation
M	Middle
MT/ha	Metric tonnes per hectare
M&E	M&E
MOHCW	Ministry of Health and Child Welfare
MSC	Most Significant Change
MTLC	Management, Technical, and Learning & Coordination
MTP	Medium Term Plan
MTR	Mid Term Review
NCCRS	National Climate Change Response Strategy
NCU	National Coordination Unit
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
OPR	Output to Purpose Review
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
P	Poor
PCR	Project Completion Review
PHHE	Participatory Health and Hygiene
PLWD	People Living with Disability
PLWHA	People Living with HIV/AIDS
PRP	Protracted Relief Programme
QOL	Quality of Life
RBZ	Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe
RDC	Rural District Council
SCC	Swedish Cooperative Centre
SNV	SNV Netherlands Development Organisation

STERP	Short Term Emergency Recovery Programme
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
WHO	World Health Organisation
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
USD	United States Dollar
VP	Very Poor
ZCCWG	Zimbabwe Climate Change Working Group
ZWAHA	Zimbabwe Women Against HIV and AIDS

Executive Summary

Introduction

- i. The main objective of this Evaluation is to establish the impact, positive and negative, intended and unintended, of the Protracted Relief Programme II (PRP) (2008-2012) and identify lessons learned to inform future livelihoods programming. The primary audience is DFID but it also speaks to other PRP donors and the results will be shared with other stakeholders including relevant Government of Zimbabwe ministries, GRM International Ltd and the PRP Implementing Partners.
- ii. PRP II was designed by DFID as a country-wide programme to assist people, both rural and urban, to move towards recovery and development. Its purpose is *'livelihoods of the poorest and most vulnerable protected and promoted and destitution prevented'* set within the wider and longer term goal of reducing extreme poverty in Zimbabwe. The programme has built upon PRP I which was mainly an emergency relief programme.
- iii. DFID funded PRP II on its own in the first year; the programme rapidly became a multi-donor funded programme¹. Originally designed to run until 2013, a decision was taken in 2011 to terminate PRP II a year early, and activities concluded in September 2012.
- iv. From October 2010, PRP II outcomes have been measured in terms of the proportion of households that are above survival, protection and promotion thresholds. Activities included agricultural interventions, social transfers, internal savings and lending and income generating activities, water and sanitation, market-oriented innovation projects, advocacy and communication, community participation and capacity building, research and analysis, M&E and programme management. In 2011, the programme restructured somewhat to respond to changes in the wider environment and adopted a market development approach.
- v. From 2008-11, the programme operated in all 10 provinces of Zimbabwe, covering a total of 54 rural districts and 8 urban centres. In 2011-12, this was reduced to 38 rural districts and 8 urban/peri-urban centres. From 2008-12, the programme supported over 372, 000 households – or over 1.7 million people.
- vi. The evaluation process applied the DAC criteria (relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, impact and sustainability). A review of the extensive amount of PRP reports and M&E data was carried out, and the enquiry stage included focus group discussions and key informant interviews at the community, district, and national levels. The independent team gathered *qualitative data* through use of a survey tool and worked in three provinces and across 12 districts of Zimbabwe. Sampling was based on representation of the different agro-ecological zones, ethnic groups and programme modalities.

Context

- vii. PRP II was implemented in a fluid and shifting context on the political, economic and social fronts. There was political polarisation and pre- and post-election violence in 2008, and the subsequent formation of the Inclusive Government in 2009. The economy endured a severe cycle of economic regression and paralysis in 2008, a level of stabilisation and recovery from 2009 to 2011 and a decline in 2011 to 2012. While the large corporate private sector had almost collapsed,

¹ (DFID, AusAID, DANIDA, the Royal Netherlands Embassy and the Norwegian Agency for Development (NORAD); the total budget for the second phase was just under £89 million. Additional funding from World Bank (\$11.7m) and EU (\$6.3m) was channelled directly to the Management Agency (GRM) to complement PRP resources, although this funding does not form part of the Impact Assessment.

the same period witnessed the proliferation of the micro, small to medium enterprises, and informal and barter-trade based markets developed.

- viii. The performance of the agricultural sector had been on downward trend in the last decade, and the country has had only two good seasons in the last ten seasons. Climate change has been the highest contributory factor. Zimbabwe has been listed among the hardest hit victims of climate change in recent years.

Relevance

- ix. *Integrated Approach.* The integrated approach adopted by PRP was particularly relevant given the situation that prevailed in the country. Through demonstrating flexibility and adapting to a rapidly changing context PRP II remained a highly relevant response e.g. cholera response. The range of options on the 'PRP menu' worked well and allowed the PRP to frame the activities that were most responsive to local needs in each district. The integrated approach was also consistent with the development strategy Short Term Emergency Recovery Programme (STERP) of the country.
- x. *Evolving shifts.* The programme underwent a number of important shifts in 2011, firstly to move away from working with the poorest (150,000 households) on the basis that they would require substantial support over time if they were to be assisted to move out of poverty; secondly, to move towards market development and work with those remaining households (150,000) that showed potential for graduation through the monetised thresholds (plus an additional 75,000 new households with potential for graduation); and thirdly, there was an increase in the value of inputs (the open voucher system) to households from \$50 to \$160.
- xi. *Climate change.* Adapting to climate change has not yet featured explicitly as a high priority for the Government of Zimbabwe and there is limited analysis of the likely impact of climate change. The main published reports for the PRP do not mention climate change and it does not feature in the logframe. However, the PRP did prepare a short brief on the environment and climate change early in the programme which describes how PRP activities would contribute to improved household climate resilience.

Effectiveness

- xii. In reference to the targets within the 2012 logframe, there has been generally strong achievement at the output level. As we look at outcomes and towards impact a less clear picture emerges.
- xiii. *Graduation.* Based on PRP monitoring data, the programme has exceeded outcome targets, which refer to the number of households that graduate above the three threshold levels. The use of the graduation model encouraged attention on the dynamic nature of poverty reduction and wider aspects of poverty. The graduation of individual households was, in practice, measured by household income (cash, in kind) compared to the threshold. The levels of the thresholds were estimated separately for each LIME site, using techniques that provided structured discussions about the expenditure needed at that site to provide the basic services. Households were classified on the basis of whether their annual incomes (cash, in kind) were above or below the expenditure thresholds. There does not appear to have been any process for recognising the importance of savings and assets for households' resilience.
- xiv. *Food security.* There are limitations regarding the measurement of food security as the logframe indicator focuses on maize and does not recognise the diversity of crops (e.g. maize, sorghum, sweet potatoes) or activities (e.g. livestock which became particularly important in Y4). It also requires reporting on the absolute level of 'rainfall adjusted yields' for progress on improved food

production, but the PRP was unable to operationalize the concept of rainfall adjusted yields. The indicator is therefore problematic.

- xv. Nevertheless, the 2011-12 Review report² indicates that a total of 193,625 households benefitted from one or more agriculture related interventions. The distribution of these households across the database vulnerability categories show that there are considerably more of the most vulnerable (category A) amongst the livestock beneficiaries, considerably more of the emerging small holder farmers (B2) engaged in community gardens, whilst crop inputs and conservation agriculture (CA) support engaged mainly beneficiaries with land and labour but no cash, and therefore possibly no draught power (B1).
- xvi. The definition of the survival threshold used in LIME is based on food consumption and there is no explicit distinction between whether increased consumption comes from home production or from incomes from sales of crops. However, the incomes of very poor households have increased substantially, even in rural areas, which suggests that improved incomes have made a major contribution to improved food security.
- xvii. *Assets and livelihoods.* We found clear benefits from diversification and households have multiplied their livestock which has given a greater sense of security and a cushion against poor crop production. There is also evidence that the programme managed to increase the asset base of participants especially through ISALs.
- xviii. *Incomes.* The baseline for household income (excluding remittances, formal employment and cash transfers) in 2009-10 was \$103, rising to \$205 in 2010-11 and an end of project target of \$250 (\$468 achieved) in 2011-12. According to the 2012 logframe \$468 has been achieved. This would suggest the total annual incomes of PRP households from 2008-2012 are \$136m higher than in 2008. This is much higher than would normally be expected to occur as a result of a programme that spent \$158m, especially as some of the activities did not aim directly to increase incomes. The extent to which PRP II has contributed to this change is unclear. The indicator may have been picking upon the benefits from economic recovery, and/ or the effects of inflation.
- xix. *The Internal Savings and Lending (ISAL) groups.* The groups became a cornerstone of the PRP graduation model from 2010. From interviews with field beneficiaries, ISALs, and related training especially in planning, are amongst the most appreciated PRP interventions.
- xx. *Home Based Care.* It is clear that the effects of the Home Based Care intervention has been largely positive, both for those who have benefitted from the care and for the carers themselves and that it enabled government services to reach areas they would not otherwise be able to serve.
- xxi. *Water, sanitation and hygiene.* The promotion of WASH and personal health and hygiene was, and continues to be, highly appreciated by communities both in terms of increased access to water locally, and because the risk of cholera is still very real in people's minds. It is estimated that PRP II has enabled over 200, 000 people to improve their access to clean water and sanitation and that 77, 428 people have been trained in Participatory Health and Hygiene (PHHE).
- xxii. *Social capital.* PRP II seems to have generated considerable social capital which is a valuable asset for households, especially in an uncertain environment.
- xxiii. *Gender.* Whilst quantitative, gender disaggregated data for PRP II interventions is available and reported on, it is mainly limited to the number of male and female beneficiaries involved in each intervention and there are no SMART output and outcome indicators in the PRP logframe through which to measure progress and determine the extent to which it is effectively addressing gender. An absence of qualitative data on gender within the PRP may have resulted in under-reporting and missed evidence, and creates challenges in assessing the gendered impact of PRP.

²PRP Report No. 41, 2011-2012 Review.

Impact

- xxiv. There were a number of difficulties with regard to data for measuring logframe indicators of impacts between 2008-2011; in 2012 four of the five indicators were abandoned in favour of the Human Development Index for which there have been no reports.
- xxv. *Sustainable Food security.* The assessment of graduation from food insecurity (i.e. very poor households below the survival threshold) is monitored using LIME data. Based on this data, all PRP supported households were able to meet their survival food requirements by the end of the programme and were therefore food secure³. Group discussions with beneficiaries indicated that despite a drought in most areas households were able to meet their food requirements from their produce, by barter of grain for other types of food needed or by purchasing it. Beneficiaries acknowledged better harvests because of the agricultural interventions (especially CA), usefulness of livestock to supplement diets and having income from sale of surplus crops or livestock, ISALs and Income Generating Activities (IGAs). This would confirm the effectiveness of partner interventions for propelling rural households to survival threshold. However, there was concern that the high cost of agricultural inputs (specifically fertiliser), water shortages and non-mechanisation of CA might constrain ability to achieve greater benefits.

Sustainability

- xxvi. The availability of data for just two years (2010/11 and 2011/12) only enables us to see progress across thresholds for one year; thus it is not possible to see whether this progress can be sustained or improved upon in subsequent years. However, the findings illustrate that the most progress was made in the proportion of households between livelihoods protection and promotion thresholds at two thirds. Whether they will be able to sustain this graduation in rural areas will be significantly affected by rainfall patterns. Sustainable graduation is difficult to predict (as well as to implement at an operational level) especially in a context of political and economic uncertainty, erratic weather conditions, and other threats such as cholera and HIV. Sustainable graduation is not only about attaining a certain level of cash income but implies the capacity to generate adequate streams of future food and income and to be able to withstand future shocks (resilience). PRP households have yet to be tested.
- xxvii. We conclude that one year (2011-12) was insufficient for households to sustainably engage with markets, for market-oriented projects to be trialled and tested, or for the increased inputs to lead to graduation that afforded resilience against shocks. It is also possible that the shift of programme focus including the dropping of very poor households meant that earlier investments and (early) progress with the very poor was effectively left hanging – and possibly some households in a more vulnerable position as a result of ‘partial’ project engagement.

Efficiency

- xxviii. The PRP conducted a Benefit Cost Analysis in 2012. The BCA report stated an Internal Rate of Return (IRR) of 54% and the BCA working tables had a return of 56%. However, these returns are incorrect and have been revised down to 27%. If the expenditure for which benefits cannot be quantified is excluded, then the IRR is over 35%. The PRP Benefit Cost Analysis (BCA) therefore suggests that the economic performance of the PRP is strongly positive.
- xxix. A sensitivity analysis of this BCA was conducted for the evaluation and identified 13 assumptions for which some sensitivity analysis was required, of which 7 resulted in higher economic performance and 6 in lower performance. The net effect of all the changes suggested in the

³ PRP report No 38 The consolidated LIME report for 2009-2012.

sensitivity analysis is to reduce the Benefit Cost Ratio (BCR) from 2.3 to 2.1, which is still strongly positive. Finally, the PRP BCA uses a discount rate of 12%, which is more appropriate to financial analysis than to economic analysis and is much higher than the rates recommended by the UK Treasury. If a discount rate of 5% is used, the BCR increases from 2.1 to 2.8, because the longer term benefits are given greater weight.

- xxx. Working from the financial reports made available to the team during and subsequent to the enquiry phase of the evaluation, we have not been able to carry out a comprehensive assessment of expenditure, including the costs of Implementing Partners (IPs), inputs, Crown Agents and GRM. A consolidated PRP expenditure statement was prepared by DFID and provided to the evaluation team in the final reporting stage of the evaluation and is included as an Annex 7 in this final version of the Impact Assessment Report with supporting notes from DFID.
- xxxi. In terms of overhead costs (i.e. management, monitoring and communication and advocacy), and taking account of the specific operating context, overhead costs are broadly comparable with other large livelihood improvement focused programmes funded by DFID.
- xxxii. An analysis of the GRM management contract for 2012 suggests that it accounted for 10.4% of the total costs managed by GRM and IPs. This compares with typical costs for UN agencies of 18 to 20%, of which about half are costs in country and half is charged by headquarters. For GRM personnel costs, the GRM margin averaged 29% of the total cost (i.e. a mark-up of 40%), which is in line with industry norms and much lower than for UN agencies.
- xxxiii. The guidelines provided to IPs have led to some consistency across all IPs, but the management system has also allowed, indeed encouraged, some diversity of approach to respond to local needs and working to the comparative advantage of IP capacity. There was a very wide variation in overhead costs amongst IPs in 2011/12 and the reasons for this are not clear. The PRP has had a major role in building capacity amongst local IPs and of staff of IPs in Zimbabwe and this will be a lasting benefit from the PRP.
- xxxiv. There are concerns that the ability of the PRP to optimally ‘manage for results’ at a strategic level has been compromised by the absence of a clear, periodic view on the overall expenditure patterns across the programme, against the emerging picture on graduation from the monitoring data at output and outcome level. Responsibility for these concerns is shared between DFID and GRM. Lesson learning and programme adaptation in discrete operational areas was continually taking place throughout the PRP, but the evidence base for this is not always recorded and reported with clarity and precision.

Introduction

The objective of this Impact Assessment completed by an independent evaluation team is to establish the impact(s), positive and negative of the Protracted Relief Programme II (PRP II) (2008-2012) and identify lessons learned to inform future livelihoods programming. In parallel, a Project Completion Review was completed and has been submitted to DFID.

At the time the programme was designed, Zimbabwe was experiencing a protracted and deepening humanitarian crisis, the result of poor governance, economic decline and a HIV/AIDS pandemic (18.1% of the population were HIV positive), all exacerbated by reduced rainfall. The programme was intended to be an innovative alternative to food aid consisting of diverse activities designed to support food security, safeguard and promote livelihoods and protect the poorest, especially the chronically ill.

While PRP I was mainly an emergency relief programme that reached 1.5 million people, PRP II was designed by DFID to assist two million people, both rural and urban, to move towards recovery and development. DFID's contribution to the PRP was recognised by the UN as a humanitarian contribution under the UN Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP).

The project was operational in 54 rural districts and 8 urban centres in the first 3 years, while the geographical coverage was reduced to 38 rural and 8 peri/urban centres in the final year of the programme¹.

While DFID funded PRP II on its own in the first year, the programme rapidly became a multi-donor funded programme (DFID, AusAID, DANIDA, the Royal Netherlands Embassy and the Norwegian Agency for Development (NORAD)); the total budget for the second phase was just under £89 million². Additional funding from World Bank and EU was channelled directly to the Management Agency (GRM) to complement PRP resources, although this funding does not form part of the Impact Assessment.

The goal of the project was to reduce extreme poverty in Zimbabwe and the purpose is to prevent destitution and protect and promote livelihoods of the poor and most vulnerable³.

The programme was designed to;

- Improve food security and enhance nutrition through increased productivity and income generation;
- Provide a social protection programme for the chronically poor and vulnerable;
- Improve access to clean water, sanitation and hygiene;
- Strengthen the capacity of communities, civil society and local government to promote demand-led, pro-poor interventions through enhanced participation;
- Scale up and disseminate successful interventions and continues to field-test new ideas and approaches ensuring experience are shared⁴.

¹See Annex 1 for terms of Reference for the Project Completion Review and Evaluation of the Protracted Relief Programme II.

² The contributions of the other donors are AusAID: £15,295,850; Denmark: £9,815,051; NORAD: £2,385,488 and RNE: £6,402,999 (DFID ToR).

³Project Memorandum PRP II 2008-2013, DFID Zimbabwe, June 2007. Through separate funding EU \$6.3m; World Bank \$11.7m.

From October 2010 onwards, the three various editions of the PRP logframe have measured outcomes in terms of the proportion of households that are above survival, protection and promotion thresholds.

DFID contributed funding for a range of activities including agricultural interventions, social transfers, water and sanitation, market-oriented innovation projects, advocacy and communication, community participation and capacity building, research and analysis, M&E and programme management.

Approach and Methodology

The theory of change (ToC) is under-developed in the Project Memorandum 2007, and is more implicit than explicit. The rationale for the programme was that that even under conditions of vulnerability it is possible to move beyond emergency relief and deliver targeted interventions with longer-term impacts. The programme logic held that carefully designed and directed interventions would enable poor households to cope better with the assets at their disposal, build up resilience and mitigate the effects of poverty through their own efforts. As a result, the emphasis throughout PRP II was on assisting the most vulnerable groups in an environment of worsening poverty and the impacts of climate change.

Drawing on the extensive *PRP monitoring data*⁵ the Evaluation team have established a picture on implementation and reflection by the Programme and its partners on its achievements.

Additionally, the team gathered *qualitative data* through use of a survey tool⁶ and a series of key informant interviews and group discussions⁷ working in three provinces and across 12 districts of Zimbabwe⁸ and ensuring representation of the different agro-ecological zones, ethnic groups and programme modalities (agricultural and livestock inputs, Income Savings and Lendings (ISALs) and Income Generating Activities (IGAs), Water, Sanitation and Hygiene Promotion (WASH) and home based care (HBC), cash transfers, community based planning).

A sampling approach was designed to provide a representative view of the programme:

Table 1: Sampling Approach

Level	Criteria
Province	Food Insecurity Data Agro-ecological areas: Incidence of food insecurity Climate change issues Numbers of beneficiaries Ethnicity (as relevant)
Districts	Range and variety of interventions Innovativeness (Innovation Fund) Differences in approaches of IPs Poverty status Coverage across the district Graduation – some less poor districts

⁴Ibid.

⁵ See Annex 2 for the Bibliography.

⁶ See Annex 5 for the Evaluation Matrix.

⁷ See Annex 3 for the list of the people interviewed.

⁸ See Annex 4 for Itinerary.

Wards	Good range of interventions (need to cover all)
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Three teams were involved in the fieldwork; each team visited a province representing three different agro-ecological areas, and within this, 3 districts in each province; additionally all teams visited at least one *less poor* district. Interviews were held with government offices at district level, and at least two communities in each district. This enabled the team to visit 21 communities and over 12 districts.

The following table provides an overview of the eight provinces and two urban areas that participated in PRP along with the number of beneficiaries:

Table 2: Provinces and beneficiaries

Provinces	General Location	Beneficiaries
Masvingo	South East	45,192
Midlands	Central	33,381
Matabeleland South	South	29,476
Manica land	East	23,381
Mash East	Just south of Harare	21,232
Matabeleland North	West	15,770
Mash West	North	14,640
Mash Central	North	4,150
Harare		2,988
Bulawayo	South West	818

Food insecurity data was used to select provinces for field visits. Projections were that the provinces of Matabeleland South (30%), Masvingo (28%), Matabeleland North (22%) would have the highest proportion of food insecure households in 2012⁹. Based on this data and discussion with the Management Agent (GRM), the following provincial choice was made:

- Masvingo (mainly very poor, province is largely Karanga speaking area)
- Manicaland (mix of poor/less poor; people speak Manyika)
- Matabeleland South is Ndebele speaking (very poor, Bulawayo based)¹⁰

At a community level, focus group discussions were held with a diverse range of beneficiaries including male and female groups and mixed groups, different age groups¹¹, primarily rural but also some urban¹² and representing a wide range of PRP activities including those engaged in farming, household and community gardens, livestock, fodder gardens, ISALs, IGAs, HBC, WASH, recipients of cash transfers and those engaged in community based planning.

⁹ FOOD SECURITY BRIEF, The Regional Food Security and Nutrition Working Group (FSN WG Southern Africa), September 2012 <http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/food%20security%20brief.pdf>

¹⁰ The consultants submitted a document to DFID on Field site selection and Plan Note on 25/11/2012.

¹¹ Elderly (facilitated by Help Aged), youth facilitated by SCC.

¹² Urban activities terminated in mid-2011 and there was no agent to facilitate follow-up.

Limitations of the Impact Evaluation

The evaluation team has been able to draw upon a wide range of data generated by PRP and has been able to chart progress throughout the life cycle of the programme. The programme is to be commended on the vast amount of data and reports generated by the M&E system and under the research and analysis output.

There was a shifting of indicators by which the programme was going to assess impact. In the three logframes (2009, 2010 and 2011) impact was to be measured by four indicators namely, child stunting levels, primary school enrolment, food poverty line and access to water. In the 2012 logframe, there are two indicators, food security and the Human Development Index.

The Longitudinal Approach to Impact Assessment, M&E (LIME) tracked the movement of targeted groups of people from one threshold to another depending on location, socio-economic level before the interventions, and intervention mix. However, following the introduction of the Human Development Indicator (HDI) as an impact indicator in the 2012 logframe, there was no retrospective baseline data collected by PRP related to the HDI. Furthermore, the Human Development Reports (UN OCHA) which were to be the source of validation were not available by the time the project ended. On the other hand, at the critical outcome level there is considerable information from LIME and particularly in relation to graduation through the thresholds.

It was not possible to use a comparator to indicate what would have happened if PRP II had not been implemented as there was no control group data in the M&E data.

There has been extensive reporting on performance, and the programme has been innovative in developing indices to measure indicators such as quality of life, group maturity and the effects of participatory health and hygiene. However, analysis and reflection that would facilitate making strategic or tactical changes came late in the programme.

Other limitations include the following:

- Whilst the team has been able to access substantial amounts of data, information, reports and beneficiary testimonies to complete the review, there have been challenges surrounding data that was unavailable to us at the time of the enquiry phase (and during clarifications on the initial draft) or where there were data discrepancies. Most challenging was the reconciliation of data on project expenditure which was heightened by the figures used by Benefit Cost Analysis on total expenditure for Yr 1-Y3 suggesting a significant difference to the audited expenditure reported in the PRP financial reports. DFID have subsequently provided¹³ the evaluation team with a consolidated statement on PRP expenditure with detailed supporting notes (see Annex 7). The original accounting system did not record expenditure on activities and so this information is only available for Y4. These difficulties have limited our ability to complete the value for money part of the evaluation.
- Additionally, when conducting a gender analysis of the PRP II's impact, it is problematic that the gender disaggregated data is limited to numbers of participants and that there are no gender specific outcomes or indicators against which we can measure the programme.
- When the team came to conduct the field evaluation in December 2012, the PRP programme had officially finished and many of the IPs had completed their work months before. Whilst every effort was made by the Implementing Partners (IPs) and GRM to give

¹³ Supplied to the Evaluation Team on 11-04-13

the evaluation team access to staff and beneficiaries in order to conduct the review, there were some difficulties in that many staff no longer worked with GRM/IPs and were therefore unavailable for interview. Moreover, those who accompanied the team to field sites may not have been the most appropriate to provide information e.g. the team was able to interview very few staff involved in the M&E of the programme. Similarly, many of the Urban Cash transfer programmes had finished in 2011 and it was difficult for IPs to engage with these groups for evaluation so long after the programme had ended.

- On arrival in Nyanga to conduct field-based interviews, the team were refused access by the district authorities, despite arrangements being made by one of the implementing partners.

Context

PRP II was implemented in a fluid and shifting political, economic and social context and has resulted in vulnerable households having to contend with many challenges whilst they seek food and livelihood security.

Political and Economic context

The first year of the implementation of PRP II was characterised by political polarization and pre and post-2008 election violence; this violence led to loss of lives and displacement of people across the country. The end of 2008 (September) saw the signing of the Global Political Agreement (GPA). The GPA facilitated the formation of the Inclusive Government (IG) constituted by MDC-T, MDC-M and ZANU PF in February of 2009.

The IG brought a new political dimension to Zimbabwe with high hopes for a better economy and improved governance. However, concerns have persisted around issues of constitutional reform, referendum and the timeframe for holding elections in 2013. On a positive note the IG has brought about peace and stability in the country.

The economic context ranged from a peak of “severe cycle of economic regression and paralysis” (Prosper Chitambira 2012) in 2008, through stabilisation and recovery from 2009 to 2011 and decline in 2011 to 2012. The first year (2008) of implementing the PRP II was characterised by a general collapse of the economy. The economic meltdown manifested through hyperinflation (over 2 million %) as a result largely of printing money by the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe (RBZ) to fund the budget deficit. Real growth in terms of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) fell from a peak of 9.7% in 1996 to negative growth of -14.8% in 2008. The manufacturing capacity fell to less than 10% in 2008¹⁴.

The economic meltdown was further compounded by the government’s adoption of conflicting policies such as setting price controls which were below viability levels. The economic meltdown had several negative consequences on the economy such as:

- Collapse of the social delivery services (health, water supply and education);
- Severe food shortages;
- Shortages of agricultural inputs and implements such as seed, fertilisers, tillage and fuel;
- Increased poverty, social and economic marginalisation and distress of the disadvantaged groups in the country;
- Formal employment fell to 5%.

The formation of the Inclusive Government in February 2009 saw the dollarization (USD, Rand and Pula) of the economy. The dollarization ended the hyper-inflation and restored price stability. The use of multi-currency also exhibited the structural weaknesses in the economy that continue to inhibit inclusive growth.

¹⁴ CZI 2010.

The IG also launched the STERP on the 19th March 2009, an economic stabilisation blue print running from February 2009 to December 2009. The essence of STERP was to restore economic stability and growth. STERP brought relative stabilisation and set the economy on a recovery trajectory.

In 2010, the IG launched the STERP II, a three year framework to guide budgets from 2010 to 2012. Building on its initial success, STERP sought to build a sustainable developmental state through a medium of a dynamic and stable economy. In 2010 the economy continued on a recovery trajectory with most basic goods and services being available on the market; a real growth rate of 9% was registered.

The 2010/2011 agricultural season was reported not to be very good for crop production¹⁵. Crop production was affected by the mid-season drought that set in at the end of January 2011. This is despite the fact that the season had started very well with the country receiving good rains in December 2010. This situation contributed to food shortage and more severely in the drier southern parts of the country, with 500,000 ha of maize being a write off.

The performance of the agricultural sector has been on a downward trend in the last decade, and the country has had only two good seasons in the last ten seasons. Climate change has been the highest contributory factor. Zimbabwe has been listed among the hardest hit victims of climate change in recent years. Perpetual rainfall shortages and floods are among the major signs of a disrupted environmental system that are badly affecting the Zimbabwean populace and most especially the poor. The government has responded by establishing the National Climate Change Response Strategy (NCCRS).

In July 2011, the government launched the Medium Term Plan, an economic transformation document. However in 2011, GDP growth rate decelerated to 6.8%. The negative growth has been attributed to limited capital resources and the high costs associated with it, policy inconsistencies and uncertainties around the indigenisation programme. Obsolete technologies and power shortages have also contributed to the decline in the GDP growth.

In 2012 the economy was projected to grow at 4.4% after missing the target of 9%. The slowdown in economic performance in 2012 was, according to the Economic Planning and Investment Promotion Minister Tapiwa Mashakada “largely due to the poor performance of the agriculture sector,”¹⁶ The economy is expected to pick up to 5.5% in 2013.

Private sector and markets

During the first two years (2008-2009) of the implementation of PRP II, the economy had become informal. The large corporate private sector had almost collapsed. The manufacturing sector was operating below 10% of its capacity. However, the same period witnessed the proliferation of the micro, small to medium enterprises which were employing over 90% of the employable population. During the same period formal markets almost collapsed and were replaced by informal and barter-trade based markets.

The dollarisation of the economy saw the revival of the large scale private sector with the manufacturing capacity increasing to 57% of the installed capacity by December 2011. The markets became formal and organised. However, the small to medium enterprises continue to play a central role in the economy

¹⁵Government of Zimbabwe Second Round Crop and Livestock Assessment April 14 2011.

¹⁶ Economic Planning and Investment Promotion Minister Mashakada 27 June 2012, Zimbabwe Herald.

Basic Service Delivery System

The macro-economic downturn up to 2008 had a serious adverse effect on the basic service delivery system (health, water supply and sanitation and education and garbage collection). The collapse of the water supply and sanitation system resulted in the outbreak of cholera in August 2008, which affected most regions in the country. Between August and 30 November 2008, Zimbabwe recorded 11,700 cases and 473 deaths (WHO 1 December 2008). The case fatality rate (CFR¹⁷) was 4% nationally but in some areas it reached 50%. By January 2010, 98 741 cases and 4,293¹⁸ deaths had been reported. The PRP was active in some 25% of these areas.

Outbreaks of cholera and measles required millions of dollars to stem mortality and, support from partners notwithstanding, took several months to control. Such outbreaks, along with the deterioration in food security, were coupled with extensive erosion in basic social service infrastructure and people's coping mechanisms, especially the poorest. The universal access to basic health was compromised by the deteriorating infrastructure, staff and resources. In 2008 the health facilities had a significant gap of 70% of its required medicines. The deterioration in infrastructure, lack of investment, low wages, decreasing civil service motivation and capacity, and absolute shortage of essential supplies and commodities caused a near collapse of the social sector (UNICEF Annual Report for Zimbabwe 2011).

In this context, PRP provided a life line for many Zimbabweans when the economy was at its lowest. The supplementary feeding programme provided food for the vulnerable. The home based care programme was very relevant when the country was experiencing the highest incidences of HIV and AIDS in the sub-region. The agricultural input programme enabled the poor smallholder farmers to access inputs when the market system had collapsed while the Markets for the Poor (M4P) approach provided an avenue for income security.

Gender Equality

Gender disparities in Zimbabwe are still prevalent on a large scale and characterise all aspects of development, with Zimbabwe ranked 118 out of 146 countries in the 2011 Gender Inequality Index. Gender inequality in Zimbabwe can manifest itself through differences in access, control and ownership of economic resources, positions in decision-making processes, unequal opportunities in accessing basic needs and services such as food, health and education, and through culture, religion, gender-based violence and the judicial system.

¹⁷CFR benchmark should be below 1%.

¹⁸<http://en.wikipedia.org/wikis.Zimbabwean-cholera/>.

Programme Implementation

PRP II is coordinated and managed by an internationally recruited private-sector development contractor (GRM International) through a central Management, Technical, Learning and Coordination (MTLC) Unit¹⁹.

Implementation Arrangements

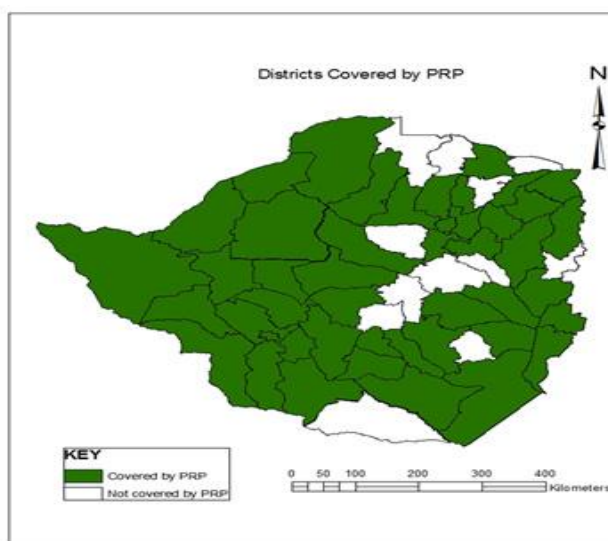
Between 2008-11 PRP II was implemented through 22 implementing partners (IPs) and 15 technical partners including UN and the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research centres (CG centres). One technical partner Foundation for Hospices in Sub-Saharan Africa (FHSSA) was also an implementing partner and therefore total partnerships were 36, whereas some were short term. In addition, a total of 34 local partners were subcontracted by the implementing partners.

This number was reduced in 2011-12 when there were 23 national and international implementing NGOs and 2 CG centres and 2 technical partners – a total of 27 partnerships. In addition a total of 16 local partners were subcontracted by the implementing partners. In the final year, PRP worked with selected partners to establish market based systems for both input and output markets.

While one of the three components of the M&E system related to partner compliance, this related to programme performance and financial management only. There was no active tracking of the partnerships themselves, for example in relation to capacity development; considerable effort was made to improve the M&E capacity of IPs.

Programme Scope and Reach

Figure 1: PRP Coverage of Zimbabwe



The majority of its funding was channelled to rural areas. From 2008-11, the programme operated in all 10 provinces of Zimbabwe, covering a total of 54 rural districts and 8 urban centres²⁰. In 2011-12, this was reduced to 38 rural districts and 8 urban/peri-urban centres (see Figure 1). The main focus for the PRP extension (2011-13) was to consolidate the work that had already been undertaken by PRP and to enhance PRP coverage at district level. A decision was taken to exit from Districts where partners have low rates of coverage and/or where vulnerability was lowest. GRM has carried out a district selection process, with results that were approved by the PRP donors²¹. From 2008-12, the programme supported over 372, 000 households – or over 1.5 million people²².

¹⁹Under PRP I (2004-07), GRM International provided technical support to the programme while DFID managed contracting arrangements with implementing partners directly. In phase II GRM International managed all contracting, provided technical support, and was responsible for monitoring and evaluation.

²⁰ See Figure 1.

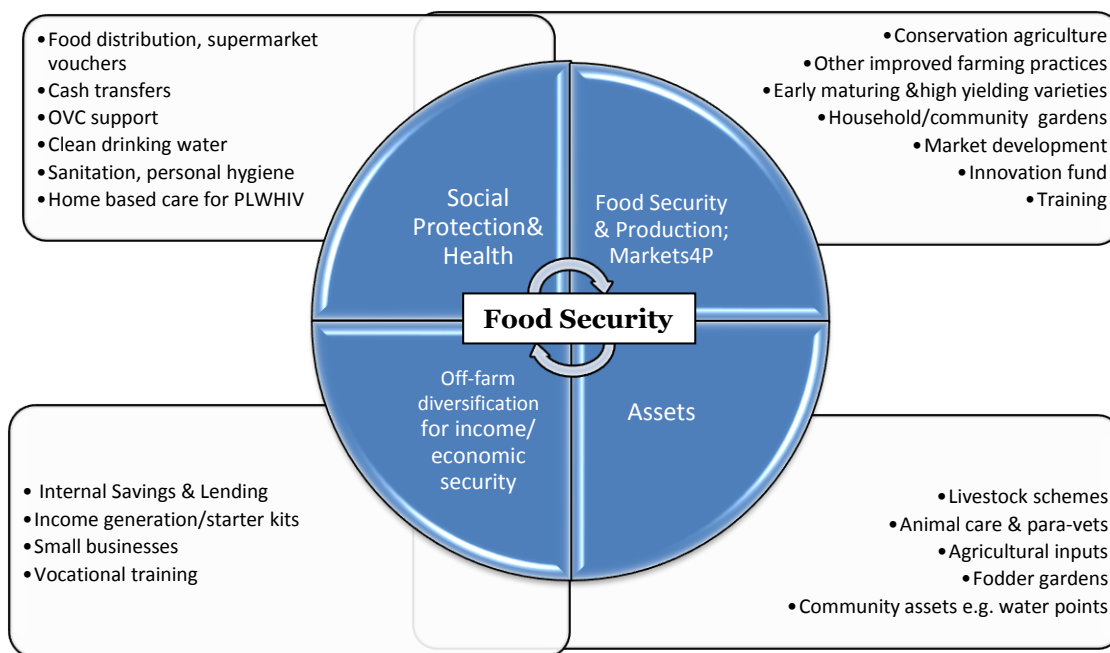
²¹ Document provided by GRM entitled Selection of Districts for PRP Extension 2011-13

²² Using updated 2012 census figures of 4.1 persons per household.

A review of programme documentation reveals the PRP offered the following integrated packages of interventions to enable households to graduate to different levels of thresholds:

- Food: direct food distribution, supermarket vouchers;
- Cash (USD \$20million): direct cash, electronic transfer through bank or supermarket, Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVCs) support, medical fees and support, public works programmes;
- Inputs: agricultural and livelihoods, community and household gardens, training in: vocational skills, education, HBC, WASH, ISALs and Participatory Health and Hygiene Education (PHHE) community facilitation;
- Assets: IGA starter kits, ISALs enable purchase, livestock schemes, including community assets (water points, processing centres); and advocacy work was also undertaken to effect social and policy change.

Figure 2: PRP II Integrated Approach



Partners were free to select from the menu under each set of interventions according to their comparative advantage or specific area needs and to bring innovation into approaches/methods for implementation-see the box below for examples²³. During the initial years of PRP II urban packages included cash transfers, community gardens and IGAs in response to growing food insecurity among the poor and very poor.

²³PRP RA Report No 8 Pathways Out of Poverty.

Box 1: Examples of Interventions

Examples which highlight the range of supports provided include the following:

- a. CAFOD/Caritas Bulawayo promoted a package of interventions including CA, CA demonstration plots, inputs distribution, community gardens, cash transfers, and skills building through Vocational Training, Nutritional Behaviour Change Communication, life skills development through Peer Education activities, and small livestock distribution and fodder demonstration plots.
- b. From 2008 to 2011, a package including CA, agricultural inputs, cash transfers, gardens, rehabilitation for children with disabilities and Home Based Care was offered in Makonde. But in the final year Farm Community Trust of Zimbabwe (FCTZ) implemented cash transfers, seed multiplication, ISALs, PHHE, and Primary Health Care Outreach whilst cotton companies provided loans for seed, fertilizers and pesticide inputs.

Shifts in Programme Approach

To facilitate graduation, in the last year, some partners shifted from targeting only very poor households to include labour endowed households, who were able to contribute towards development²⁴.

The focuses of the programmes were as follows:

- *Rural programme*: there was an intensification and diversification of livelihood options for the very poor and poor, achieved through increasing the size of asset transfers (crop and livestock inputs from \$50 to \$160) to enable households to meaningfully invest in their livelihoods, by productive cash transfers and by intensive support to Internal Savings and Lending (ISAL) groups and to Income Generating Activities (IGA).
- *Urban programme*: This was generally limited to very poor and poor households with small amounts of cash transfers and limited support to ISAL groups; the bulk of PRP urban programmes were dropped from July 2011.

The evaluation team were unable to find any documentation stating the rationale for dropping the bulk of urban programming in 2011. However, given the emphasis on graduation and results and BCA, the decision seems to have been based upon the disparity of urban and rural achievements, as well as the additional and distinct needs in urban sites for interventions to be effective.

For example:

- The 2011 Annual Review reported that recovery for the urban poor of Masvingo district had been much slower than that of their rural counterparts, and that results of the quality of life assessment questioned the sustainability of these urban projects.
- The PRP reports identified that successful urban programming needed improved access to resources and systems strengthening, as well as improved access to financial and physical capital, but PRP was not able to address all of these issues due to resource constraints and the scope of the programme. The EC urban programme did address some of these challenges in accessing working capital through provision of microfinance to very poor urban households, but this was limited to a few urban sites.

²⁴PRP RA Report No 8 Pathways Out of Poverty.

In 2011, the programme adopted market based approaches with the intention that interventions focus on promoting livelihoods and protecting their gains through engaging with input and output markets for sustainability. The value of inputs increased substantially to boost graduation through the thresholds²⁵.

The programme was intended to continue to 2013 but a decision was taken in 2011 to terminate activities in September 2012. The 2011 Annual Evaluation pointed to different views among development investors regarding the strategic focus of the programme and its ideal duration. The Evaluation states that this 'created a tension between considerations of welfare versus a focus on markets and whether ending the programme early (October 2012) will save money, or will cause an erosion of final programme value' (p.7). The 2011 Evaluation recommended that development investors agree on the focus and target of PRP for the remaining 12 month period. Our understanding is that this decision was taken because of the importance placed on being able to trial more market oriented activities in advance of a new envisaged programme to follow PRP and some concerns over costs and value for money of the PRP implementation model²⁶.

²⁵The three thresholds are discussed below in the section on Effectiveness under Graduation.

²⁶ Note for the Record, PRP Extraordinary Donor Meeting, 7/6/11, DFID

Findings

Relevance

How has the PRP achieved the protection & promotion of livelihoods?

In terms of supporting the achievement of the PRP II outcome ‘*livelihoods of the poorest and most vulnerable protected and promoted and destitution prevented*’, we assess the programme as very relevant given the context that prevailed in Zimbabwe. The programme:

- Addressed the needs of the vulnerable and the nutrition of people in a context of hyper-inflation (2000% in 2007) where 80% of the population lived on less than \$2 a day, and 60% on less than \$1. By 2011, the prevalence of chronic and acute malnutrition stood nationally at 35% and 2.4 % respectively.
- Adopted an integrated approach in response to the multi-dimensional aspects of poverty confronting the poor in Zimbabwe. At the time of design, WHO reported that Zimbabwe had the lowest life expectancy in the world; 37 years for men and 34 for women.
- Responded to the cholera outbreak (2008-09) with a much greater emphasis on WASH and the introduction of health clubs. By 2011, the case fatality rate for cholera hovered around 3.9%, remaining an ever-present threat.
- Responded to a collapse in agriculture input supply system, and marketing.
- Responded to problems created by erratic rainfall patterns and low soil fertility.
- Responded to the very high incidence of HIV and AIDS through a Home Based Care component (at the time, 18.1% of the adult population were HIV positive with around 2700 deaths each week).
- Used a participatory approach to re-engage with people who had become alienated from development through identifying their own needs given their specific socio-economic context.
- Positioned (in many locations) the PRP interventions as part of the district strategic plan reflecting an alignment with local government priorities.

Government strategies

The PRP II was implemented over three government development strategies: the Short Term Emergency Recovery Programme (STERP), the Three-Year Macroeconomic Policy and Budget Framework (STERP II) and the Medium Term Plan.

The theme Getting Zimbabwe Moving Again/Capacity Based Rehabilitation Programme guided the design and implementation of STERP which ran from February to December 2009. STERP sought to restore economic stability and growth and lay the foundation for a transformative mid-term to long-term economic programme.

The priority areas of STERP were political and governance reforms (i.e. a constitution making process, media and media reforms and legislative reforms), social protection (food and humanitarian assistance, education, health and strategically targeted vulnerable sectors) and stabilisation (growth oriented recovery, restoring the value of the local currency, increase capacity utilization, availing

essential commodities, rehabilitation of collapsed social, health and education sectors and ensuring adequate water supply).

STERP was followed by STERP II (2010-2012) which was geared towards building a sustainable developmental state through the medium of a dynamic and stable economy. STERP II acted as a bridge between STERP and the Medium Term Plan (2011-2015) launched in July 2011, which focussed on the maintenance of macroeconomic stability (achieved under STERP). The poverty reduction target in the Medium Term Plan (MTP) is sustained poverty reduction in line with MDGs targets.

On climate change, the guiding policy is the National Climate Change Response Strategy which is yet to be finalised.

Drawing from the different PRP II logframes (especially the PRP II Log frame at Inception), the evaluation finds that the programme was relevant to the context and the development strategy (STERP) of the country. The PRP programme’s goal (a reduction in extreme poverty in Zimbabwe) and purpose (Prevent destitution and protect and promote livelihoods of the poorest and most vulnerable) speak to the “social protection programmes” of STERP that targeted the vulnerable and disadvantaged groups.

The table below further demonstrates the confluence between government development strategies and PRP II

Table 3: Alignment of PRP II with Government Development Strategies²⁷

Government Policy	Context	PRP II
STERP Guaranteeing food security and self-reliance (paragraph 79)	In 2008 -2009 because of the macro-economic let-down and drought, there were massive food shortages in the country. The country was also experiencing agricultural input shortages.	Food security and nutrition enhanced through sustainable productivity increases and income generation (output 1).
STERP Publicly funded social safety nets will be enhanced (paragraph 68).	During this period the number of vulnerable and disadvantaged had increased beyond the coping capacities of extended families.	Social protection provided to the chronically poor (output 2).
STERP Inadequate provision of safe water and sanitation has also been responsible for spreading water borne diseases, leading to avoidable cholera deaths in urban areas (paragraph 63).	In August 2008 there was an outbreak of cholera.	Improved access to clean water, sanitation and hygiene (output 3).
Rural District Councils Act provisions and the Prime Directive of 1984.	Since the inception of Economic Structural Adjustment Programme in the early 1990s, the concept of community participatory lost its essence. The majority of the RDCs plans did not carry the aspirations of the communities; rather it contained the ideals of the councillors.	In 2010 (based on the October 2010 log-frame), the PRP II broadened to include “increased participation of communities in setting their priorities for, and taking ownership of, interventions in PRP programmes” in its outputs (output 4).
In 2011 the GoZ launched the MTP that among other things focused on private	After the dollarization of the economy in 2009, the private sector was ready for revitalisation. In 2008, the manufacturing	The PRP II responded to this shift towards market oriented development. The programme

²⁷ Government of Zimbabwe’s STERP, and GRM PRP II Logframes.

sector led development, employment creation and poverty reduction.	capacity utilisation was less than 10%, therefore there was great opportunity for increased capacity utilisation by the private sector players. However, the business environment was not enabling especially the absence of liquidity to enhance recapitalisation	moved into facilitating making markets working for the poor.
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After the formation of the Inclusive Government and the dollarization of the economy in February of 2009, the context in the country shifted gradually. The hyper-inflationary environment was reversed and the economy started to stabilize, but the socio-economic situation of the majority of the people had not improved. The following challenges were still prevalent in 2010:

- Shortage of the agricultural related inputs;
- Food insecurity persisted fuelled by erratic rainfall patterns and poor agricultural yields;
- Cholera, and especially its after effects;
- Access to clean water continued to be a problem because the infrastructure had collapsed.

In 2010 (based on the October 2010 log-frame), the PRP II was broadened to include “increased participation of communities in setting their priorities for, and taking ownership of, interventions in PRP programmes” in its outputs (output 4). The inclusion of this output is in line with the provisions of the Rural District Councils Act provisions and the Prime Directive of 1984 that calls for community participation in shaping their development.

In 2011 the GoZ launched the MTP that among other things focused on private sector led development, employment creation and poverty reduction. The PRP II responded to this shifting towards market oriented development. The programme moved into facilitating making markets working for the poor.

During its life time, the PRP II responded well to the context (e.g. cholera, absence of agricultural inputs and low productivity) and remained relevant to the development strategies of the country. The economy started picking up in late 2009, whilst the actual support for market oriented interventions started in late 2010 (a year later) and early 2011

Rationale for and extent of coverage across provinces, districts and wards

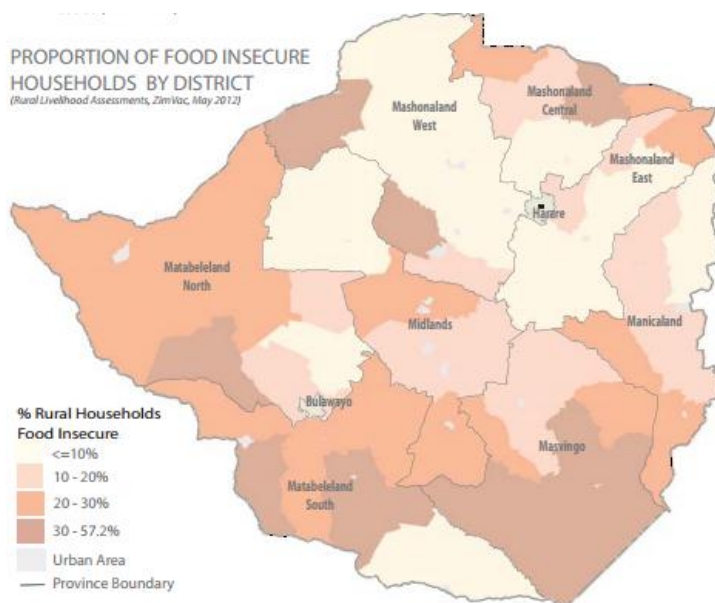
The PRP II programme covered all the provinces in the country²⁸. Given the purpose of PRP II “Livelihoods of the poorest and most vulnerable protected and promoted and destitution prevented”, the geographical coverage of all the provinces is justifiable given that in 2008 (when the programme started) the whole country was in a crisis. Politically the covering of all the provinces is justifiable given the polarisation that prevailed in the country at the inception of the programme. Excluding some provinces would have been interpreted in political terms and could have compromised the implementation of the programme.

The distribution of the implementation districts reflects the vulnerability map of Zimbabwe. 65% of the districts covered by PRP II are found in the most vulnerable provinces (Matabeleland North and

²⁸ Manicaland, Mashonaland Central, Mashonaland East, Mashonaland West, Midlands, Masvingo, Matabeleland North, Matabeleland South, Bulawayo and Harare.

South, Masvingo, Manicaland, Bulawayo and Mashonaland Central) of Zimbabwe. (See figure 3 below).

Figure 3: Proportion of Food Insecure Households by District (ZimVac)



Donor Harmonisation

At the time of the design of PRP II (2007), harmonisation was challenging in Zimbabwe with regard to food/livelihood security where there was little consensus between Government of Zimbabwe and donors regarding the nature, extent and solutions to the present crisis. In addition, the complex nature of protracted relief programmes is not captured within the mandate of a single ministry. In this polarised policy environment UN agencies took the lead in coordinating donor activities. OCHA, UNICEF and FAO worked with the PRP acting as the link with Government and ensuring programme activities were factored into the Consolidated Appeals Process and national humanitarian and relief

programmes that operated at that time²⁹, as increasingly donors joined in funding PRP II, harmonisation of donors' approach to addressing poverty was strengthened.

Climate change

From 2008, there was climate change awareness in Zimbabwe as evidenced by the formation of the Zimbabwe Climate Change Working Group (ZCCWG) whose key responsibilities include input into policy formulation and creation of awareness about climate change. The group includes representatives of civil society organisations and the relevant government departments³⁰.

In terms of addressing climate change, the PRP designers were alert to current trends which suggested that climate change would dramatically affect the lives of Zimbabweans. The project memorandum (2007) states that the programme 'will promote a number of tested interventions and technologies that enable farmers to adapt to the threat of climate change', as well as to the possibility of harvest failure. It also provided for the promotion of livestock, the wider use of drought-tolerant crops and the promotion of Conservation Agriculture (CA) to ensure a crop even in dry years. The project memorandum also gives emphasis to low cost, alternative solutions that provide opportunities for Zimbabwe to enter into the Clean Development Mechanism and voluntary carbon markets. However, there was no reference to climate change in the programme objectives and outcomes, but subsequently in 2011 where there was a new call for proposals for the Innovation Fund there was reference to climate change.

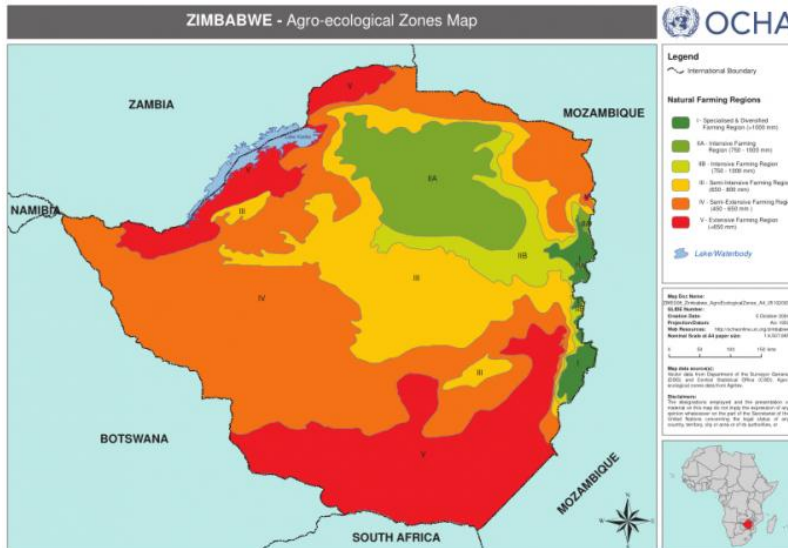
²⁹ DFID, PRP II Project Memorandum, 2007

³⁰A Meteorological Study reviewing 30 years of data, presented at a workshop in 2008 stated that Zimbabwe, like most other African countries will be the least prepared to cope with climate change. The threat of increased global warming associated with the release of greenhouse gases is real. Harare and Bulawayo have experienced a warming of about 2 degrees Celsius in the last 30 years and precipitation patterns also show a reduction of 30% in rainfall. The findings showed that floods and droughts in the region are gradually increasing in number and frequency. Cyclone-induced flooding included cyclone Bonita 1996, Eline 2000, Japhet 2003 and another in 2007.

The Met predicted that agricultural productivity in Zimbabwe could decrease by up to 30% because of increases in climatic extremes, and that climate change posed one of the most serious food security challenges of the 21st century in the country. It also stated that high prevalence and intensity of poverty may amplify the negative impacts of climate change, particularly among rural and peri-urban populations, with unprecedented consequences on an already degraded environment (John Russell, Zimbabwe: Country At Risk of Climate Change Effects, May 22, 2008, click4carbon.com).

PRP II had a number of interventions that support households to cope with climate change across the range of agro-ecological zones³¹.

Figure 4: Agro-ecological Zones of Zimbabwe (OCHA, 2009)



Improving livelihoods is an effective method of building climate resilience, provided that these incomes are not vulnerable to climate change. Most of the livelihoods supported by the PRP were implicitly contributing to climate resilience.

- Conservation Agriculture is an important strategy for conserving soil moisture and thus for improving the chances that crops will survive more frequent dry spells and higher temperatures.
- Small livestock are able to benefit from browsing, which tends to survive much longer in dry spells than the grass and other fodder used by cattle. And the existence of a healthy stock of small livestock helps households who have lost cattle in droughts to recover quickly.
- Savings and income diversification are very important strategies for building households resilience to climate variability and ISALs and the IGA activities make a major contribution to household climate resilience. In areas affected by drought, selling firewood is often the only income earning option available to households but skills training, combined with access to credit, provided other options (e.g. bee keeping in Chimanimani where farmers were now conserving trees for bee keeping).

The one PRP activity that is likely to have reduced climate resilience is the increased use of fertiliser, which is not effective during dry years. The PRP programme attempted to limit this risk by encouraging micro-dosing techniques. It is not clear whether the concentration of nutrients near the plant would reduce or increase the vulnerability of the plant to the burning effect of fertiliser during a drought. However, the fact that most farmers in the drier areas of the country used open input vouchers for equipment and not for fertiliser suggests that farmers are aware of this and adjusted their use of the vouchers so as to reduce the risks of wasted expenditure on fertiliser.

³¹ See Figure 4.

No systematic data was collected on attitudes to climate change amongst beneficiaries. However, the field evidence obtained during the evaluation demonstrated that Zimbabweans are very aware that their weather patterns are changing and, in particular, that drought years are becoming more frequent and the seasonality of rainfall is becoming more unpredictable.

Effectiveness of Livelihood Focussed Interventions

How has the PRP achieved the protection and promotion of livelihoods? How is this reflected in the graduation of the PRP beneficiaries to different thresholds (included as outcome indicators)? Review how different packages of interventions offered by different partners have affected graduation. How many people have achieved sustainable food security through the programme? Has this resulted from increased production or increased income, or a combination of both?

In this section we review the graduation framework which has guided the programme and the contribution of food security, social protection and, WASH outputs to graduation. We also examine some key supporting outputs that are critical to achievement of critical outcomes namely, community capacity, M&E, and coordination.

Graduation Framework

According to the Pathways out of Poverty Report (2012)³² graduation describes a process whereby a targeted group of the “poor” or the “vulnerable” receive support to enable them to transition over time to a situation where they enjoy a sustainable livelihood. The PRP approach to graduation was influenced by the model used by the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC), but adapted to the PRP/Zimbabwe context.

Box 2: Definition of Graduation

Definition of Graduation – PRP Pathways out of Poverty Report, 2012

The Report sees graduation as a pathway out of poverty, driven by increasing *incomes*, expanding *assets* and strengthening *food security* based on building the capacity of those targeted, to generate adequate streams of *food and income* and to build their resilience to enable them to respond to shocks and stressors.

The report states that resilience of a livelihoods system is a requirement for successful graduation to ensure that on-going shocks and stressors, be they social, economic or natural, will not push the household back into poverty (p. 7).

Elements of graduation include food security, stabilised and diversified income, increased assets including savings, improved access to healthcare, increased self-confidence and planning for the future.

Three thresholds defined graduation in PRP II; the Survival³³, Livelihoods Protection³⁴, and Livelihoods Promotion³⁵ Thresholds. At each level was a core set of interventions aimed at uplifting beneficiaries from that level to the next (see figure 5 below)³⁶.

³²PRP Research & Analysis Report No. 8 Pathways out of Poverty: The PRP Model – Impact and Lessons Learned (2012).

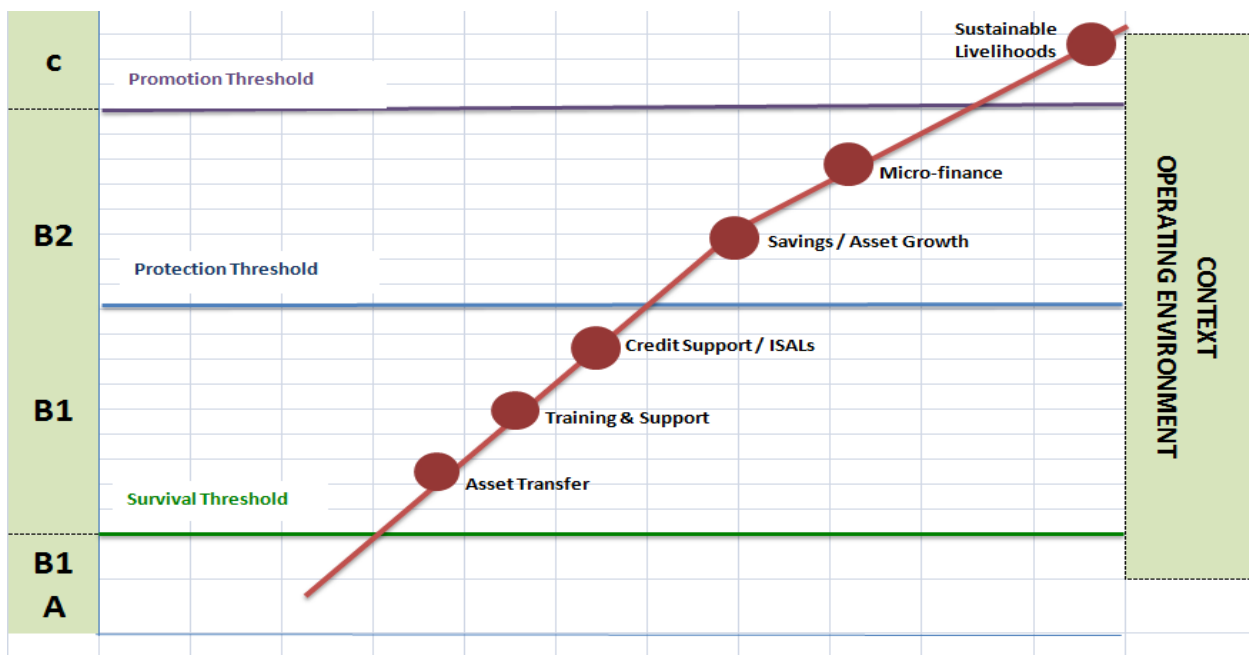
³³The Survival threshold is represented by survival food needs made up of the internationally agreed 2,100 kilo calories per person per day, plus survival non-food needs which include the cost of preparing the food, cost of lighting, grinding fees plus the cost of water for human consumption.

³⁴The livelihood protection threshold includes the survival costs (defined in the survival threshold), and in addition to this, it includes costs associated with access to social services (health and education), costs for maintaining productive activities, and the cost of supporting a locally acceptable standard of living.

³⁵The livelihood promotion threshold represents the total food and cash income necessary for PRP beneficiaries to withstand a typical set of hazards without falling below the livelihood protection threshold.

³⁶PRP II Report No 24 Graduation Strategy.

Figure 5: PRPII Graduation Framework



While this framework provides a conceptual framework for understanding graduation, the impression that graduation is linear going in an upward direction is not entirely correct. In practice, and especially when working with the poorest, it is iterative, progressing in a spiral with setbacks from repeated years of drought and shocks but moving towards graduation through adaptation and diversifying income earning opportunities. The need to monitor those households that regress to lower thresholds (especially below survival) and providing the necessary support is important³⁷.

The framework should also include WASH as a key cross-cutting theme. WASH focuses on preventive health care and helps contribute to production by breaking the cycle of ill-health, especially amongst the poorest. The burden of ill-health on a household budget and on household labour both in terms of the caring burden and the lost opportunity to work should not be under-estimated.

The graduation thresholds were defined to be aligned with the wealth rankings used by government: A are poor households with limited land and labour; B1 are poor households with labour and land, but no cash; B2 are emerging small farmers with land and labour but have cash constraints; and C have cash but no access to credit. The alignment of the government wealth rankings with the PRP thresholds is in the left of the figure above. The PRP originally used four wealth groups, based on the Household Economic Analysis data provided by LIME (i.e. very poor, poor, middle and better off) and these were expected to be equivalent to the government categories.

In practice, the PRP defined the position of individual households on the graduation pathway by comparing the household’s income (cash, in kind) with the level of expenditure required to meet the threshold requirements. These threshold expenditure levels were determined separately for each LIME households by the communities through a structured process of discussion.

³⁷ For a discussion on graduation see Rachel Sabates-Wheeler and Stephen Devereux, *Transforming Livelihoods for Resilient Futures: How to Facilitate Graduation in Social Protection Programmes*, August 2011.

Table 4 below sets out the numbers of households reached by PRP II. The LIME monitoring data suggests that the average size of PRP households is 4.7 for very poor and poor households and 4.5 for medium level households, suggesting that PRP II reached about 1.7m people directly. This is a similar number to that reached under PRP I (1.5 million) but is short of a minimum of 2 million in both rural and urban areas envisaged in the Project Memorandum (p. 5).

Table 4: Estimates of PRP Directly Supported Households 2008-12

Estimates of PRP Directly Supported Households 2008-12 ³⁸	
Households reached 2008-11	300,000
Households Dropped in 2011-12	150,000
Households Carried forward from 2008-11 to 2011-12	150,000
New households in 2011-12	72,658
Total Households reached in 2011-12	222,658
Overall Total Households Directly Supported	372,658

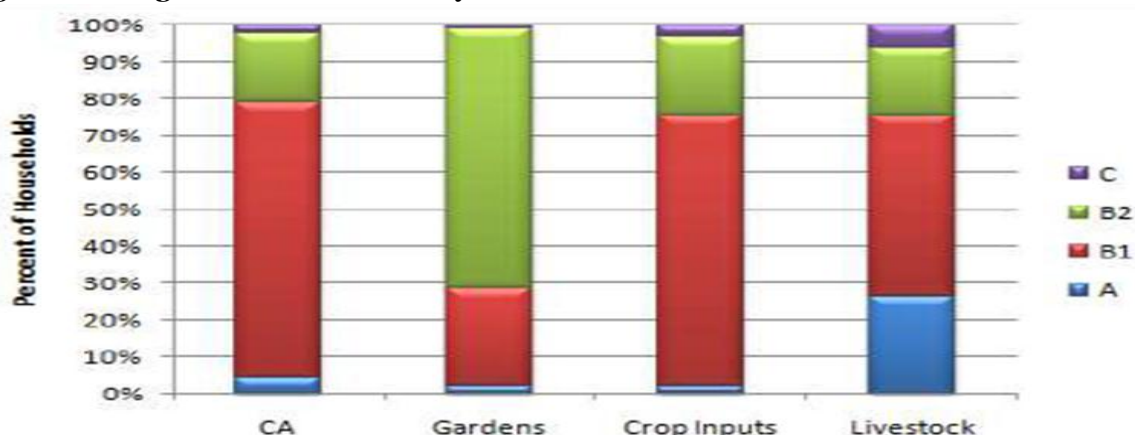
Source: PRP Report No 41, 2011-12 Review p.6

(The impact of PRP II in terms of beneficiary graduation through threshold levels is discussed under the Impact Section below).

Contribution of Food Security Outputs to Effectiveness

The 2011-12 Review report³⁹ draws attention to the targeting of interventions based on vulnerability categorisation. In this period, a total of 193,625 households benefitted from one or more agriculture related intervention. The distribution of these households across the database vulnerability categories show (see figure 6 below) that there are considerably more of the most vulnerable (category A) amongst the livestock beneficiaries, considerably more of the emerging small holder farmers (B2) engaged in community gardens, whilst crop inputs and CA support engaged mainly beneficiaries with land and labour but no cash, and therefore possibly no draught power (B1).

Figure 6: Categories of Household by Intervention⁴⁰



The logframe indicator for progress on improved food production requires reporting on the absolute level of ‘rainfall adjusted yields’. Despite several requests for technical support from ICRISAT, the

³⁸PRP Report No 41 2011-12 Review; these figures do not include those reached under WASH since the majority of interventions are at the community rather than the household level.

³⁹PRP Report No. 41, 2011-2012 Review.

⁴⁰ PRP Report No. 41, 2011-2012 Review

PRP was unable to operationalize the concept of rainfall adjusted yields. The indicator is therefore problematic and, more importantly, this led to ambiguity about the purpose of support for agricultural production. For example, it is not clear whether the objective of the support is to protect farmers from poor yields in dry years or to provide general yield increases that are likely to be achieved mainly in wetter years. These two objectives could lead to very different activities. The yields for CA reported in the logframe show a reduction from 1.66 to 1.43 t/ha from 2009/10 to 2010/11, when the target was for an increase from 0.7 to 1.0 t/ha. However, in both years, the CA yields were above those of conventional tillage by over 0.4 t/ha, suggesting that, while the targets for absolute yields were of limited value, the PRP farmers that converted to CA did produce substantial improvements in production. The extent to which this is sustainable is less clear and depends crucially on the values placed on the crop produced and the inputs and labour used. The sensitivity analysis conducted by the PCR of the PRP's BCA suggests that there are many areas where CA is not appropriate, at least in the manual form of basin planting promoted by the PRP.

Assets and livelihoods

There is clear evidence from beneficiaries (see box 3 below) that the introduction of small livestock (goats, chickens and rabbits) facilitated farmers to diversify and not just to depend on crops, and that it recognised that 'one size does not fit all'. Households have multiplied their livestock which has given a greater sense of security and a cushion against poor crop production; people spoke of the added benefit of fertiliser from the livestock that can be used to fertilise crops, and goat milk is used in the diet. People with rabbits reported being able to give their families meat⁴¹. The fact that many could sustain themselves at or above the survival threshold, continue to meet household needs, pay school fees, and save with the ISAL despite a drought situation, is an indication of some level of resilience.

The ownership of livestock was deemed by beneficiaries to increase their social status in the community, and increased women's social position within the household⁴². Beneficiaries in dry areas stated that it was easier for them to care for livestock than crops in regards to water availability and saw them as more relevant to their agro-ecological context. Training on the use of local resources as fodder (e.g. different types of shrubs) was beneficial especially for older beneficiaries and participation in fodder gardens. The growing of fodder for animals (fodder gardens) was a first and participants were keen to replicate it at the homestead level. A pool of para-vets was created and beneficiaries spoke of the benefit of training on caring for livestock.

The livestock intervention in 2008-11 on average saw the equivalent of about \$50 to each of 8,277 households; however, this was significantly scaled up in 2011-12 when livestock valuing \$160 was given to 28,059 households⁴³. This was a result of adherence to the 'Small holder farmer agriculture inputs, extension and market support programme' for the 2011-12 summer cropping season (August 2011).

⁴¹ E.g. one grandmother stated that she fed her six orphan grandchildren rabbit meat once a week as a result of the PRP support.

⁴² Those involved in a goat keeping group in Maphisa, Matobo district, said the milk and meat from the animals provides a much healthier diet.

⁴³ As an example, in Insiza, through support from Action Faim, the communities now have goats which the majority did not have before. Further Examples include: In Zvishavane a community health group Chenesai Musha⁴³ started an ISAL group. The group has managed to build basic toilets for its fourteen members and are now in the process of constructing round kitchens for its members from the saving and lending activities; thereafter they hope to buy each member a cow. Through community gardens supported by CARE in Masvingo provinces, the participating households have increased their asset base. The evaluation respondents noted that they had managed to buy a water engine (worth USD670) and pipes for their garden which significantly reduced the watering burden (cluster 2).

Box 3: Examples of Assets gained at the Household Level

Examples of Assets at the Household Level, Masvingo

Examples provided by individual women at household level include:

- Could now afford to give her albino child the education he/ she needed (Lucia Mtembwa, Ward 25B, Zaka)
- Now had 6 goats, a small solar panel, radio, mobile phone when previously she was very food insecure (Viola Muzadza, Ward 22, Zaka)
- Could now afford a passport and has started cross border trading from which she has established a poultry project with 85 birds (Rejoice Majerru, Ward 11, Zaka)
- Now paying school fees and has started to sell airtime, previously she had no clothes and couldn't afford to send her two sons to school, (Eneti Bishi, Ward 28, Zaka)
- Now sending her four children in school and her daughter is has now been at the university for 3 years studying for a BA (Winnie Chisai, Ward 2 Zaka).
- Has built a two roomed house roofed with iron sheets (Lucia Mtembwa of ward 25, Zaka district)

Household income and savings

The achieved increment in rural and urban annual household incomes by the end of PRP is depicted in Table 5. A higher increment in incomes was observed for the very poor medium wealth categories in the rural areas than for supported households in the same categories in the urban locations. This was explained partly by the differences in intervention packages offered in rural areas and urban areas.

The common income generating activities reported in urban areas were poultry, rabbit projects, vending of drinks and snacks, sale of vegetables and second hand clothes. In rural areas IGA activities include farming, small stock projects, bakery, honey, milk, and candle making. Members of a goat keeping group mentioned that improved sales made it possible to pay school fees and to buy bread on most days. Once all the hives are in full production bee keepers in Bumba could expect gross margin of 52 USD per annum per household⁴⁴.

The BCA undertook an analysis of a range of the income generating activities. Beekeeping achieved a Benefit Cost Rate of 1.6, grain storage 1.9, contract farming 12.3 and aquaculture 1.3. This gives some indication of the potential contribution and sustainability of these activities. However, the experience of the evaluation suggests that there are major constraints to some of these activities: beekeeping needs reliable markets; contract farming has complex constraints associated with risk and marketing; and aquaculture is vulnerable to disease. The BCA needs to be complemented by a suitable sensitivity analysis to capture the potential impact of these constraints. In practice, the nature of these constraints is such that it is clear - without conducting a sensitivity analysis - that the activities will all produce good returns if the constraints are managed, but will be unsustainable if they are not.

According to the Graduation Strategy report the increases in incomes of PRP supported households in urban areas may not all be attributable to the programme. Nevertheless there is strong evidence that the cash transfers, IGAs and ISALs made a contribution. Urban households also suffered limitations in capital for expanding livelihood options, reflecting current liquidity challenges in Zimbabwe and flooding of vending markets.

⁴⁴PRP RA Report No 5 Benefit Cost Analysis.

Table 5: Increment in Total Rural and Urban Annual Household Incomes by End of PRP

Rural Incomes	Very Poor	Poor	Medium
Average Baseline Cash Incomes (\$)	212	346	591
Average Monitoring Cash Incomes (\$)	312	389	712
% increase in Cash Incomes	47%	12%	20%
Urban Incomes	Very Poor	Poor	Medium
Average Baseline Cash Incomes (\$)	1,036	1652	2446
Average Monitoring Cash Incomes (\$)	1267	2046	2755
% increase in Cash Incomes	22%	24%	13%

Source: PRP Report No 24 Graduation strategy

The 2012 logframe reports that the average increase in household income for poor households achieved over the programme period is \$365 (up from \$103 to \$468). With 372,000 PRP households, this suggests that total incomes for PRP households have increased by at least \$136m over the period and probably higher because the increase for non-poor households was higher than for poor households. These figures also come from the LIME Household Economy Approach (LIME HEA). The figures are problematic because they suggest that a programme that spent \$142m⁴⁵ over four years generated annual benefits of \$136m, which is much higher than could be expected. Possible reasons for the high figure include the following: some of the benefits are those from transfers that will not be sustained after the PRP; households will have benefitted to some degree from economic growth (which amounted to 30% over the period); and inflation (which amounted to 20%) will also have contributed to the increase.

The Internal Savings and Lending (ISAL) groups became a cornerstone of the PRP graduation model from 2010. The objective of ISAL groups is to improve livelihoods of participating households through the creation of safety nets, inculcating a culture of savings and providing loans to use for income generating activities. ISALs, and related training, are amongst the more appreciated PRP intervention. Many beneficiaries mentioned that they were not members of an ISAL nor had savings prior to their involvement in PRP; those that were did not earn any interest from money lent so the prospect of earning interest under the ISALs was attractive.

The PRP Final Report No 41 for 2011-12 states that 50,703 households were participating in 5937 ISAL groups by the end of the PRP. This is over double the target which is a good indication of the success of ISALs. There is limited financial information available about savings and loans activity and it is therefore not easy to establish the significance and sustainability of the institutions. However, the Group Maturity Index (GMI) for ISALs is strong, with 70% of ISALs having reached 'mature' or better by April 2012 (PRP Report 41).⁴⁶

During the fieldwork for the Evaluation, the majority of beneficiaries indicated that they were part of an ISAL group and most groups had continued to save amounts ranging from 5 to 20 USD monthly even after the close of the programme. They considered themselves better-off than non-ISAL participating households.

⁴⁵ Based on figures received from DFID during the draft process of the evaluation which show the consolidated programme expenditure to be \$142 million (see annex 7)

⁴⁶ PRP R&A Report 11 reviews five case studies of ISALs and IGAs but gives little financial information. CRS managed 2690 ISALs, with an average saving of \$146 per group and an average group size of 8 members. The average return on savings for members over the programme to date had been 25.8% (CRS SILC MIS Report Dec 2012).

The training received as part of ISAL group formation improved individual's planning and record keeping. Group members reported access to income for purchase of food, and especially payment of school fees. It facilitated the start of income generating activities as individual and groups, and for a few the purchase of property. Group members reported purchasing items such as household utensils, ploughs, land stand, plumbing equipment and kitchen units.

An important part of the ISAL training includes the concept of planning which was new to participants – this gave them skills in relation to both the farm and household planning. This was highly valued by participants as it enabled them to have a vision of what they are going to do and to plan in stages.

A fundamental benefit of ISAL is the important role it plays in complementing crop production giving households access to credit for agricultural inputs, a cash flow in lean times, and especially to enable them to diversify into other livelihood options such as livestock and small scale business.

For those with entrepreneurial skills, ISALs provided access to capital⁴⁷. For very poor households, members stated that having access to ISAL gave them 'peace of mind' in that they knew they have access to resources if they need it, especially in the lean and hungry months or at times when school fees were due.

The recipients of unconditional cash transfers in urban Mutare revealed two major benefits: the assured income which helped to improve household access to food. Secondly, the regular cash transfers enabled individuals to save through the ISAL groups and start new or expand old businesses such as poultry, sale of used shoes and clothes, vegetables, and snacks and drinks. A focus group discussion with pensioners showed that the cash transfer enabled them to save through the ISAL and make bulk purchases of cooking oil, sugar, salt, matches, soap and dried/ smoked fish. Earnings from IGAs were reported to contribute to household food needs. However, based on case studies, the Pathways out of Poverty Report⁴⁸ indicated that ISALs linked only to cash transfers were unsustainable, as the majority of groups collapsed, together with the savings culture, when the transfer ceased. It concluded that a mix of interventions to accompany the ISAL activity is more likely to promote sustainability.

The Pathways study noted that the use of savings and loans by groups varied depending on the socio-economic status of the group and the level of group maturity. Those groups comprised mostly of people who had been trained in the management of IGAs and who were running small businesses prior to introduction of the ISALs invested most of their savings towards expansion of the scope of their businesses to enhance viability and profitability. On the other hand, groups with poor and vulnerable members and no viable IGA used their savings mostly on meeting basic needs such as food, education and health, as well as for the acquisition of household assets; such households were only comfortable borrowing small amounts of money for fear of failing to repay the loans.

There has been no attempt to compile data about the scale of ISAL activities. The PRP Research Report on ISALs did not provide statistics about the numbers involved or the scale of activities. It is therefore difficult to assess the magnitude of the impact across the whole PRP.

CRS produced an analysis for their Dec 2012 management report of operations in Zimbabwe, showing that they were supporting 602 active groups and that there were 2068 groups that they had supported in the past, but which had graduated to continue without further support. The average ISAL group has 8 members. The groups that CRS is actively supporting have total savings of \$300 (i.e. \$37.5/member). The 'graduated groups' have average savings of \$100 (i.e. \$12.5/member). It would

⁴⁷ E.g. one woman started an agro dealership business, and built a shop.

⁴⁸PRP Research and Analysis Series Report No. 8, Pathways out of Poverty, 2012.

be wrong to draw general conclusions for the whole PRP from the experience on one IP, but the CRS experience does suggest that the scale of individual ISAL activities is quite small. However, if all the ISAL groups supported in Y4 had average savings similar to those of the CRS ISALs, the total savings would be \$1.8m, which would make a significant contribution to household welfare.

The CRS experience suggests that at least some ISALs may best be viewed as time-bound initiatives. The reasons for this are not clear, but it may be that they follow a normal cycle, in which they are initiated when savings are available, they then continue for a period but that they are then terminated, perhaps when the members feel the need to take out savings.

In terms of *percentage contribution of cash transfer to poor household income*, the baseline in 2009-10 was 13%, with a milestone of 17% in 2010-11, and an achieved rate of 11% in 2012 (based on a target of 10% for 2011-2012).

It has not been possible to determine whether this improved food security has resulted from increased production or increased incomes, or a combination of both. The definition of the survival threshold used in LIME is based on food consumption and there is no explicit distinction between whether increased consumption comes from home production or from incomes from sales of crops. However, the incomes of very poor households have increased substantially, even in rural areas, which suggest that improved incomes have made a major contribution to improved food security.

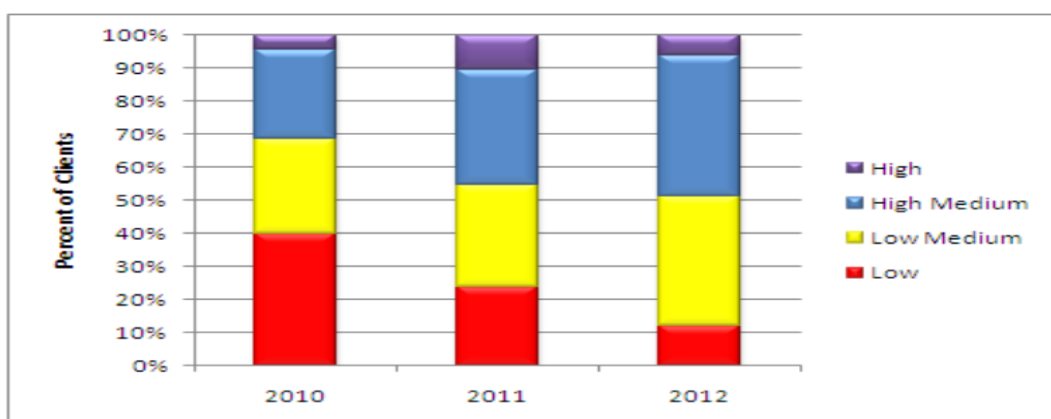
Contribution of Social Protection Outputs to Effectiveness

Home Based Care

The Quality of Life Index (QOL) developed by PRP II measures aspects of ‘being’ (which includes physical and emotional well-being), ‘belonging’ (related to position in society) and ‘becoming’ (capturing a sense of purpose in life). The QOL Index analysed patients’ quality of life/wellbeing and combines four key aspects targeted in relation to Home Based Care. These included pain management, symptom management, stress management and strength and stamina with chronically ill persons and their families. The index monitored changes in the status of people that had been exposed to illness and that benefited from the Community Based Health Care activities.

The index was used primarily to explore the factors that contributed to differences in QOL, rather than to monitor the impact of the PRP. The QOL reports show changes in the index from 2010 to 2012 for urban locations, suggesting a marked improvement in QOL scores that is consistent with the improvements reported for other indicators. However, the cause of this is not clear, for example, could it be that urban participants had access to other health services. Figure 7 shows the changes in QOL.

Figure 7: Quality of Life (Pathways out of Poverty Report 2012)



Although not measured in the PRP II logframe, it is evident that the results achieved in the Quality of Life Index (and the discussions conducted with beneficiaries) that the HBC intervention has brought significant positive benefits to the lives of beneficiaries.

Some examples include:

- PLWHA were receiving appropriate care while being able to remain in their own homes with their families, and consequently there was less hospitalisation of the sick. Beneficiaries indicated that this was both a financial and psychological benefit to both the sick and their families.
- Beneficiaries reported that as an effect of more people being cared for in their homes, there was increased space and opportunity for healthcare professionals to concentrate on other things.
- HB Carers, who were predominantly women, reported that whilst, in many cases, they had been working as HB Carers in their community before the intervention started, the formalising of it as a PRP intervention had led to increased recognition and respect for their work in the community. Participants in Murehwa reported that they had been invited by local government to consult on HBC issues in their community and that since the PRP intervention had stopped, the district had been providing some medicines to health clinics for the carers to use.
- The provision of resources such as medicines through PRP I has enabled carers to help the sick more effectively and the provision of bicycles has enabled the carers to travel between homes more quickly, thus saving carers time that they can use for other activities.
- The Zamani HBC group in Tjanka Ward 1 has established community gardens alongside their care work. These gardens have enabled carers to access fruit and vegetables to give to the sick and for themselves, which supports the effectiveness of ARVs and improves their nutrition. The excess from the gardens has been sold and the proceeds have been used to pay for the school fees and expenses of HIV/AIDS orphans. They are currently feeding and paying the school fees for 11 orphans and 6 bed-ridden patients.
- Even when HBC was stopped as a PRP intervention in 2011, the integrated nature of the programme, alongside the knowledge and training they had received, meant that participants were able to continue their work and buy some medications, soap etc. with money they earned from ISALs and IGAs.

It is clear that the effects of the HBC intervention have been largely positive, both for those who have benefitted from the care and for the carers themselves and between 2008-11, it enabled government services to reach areas they would not otherwise be able to serve. However, there is an issue of attribution as beneficiaries identified other HBC programmes that had been taking place both before and during the PRP II, such as one ran by Zimbabwe Women Against HIV and AIDS, which delivers similar activities. Of the group sampled (12), 9 had been trained by the PRP but three had received training from the ZWAHA but had joined the PRP group.

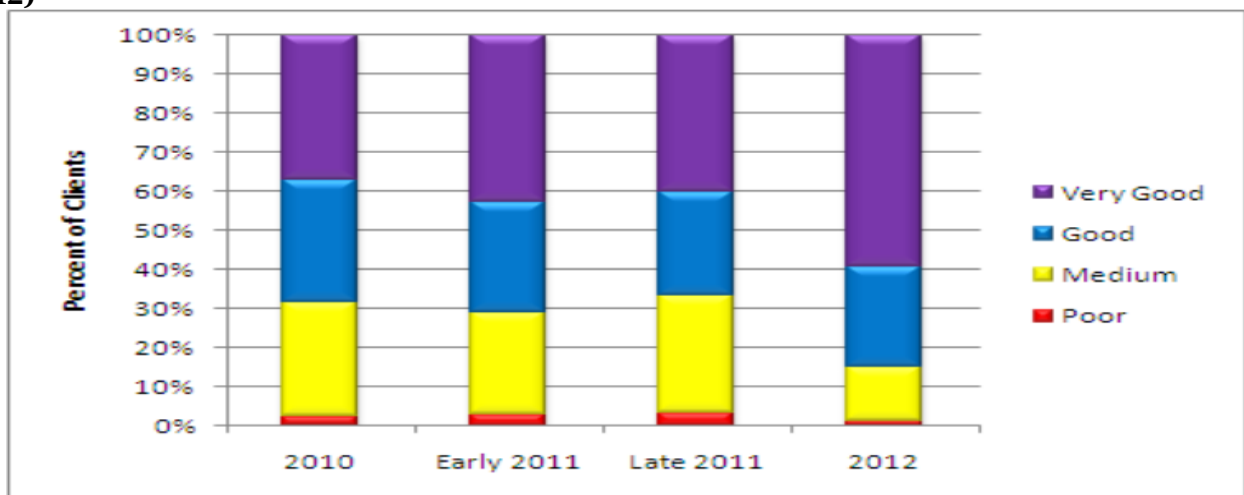
Contribution of WASH Outputs to Effectiveness

Improving access to potable drinking water and increasing sanitation and hygiene was one of the key aims of the PRP II. Throughout the programme, prioritisation of WASH interventions was at community, rather than household level, thus the number of households benefitting directly from WASH support is unknown. However, all output indicators from the logframe were met and it is estimated that in achieving these targets, PRP II has enabled over 200, 000 people to improve their access to clean water and sanitation and that 77, 428 people have been trained in PHHE.

For the health and hygiene activities, the PRP used a Participatory Health and Hygiene Education index (PHHE). As with the QOL, the PHHE is used primarily to explore whether activities had a significant effect and the results suggest that access to safe water (and especially a borehole) and hygiene education both have a strong correlation with PHHE. This is supported by the fieldwork undertaken by the evaluation. The most recent PHHE report also looks at changes in the PHHE over the last three years, which suggest that there was little change up to 2011, but a marked improvement in 2012. The reasons for this are not explored, but it is possible that the improvement occurred because of an accumulation of benefits from several years of PRP activity.

From a baseline in 2010 of 30% of households scoring good or better, the target for 2012 was 65% while the 2012 logframe indicates that 85% of rural, peri-urban and urban households scored good or better (see Figure 8 below). The establishment of health clubs seems to have been effective in schools, while community members spoke of improved personal hygiene as a result of PHHE.

Figure 8: Participatory Health and Hygiene Education Index (Pathways out of Poverty Report 2012)



Improved access to water and sanitation underpins the success of so many of the other PRP interventions and the meeting of these targets has clearly facilitated the positive effects of other PRP activities; from community gardens to HBC. Examples are provided in the Box below.

Box 4: Examples of WASH benefits

Examples of WASH benefits

- PHHE training has led to increased knowledge, understanding, awareness and action on WASH issues. Field work discussion indicated that people have changed their behaviour in relations to PHHE and WASH and that as a consequence; there has been a reduction in diseases such as diarrhoea. As a result of a reduction in disease, the burden of care, money spent on health services and mortality rates decreases.
- The creation of pump minders has led to an additional income for those trained and has helped to ensure sustainable access to water for communities.
- There was evidence from field beneficiaries that the time-burden for women collecting water has decreased, that tools such as elephant pumps are easier and more accessible to use, that there is increased respect from communities and within households for having a clean home due to the competitions that were organised.
- As well as the WASH and PHHE aspect, beneficiaries said that the health clubs had also improved community cohesion as they worked together more in keeping communal areas clean and that they visited one another more.
- Market sellers in Plumtree reported that due to the PRP II WASH interventions, the fruit and veg they now sold was cleaner, which was better for customers and meant they sold more.

Whilst many of the ‘usual’ WASH activities took place under the PRP, there were also innovations, for example the use of new water extraction technologies tested in Zimbabwe’s drier regions that constructed sand dams to allow communities to access water from the siltation process.

Despite the benefits that PRP WASH interventions have brought to communities and health clubs, there have been some challenges. The Evaluation Team observed varying degree of success in relation to sanitation, and there seems to have been different approaches by different IPs. The limitations of the hand washing component was observed during field visits, especially in schools. In Chivi District, latrine blocks were built in 21 schools supported by CAFOD which were widely appreciated by the schools but poor hand washing facilities was a limitation despite the presence of active school health clubs in some schools. These limitations were also evidenced in households where in May 2012; only 59% of PRP households had access to safe sanitation with functional handwashing⁴⁹.

Other challenges included:

- Delays in approval by local authorities for WASH designs;
- Some delays in the mobilising of construction materials for latrines, due to community prioritisation of crop activities;
- Government and RDC employees often expecting to be ‘incentivised’ in return for their support or participation in a project.

⁴⁹ PRP 2012 Logframe

The key focus of WASH initiatives in communal areas such as schools, clinics, market places and growth points has ensured that the interventions are very visible in communities and combined with the PHHE training has increased both awareness of WASH and health and sanitation issues, as well as ownership and a sense of a shared responsibility.

Importance of Supporting Outputs to Effectiveness

Community Capacity

Between 2008-2011, the indicator for strengthened capacity to contribute to demand-led and pro-poor interventions was community based groups and level of group maturity. In 2011, this was changed to initiation and adoption of community based plans, and group maturity. This was based on the rationale that with the establishment of the Inclusive Government there were renewed opportunities to give effect to the Prime Minister's Directive of 1984 which set-up the structures for popular participation in development planning.

The target for 2012 of 100% of submitted Community Based Planning ward plans approved by Rural District Council (RDC) has been largely reached⁵⁰. Evidence from the discussions the Evaluation team had with the District Administrators, Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of RDCs and the government department officials during the field visits, indicate that the community planning process and the plans were welcomed by the RDC.

In 2010, Practical Action was engaged as a technical partner to train selected rural partners on Community Based Approaches. A total of 11 partners promoted CBA during 2011-12. Activities implemented included the monitoring of the implementation of community based plans formulated during 2010-2011, community sensitisation meetings, training for transformation, transformational leadership training and on-going development of plans. Community sensitisations and orientation meetings were held with the RDCs for selection of wards (for CBA) in the respective districts.

Given that the community based planning only commenced in 2010, there was little time before PRP II terminated to support, oversee or monitor implementation - less than a third (18 out of the 58) plans had initiated at least one activity (31%). There is concern that communities may not be able to access funds to implement their projects, though some may have access to funds from mines under Community Shared Ownership Trusts.

The Evaluation Team had the opportunity to meet with only two community groups that had undertaken community based planning. However, community members indicated that they valued the extensive amount of training on community based planning that took place during 2011-12, and were very enthusiastic about the process⁵¹.

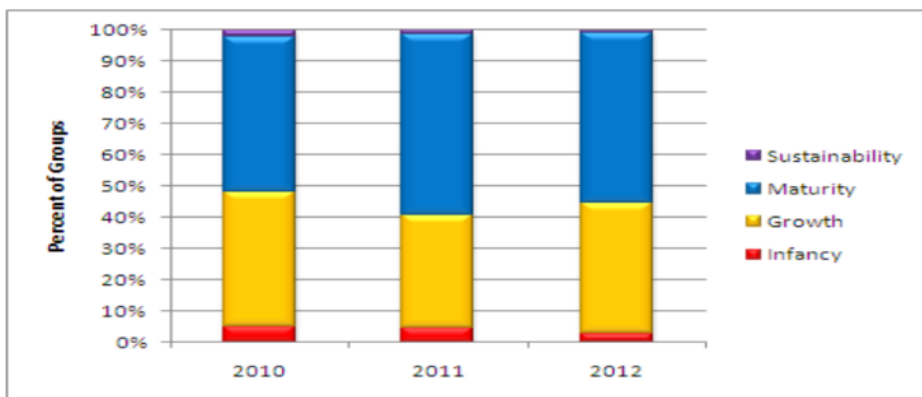
PRP placed significant emphasis on community members working together in groups and supporting such groups with capacity development to lead in the selection and implementation of relevant, appropriate and sustainable interventions, to manage resources and to plan for their own development. The most common types of groups were ISAL, IGA, farmer, garden, health, and water point committees, and community based planning groups.

⁵⁰Twelve ward based food security plans, and 68 village plans were developed and submitted to councillors and received approval while 74 full ward based plans (including 2010-11 & with combined target of 105 plans) have now been developed and 67 have been submitted to full RDC with 59 having been approved. Eight ward plans remain outstanding for approval since RDC did not meet in time before PRP ended and 7 plans are being finalised and are to be submitted to the next RDC meetings (Logframe 2012).

⁵¹ In terms of training, 8,908 community members and 1,004 community leaders were trained and participated in CBP in 135 wards across the country (2012 logframe).

The Group Maturity Index was used primarily to assess the success of the PRP in building strong groups. As the groups constitute a form of social capital that helps reduce poverty, the GMI is relevant to considering changes in non-income poverty. PRP efforts through group based interventions have seen increased competency and increased participation at community level. The GMI shows that the 2012 targets for group maturity were met for ISAL, IGA, health and farmer groups. It also showed that the target for water point committees was achieved – 58% up from 28%. However, there remains over one third that has not matured which means that the investment in water related infrastructure is vulnerable in one third of cases. Garden groups were the least successful.

Figure 9: Group Maturity Index Life (Pathways out of Poverty Report 2012)



M&E System

The PRP II M&E system was reviewed for effectiveness to support programme delivery and achievement of results. The PRP Research and Analysis Report on The Legacy of PRP describes the M&E strategy devised under the PRP II as able to inform delivery of results at all levels of the PRP results chain. It comprised of systems for a) compliance monitoring, b) a PRP database, and c) the Longitudinal Approaches to Impact Assessment, M&E (LIME).

The evaluation team concluded that the M&E system devised by PRP II was effective for supporting programme delivery and achievement of results:

- It facilitated monitoring of results at all levels.
- It facilitated monitoring of programme impacts and was useful for highlighting where changes in packages/ design of packages that can lead to better impact should be made. For example changes made in values of asset transfers from \$50 to \$160.
- A huge investment was made in M&E in terms of time and capacity building with the result that a pool of M&E experts in Zimbabwe has been created, and the capacity of local NGOs strengthened considerably.
- Substantial information has been generated through the Research and Analysis work that can be used to inform future development interventions.
- The system was useful for developing innovative approaches for tracking impact of complex processes such as PHHE, GMI and quality of life which most IPs indicated they are continuing to use.

Our concerns are:

- In its findings LIME was picking up not only on the effects of PRP II but also on the recovery that rural households in Zimbabwe were experiencing, largely in response to the improved economic circumstances and there was no comparator.
- According to IPs, large amounts of information were collected in the database that might not be used; and some IPs that already had well-established monitoring systems were required to undertake additional data collection which they considered was duplication and represented poor value for money.
- Whilst the use of the graduation model encouraged attention on the dynamic nature of poverty reduction and wider aspects of poverty, the graduation of individual households was, in practice⁵², determined by household incomes. The levels of the thresholds were estimated separately for each LIME site, using techniques that provided structured discussions about the expenditure needed at that site to provide the basic services. Thus, whilst the thresholds were derived using a sophisticated discussion about vulnerability, they were actually defined in terms of expenditure. And, once the thresholds had been determined, progress in graduation was determined by the incomes of households and whether these incomes were sufficient to meet the expenditure required to pass each threshold.
- The database continues to have technical problems and that this has negatively affected the prospect that some implementing partners will continue to use it.
- More particularly, given the enormous effort that was expended in implementing LIME it is unclear how the findings will influence higher level policy development or how the findings will be used in longer term in the absence of an entity to actively promote its findings and learning in different locations across the country.
- Whilst quantitative, gender disaggregated data for PRP II interventions is available and reported on, this information is mainly limited to the number of male and female beneficiaries involved in each intervention and there are no SMART output and outcome indicators in the PRP logframe through which to measure progress and determine the extent to which it is effectively addressing gender.
- There is also limited qualitative data on gender within the PRP. This may result in under-reporting and missed evidence, and creates challenges in assessing the gendered impact of the programme e.g. in relation to the impact of interventions on gender equity to the power balance between women and men and decision making processes.

Compliance

The Compliance Monitoring System had two core streams, that of programme management and finance monitoring. It helped to determine the extent to which partner proposals matched activities and outputs⁵³. The 2012 logframe indicates that 97% of IPs were compliant and performed satisfactorily with only one IP performing below expectation.

Discussions with GRM staff show partners were encouraged to adopt a logframe approach during proposal development and training was given annually to support this. GRM also worked with

⁵² Communication between the Evaluation Team and the GRM Programme Team
⁵³PRP Research and Analysis Report No.7, The Legacy of PRP.

implementing partners to develop standardised indicators at output and outcome level by sector to allow comparison of effectiveness. Project budgets were designed according to “5 Ws” Who, what, when, why and how much to correspond to M&E framework and logframes. Some of the systems have been adopted at lower level. For example CAFOD was noted for requiring their sub grantees to use similar systems. Compliance monitoring is said by GRM to have improved partners’ performance so that agencies that were initially sub grantees from 2008-2010 such as Environment Africa, and CDDT were able to favourably compete and win tenders as grantees from 2011-2012.

In our discussions with local NGOs it is clear that they have gained from the involvement in the development and implementation of the M&E System in terms of the immense capacity building received and making their M&E systems robust, which is enabling them to leverage other funding. Indeed, it appears that PRP has made a significant contribution towards developing a pool of M&E specialists in Zimbabwe.

PRP was also effective in bringing IP managers together and M&E officers met regularly to discuss issues pertaining to LIME (challenges, analysis of data, whether data is making sense and implications). However, our field visits indicate that there was little active collaboration on the ground except if coordinated by the District.

PRP Database

The PRP database provided a repository for beneficiary details and profiles, facilitated review for targeting and selection and supported reporting of progress towards output targets. Partners were required to record on a monthly basis inputs and activities implemented into a similarly designed database and submit to GRM who merged the files.

Both the PRP Research and Analysis Report on the Legacy of PRP and PRP Partner M&E review sought partners’ views on the database. Their findings (not divergent to those received by our team) are summarised in Table 6. Most IPs acknowledge that the database helped them especially with targeting beneficiaries. Some said it raised the bar in M&E in their organisations and would recommend future use with modifications. Others indicated that they will not continue to use it because of the technical problems experienced; too much data was collected that was not analysed.

Table 6: User-Review of the PRP Database (PRP Research and Analysis Report No.7, the Legacy of PRP and PRP Report No 28A Partner ME Review)

<i>Strengths</i>	<i>Weaknesses</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It reduced double dipping and the burden of reporting • Facilitated record keeping, data analysis and report writing. • Easy tracking of implementation progress. • GRM was flexible and allowed databases to be adapted for partners. • Made IP activity and output monitoring effective. • Linkages with Compliance were useful and essential in ensuring that the process is given priority by partners. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Database entry had many glitches and required frequent consultation with GRM. • Technical challenges persist (duplicates, losses of entry, run time errors, crashes). • MS ACCESS failed to cope with the database size. • Lack of adequate computer skills amongst partner officers. • Training needed to be less instructive to enhance capacity to handle technical challenges. • Few innovations around data collection and paper based data collection laborious and slow. • Some partners decided to use own databases (did not migrate to PRP database) which caused delays in reporting for those IPs.

LIME

The Longitudinal Approaches to Impact Assessment, M&E (LIME) combined approaches of Household Economy Approach (HEA), Benefit Cost Analysis (BCA) and Most Significant Change (MSC). It combines qualitative and quantitative information to enable measurement of impact at

both household and community level and appropriateness of the programme. LIME collected information concerning household livelihood strategies, household income and expenditure, household access to food, benefits and costs of PRP interventions, and household perceptions of changes occurring in their lives as a result of PRP

LIME provided information to four intermediate outcome indicators that include;

- % of oil, sugar and protein in household diet;
- % contribution of PRP initiated income generation activities to household income;
- Primary school net attendance ratio (6-12years) (dropped in 2009);
- % expenditure on non-staple food.

LIME Outcome analysis also provides information on the impact of PRP as measured by the three HEA derived thresholds. The final outcome is measured against three purpose level indicators. These three thresholds are:

- % HH above Livelihood promotion threshold;
- % HH above livelihood protection threshold;
- % HH above survival threshold.

LIME evolved to cater for changes in context and the need for better measures of impact. For example, in 2008/9 changes were made to the HEA to focus on households instead of communities because of the hyperinflation and unstable economy which made it difficult to get representative data on consumption. In 2010, additional indices Quality of Life (QOL), Participatory Health and Hygiene (PHHE) and Group Maturity Index (GMI) were added to LIME to provide means for measuring impacts of WASH, HBC and group capacity development interventions besides anecdotal evidence.

The technical and analysis reports developed by PRP II all drew evidence from LIME and assessed LIME data to obtain a deeper understanding of interventions (e.g. ISAL case studies, Drivers of Poverty, Social Protection, BCA and Pathways out of Poverty).

During our discussions with partners LIME was described as being intense in terms of demands on staff time. One partner indicated the need for a value for money check on LIME, adding that the system collected more information than anyone used. Others found it a very useful resource for future programming use. Given the enormous effort that was expended in implementing LIME there is a considerable opportunity and challenge for forthcoming food security programmes to build on the information generated. The Legacy study found LIME to fit well with and add value to the following existing systems:

- Ministry of Finance/ ZimStats- Poverty Datum Lines/ Statistics/ National Indicators;
- ZimStats/Food and Nutrition Council (FNC)/ZIMVAC – Mapping and Zones;
- Ministry of Internal Affairs/ Local Government- District and Ward Level Planning and Plans;
- NGO & Civil Society led interventions- Coordination through UN clusters and technical working groups.

Other strengths and limitations of LIME reported in the Legacy Report are listed below.

Box 5: Strengths and Limitations of the LIME M&E System

Strengths of LIME

- Provides a robust and detailed baseline. HEA brought partners up to speed with quality M & E.
- More accurate in quantifying and measuring indicators due to robust data collection tools.
- Has the ability to measure a matrix of interventions.
- Involved the community throughout.
- BCA made sense out of a very difficult operational period (2008-09) through retrogressive application of currency rates.
- BCA provided analysis of expenditure patterns related to specific interventions in specific livelihood zones across the different socioeconomic groups.
- BCA inclusion in analysis meant that data was gathered on household labour costs (very important for farming as a business and IGA support going forward)
- BCA made it possible to streamline interventions that did not contribute much to household income (e.g. harvesting of non- timber forestry products – with the exception of honey)
- MSC provided a lot of lessons learnt especially through the negative stories.
- MSC gave the communities opportunity to learn and participate during the story selection.
- MSC built capacity to use narrative data better in programming.

Limitations of LIME

- Required a dedicated M & E officer for the best results
- Very time consuming and intensive to set-up (and to catch-up when M & E officers left)
- Many partners failed to understand the usefulness of Benefit Cost Analysis at the field level (seemed to be linked to donor investment costs rather than household returns and value)
- It needs skilled data collectors to ensure quality
- ‘Most Significant Change added to the workload of the M & E officers as it was they who were trained on the use of the guide and general dos and don’ts

Indices

We have already discussed above the usage of the three indices that were developed by PRP to monitor other change processes. The development of these indices is very innovative as they offer ways of measuring complex changes – improvements in quality of life (QOL) of chronically ill, the benefits of participatory health and hygiene (PHHE) and levels of group maturity (GMI). Consultation with partners showed that PRP involved partners in development of the indices which promoted ownership and uptake. Many indicate that they will continue to use the indices; for example, IPs are able to use the indices to illustrate the quality of their monitoring systems and thereby leverage other donor funding. The PHHE has been adopted by members of the WASH cluster group to roll out nationally and the QOL index has been adopted by the national AIDS Council.

Communications and Lesson Learning

Following a slow start, and following the development of a communications strategy in 2010⁵⁴, PRP made significant progress in communications and research analysis from 2010 onwards and targets for formal training sessions were significantly exceeded⁵⁵.

Evidence from our field visits indicate that communities highly valued and benefited significantly from the knowledge imparted to them. There was also good evidence of extensive training in both technical areas and in planning, with benefits both for communities and implementing partners. In many instances, district officials were involved and trained.

With regard to research and analysis, seven reports were produced in 2011 (HEA baseline, MSC, PHHE, QOL, GMI and agricultural inputs 2010-11) plus consultant's reports on ISALs and Gender, and a further nine research and analysis reports completed by project end (December 2012). The logframe states that approval came in late and therefore some components of the original research and analysis strategy were combined to ensure final delivery of all components. Some implementing partners questioned the decision-making process for identifying research topics and considered that these were not demand-led.

Donors have expressed interest in the research studies for purposes of informing future programme design and the opportunity exists to incorporate lessons into PRP successor programme and into other similar programmes.

Coordination

At the inception of the programme, there was an additional output of *Effective coordination amongst stakeholders delivering relief and recovery programmes* that was listed, measured and reported against in the logframe until 2011, when it was retired, as according to the 2011 Annual Review, it no longer held the same significance to the programme. The review recommended that an indicator to track 'coordination' should be added under Output 6, but this was not done.

Coordination scored highly in the 2009 Output to Purpose Review (OPR) (2), in the Mid Term Review (MTR) (1) and in the 2011 OPR (1), and from our discussions with implementing partners, there is evidence that the PRP continued to improve co-ordination among stakeholders delivering relief and recovery programmes up until the programme's end in 2012.

⁵⁴PRP Communications Strategy, Report No. 23, 2010.

⁵⁵The 2012 logframe indicates that the target of 2000 formal training sessions has been significantly exceeded whereby a total of 8,105 training sessions with more than 300,000 attendees have been held across all sectors.

The various co-ordination mechanisms that existed within the programme; from IP Country Director meetings, to thematic clusters, to M&E officer meetings, all led to increased dialogue between delivering stakeholders and created spaces for collaboration and the avoidance of duplication for maximum benefit of resources.

The PRP also increased dialogue between those involved with the PRP and stakeholders outside the PRP such as the government at district and national level, donors and UN bodies. All of this has helped to increase both the effects, and the sustainability of the programme's interventions.

Some examples of Key coordination are:

- PRP has played an important role at national level in working groups and other coordination forums, with government agencies, UN and other development partners and NGOs and there has been a high level of partner participation (70%), especially in the key clusters of agriculture, WASH, Early Recovery and nutrition.
- The PRP has established a number of working groups/forums (e.g. the Cash Transfers Working Group, which is now a sub-working group of the UN Early Recovery Cluster) and it participates actively in UN Cluster meetings and other national task forces and committees (e.g. the National Conservation Agriculture Task Force, chaired by FAO; the National Action Committee on Rural Water and Sanitation, chaired by Government).
- Partners implementing WASH activities have been particularly active in these groups with more than 90% of partners regularly attending the National WASH Cluster meetings. PRP representation was also evident in all WASH Task Forces, including the Sanitation and Hygiene Task Force and the WASH Strategic Advisory Group. At a national level, the WASH Cluster worked towards the institutionalisation of new technologies and approaches and was able to share lessons learnt on Elephant Pump technology, Sand Abstraction systems and Health and Hygiene Activities through these coordination platforms.
- PRP, in a joint project with SNV, has supported the development of the national WASH database which will be operational at district level to support the on-going WASH inventory process and result in improved district-wide WASH coordination and planning in the longer term. The database will be housed at the National Coordination Unit (NCU) which will coordinate the links between district, provincial and national level data.
- PRP partners have participated in the monthly Agriculture Coordination Working Group (ACWG) meetings which have been a useful platform for launching other agriculture-related task forces such as the Conservation Agriculture task force (CATF), leading to the institutionalisation of CA as a technology that has possibilities of improving household food security across Zimbabwe and the creation of a national CA strategy.
- All partners participate in relevant District fora and many have been instrumental in revitalising the District Development Fund (DDF) and providing capacity building support to Agritex; some partners are leading sub-committees in district level fora.

There have been a number of coordination challenges:

- There are formal spaces for NGOs to interact with the District, and for NGOs to present their work e.g. RDC meetings and RDC sub-committees (e.g. agriculture and WASH), but there is little coordination among NGOs themselves operating in the same district except when collecting LIME data for increased efficiency (to reduce workload). Thus while NGOs

participate in local spaces there is no coordination at the local level among IPs funded by PRP except when they are called by GRM to training.

- PRP has faced difficulties in institutionalising coordination of development interventions at district level due to the severe resource constraints faced by most government service providers.

Government up-take at the different levels

A short document provided to the consultants by GRM indicates that PRP representatives participated in some twenty one processes at national level between 2008-2012 illustrating a high level of engagement at the technical level ⁵⁶. A synopsis of this is reproduced in the table below.

Additionally PRP hosted a bi-annual Extended Steering Committee of all PRP focal persons and Technical Working Groups who include Government of Zimbabwe representatives who met regularly to respond to the various sector specific issues.

PRP was also very conscious of the need for increased coordination with government and other stakeholders as the Government of Zimbabwe began to increase social protection support for the chronically poor (i.e. through education, access to treatment, cash transfer support)⁵⁷.

However, there appears to have been little engagement at the highest levels such as the permanent secretary and ministerial levels which has limited the potential for policy advocacy. At the district level, there is very high enthusiasm and knowledge about the programme on behalf of District Administrators and government departmental heads and CEOs of the Rural Development Committees and CIOs. The uptake at this level is likely to be in the form of continuing the good practices that have been imparted on them through the different capacity development activities.

A key challenge going forward is the need for dissemination and advocacy in relation to the findings of the Research and Analysis reports commissioned by PRP in its final year.

Table 7: PRP participation in National processes/groups

Meeting	Description of specific national outcome
Conservation Agriculture Task Force	Conservation Agriculture toolbox for Zimbabwe, which is a set of guidelines on the implementation of CA: August 2008 developed; National CA strategy and investment plan; CA College Curricula in use at all agricultural Colleges and Coordinating CA training of extension and NGO staff.
PHHE and Health Club Roll Out	Approval by the MoHCW for the adoption of the PHHE Index Tool developed by PRP (<i>Approval still pending</i>)
Consultative and Innovative Technology Promotion Meetings	Approval from the National Coordination Unit for Water Supply and Sanitation (NCU) of the technologies under pilot e.g. the Elephant pump (<i>Approval still pending</i>)
Agriculture Sector Input Coordination Meeting	Report on small holder farmer Agric inputs, extension and market support programme developed for 2011/12

⁵⁶ Strategic Meetings with GoZ (undated)

⁵⁷ PRP Report No 21, End of Project Report 2008-2011.

	summer cropping season that includes guidelines for the provision of agriculture support
Garden Working Group	User's Guide on Legal and Policy Framework for Urban agriculture in Zimbabwe developed Urban agriculture database developed
WASH Cluster Meeting	
Sanitation and hygiene Strategy Development	Draft of the Sanitation and Hygiene Strategy 2011-2015 produced
Market Linkages Association Seminar	Increased understanding of the role of agricultural insurance in mitigating risks for investors in smallholder agriculture
Development of an upgradable BVIP Manual	Development of a BVIP manual. The manual is now the national standard for BVIP construction and used widely by NGOs providing WASH infrastructure.
Development of the food and nutrition security policy	Development of the Food and Nutrition Security Policy
Development of the draft National Social Transfers Framework	Development of the draft national social transfers framework
Development of the productive Community Work Framework	Development of the Productive Community Work Framework
Agriculture Coordination Working Group	Standardization of sound approaches among stakeholders implementing agricultural humanitarian and recovery activities.
National Workshop on use of Moringa seed powder for water treatment	Increased awareness of Moringa Seed Powder for water treatment and the possible acceptance of the technology by GoZ
National Joint Sector Review Workshop on WASH	Greater harmonisation of WASH progress among key partners
UZ Contract farming symposium	
Agriculture Coordination Working Group	Up scaling and investment framework for conservation agriculture that was launched by COMESA and AGRITEX -22-23 Feb 2012.
Pathways out of Poverty; Moving Zimbabwe Forward Conference	Lesson Learning conference
Meeting with Ministry of Labour and Social Services (MoLSS) to discuss how to best exit from providing unconditional cash transfer support when the PRP ends in August 2012.	All PRP partners have submitted lists of labour constrained households that were receiving unconditional cash transfers support to local DSS offices and DSS Head Office in Harare. These households will be considered for support from the Harmonised Cash Transfer Program as it is scaled up.

Strategic Management for Results

DFID were responsible for the supervision of the PRP and delegated responsibility for management to GRM. The routine operational management of the PRP has been effective and GRM have performed well in coordinating a complex array of partners and activities. However, this evaluation has raised a number of concerns worthy of note about the way in which the practice of 'managing for results' has been applied within the implementation period of PRP in terms of strategic management of the PRP. We have identified three elements that we would expect to find brought together in a more

pronounced approach to ‘managing for results’ of such a complex and multi-faceted livelihoods focused programme.

- Firstly, strategic management requires clearly presented financial information providing an overall dynamic programme view on patterns of expenditure linked to the results chain. As reflected in the section on Limitations in the Introduction the evaluation team finds that this was largely absent based on the nature of the way financial information – as provided to the team - was structured. There is no suggestion of financial mismanagement as the accounts have been audited. Responsibility for this lies primarily with DFID.
- Secondly, strategic management requires firm understanding of the key monitoring indicators. The structure set up for M&E in the PRP is problematic. The evidence on incomes and on graduation cannot be checked for consistency and has not been questioned. The relationship in the logframe between outputs, outcomes and goals is not explicit, partly because of the way graduation has been used. As a result, it is difficult to use the huge volume of M&E information with confidence. Responsibility for this is shared between GRM and DFID.
- Thirdly, DFID’s interest in for money seems to have focused on procuring the best price for goods and services. This has been addressed by GRM in their management of IPs, but there is no reporting on the subject and evidence of IP management costs suggests that more work could have been done. The work on Benefit Cost Analysis has occurred at the end of the programme and has encountered some problems.

Lesson learning and programme adaptation at an operational level within discrete areas of the programme was continually taking place throughout the PRP, but the evidence base for this is not recorded and reported with clarity and precision.

Efficiency

Does the programme present good value for money as compared to other similar livelihoods project/programmes implemented by DFID?

The PRP was prepared in 2007 and did not have a Business Case or an Appraisal Case, relying instead on a Project Memorandum. The Project Memorandum included no mention of economic performance of value for money, although there was an economic annex that has not been made available to the Evaluation Team.

In theory, efficiency should consider outputs in relation to inputs. Unfortunately, there is no comprehensive reporting on inputs for the PRP. The financial information systems provide some evidence on the expenditure on inputs and this has been used in this section to assess efficiency. However, the PRP reports do not provide information that can be used to estimate physical inputs, such as the number of people or vehicles. Activities are recorded in progress reports, along with outputs, such as the number of beneficiaries. In some cases, activities are directly linked to inputs, such as with the supply of agricultural inputs.

Financial Management and Reporting

The compliance system for financial management operated by GRM has provided strong supervision of IP expenditure; and records have been audited and given a clear report.

The BCA undertaken by the PRP involved a major effort in gathering evidence but is highly sensitive to some key assumptions and should therefore be interpreted with caution. However, a sensitivity analysis suggests that the optimistic assumptions are roughly offset by the pessimistic ones and that the overall results are still likely to be strongly positive.

The activity based accounting system introduced in 2011 has made it possible to assess overhead costs for 2012. The cost of management, monitoring and advocacy at central and IP level amounted to about 34% of total PRP costs in 2012. Whilst this may seem high, it is not unreasonable for a programme that delivers targeted assistance in rural areas that are often remote, especially as the programme has not, in keeping with the original design, been able to work through government services, in most cases. Thus, most of the work with beneficiaries has been done directly by IPs, with the role of government officials being largely one of facilitation. This is in contrast with other programmes where the main fieldwork is done by government officials and IPs provide technical assistance to these officials, plus some financial support for expenditure on items such as transport, if required.

IPs reported no lack of expertise and were generally supportive of the relationship with GRM. Where technical expertise was required, IPs were able to rely on the work on technical partners who were brought in for specific purposes. The only reported problems with release of funds and contracts were those associated with the late procurement of inputs.

Efficiency compared to other DFID funded programmes

As part of our assessment in efficiency, we have assessed a comparative programme. Box 6 describes the Chars Livelihoods Programme in Bangladesh, which has a similar scale and range of activities to the PRP and which was referred to by the PRP as an example. Other DFID livelihood programmes were considered (e.g. the PSNP in Ethiopia) but no other examples were found for which suitable evaluation literature is available.

Box 6: Comparison with the Chars Livelihoods Programme in Bangladesh

In Bangladesh, the Chars Livelihoods Programme (CLP) is co-funded by DFID and AusAID. The CLP is currently in a second phase, which started in 2010/11.

Annual expenditure is about £15m and CLP II has reached about 350,000 households, making it slightly smaller than the Zimbabwe PRP. The programme targets very poor households and there have been some challenges in identifying sufficient very poor households in the areas covered by the programme. The range of activities was also similar and covered: livestock, gardens, IGAs, savings and loans, market development, primary health care, cash stipends, access to water and latrines. The programme has been innovative and is currently working to introduce activities involving: advocacy on land rights, nutrition and climate change adaptation. It also supports raising houses on plinths to protect from flooding and provides some non-formal education.

An independent impact assessment (IIA) was conducted in 2010/11, but the results of this have been disputed and are not available to the public. The IIA questioned the sustainability of the gardens activity and this has been revised as a result of the IIA. However, the IIA also questioned the sustainability of cattle transfers and this is disputed by the CLP management (Maxwell Stamp 2012). A more recent review of outputs gave the project an overall score of 'A' with most activities achieving targets. Market development was a new priority for 2011/12 and experienced some delays, although activities were accelerating in the last half of the year (Maxwell Stamp 2012). The main challenges identified in the CLP II Y2 Annual Report were associated with collaboration with government.

In July 2011, the CLP commissioned a study on how to design Value for Money analysis and this study is now planned and will look not only at savings costs but also at the relationship between costs and outputs (CLP 2012). In the meantime, the CLP has focused on techniques for reducing costs. A competitive environment has been introduced for the supply of goods which has resulted in cost savings of 20-50% for many supplies and even higher cost savings where the design of programmes is altered more fundamentally to encourage new approaches. For example, the unit cost of latrines has fallen from £50 to less than £15 by encouraging more local participation in construction and more flexibility in quality. The unit cost of tubewells has fallen from about £80 to £70. Changes in management have allowed savings to be made in project human resources costs. A new financial system makes it possible to compare the unit costs achieved by implementing partners and will make it possible to negotiate improvements. The programme has also identified some activities that are not core to the CLP and that can be handed over to partners to manage, without need for CLP financing.

Table 8 compares some figures for the latest year of the CLP in Bangladesh, with the last year of the PRP. The figures in the table are not directly comparable and caution must be taken in interpreting the data. For example, the extent to which households benefit from several interventions is not always clear. However, some indicative comparisons may be useful. Overall, the PRP had roughly twice the budget of the CLP and worked with just under twice the number of beneficiaries, with a cost per beneficiary of £126, compared with £104 for the CLP. For infrastructure work, the cost per beneficiary for the PRP is about twice that of the CLP. This may be because the water table is shallow and boreholes are cheap in Bangladesh and because of different approaches to construction of latrines. It may also be because expenditure per beneficiary for plinths and infrastructure employment in the CLP are much lower. For livelihoods activities, the cost per beneficiary was similar in both programmes.

Comparisons regarding work on groups, IGAs and ISALs are less easy to make as the activities are quite varied, but the figures suggest that the cost per beneficiary was marginally higher in the PRP. The PRP spent about three quarters of the CLP expenditure and reached about 40% more households, but this may be explained by the fact that the CLP included activities in health and education, which are probably more expensive, per beneficiary.

The cost of activities associated with management, including monitoring and partnerships were significantly higher in the PRP, amounting to about a third of total expenditure, compared with 20% for the CLP. However, it is not clear whether some management costs in the CLP are included in the activity expenditure.

Table 8: CLP Expenditure (CPL II Y2 Annual Report and PRP II Y4 Annual Report)

	Bangladesh CLP II Y2 Annual Report			PRP II Y4 Annual Report			Unit
	Expenditure	Beneficiaries		Expenditure	Beneficiaries		
	£m	Number	£/ben.	£m	Number	£/ben.	
Infrastructure Unit							
Plinths		16,247					households
Infrastructure employment		14,324					people
Boreholes (assume 20 hh each)		412			802		water points
Improved sanitation		15,352			3,344		squat holes
Total	3.09	54,163	57	2.16	19,384	111	
Livelihoods Unit							
Stipends (CLP) / Cash transfer (PRP)		17,430			6,595		households
Crop inputs				3.63	42,370		households
CA agriculture (all receive inputs)				0.55	90,360		households
Assets (CLP) / Livestock (PRP)		17,435		3.60	26,996		households
Gardens		21,996		0.19	36,767		households
Milk (CLP) / Bees and aqua. (PRP)		2,420			3,843		households
Total	5.61	59,281	95	13.97	164,561	85	
Market Development Unit	0.68						
Livestock Service Providers				0.25			
Human Development Unit							
Members of SD groups		17,534					people
Safety net recipients and grants		3,385					people
Health (assume 200 hh/session)		4,750					sessions
Education		3,952					pupils
IGAs					22,320		households
Savings and Loans		21,212			50,703		members
Total	2.08	141,083	15	1.48	73,023	20	
Innovation, Monitoring and Learning	0.34			1.40			
Partnerships and Advocacy	0.72			0.48			
Management	1.84			7.87			
Total	14.36	138,602	104	28.00	222,658	126	

Efficiency of IPs

GRM have monitored Compliance Rating Scores for IPs, covering 5 criteria: policies and procedures; financial; budget management; programme; and achievement of outputs. The criteria were each scored from 1 to 4, with 1 signifying strong, 2 satisfactory, 3 below expectation and 4 unsatisfactory. One of the 28 IPs was scored 1 on all criteria; 18 IPs had an average score for all five criteria of less than 1.5 and so were scored strong overall; 4 IPs had averages scores of between 1.5 and 2.0 and so were scored satisfactory. Only 5 IPs had an average score of more than 2.0 and only one of these was over 2.5. The average score for all IPs for the criteria varied from 1.1 for 'policy and procedures' to 1.8 for 'programme compliance' and 1.7 for 'budget management'. 'Financial compliance' achieved an average score of 1.3 and 'achievement of outputs' achieved 1.6.

GRM has required IPs to report monthly on achievement of targets and monthly progress reports have been produced and compiled into a website report called 'Quick Facts'. The logframe objective was for all IPs to achieve 90% of their targets. According to the PRP 2008-11 End of Project Report, 64% of IPs achieved at least 90% their 2011 targets, 24% achieved between 75% and 90% and 12% achieved below 75%.

Some output indicators are provided in the IP Completion Reports and these can be compared with the figures for 2012 expenditure on the related activities to assess the relative performance of different IPs. However, this analysis is problematic because the IPs normally refer to outputs for the whole of the PRP II period and expenditure data on activities is only available for 2012.

The following figures exclude overhead costs for IPs or central management. Expenditure for CA was between 10 and 25 \$/household for most IPs, but was only about 1 \$/household for two of the IPs. For livestock, the support was between 150 and 200 \$/household for most IPs, reflecting the average \$160 value of vouchers, but increased to over 500 \$/household for one IP that focused on animal health and marketing. For new water points, costs varied from 5400 to 10000 \$/water point and for rehabilitation costs varied from about 800 to 1500 \$/water point. Household latrines cost between 70 and 110 \$/latrine, while for community latrines costs varied from 100 to 250 \$/latrine, reflecting the wider range of circumstances. Expenditure on cash transfer varied from 200 to 300 \$/household for most IPs, but was nearly 500 for one IP. There are few obvious patterns in the figure of IP performance.

These figures show that there was considerable variation in the unit costs of IPs. However, it is not possible to determine whether this is because of variations in the efficiency of the IPs or because there were major differences in type of activities undertaken or in the local circumstances faced by the IPs. There is some evidence that several IPs are consistently more expensive than others, which suggests that there may be differences in efficiency. But more detailed analysis would be required to assess the reasons for this and, in particular, whether efficiency would have been improved if one IP had been replaced by another. In practice, such decisions would require a complex assessment of a number of factors including, for example, the natural environment, the distance from cities and the political circumstances in the locality. GRM were making such judgements on a regular basis and it is not possible to assess the quality of their judgements without much more detailed analysis.

Value for money

The VfM exercise undertaken by the PRP reviewed the approach that could be taken and what could be achieved with the evidence gained by the LIME reports. . The unit cost of latrines was estimated as an example and was compared with a reference cost based on the 'typical' expected unit construction costs. This analysis suggested that actual costs were about four times higher than the reference cost. This is largely explained by the fact that about two thirds of the PRP costs for latrines were accounted for by overheads at central and IP level, including field staff, management, M&E and coordination. These overhead costs are unavoidable for targeted rural programmes and, whilst comparative evidence from similar programmes is not available, subjective past experience suggests that the PRP overheads were not much higher than in other similar programmes.

The indicators of achievement against logframe targets provide evidence of changes in the economic well-being of PRP households. These indicators suggest an exceptionally high programme performance with PRP households improving incomes by over \$105m per year. Similarly high benefits were registered for changes in household incomes in the 2012 logframe (total rural annual household income for poor households). These high levels of benefits would appear to be much higher than could reasonably be expected to arise from a programme that spent \$142m in total, especially because the most dramatic improvements took place in Y4, which was affected by drought. The high benefits could be caused by the general economic recovery arising from improved economic conditions. Thus, they cannot be used to provide a direct estimation of VfM, but they do tend to suggest that the PRP produced substantial benefits.

According to GRM, they reviewed the unit costs used by IPs in their proposals and any unit costs that were markedly above norms were questioned. If a suitable explanation was not provided, then IPs were asked to amend their unit costs and, if this was not possible, the proposals were rejected. No record was kept of this activity and so it is not possible for the evaluation to report on the variation in unit costs and whether this was justified by variations in circumstances in different PRP areas.

Figures relating to management costs were not available or clear to the Evaluation Team during the review period but were provided subsequently by DFID by email⁵⁸. In addition, Crown Agents were involved in management in Y4, at a cost of \$0.62m (£0.4m). Given the consolidated expenditure figures for the PRP provided at a later date by DFID (see Annex 7) these management costs could account for around 8.6-11% of total expenditure. These costs include both the personnel costs of management and the financing and administration charges agreed with DFID when GRM took over this role from DFID early in the programme.

These figures are in line with market standards, especially considering that roughly half the costs are associated with financing and administration. The typical charges applied by UN agencies for implementing projects are 18 to 20%, of which about half are costs in country and half is charged by headquarters. The Evaluation Team found no convenient review of project management costs in similar programmes.

Most rural development programmes funded by development banks include costs for Project Management Units that will account for between 5% to 10% of the total costs, which is roughly equivalent to the GRM costs. But GRM were also undertaking some of the work that would be done within the development bank, including financing costs. A review of agency costs by Brookings Global in 2008 showed that the overhead costs of aid agencies was 7% for bilateral agencies and between 7% and 15% of Development Banks. DFID's administration budget was 5% of total DFID ODA. In addition to the overall management, rural development projects would normally have substantial technical assistance (both international and national) to support government activities for each component of the project and these would add a further 5% to 10%. When the work involves substantial community participation, the costs tend to be much higher. Finally, most rural development projects would be able to rely on government officials to deliver much of the work in the field. The costs of this are typically included in the government contribution to the costs of the project, which typically amount to 5%. These costs are based on government salaries which will be a fraction of the salaries paid by the PRP IPs.

In the early years of the PRP, DFID transferred some programme management tasks to GRM, including some financing and administration costs and these accounted for about half the GRM costs, or about 5% of total PRP costs. GRM did not take over all of the PRP administration tasks, but this analysis suggests that administration charges applied by GRM were not unreasonable. For GRM personnel costs, the GRM margin averaged 29% of the total cost (i.e. a mark-up of 40%), which based on the experience of the evaluation team is in line with industry norms, and much lower than for UN agencies.

Benefit Cost Analysis, in design or evaluation

No BCA was undertaken during the design process. This is surprising, but may be explained by the fact that the PRP was viewed as a relief programme in the first years and there is no well-established system for valuing the benefits provided from relief.

The BCA undertaken at the end of Y4 suggested that benefits were high. The BCA report gave an Internal Rate of Return (IRR) of 54%, but there was an acknowledged error in this analysis and the revised IRR is 27%. This is still a strongly positive IRR. However, the analysis is very sensitive to a number of assumptions, including the value of labour, the price of crops and fertiliser, the level of improved crop yields, the rate of dissemination of benefits after the project and the discount rate. In some cases, the BCA is overly optimistic and in others it is too pessimistic. The sensitivity analysis shows that the results are very sensitive to these assumptions and the implications of the optimistic and pessimistic assumptions roughly balance each other out. The analysis conducted by the

⁵⁸ Email received from DFID 15/3/13

evaluation team suggests reducing the BCR from 2.3 to 2.1, which is still strongly positive. More details are provided in Annex 6.

There was a subjective change in focus from the very poor to the poor and middle households during the programme. However, there was no explicit weighting of the importance of improving livelihoods at each level.

The BCA estimates rates of return for a selection of activities, suggesting that the best results are achieved by WASH and small livestock. The following table compares the original BCR and the revised BCRs as suggested in Annex 6, and in the scoring provided in the PCR.

Table 9: Comparison of BCRs

	Original BCR	Revised BCR	PCR rating
Conservation Agriculture	1.5	2.2	A
Livestock	2.7	5.6	A++
Gardens	2.6	5.1	A-B
Agricultural Inputs	2.1	1.7	B
Markets	12.3		B
ISALs			A++
IGAs	1.3-7.4		A
Cash transfers			A
Home Based Care			A+
Water sources			A+
Sanitation	6.2		A
PHHE			A+

Overhead Costs

The new budget system also made it possible to estimate the overhead costs of the programme in Y4. According to the PRP Financial Reports, a total of \$43.7m was committed by DFID and other bilaterals in Y4 and \$46.9m was actually spent. According to the Financial Reports, expenditure in Y4 comprised \$25.8m for IPs, \$11.3m for input and livestock vouchers and \$7.8m for GRM and Crown Agents. By coincidence, the management, advocacy and M&E costs for IPs was also \$7.8m out of their total expenditure of \$25.8m. Overhead costs were thus \$15.6m, or 34% of total costs. This is not a high level of overhead costs for a programme that provides targeted support in rural areas. The IP costs included a further \$4.8m for field personnel delivering agriculture, WASH and social transfers, but these costs were devoted to service delivery and should not be considered as overheads. The above definition of overheads includes expenditure on capacity building for local planning. The benefits derived from this are indirect, but they are one step closer to beneficiaries than capacity building for IPs.

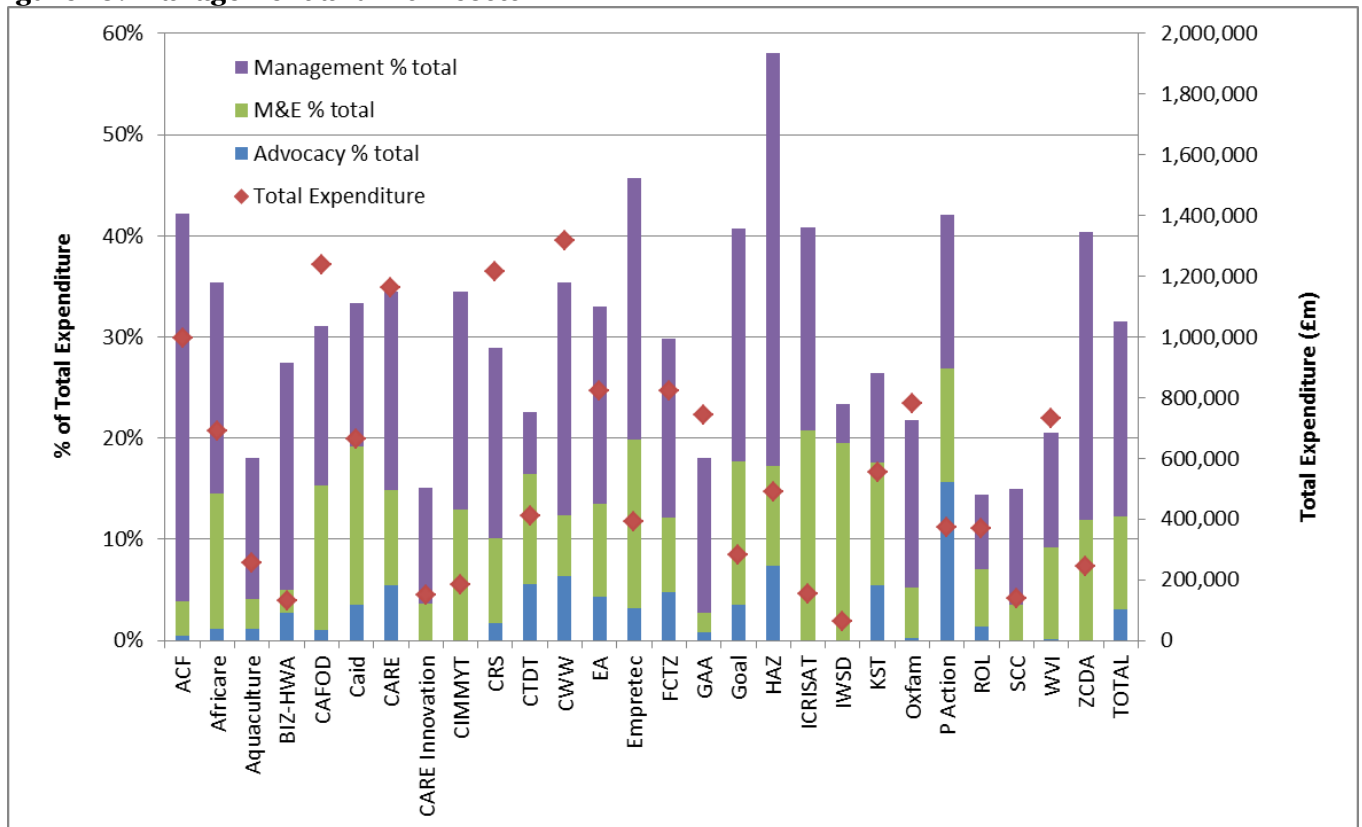
The GRM fee is based on a 6% fee on 'additional funds'. In addition, there was a financing fee of 2.125% that was introduced when GRM had to pre-finance supplies and this was reduced as the cost of borrowing went down. In the 2011 contract extension, the grant financing fee was 0.7% up to £11,005,930 in disbursement funds and 1% above this figure. This level was accepted by all participating donors. These fees are separate from the margins earned by GRM on the personnel fees, which were typically about 30% of the personnel fees.

Commercial Improvement and Value for Money

According to GRM, they reviewed the unit costs used by IPs in their proposals and any unit costs that were markedly above norms were questioned. If a suitable explanation was not provided, then IPs were asked to amend their unit costs and, if this was not possible, the proposals were rejected. No record was kept of this activity and so it is impossible to report on the variation in unit costs and whether this was justified by variations in circumstances in different PRP areas.

It appears that IP finances were managed carefully, through the compliance system, but the evidence simply states that this is the case and it is not possible to provide an independent assessment of the rigour with which the compliance system was applied. The figure below shows the proportion of IP expenditure that was devoted to outputs 4 to 6 (community participation in development, communications and lesson learning, and effective management), compared to the total expenditure. This can be considered as one indicator of the overhead costs charged by IPs. One might expect variation in expenditure on advocacy, as some IPs put a strong emphasis on this, but the figures shows that there were also wide variations in management and M&E costs.

Figure 10: Management and M&E costs



The figure also shows the total expenditure of the IPs, to explore whether the smaller IP programmes were obliged to have higher management costs. The figure suggests that there was no clear tendency for the smaller IP programmes to use a higher share of their expenditure on overheads.

Targeting Approach

Based on a documentary review, it has been difficult to get a precise understanding of the targeting criteria used by PRP II. Earlier we drew attention to the fact that PRP reports use three household classification systems (i.e. thresholds, very poor/poor/middle/better off (wealth ranking categories used in the Household Economic Approach) and A/B1/B2/C (vulnerability categories which were added in 2011). They all recognise that poverty is multidimensional.

Both the mid-term review (2010) and the Annual Review (2011) considered that despite efforts the programme still faced challenges in identifying and targeting the chronically poor and the most vulnerable. The 2011 Annual Evaluation Report stated that a standardised grouping (A, B1, B2, and C), reflecting the grouping developed for the National Small Holder Farmer Input Support Programme for Food Security, was adopted. The definition of these categories contained in a recent PRP research and analysis report⁵⁹ explains the approach as follows: the wealth ranking carried out and three thresholds (survival, protection and promotion) separating the groups match the government's categories for targeting (FAO, UNICEF assisted):

Vulnerability categories

- People below the survival threshold included those who were categorised by government as A (poor households with no labour);
- People categorised as B1 (poor households with access to labour and land but no cash) were likely to be above the survival threshold but below the protection threshold, although some few of these may have been just below the survival threshold;
- People categorised as B2 (emerging small holder farmers with land and labour but cash constraints) were above the protection threshold and below the promotion threshold;
- Finally, people above the promotion threshold were categorised as C (farmers that have labour and land, but no credit access).

From discussion with IPS and beneficiaries, there seemed to be a sentiment that targeting households, rather than communities, was more effective in targeting the most vulnerable, who may have been excluded from their communities e.g. widows etc. through the supply of cash transfers and household assets. However, there were activities that benefitted communities at large such as the RDPs, WASH structures, community gardens and HBC.

Implementing partners indicated that while PRP II primarily focused on categories A and B between 2008-2010; for 2011-12 programming, partners were requested to classify households in terms of the GoZ categories (A, B1, B2, C). When this classification was applied in September 2011, partners classified only 3% of households as being in category C with the majority of households in the PRP database being classified in categories B1 and B2, 42% and 44% respectively. Households in Category A made up just 10% of all PRP database beneficiaries⁶⁰ reflecting a dropping of those on cash transfers from PRP and referral to the Department of Social Welfare, and government input schemes. PRP worked closely with WFP to transfer OVCs to the Child Protection Fund (implemented by UNICEF), but we do not know whether they were successful and have been able to sustain themselves or whether they have regressed into poverty.

Based on the categorisation, PRP interventions were then targeted at these particular groups to move them through the various thresholds. However, our discussions with implementing partners indicates that the dividing lines between the categories A,B, C are not clear, and most especially between B1 and B2; as a result IPs said that the overall targeting was not as effective as it might have been.⁶¹ There were also substantial differences between the two forms of classification, with

⁵⁹ PRP Research and Analysis Report No. 8 PATHWAYS out of POVERTY The PRP Model – Impact and Lessons Learned (undated but presumed to be January 2013)

⁶⁰PRP Report No 41 2011-12 Review

⁶¹ The PRP final report for 2011-2012 states that PRP partners had some difficulties in adjusting to the GoZ categories, having previously worked with HEA categories, and that the new categories lacked some clarity in their definition.

communities, compared to the database, classifying many more households as very poor, much fewer as middle and more as better off⁶².

The 2011 Annual Evaluation indicates that “the targeting has been perceived by some stakeholders as drifting” and that they would like to see a more deliberate shift to B2 poor people, away from the very poor. The argument was that “graduation is expensive and slow for ‘the very poor’ (and ‘disabled’ households probably won’t graduate” (p. 7). It is likely that this emphasis on graduation (and a focus on making markets work for poor people) was the trigger for focusing PRP on categories B1 and B2, and to a lesser extent on category C, in the final year.

In one of PRP’s Research and Analysis Reports (Aug 2012), the identification process was deemed to vary between organisations but was built on a common model. Implementing partners first assessed district level data to ascertain which communities were the most economically vulnerable. After selecting communities, they collaborated with the Department of Social Services, community leaders, community representatives and community action committees to select community-specific indicators of vulnerability. In rural settings, the wealth ranking exercise privileged ownership of productive assets especially land, livestock (cattle) and farm equipment⁶³.

Our field enquiries suggest that in practice targeting by IPs was somewhat mixed. For example, in the case of Africare, it seems that there was a relatively smooth transition to PRP of beneficiaries from another programme that had been terminated (IFAD); the main criteria was that farmers were willing to adopt CA, and the agriculture extension staff assisted in identifying such farmers. On the other hand, where PRP was extending to new sites, the vulnerable were identified.

District officials also indicated that they were involved in the verification process e.g. livestock and agriculture extension workers identified those who were most willing to work.

IPs stated that although there was a new call for proposals for projects in 2011, because of the ‘push’ towards graduation, for agricultural inputs they were required to target households that have been in PRP previously and with potential for graduation, since it was considered that food security needed multiple years of support in order to ensure the sustainability of food security. Moreover, with the reduction in the number of IPs in the final year, there was the opportunity to share beneficiaries which resulted in some taking over beneficiaries of other IP programmes, and this helped to strengthen the potential for success.

In some communities, people understand the selection criteria and were able to say to which group they belonged e.g. all beneficiaries in Mhere Village, Ward 15, Chivi, said they were classified as group A in 2006, but that all have graduated to group B now (poor but endowed with labour). The Pathways out of Poverty report indicated that some people felt stigmatised when they were categorised as very poor or vulnerable though this was not confirmed during the field visits.

Inclusion of socially excluded groups

The PRP Report for 2011-12⁶⁴ provides figures on socially excluded groups which are set out in table 10. While the majority of households in the database are female headed and able bodied, there are also significant categories that are the chronically ill, the disabled and the elderly, with close to a quarter of household heads disabled, chronically ill and/or elderly. Child headed households are few,

⁶²Ibid, p.7.

⁶³Scott Drimie, Katharine Hagerman and Ngoni Mararike, PRP RESEARCH AND ANALYSIS SERIES No.3, Impact and Lessons Learned, Social Protection Programming in Zimbabwe, August 2012.

⁶⁴PRP Report No. 41, 2011-2012 Review, p. 8.

but children themselves, some of whom are married, chronically ill and/or orphaned, make up the second largest category of members of beneficiary households.

Since its inception, over 80% of participants of all interventions and actions have been women; with interventions providing essential services such as water, sanitation, support to food production, as well as home-based care initiatives and support to economic activities. Just under two thirds (63%) of the households in the PRP database are female-headed and this applies across all of the vulnerability categories with the exception of a few households in group C, where 45% are female-headed. The Mid Term Review of the PRP (MTR, 2010) found that the PRP had generally positive impacts on various aspects of women’s and men’s livelihoods through its range of interventions.

The report points out that disability has a broad definition across partners and so a degree of discretion may have been used in classifying household members as disabled. What the figures do note is that beneficiary households are not only headed by people living with disability but a significant number also have other family members with disabilities, increasing the representation of people living with disabilities across the beneficiary group.

Table 10: Household Dynamics

Category	% of PRP Household Members	% of PRP Household Heads
Female	52.0	63.4
Disabled	2.7	6.2
Chronically Ill	3.5	3.7
Elderly (65+ yrs) Of these	6.4	17.5
Female Elderly	54.4	54.0
Disabled Elderly	9.6	10.3
Chronically Ill Elderly	7.4	9.8
Children (0-17 yrs) Of these	45.6	1.5
Disabled Children	0.9	3.1
Orphaned Children	3.4	10.0
Married Children	0.5	4.2
Chronically Ill Children	2.4	11.0

Field visits to a number of sites confirm that PRP targeted the elderly, women, and poor and vulnerable households. In some locations such as Zvishavane and Chivi in Masvingo, it was observable that the profile of group members was from the older aged group.

From the start of PRP II, HIV and AIDS underpinned the programme’s mainstreaming and targeting strategy, as PLWHIV were deemed to be socially excluded and amongst the most vulnerable to poverty and food insecurity. Whilst the programme was focussed on helping the most vulnerable in communities, this targeting continued until 2010, but was less prevalent from 2011, when the component on home based care was dropped, and there was a the move towards increased support of those in the ‘B’ category and the implementation of the graduation model.

Deliberate efforts have been made in PRP II to work with partners focusing specifically on socially excluded groups such as Farm Orphans Support Trust (FOST), International Organisation for Migration (IOM), FCTZ and HelpAge Zimbabwe. The programme also sought to improve inclusion of People Living With Disability (PLWD) by developing a disability mainstreaming strategy and working with Disabled People’s Organisations (DPOs) through PRP supported Disability Advisers (DAs).

With regard to youth, they receive scant attention in the PRP documentation overall⁶⁵ which we interpret as an indication that they were not clearly targeted for support, especially between 2008-2011. While the mid-term review 2010 draws attention of the need to avoid cash transfers to youth and instead to engage them in employment, there is only one passing reference to youth in the End of Project Report 2008-2011. Under Output 2 (Social Protection) the final 2011-12 Report indicates that 280 youths received vocational training and six youth centres were funded but little further detail is provided. It also references a video featuring youths benefiting from vocational training (catering, motor vehicle mechanics, tailoring and shoe making) at Young Africa Vocational Training Centre in Chitungwiza. However, the consultants have not seen an analysis of the needs of youth or a specific strategy to involve them in the PRP.

The Research and Analysis Report on Social Protection (August 2012) states that vocational skill trainings were facilitated for unemployed youths with a variety of partners. Under the Joint Initiative, interventions involved tailored training to address gaps identified through market analysis. Following the completion of vocational skills training, participants submitted proposals for IGA starter kits. Not all programmes conducted pre-training analyses and as such, some beneficiaries found the market unable to meet their supply of new skills. It concludes that this is likely a result of the general state of the Zimbabwean economy rather than a failure to assess the market needs⁶⁶.

Example: Involvement of Youth in Nharira Dairy Project, Chikoma District, Mashonaland East

During a field visit to the Nharira dairy project, there was good evidence that youth were explicitly targeted in the design of the programme at three levels.

- At the dairy enterprise (firm) level, whereby the programme facilitated the acquisition of dairy cows by the youth members of the three dairy centres (Nharira, Sadza and Shurugwi). The cows were availed on loan basis, with the youth repaying through milk deliveries.
- Provision of business development services whereby the youth were trained to provide para-vet services to the dairy farmers for a fee. Thus the programme has created employment for these youths and improved access (for dairy farmers) to otherwise elusive para-veterinary services.
- The programme has engaged the youths in the production of fodder for the dairy farmers on a commercial base.

Impact

Impact/ likely impact of the programme and different types of interventions?

The impact indicators that were used in the various logframes are set out in Table 11. The table highlights some of the difficulties in measuring impacts between 2008-2011, while in 2012 it shows that four of the five indicators were abandoned in favour of the Human Development Index for which there have been no reports.

⁶⁵ For example, their needs are not addressed in final documents related to Graduation, Social Protection, Isals, Livestock, Social Inclusion. There is one reference to possibly engaging youth in cash for work programmes in the DFID Annual Review Lessons Learnt 2010-2011.

⁶⁶ RESEARCH AND ANALYSIS SERIES No.3 Impact and Lessons Learned Social Protection Programming in Zimbabwe August 2012.

Table 11: Impact Key Findings

Impact Indicator	Main Findings
Child stunting was included until 2012, when it was dropped	There appears to have been no data of actual achievement after 2009, which may explain why it was dropped.
Food insecurity	Food security was measured using ZimVac indicators, which suggest that 2012 plans were achieved in 2011, but that there was then some regression in 2012.
Primary school enrolment	Primary school enrolment was measured by ZimVac and LIME data, with ZimVac showing no improvement and LIME showing 100% enrolment by 2010.
The food poverty line	The food poverty line appears to have been impossible to monitor and was recommended to be replaced in 2011 by a ZimVac income and expenditure indicator, although this seems not to have happened.
Access to water	Data was obtained from various sources. The evidence suggested that progress was slower than planned.
In 2012, all indicators except food security were replaced with the Human Development Indicator	No results have been reported on the HDI (which captures life expectancy, health, access to knowledge and standard of living).

Our overall finding supports the (implicit) theory of change referred to in the Project Memorandum PRP II – that carefully designed and directed interventions can enable poor households to cope better with the assets at their disposal, and mitigate the effects of poverty through their own efforts (see Introductory section). The extent to which households have become resilient is however less clear.

Food security and enhanced nutrition

The assessment of graduation from food insecurity (i.e. very poor households below the survival threshold) is monitored using LIME data. Based on this data, all PRP supported households were able to meet their survival food requirements by the end of the programme and were therefore food secure⁶⁷. This achievement was attributed to better yields as a result of practising knowledge acquired and technologies provided through the garden interventions (CA, receipt of agro-inputs, training, gardens and livestock) or diversification to grow more drought tolerant crops (e.g. switch to sorghum in parts of Masvingo province) or ability to purchase necessary food.

Despite the general experience of a dry period within the country (2011 and late onset of rains in 2012), none of the households encountered by the Evaluation team complained of lack of food. Participants in focus group discussions reported increased availability resulting from better yield and increased availability of food in the neighbourhood which meant people had to spend less time travelling for food (Murehwa).

In drier locations, food security has been enhanced through the introduction of small grains, especially red sorghum, which was sold as a cash crop for brewing. However, farmers often preferred to grow maize, being concerned about the limited markets for small grains and vulnerability to bird

⁶⁷ PRP report No 38 The consolidated LIME report for 2009-2012.

pests. The only situation in which farmers have adopted small grains on a significant scale is when they had demand from the breweries which were previously supplied by a commercial farmer.

The introduction of CA practices and supply of inputs has proved effective in supporting food security, though research studies vary on the extent to which CA improves yields (we have set this out in the accompanying Project Completion Report). There are also concerns regarding sustainability due to the effects of recurrent drought, and in some wards the demand for red sorghum seed exceeds supply from seed companies. Farmers practicing CA indicate that they have a better return than farmers not practicing CA, but acknowledge the risk of falling back if drought reoccurs.

Gardens were said to provide people with a wider basket of food types (mainly vegetables) which had positive effects on nutrition, and enabled them to supplement their food supply over a longer period. However, many gardens lacked water, had no system of water harvesting or irrigation, and therefore had limited production outside the rainy season when there was lots of produce available in the market. Those gardens that had water offered food and the potential for income generation for their members e.g. Chinyika Community Garden.

Poverty Graduation

The programme has exceeded outcome targets, which refer to the number of households that graduate above the three thresholds. Table 12 and Figure 11 show the progress made in graduation, according to the Annual Reports and the Pathways Out of Poverty Report.

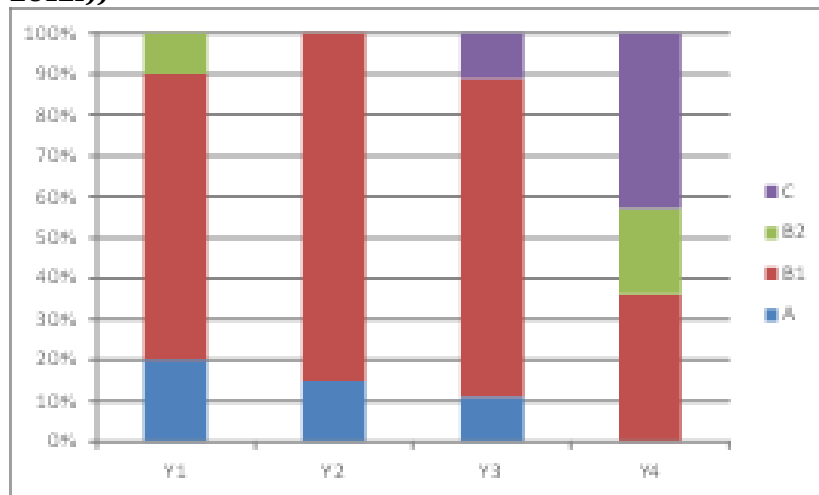
Table 12: Movement across PRP Thresholds PRP RA Report No 8 Pathways out of poverty

Very Poor and Poor	Threshold	Proportions above Thresholds	
		2010-2011	2011-2012 ⁶⁸
Rural	Survival	92%	100%
	Protection	7%	64%
	Promotion	4%	57%
Urban	Survival	100%	100%
	Protection	36%	64%
	Promotion	21%	31%
Combined	Survival	89%	100%
	Protection	11%	64%
	Promotion	11%	43%

The slower graduation in urban areas resulted from the less integrated packages of interventions (cash transfers, ISALs and WASH) compared to the rural areas and the higher costs of living than those faced by people in the rural areas (town council fees, electricity charges etc.) and a more limited potential to engage in agriculture.

⁶⁸The database was only completed in 2010; hence data is only available for the final two years of the programme.

Figure 11: Proportions (PRP End of Project Report (PRP 2011a) and PRP 2011-12 Review (PRP 2012f))



The major achievements of PRP, depicting the proportions of beneficiaries that moved across thresholds between baseline (2010-2011) and Year 2 (2011-2012) of the LIME process are as follows:

- 100% of rural and urban very poor and poor households were above the survival threshold by the end of the programme, demonstrating the ability of PRP to hold people above the poverty line;
- Nearly two thirds of both rural and urban very poor and poor households are in the ‘stepping up’ phase, between the livelihoods protection and promotion thresholds;
- At least 50% very poor and poor rural households graduated from poverty (‘stepping out’) from Year 1 to Year 2;
- The urban shift to above the livelihoods promotion threshold was not so dramatic, from 21% to 31% from year 1 to year 2, compared to the rural shift from 4% to 57% during the same period.

The PRP II report on Graduation Strategy highlights key elements that propel households to different thresholds:

- The provision of social transfers and building capacity to produce food are the reasons for the upward movement of beneficiaries to survival threshold.
- Accessing funding for productive purposes through ISALS was a key ingredient for upward movement to the protection threshold.
- The expansion of income generating opportunities through provision of credit and making markets work for the poor was important for moving households above the promotion threshold.

Group discussions with beneficiaries indicated that despite a drought in most areas households were able to meet their food requirements from their produce, by barter of grain for other types of food needed or by purchasing it. Beneficiaries acknowledged better harvests because of the agricultural interventions (especially CA), usefulness of livestock to supplement diets and having income from sale of surplus crops or livestock, ISALS and IGAs. This would confirm the effectiveness of partner interventions for propelling rural households to survival threshold. However there was concern that

the high cost of agricultural inputs (specifically fertiliser), water shortages and non-mechanisation of CA might constrain ability to achieve greater benefits.

Regardless of the drought situation, many beneficiaries were able (some with difficulty in more affected areas) to provide food, meet household needs, pay school fees and save. This reflects a progression from survival into the livelihood thresholds. However many mentioned that without access to more lucrative markets this status might not be sustained.

Those involved in ISALs were described as better off compared to their neighbours not involved with PRP. ISALs were described as a necessary complement to other interventions because of the ability to enable the growth or start of productive activities. ISALs also provide credit to meet household needs such as school fees, health bills or food.

Evidence from field visits is that graduation was more likely with beneficiaries who had been involved in PRP for a considerable period than those who had been involved for just a year. It was also more likely to happen when integrated activities including marketing interventions and combination of asset acquisition were implemented. However, sustainable graduation is difficult to predict (as well as to implement at an operational level) especially in a context of political and economic uncertainty, erratic weather conditions, and other threats such as cholera and HIV. Sustainable graduation is not only about attaining a certain level of food consumption or cash income but implies the capacity to generate adequate streams of future food and income and to be able to withstand future shocks (resilience).

Resilience

The PRP programme aimed to build households' resilience both through consolidating and building assets to enable households to move out of poverty, as recommended by the 2010 MTR, and through social protection initiatives to protect very vulnerable households against shocks. As already discussed, the LIME system was used, not only for monitoring and evaluating programme impact but for monitoring and evaluating the performance of beneficiaries and their graduation out of poverty.

The graduation model suggests that households that achieve the promotion threshold have also achieved a degree of resilience to major shocks. It may still be possible for households to fall back below this threshold, but they are unlikely to fall back below the survival threshold, even during one or two very bad years. Whilst this is the theory of graduation, the practice of graduation in the PRP has been somewhat different. The graduation thresholds have been defined separately for each LIME site in terms of a monetised annual expenditure figure, following structured discussions at each site. Households have been classified on the basis of whether their annual incomes (cash, in-kind) are above or below the expenditure thresholds. There does not appear to have been any process for recognising the importance of savings and assets for households' resilience. As a result, households would normally be expected to graduate above the promotion thresholds more quickly than they would be reclassified from B2 to C, in the government wealth groups, because it takes some time for the increased incomes captured in graduation to feed through into increased assets.

The evidence from LIME data and field discussions suggested that one of the keys ways in which some beneficiaries have achieved graduation and therefore increased resilience, is through participation in ISALs and through the creation of a diverse asset base, thus making resilience to future shocks more likely.

As well as providing people with an opportunity to save and generate income, one of the most important impacts of the ISALs on households is that it has made them more aware of how to manage their household finances and to save for shocks.⁶⁹

An impact assessment conducted by Turagari (2010) found that ISALs had a significant impact on the livelihoods of vulnerable households. The evaluation argued that they provide a “sustainable strategy for livelihoods protection and promotion, which if adequately supported can revolutionise community development and poverty reduction in Zimbabwe”.

In field discussions, many groups supported this view and reported an improvement in food security and income situation; with many expanding or initiating new livelihoods (mainly attributed in discussion to ISALs). This shows the effectiveness of ISALs in fostering resilience; however, it was evident in discussion with beneficiaries that different thresholds benefitted differently from ISALs; households who have achieved/nearly achieved the protection threshold have benefitted most from ISALs and were able to expand existing income generating activities, join new ones, purchase capital items and save for the future.

In the case of very poor households, figures show there has been a 22% increase in total annual household cash income and beneficiaries reported that their cash transfers, community garden and ISAL participation had given them an increased amount of disposable income, with savings mainly used to meet basic needs such as food, education and health as well as household assets. Although most very poor households are marginally above the Livelihood Protection Threshold, their livelihood options are still fragile and susceptible to common hazards and shocks. Only 10% of very poor rural and 16% of very poor urban households are just above the Livelihood Promotion Threshold. This therefore indicates that for very poor households, the cash transfers and ISAL participation was perhaps not sufficient to allow them to build up a safety net to protect them from future shocks but instead, enabled them to get by from day to day and has prevented them from falling back below the survival threshold.

Whilst the above analysis suggests that ISALs play an important role in facilitating households savings. There is, however, little quantitative evidence of the scale of ISAL savings, except from selected case studies. CRS reviewed the financial performance of the 2690 ISALs which they supported under the PRP. On average, the CRS ISALs had 8 members. For those ISALs that were actively supported by CRS, the average total savings per ISAL was \$308, or \$38.5 per member. The average savings of those ISALs that no longer received CRS support was \$100, or \$12.5 per member. This suggests that, whilst the ISALs may be important in encouraging households to save, they have not yet achieved a scale of activity that will make a significant contribution to resilience for the community as a whole, though they may provide a very important source of resilience to individual households faced with a crisis.

Another of the key ways in which the PRP has successfully fostered resilience is through the livestock component, which targeted the same households, prioritising the most vulnerable as part of the asset transfer within the graduation model. This approach has been highly successful in strengthening resilience of very poor households, as in Zimbabwe this is often realised through the accumulation of livestock. This intervention has been particularly successful in Southern sites where agricultural interventions have suffered due to the recent droughts. In addition to increasing short term resilience, the PRP 11 has had an active focus on preservation and building of these assets, particularly in its final

⁶⁹ Beneficiaries in Murehwa, under the CRS interventions were part of the Zvakamka Mukando ISAL group, meaning ‘Good things’ and as well as an ISAL fund for income generating activities, they had also created two additional funds that they were all contributing savings to; one in case of drought and one for ‘social emergencies’ such as funeral costs and to support neighbours unable to pay schools fees. Whilst the amount being saved in these funds was not very high (\$1 a week for drought and \$1 a month for social), it demonstrates an increased understanding in these households of what is needed to be resilient to such shocks.

year; for example, in encouraging fodder plots at the community and household level. Such interventions are increasingly important for enhancing livelihood options for the very poor and building the resilience of such livelihood options against drought and climatic change, the frequently experienced hazards in the rural areas of Zimbabwe.

Although, as we have identified in the above examples, PRP interventions have added to the increased resilience of households to shocks, the evaluation team have found that the programme could have done more to unpick and explore the specific kinds of shocks faced by households in Zimbabwe and to focus on what is needed to provide protection from these shocks. For example, whilst the livestock intervention in the South does help household resilience to drought, shocks relating to climatic conditions were not fully considered from PRP's inception. Similarly, responses to cholera through increased WASH programming were reactive to the epidemic, rather than proactive.

Effectiveness/Impact in Achieving Objectives not in the Logframe

How the PRP has increased the wellbeing of poor children, women and men? How has the PRP improved social capital among beneficiaries (relationships that that help sustainability)?

Gender

Despite developing initially as a 'gender neutral' programme, PRP identified, in the strategic shift from PRP I to PRP II, the need to focus more closely on the gender dimensions of the programme and recognised gender inequality as an exacerbating cause of poverty, especially among women, girls, the elderly and the disabled. Consequently, a Mainstreaming Co-ordinator was appointed to mainstream cross-cutting issues in PRP II, including gender and disability.

Gender Mainstreaming

Within PRP II, gender mainstreaming was used as the main tool to address gender inequality, and from 2008-11, it was embedded in the broad mainstreaming strategy, which had an emphasis on HIV and AIDS. The MTR in 2010 highlighted gender as one of the key areas the PRP needed to focus on and found that the existing strategy lacked a clearly articulated strategy about how to mainstream gender into the programme and subsequently in 2011, a Gender and Social Inclusion Analysis (GSEA) was conducted.

This analysis found that the existing mainstreaming strategy focussed on gender mainly in regards to the context of HIV and AIDS, but that this did not adequately address other existing gender and disability needs such as economic empowerment, decision-making or GBV. To address these findings, a more specific Gender and Social Inclusion Strategy was developed in 2011. This strategy laid out a platform for action and implementation such as gender audits, organisational GSEAs and the development of a mainstreaming reporting template, which would enhance and reinforce existing PRP gender mainstreaming activities, as well as tackle the challenges that had been identified in order to increase the effectiveness and gender impact.⁷⁰

Subsequently, a Mainstreaming Working Group was formed which undertook the delivery of training, discussions and the on-going exchange of materials relating to mainstreaming gender, disability, the elderly, PLWHA and OVCs. There was also a mainstreaming report template created and this was sent to DFID every quarter. This, whilst improving the mainstreaming of gender and inclusion into the project, did not exclusively address gender but instead gender was again embedded with other mainstreaming activities, contrary to the recommendations of the Gender and Social Inclusion Strategy.

⁷⁰ PRP Report No. 25, Gender and Social Inclusion Strategy, 2011.

A key recommendation made by the GSEA was for the project reporting on gender and excluded groups to be strengthened, through the monitoring and analysis of gender and social inclusion related output and outcomes indicators of the PRP and through the inclusion of a gender and social inclusion assessment in the Project Evaluation. However, no such adjustments to the logframe were made and there is no assessment of gender and social inclusion in the project review. It was also recommended that there be an increased focus of gender and social inclusion in PRP publications and the website but there are no publications on this theme.

The evaluation team also found from discussions with both GRM and IPs, that levels of gender awareness and mainstreaming and capacity to mainstream varied greatly between IPs (see positive examples below) and that for some IPs, the focus on gender was very much on the numbers of women and men involved in interventions. The fact that a GSEA was not conducted until three quarters of the way through the programme meant that its recommendations, such as improvements in gender reporting, were not fully undertaken, representing a lost opportunity to measure the full gendered impact of the programme and gather important learning for future interventions.

Examples of gender mainstreaming

Examples of Gender Mainstreaming

- Whilst in some cases, gender mainstreaming was a challenge, to encourage men’s participation in the programme, CARE in Masvingo offered incentives to women for bringing their partners to gender related meetings, thus ensuring that these gender messages were fully communicated. CARE also mainstreamed gender into its community leadership training.
- The fusing of health clubs within livelihood interventions such as ISALs has encouraged more men to be involved and thus increased their awareness of health and sanitation issues.
- The training of school health teachers in PHHE has succeeded in including a number of men who both serve as role models to the pupils in the schools and who take the lessons learnt on health and sanitation back to their communities.
- Governance and maintenance issues addressed by water point committees have engaged men and also exposed them to the PHHE information and in some cases the gender messaging from other PRP interventions.

Women’s participation in making decisions and choices

From the field visits conducted and the reporting, the team was able to ascertain that many of the women beneficiaries of the PRP felt that their participation in the programme has increased their influence and respect in the community and their power on decision making and choices. However, PRP has not collected data on leadership within communities and so the team is unable to substantiate quantitatively whether the PRP has led to an increase in women’s leadership positions and whether this increased feeling of empowerment for women has been acknowledged, accepted and supported by men in the community. The team heard evidence from community field visits that women considered that they were perceived as more acceptable to be leaders in their community and that those that have received training are more respected and are listened to more. They perceive themselves to be more empowered by virtue of the increased knowledge, education and economic status that the PRP has given them.

Some positive examples include:

- Through the HBC intervention, which had mainly women as beneficiaries, women in Murehwa reported that they were experiencing increased decision making power and respect from their communities and that as PRP had formalised HBC activities, their services to the community were now more recognised and appreciated.
- The ownership of livestock was deemed by beneficiaries to increase their social status in the community, and increased women's social position within the household. In Plumtree, widows without livestock had previously been ignored and shunned from community meetings but were now able to participate freely and voice their opinions.
- Because they are engaging in small businesses and have received cash transfers, training and knowledge from PRP II, HIV positive women in Mutare indicated that they no longer felt stigmatised. They are being approached by people in their communities to share their knowledge of ISALs and are able to do business more freely.

Improving women's status within the household

- From evidence seen by the team in almost every field site, the key achievement of the PRP in improving women's status in the household is the economic support, independence, and contribution it has allowed them to make. For example, ISALs have enabled women to increase their economic independence which increases harmony and has provided women with an economic safety net. Instead of being passive recipients of money in their households, women are able to be active and key partners in income generating activities.
- Community gardens mainly have female members; this gives women their own money and they can contribute to the households. Women reported that this helps reduce gender based violence and increase peace in their homes as they do not have to ask their husbands for money.
- There was a predominance of women involved in the IGAs and from field discussion, there was evidence that the IGAs had led to women being increasingly empowered in their households due to having their own income, as well as for widows who did not previously have other sufficient income streams.
- The increased opportunity for asset ownership, through the livestock intervention or through assets bought through increased income, has increased the respect women receive in their households and from their community.
- Although women in households have more economic independence due to PRP II interventions, there was no evidence seen by the team that this resulted in further empowerment in relations.
- The household competitions from the PHHE intervention and the community recognition it brings have led in some cases to men's increased respect for women's household responsibilities and in Murehwa, women reported that men had actually started to help in performing household tasks.

Increasing or reducing time burden for productive and household work

Acknowledging the time burden upon many women in Zimbabwe, relating to both household and economically productive activities, the PRP promoted various initiatives to reduce the time burden upon women. Examples of these are:

- The provision of elephant pumps for household and community garden use, that ferry water from the river straight to gardens for quick and easy irrigation.
- Many IPs timed their meetings and selected meeting points to accommodate the timing of women and men's chores and to ensure that participants did not have to walk long distances and after sunset.
- PRP II, through the HBC intervention has reduced the burden of care in communities, most of which is shouldered by women.
- Through WASH training and health clubs, disease has been reduced in communities, consequently further reducing the care burden upon women and their time.

Despite these positive moves, the team is concerned that some of the PRP interventions, particularly CA, can actually increase the time-burden upon women, bringing them no closer to gender equality. Although CA enables women to prepare their land after harvesting, giving them more time to prepare and helping to overcome not having draught animals, it is still a time and labour intensive process and women are often responsible for the digging of the basins. Women (and men) were seeking to cope with this increased time burden by working in groups.

Impacting on gender equality

Given DFID's focus on gender, the evidenced gender inequality in Zimbabwe and the recognition that poverty and gender are intrinsically related, a more robust approach to implementing and monitoring a gender mainstreaming approach, from the outset, was merited.

From reporting and discussion with beneficiaries and IPs, there is evidence that when gender was addressed, low technical awareness on gender and social exclusion issues meant that the concept was introduced as 'women's affairs', rather than participatory and involving and including men. This perception was further exacerbated by the fact that the majority of beneficiaries were women. Although PRP tried to address this, by deliberately targeting men to take part in HBC and ISALs, the limited participation of men and misconceptions around the targeting mean that there has been a lost opportunity for men to access gender messaging communicated during programme meetings.

Given limited knowledge and understanding of gender issues by some IPs and the fact that gender was not mainstreamed in the project from the beginning, interventions were not designed with a focus on the different needs and priorities of men and women, and thus may not have been responsive to gender issues.

Many IP staff had not been formally trained on gender and social exclusion issues and so may have had difficulty in communicating these issues to district leaders and other decision making stakeholders, where awareness is also generally low.

Although there was much thematic and technical discussion and sharing of lessons etc. across the PRP II, there was no specific platform for gender issues to be discussed and of the multitude of research and technical papers the programme has produced, none relate directly to gender.

Social Capital

PRP II seems to have generated considerable social capital which is a valuable asset for households, especially when there is uncertain rains and uncertain harvest. Taking an integrated approach, working in groups, addressing health concerns (especially in the aftermath of the cholera outbreak in 2008/09 which remains very prominent in people's minds), and investing in participatory approaches, has brought people together. This is particularly beneficial for poorer and more vulnerable members who typically lack social capital but have much to gain from mutual support and cooperation with other community members.

Focus group discussions with PRP participants indicated that working together in groups generated the following benefits for members.

- IPs spoke of improved social cohesion whereby when people worked together it helped to overcome political and religious differences e.g. conservation group.
- Community members got to know each other better and started implementing income generating activities and agricultural projects jointly. Some used earnings from their community gardens to make bulk purchases of agro-inputs.
- ISALs have also boosted social capital, for example, one ISAL had created a separate ISAL fund for social groups in the community e.g. orphans and sick, and another fund to aid households suffering from drought.⁷¹

The only negative impact was voiced by one NGO that stated that by targeting individual households, rather than communities (where all members considered themselves poor), caused some social disharmony. However, this was not confirmed during field work.

Systemic Change: Linkages to markets and innovation

With the stabilisation of the Zimbabwean economy, the development terrain began (late 2010) to shift from emergency and humanitarian assistance interventions, to recovery and resiliency oriented interventions. The PRP II also responded to this shift by orienting itself to making markets work for the poor (M4P) approaches. The M4P approaches sought to address failures in the input, output, business development services (BDS) and financial services markets⁷². Some new implementing partners were contracted to pursue this objective and some existing IPs attempted to introduce new approaches and undertake what were known as innovative projects. This new direction represented a shift away from production as the starting point, towards a market orientation from the outset.

The M4P interventions were implemented by six⁷³ PRP II partners. The IP worked on different value chains depending on the agricultural fortunes of the area. AFRICARE supported sorghum, CARE worked on the vegetable value chain, whilst CRS engaged with vegetable and goats. Concern Worldwide (CWW) supported groundnuts, with KST supporting goats and SCC working on the dairy value chain.

The market intervention was designed to address each of the market failures. For the input market failures, the programme worked through voucher systems and agro-dealer programmes. The output

⁷¹ In one location visited in Bulilima District, a home based care group developed a community garden, the proceeds from which enabled them to feed the sick and orphans in the community and generate income for the orphans' school fees. Another group in Murenge mentioned contributing some of their maize harvest to the much poorer households in the village.

⁷² In the market oriented approach the departure point is analysis of the market, especially in determining the unmet market demand. That information is then back-end loaded to influence production. The core is market oriented production is producing what is wanted by the market and not what you can produce. Issues of quality and quantity of producing and consistency of supply are paramount in market oriented production. On the other hand in production oriented development interventions, you produce what you can and then later on you look for the market.

⁷³ SCC, CARE, CRS, CWW, KST and AFRICARE

market failures were addressed through facilitating linkages to markets and the development of market oriented farmer groups. The BDS market failures were addressed through technical trainings and the development of information centres and lastly financial services market failures were attended to through the formation of ISALs.

The direct provision of crop inputs and livestock in the first three years of the PRP likely harmed the emergence of rural markets. However, it was necessary because the economic conditions meant that market activity was almost non-existent in most of the PRP areas. The switch to vouchers was timely and supported the re-emergence of rural markets and the use of open vouchers in the last year was a further boost to rural markets.

The situation with livestock markets was more complicated because, unlike crop inputs, livestock was being purchased in the PRP areas, as well as being provided to PRP households. There is some evidence that the high level of PRP purchases has led to an increase in the price of small livestock. Whilst this will have benefits for existing livestock farmers, there are reports that it undermined efforts to promote the consumption of goat meat in urban areas. In general, there seems to have been limited attention given by the PRP to promoting an understanding amongst PRP households of the likelihood that the prices for small livestock products may be quite volatile and that successful livestock farming requires long term horizons. However, many households will have an instinctive understanding of this, because of the strong cattle rearing culture in Zimbabwe.

The majority IP involved in M4P have followed the protocols of market oriented interventions. AFRCARE started off by studying the demand of sorghum from the breweries and having determined the supply gap, then started to mobilise the farmers to produce the sorghum in Mapirimira Village, Ward 6, Zvishavane. However the intervention was not very successful because the input (seed) market failed to meet the increased demand for sorghum seed.

In Masvingo, CARE's intervention in the community gardens has exhibit adherence to the good practices of market oriented interventions. The organisation has trained some community gardens members as marketing officers who have a key responsibility to identify market demands and influence production in the gardens.

However in Chivi, the evaluation team found a case that was more production oriented but being implemented under the M4P banner. CAFOD through the Zvishavane Water Project is implementing a community village garden but the farmers complained that they were unable to sell their vegetables because of market saturation. In Chimanimani, the evaluation team also found a case of poor end market analysis that resulted in the farmers failing to get a market for their honey.

Where the market oriented interventions have to been done according to the good practices, the beneficiaries have been able to improve their livelihoods, especially in the community gardens supported by CARE.

The PRP Research and Analysis Report No. 2 states that development agencies are taking on the roles of facilitators and coordinators with local and urban-based markets. Many of them are assisting farmers, as individuals and in groups in the development of rural bulk models whereby produce is collected centrally before either shipment by farmers to urban markets or sold to buyers with transport. PRP examples of interventions in crops and livestock are CARE KhulaSizwe Trust (KST)⁷⁴.

The report also indicates that the promotion of community gardens and grouping individual gardens into clusters is in part a marketing strategy with marketing done through both garden committee and

⁷⁴ Making Markets Work in Zimbabwe: Emerging Lessons from the Protracted Relief Programme (PRP). and other Market-Based Programmes, May 2012, p 16.

cluster management committee (CMC) levels. The strategy involves the bulking of produce by committees for sale at local and urban markets, specifically: local schools, hospitals and other institutions; and, urban wholesale and retail markets, hotels and restaurants. The report notes that most groups do not have good institutional and business capacity and as a result many farmers market as individuals⁷⁵.

While IPs were trained in M4P, market promotion activities which we visited at field level suffered from the lack of a clear overarching vision and approach and few IPs had the capacity to support this sort of activity effectively. IPs covered a range of different market promotion activities, including: facilitating contacts between farmers and entrepreneurs; promotional activity to encourage entrepreneurs to try new markets; grants to entrepreneurs to provide incentives to try new markets; technical assistance with quality standards and certification; and grants for physical market infrastructures.

The evaluation has not encountered any evidence of activities that focus purely on market information or that provide financial services to help new market activities (other than the ISAL activities, which are not primarily focused on market development). This could include, for example, the requirement for market studies and to review the full range of possible actions and the possible complementarity of a selection of actions.

In a context where Zimbabwe is still emerging from an economic collapse, and market linkages for smallholders were minimal, the termination of the project after one year meant that there was an inadequate timeframe to facilitate farmers to link with reliable markets on a sustainable basis and to let relationships mature.

Performance of the projects funded through the Innovation Fund

In June 2010 PRP II made a call for proposals for funding under the “Innovative Fund”. The proposals to be funded were to have “a clear and costed hypothesis so as to test and measure the impact of an appropriate technology or innovative implementing approach and which shows consideration of the evolving reality (e.g. climate change and adaptation, market-based approaches, lower transaction costs for higher impact). The actions should be well placed in the national and international context and should be likely to lead to practical outcomes of importance to the research endeavour itself and/or to applications of social and economic value” (PRP Innovation Fund: Call for Proposal).

The evaluation team visited two projects funded under the Innovation Fund implemented by SCC in Nharira and Acqua Culture Zimbabwe. The Nharira dairy, which operates in a communal land area, has introduced new technologies (dairy soft, internet) and revived the milk production, improved the local herd through inputs of heifers on a revolving scheme basis, and improved processing at the centre. Training in leadership, business management, fodder production, animal care, record management and costing of products, have all been key to upgrading farmer skills; this is supported by para-vets. Though initially targeted at elderly farmers, specific efforts are now being made to include youth (who previously had no animals).

The farmers interviewed noted that their livelihoods had greatly improved from increased milk, and appreciate reliable payment through e-banking.. The milk collection and processing centre is now fully functioning but not to capacity. Challenges faced are existing debts (for electricity), irregular power supply and thus the dairy is pasteurising using firewood.

⁷⁵Ditto, p 17.

The use of the District Management Team model that steers the intervention is also a novelty as it was only found out in this Nharira case. The team comprises representatives of various government departments to coordinate activities between farmers, local staff and the District Administration. The role of the team is to identify problems and solutions, and to identify the training needs for local government officials and farmers; it provides training and advice to farmers and staff. This structure, combined with some on-going support of SCC after PRP terminated, augers well for sustainability in the short to medium term.

Aquaculture started Chivi District, in Jan 2012, but as PRP II closed after 9 months it was not possible to monitor its survival in drought periods. However, a field visit by the Evaluation Team indicated that the project was under stress as there are serious concerns about water availability and the drying up on ponds - 7 out of 57 have already ceased. Group members invested a huge amount of labour in hand digging the ponds - in one example thirty participants (10 women, 1 youth, 19 men) spent from January to August manually digging 3 ponds 50 metres x 20 metres x 1.5 deep but there seems to be limited value put on labour inputs or the opportunity costs for labour. As the production cycle for fish is 8 months, to date, beneficiaries have harvested nothing. Such projects need 3-5 years to have a few production cycles and to develop ways of coping in drought years. Furthermore, members have to guard the ponds at night; the 10 women members are unable to do night duty and thus are obliged to hire labour at \$2 a night twice a month. (Nymakewe Village, Ward 16). While this project has received a high profile and was handed over by Aquaculture in the presence of the local Minister, lack of water is a serious risk to its sustainability.

Climate and Environment

There are four activities that have the potential to improve climate resilience: CA, small livestock, ISALs/IGAs and water points. The small livestock and ISAL activities were both evaluated as having achieved significantly more than expected and should make an important contribution to increased climate resilience of beneficiaries. CA was assessed as having met expectations and should also make a contribution to improve climate resilience. The performance of support for markets and IGAs was more problematic and may make some contribution to climate resilience, but needs to be more effective in future, if any impact is to be sustained.

The environmental risks of PRP II are small and the benefits arising from improved livelihoods and health far outweigh any risks. The numbers of goats so far involved are not large enough to pose a threat to the bushes on which they browse. In fact, by diverting some effort from grazing animals to browsing animals, the PRP may reduce pressures of overgrazing. In theory, opening new boreholes could create a risk that extraction will exceed groundwater recharge and water tables will fall. There has been no evidence that this is taking place.

The only activity that has the potential to have a major impact on the environment is the promotion of fertiliser use. However, as this has been linked, in most cases, to techniques of micro-dosing, the risks of environmental damage are lower than without the programme, when fertiliser may be used more indiscriminately and hence have a higher risk of getting into water courses or of being consumed directly on crops. The encouragement in gardens of cultivating without fertiliser helps to minimise the risks of consumers being exposed to fertiliser on unwashed produce. CA should improve the quality of the soil and so provide lasting environmental benefits.

In terms of comparison of fertiliser usage with developed countries, the level of fertiliser usage promoted under the PRP is about 80 to 90 kg/ha, which compares with typical usage in the UK of about 400 kg/ha. This suggests that the risks of environmental damage are less severe. However, fertiliser use in the UK is heavily regulated, to ensure that there is little chance that chemicals run off into watercourses. In addition, rainfall events are distributed more evenly in the UK, which also reduces the risk that fertiliser, is lost into water courses. The use of micro-dosing, basins and CA in the PRP should have reduced the risk of runoff, but is unlikely to have eliminated it during the more severe tropical rainfall events. There is some experience with zero tillage in the UK which suggests

that it can make a major contribution to reducing the environmental risks from UK farming. However, the experience is still limited to a small number of enterprising farmers and there is no government interest, as yet.

Thus are few environmental risks and these have been addressed as far as possible by the PRP. There are no obvious areas where further action is required to reduce risks. Given the importance of groundwater resources for climate resilience and for some PRP activities, it would have been useful to monitor water levels in new and rehabilitated boreholes to assess whether it would be safe to expand the number of boreholes.

There are no immediate prospects for access to carbon credits as schemes to recognise the carbon contribution of changes in agricultural activities are unlikely to come into place in the medium term.

Sustainability

The availability of data for just two years (2010/11 and 2011/12) only enables us to see progress across thresholds for one year; it is not possible to see whether this progress can be sustained or improved upon in subsequent years.

The most progress was made in the proportion between livelihoods protection and promotion thresholds at two thirds. Whether they will be able to sustain this graduation in rural areas will be significantly affected by rainfall patterns. If drought prevails in 2012/13 as was the case in the South during the field work, households will have no harvest; for example, in one district visited by the Evaluation Team, district officials indicated that there were some wards where 95% of households were already in need of food aid. In urban areas, sustaining graduation will be affected by rising food prices, and for those on cash transfers whether they have been able to transfer to government social protection schemes.

The termination of PRP II one year earlier than planned is likely to affect those projects started in 2011 as households will have had only one year to experiment with and adopt new practices and activities, and to develop some level of resilience. Furthermore, for the 72,658 new households recruited as participants in 2011 to attain sustainability in food security and additional livelihood initiatives is challenging.

Despite the early termination of the programme, IPs were required to achieve the targets set for a two-year programme (2011-2013). Against this context, IPs indicated that it was difficult to give groups the same level of support in one year compared with groups in existence since 2008.

From discussions at field level, it is unlikely that many of the IPs will be able to provide any support to PRP participants now that the programme is completed. In the majority of cases where implementation was done by local partners, these organisations were dependent for between 70-90% of their income on PRP; they expanded rapidly, including recruiting significant number of staff. Our observations are that they are not able to follow up with projects started in 2011 and which have yet to prove either their benefits or sustainability. Many local offices have closed, and up to 360 staff have been laid off, though on a positive note this means that there is a lot of trained capacity available in the market for new food security and livelihood programmes.

Given the limitations of the data in informing questions around sustainability, we have examined the exit strategies adopted by IPs and we provide an assessment of the sustainability of activities.

Exit strategies

Exit strategies of IPs generally involved building local capacity by the use of locals as volunteers and resource persons. Community members were trained as Lead farmers, Community Based Trainers (CBTs) for ISALs, PHHE, Farming as a Business (FaAB) and care providers, para-vets, pump

minders, latrine builders and health and water committee members depending on the type of interventions being implemented in different areas. These are expected to continue providing technical support in their communities, with the support of relevant district departments.⁷⁶

Our field visits indicate that local government (technical and administrative) is very aware of PRP, and in many instances are very familiar with the interventions and mode of operation. Capacity building meetings and trainings were often conducted with or attended by relevant officials to build their skills. In some locations agriculture extension and livestock officers, and councillors, are very visible at Ward level and there is a good chance that they will continue to support farmers. However, mobility and the resources to provide an adequate level of support is an issue. CWW availed departments such as the District Development Fund (responsible for rural water infrastructure) and Agritex with motor bikes, computers, borehole spares, tractor, trailer and monthly fuel allocations to improve their service delivery. Some IPs provided bicycles to local government officials but sustainability is questionable as there is no provision for effective maintenance.

Some IPs employed staff to the level of field officer to provide technical input to farmers. While this may have strengthened delivery it represents a lost opportunity to build the capacity of district and ward extension officers. It also risks undermining local extension systems, and in such situations where there is no link with existing official support structures, may adversely affect sustainability as there are no institutional linkages after the IP withdraws.

The facilitation of linkages between farmer groups and input and output markets was also applied as an exit strategy. CWW linked farmers to private sector service providers such as Northern Farming, Ripper, SeedCo and Pioneer to ensure continued sustainable input and marketing support. In Nyanga CWW supported the establishment of a market information centre to be managed by Agritex. In Masvingo, Africare created links for farmers with breweries and agri-dealers.

At the end of the programme hand over meetings were organised at sub-ward, ward and district level. The meetings were attended by officials from relevant departments, community leaders and members. The meetings involved presentation and handover of progress reports, handover of lists of community assets to officials and community management committees. In Masvingo a formal handing-over of aquaculture ponds to the project members was conducted in the presence of the resident Minister and Governor, MP, and District Administrator, but the project was already under stress due to lack of rains.

At the programme level, the decision to terminate PRP II a year earlier than planned meant that NGOs were obliged to reach the same targets within a twelve month timeframe. It was evident in discussions with some communities that this left little time for planned exiting.

Sustainability of activities

Conservation Agriculture

The sustainability of CA should be assured by the availability of mechanised options that are, in fact, more attractive than manual CA because seeds can be planted directly into the soil, thus gaining the full advantages of improved soil structure. The success of mechanised CA requires households to have some income for purchase of equipment and of herbicides. However, households will turn to mechanised techniques if they find other sources of income and so value their labour more highly and, in these circumstances, they should be able to afford to adopt mechanised CA and so ensure longer term sustainability. In the absence of mechanisation, adoption of CA is at risk especially

⁷⁶ On a field visit in Murehwa a group leader was seen being approached to provide training on ISALs to other community members.

among households that have a labour deficit, and may have a negative gender effect in that it is mostly women who provide the labour.

Fertiliser Micro-Dosing

Fertiliser micro-dosing can be labour intensive, which could make it less attractive as household incomes improve. However, mechanised options are being developed and, given the high costs of fertiliser, both globally and, especially, in Zimbabwe, the need to obtain maximum return from fertiliser should ensure that micro-dosing techniques are sustained, even when household incomes rise and fertiliser becomes more affordable.

Supply of Agricultural inputs

The demand for agricultural inputs will depend on movements in the prices of crops and inputs. In the most fertile areas with reliable rainfall, then demand should be strong and the improvements in availability in the market should be sustained. In drier areas, supplies may be limited to specialist outlets in the larger towns.

Livestock and improved management systems

The improvements in livestock husbandry should be sustainable as small livestock provide good profits. Traditional culture in Zimbabwe places a high value on cattle and gives little attention to small livestock. However, these values are changing and many traditional African livestock systems rely on the interaction between cattle and small livestock, with small livestock being used, in particular, as a route to rapid recovery of livestock after drought.

Nutrition Gardens and Market Gardens

The viability and sustainability of gardens depends on the availability of sufficient water to provide a surplus, after domestic and livestock demands. In urban areas, it also depends on the availability of land near water sources, which will often require protection from construction of housing. In theory, horticulture provides one of the highest returns of all agricultural activities and should be sustainable. However, marketing is exceptionally difficult and sustainability will depend on being able to produce crops at times when normal market supplies are limited, and on sustainable links with markets.

WASH

In terms of sustainability, community management of rural water supplies through water point committees has led to increased ownership, skills and has improved community communication and working together. However, some of these committees have scored low results on the GMI index due to lack of resources and with no further resources or support, the less mature groups may disintegrate in the future.

Rural District Councils have led and supported the upgrading of piped water systems at growth points, thus enhancing sustainability. There is also evidence of implementing partners working effectively with local officials; helping to sustain the impact of the programme by strengthening government capacity. PRP II increased the capacity and supported DWSSC by engaging them in joint monitoring activities and training them, as well as handing over all records of water points and latrines that had been created or rehabilitated over the course of the project. However, lack of government resourcing in ministries and departments key to WASH (MoHCW and DDF) and access to funds available to ensure the 'hardware' of WASH interventions may mean that post PRP communities struggle to maintain them.

The PRP also trained 'pump minders' in the maintenance and repair of water points and bore holes who would derive some income from the community for providing this service, thus, increasing the likely sustainability of the interventions.

PHHE Sustainability

The key emphasis within PHHE on learning and behavioural change and the fact that communities themselves were so extensively involved in reinforcing each other's learning and in the scoring process means that its impact on communities is likely to be sustainable. After the training has been delivered and the knowledge embedded, which the reports indicate has happened, and then the behaviour can continue with no further input from the PRP. The link also between adults being members of health clubs, and their children part of school health clubs will also further ensure the sustainability of what people have learnt. By evidencing links between their behaviour change and disease reduction and through increased respect both at household and community level for cleanliness, and through very little effort, it seems likely that communities will continue with these actions. Were PRP to continue, increased impact and sustainability could be achieved through an increase on the importance of, and availability of hand washing facilities.

Home based care

It is likely that many of the HBC intervention are sustainable because so many of them are based on social capital, volunteerism, behavioural change, improved education and require less in terms of continued inputs. In some regions, increased recognition of those providing HBC has led to the districts providing the health clinics with the medicines for carers to use; however, access to medicines is still an obstacle in some districts. It must be noted that many carers felt their activities regarding HBC were only viable if there was access to a nearby, sufficient and safe water supply and so the impact of the PRP WASH interventions has a direct impact upon the sustainability of HBC. The increasing availability of anti-retroviral drugs means that there are very few bedridden patients in the communities and hence the demand for HBC has reduced.

Internal Savings and Loan Groups and Income Generating Activities

This is limited information on which to base a quantitative assessment of sustainability. In some locations establishment of ISALs may be dependent on external grants but there were also reports of a rapid growth in number of groups of growing volume of savings and good loan repayment. Given the high level of appreciation of ISALs among beneficiaries because of the access they provide to cash on a seasonal basis, it is likely that many will continue.

Cash Transfers

No data was available to indicate if beneficiaries had been able to transfer to government social protection schemes. Many ISALs that had been established with cash transfer recipients had collapsed.

Innovation Fund

Given that these projects were only supported for a year it is too early to assess sustainability, but early indications is that they will need support through a number of seasons to assess resilience.

Conclusions

The Integrated Approach. Given the rapidly changing context from 2008-2012, we conclude that PRP II was relevant, flexible and adapted to the evolving context. The integrated approach was particularly relevant given the situation that prevailed in the country and enabled PRP II to target a wide range of vulnerable households. There is a long history of international support for integrated rural development programmes (IRDPs), which were common in Africa, particularly in the 1980s. These have become less common in the last few decades, as governments seek to reduce dependency. However, in the context of ineffective state services and collapsed rural societies that characterised most of Zimbabwe in 2008, the integrated approach had strong advantages and contributed to the overall effectiveness of the PRP.

We conclude that the validity of the approach to be adopted by food security programmes depends on issues such as the wider environment, the changing context, the extent to which markets are functioning, and the extent of shocks. PRP has demonstrated that one approach will not suit all households, and that there is need to reduce or increase emphasis in interventions at different times and make adjustments in the type of interventions in line with different categories of beneficiaries. Such an approach recognises that graduation is cyclical, not linear, and that households can at times rapidly progress towards graduation and then face sudden setbacks.

We further conclude that an integrated approach is particularly valid for the poorest who face multiple dimensions of poverty such as lack of food and income, recurrent ill-health, few (no) assets. For example, the burden of ill-health on a household budget and on household labour both in terms of the caring burden and the lost opportunity for productive work should not be under-estimated. In areas with unfavourable agro-ecological conditions it is likely that an integrated approach (livestock, WASH, IGAs and ISALS) will be critical; areas with more positive climate conditions and with access to water will likely benefit from a more focused agricultural programme that enables them to maximise their assets.

Supporting a range of activities that is as broad as those supported by the PRP can result in a loss of focus and a dilution of effort. To reduce this risk, it would have been possible to focus on a smaller number of core activities that could have included, for example, CA, small livestock, water points, latrines and ISALs. However, the range of options on the 'PRP menu' worked well and allowed the project to pick up the most suitable activities in each district. It also allowed the IPs to focus on the activities that they were most suited to support. In most of the areas visited in the evaluation, there was evidence of complementarity across activities.

The focus on WASH and PHHE alongside food security and livelihoods helped to improve the health status of households, and in turn released labour for agricultural activities. Internal saving and lending became an important backbone of the programme giving households on-going access to credit to buy inputs for agriculture and income generation activities, and to pay school fees at the time when they were due. Knowing that they had access to credit gave vulnerable people 'peace of mind'.

Scale and geographical coverage

The PRP decided to operate nationwide, across a large number of districts in a wide variety of agro-ecological zones. There was focus on areas that were most vulnerable, but the programme also provided support in areas that benefited from more reliable rainfall. Whilst PRP achievements in the more favourable agro-ecological zones were strong (notably in terms of improved yields) the success of the livestock and ISAL activities in drier areas shows that the programme could still have made an important impact, if it had concentrated its focus on these areas.

The reasons for focusing initially on rural areas are not clear, especially as households in urban areas were poorer than in rural areas. The programme successfully accommodated urban areas, through the EC support, which suggests that it would have been possible to reach more urban areas without the EC. Clearly, some of the menu of activities supported by PRP would not be suitable for urban areas, but there were enough activities that would have helped to make it possible to operate in urban areas with little additional burden on PRP management.

Shift to market development

Having shifted the programme in 2011 towards market development, recruiting over 72,000 new households and a number of implementing partners, PRP was terminated a year later - one year earlier than planned. Concerns were expressed about the costs of management and about the need to change the programme to reduce dependency and focus more on market development.

The concerns about dependency were reflected in an increased emphasis by the PRP on market development in the last year. This was consistent with the improving economic situation and the evidence that PRP households were graduating quite rapidly from very poor to poor and then to middle income households. The experience with market development seems to have been problematic and at this early stage in terms of programme intervention there were few clear success stories. Experience in other countries suggests that market development is a very challenging activity and often takes several years to become established and effective.

While there were concerns expressed about those households (150,000) dropped from the programme, and while IPs had a six-month exit timeframe, there was no follow-up to monitor whether they were able to sustain the progress they had made through the thresholds. This was a sizable proportion of households and represents a lost opportunity to assess the full impact of PRP II 2008-2011 and to learn lessons about the capacity of relief programmes to build resilience. We can only conclude that while some households will have been resilient, others will have endured negative effects. Furthermore, in relation to the poorest households, a key target of PRP, data is not available to indicate whether those on cash transfers were absorbed into other social protection programmes.

Management Options

The definition of management costs is difficult and it is not always clear whether staff costs should be considered as management costs or as essential elements of service delivery. Taking a relatively broad definition of management costs (i.e. including GRM, CA and IP activities contributing the management outputs, but excluding the staff working in the field, for IPs and their sub-contractors) the management costs amounted to about one third of the total costs. Whilst this may seem high, it is not unusual for targeted rural development programmes, especially taking into account that the PRP was not able to rely on government for any service delivery.

The arrangements for managing the PRP, including the use of several levels of management, were an efficient way of achieving effective results. There were few realistic alternatives for the management of the programme, apart from a consulting firm. DFID was involved more directly in the management of PRP I, but this was not an efficient option. In the absence of reliable government capacity at district level, the only other type of institution that could have been considered for the coordination would have been a UN agency, but this would not have been cheaper and there is no evidence that it would have been more effective. They would also have had to rely on NGOs to be implementing partners, supported by other institutions that can provide specialist local or technical experience. An NGO would not have had the capacity to take responsibility for coordination and it would not have been a natural role for an NGO. Given the scale of the programme, it would not have been practical to rely entirely on a consulting firm to implement the programme, because this would have required a lengthy and expensive recruitment and institution building process that would have been inefficient and unsustainable.

If the option of working through government services becomes available, then the approach taken by the PRP will need to change and the actual delivery of support to households will need to be provided by government services. It will presumably be many years before Zimbabwe might be ready for budget support and, therefore, a Programme Management Unit will still be required, to coordinate support. This is best provided by consultants, and international support will be required. For a programme as large as the PRP, it will be necessary to work with local IPs to deliver the technical support to the government departments that are actually delivering services. Some financial support to the government departments will also be required, for example, to provide improved mobility. In addition to managing the activities of the programme, the Programme Management Unit will need to engage with government to ensure that the way in which support is provided is consistent with government policy and that government policy is able to adapt to build on the experience of the programme. These are all standard features of such programmes in countries where activities are delivered through government services.

In terms of the decision taken for early termination we conclude that several alternatives were available. If the concern with the programme was that management costs were high, then it would have been possible to slim down some of the management costs. IPs could have been asked to consolidate activities on those for which they had strong in-house capacity, thus removing the need for sub-contractors and specialist support. Some IPs could have been terminated, leaving others to take over any particularly successful activities. The M&E activities could have been simplified, which might also have contributed to sustainability of M&E. If the concern was to accelerate the move towards support for market development, the options for achieving this would have been more challenging, in view of the fact that introducing market development seems to have been problematic, both in the PRP and in livelihoods programme in other countries. A concerted effort to redesign support for market development was needed, for the PRP successor programme, but this redesign could have taken place in parallel with the second year of the extension, thus allowing the pilot activities in the final year to be fully developed and facilitating a smooth transition, without a major funding gap.

Value for money

The PRP II spent \$142m over 4 years in 545 wards, dealing with 372,658 beneficiary households. The PRP LIME monitoring reports suggest that the average annual income of poor PRP households increased from \$103 to \$468 over the four years. If this increase applied to all the 335,000 PRP households that were poor at the start of the PRP (i.e. 90% of the total of 372,000 households), then the total increase in annual incomes would be about \$122m. This is much higher than could be expected to be generated by the PRP expenditure. The economy grew by 30% during the four years, which may explain some of the high growth in incomes and, as the incomes are measured in nominal terms, inflation (which amounted to 20% over the four years) may also have contributed to the increase. In addition, it is possible that the proportion of the LIME households that received inputs was higher than the proportion of PRP households as whole, although IPs and communities were instructed not to give preference to LIME households selecting beneficiaries.

Benefit Cost Analysis

Most of the logframe targets for outputs were exceeded and the fieldwork undertaken for the evaluation confirmed that most activities performed as well as, or better than expected. The PRP has undertaken a BCA that can be used as a basis to estimate the value of the benefits derived from meeting the output targets. The BCA suggested that PRP performance was high. The impact evaluation conducted a sensitivity analysis of the PRP BCA, which is reported in Annex 6. This shows that the BCA is very sensitive to a number of assumptions, including the prices of crops and inputs, the assumed changes in yields and the value of labour. However, the reductions in benefits included in the sensitivity analysis are of a similar size to the increases in benefits and the net effect is to reduce the Benefit Cost Ratio by only a small amount, from 2.3 to 2.1. Thus, the economic performance of the PRP seems to have been good.

Climate Change

Surprisingly, while PRP II promoted a number of interventions targeted at climate resilience, there was very little explicit reference to climate change in most of the PRP documentation or dialogue. A note was produced early in the programme on the effects of climate change on the main activities and this provided a sensible and useful analysis, showing that concerns about drought are implicit in some of the main activities (including CA, livestock and income diversification). However, the programme did not continue with any explicit recognition of the implications of climate change. In practice, it would be difficult to conduct these discussions with any degree of rigour because Zimbabwe does not have clear evidence about the likely direction and severity of climate change. However, it is clear that rainfall patterns are very likely to become more unpredictable and those extreme rainfall events and droughts would be more frequent. It would have been possible for the community planning activities to take this into consideration and to discuss whether the balance of support provided took into sufficient consideration the probability of more unpredictable rainfall patterns. Such discussion would have helped improve understanding about the risks that households will slip back down the graduation pathway if the country experiences one or two years of drought and/or poor rainfall.

There is no clear evidence that climate change will have any beneficial effects that can be exploited. It is possible that higher temperatures in the highlands could expand opportunities for cultivating new crops, but the opportunities for new crops are more strongly influenced by rainfall patterns and these are much less clear. This possibility for changing cropping patterns requires attention from a specialised agricultural project and major progress will not be made until more detailed climate modelling is available.

Lessons Learnt and Recommendations

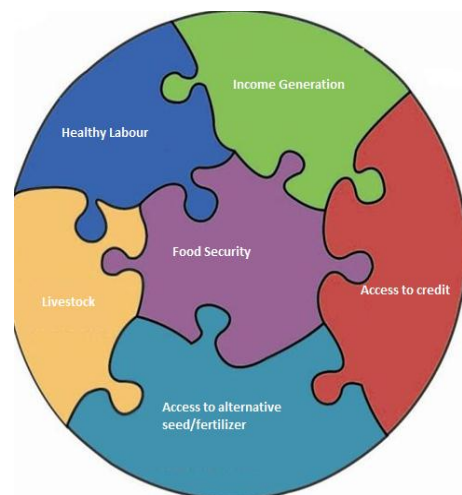
Lessons Learnt for Livelihoods Programming

Diversification of livelihoods

In the context of climate change and the adverse effects on food security, the PRP model has demonstrated that diversification of livelihood sources is fundamental to food security. While diversification in crops may reduce food insecurity, a conceptual framework is required that recognises that farmers can no longer rely on agricultural production alone but need a range of income sources including livestock and off-farm income generation i.e. that diversification is fundamental to livelihood security.

Integrated Approach

The adoption of an integrated approach to livelihood security is particularly relevant in contexts where state services are absent, have collapsed, or are ineffective, and where poor households face multi-dimensional aspects of poverty (related to food security, livelihoods, health, water and education). In such contexts, programme components are likely to be interdependent. For example, in the PRP context, integrating internal savings and lending became an important cornerstone of the programme giving individual poor people access to credit on an on-going basis to access food, agricultural and income generation inputs. Through group participation people were able to undertake initiatives they could never undertake on their own. A complementary strong focus on WASH, focusing on preventive health care, helps to break the cycle of ill-health which deflects labour from productive work and places increased burden on carers (usually women).



Even when a programme shifts from relief to development, as PRP did in 2011, the availability and access to functioning complementary services such as primary health care and WASH will have a determining effect of the composition of the programme approach to be adopted.

Flexibility

PRP proved to be flexible and responsive to changing circumstances. For example, it rapidly scaled up funding and activities for WASH following the outbreak of cholera across many districts in the country in 2009-10. The focus on sanitation at this time was crucial but also opportunistic in that communities continue to be acutely aware of the risk of cholera. As a result, individual households are investing substantial financial resources in building latrines, an investment that is not often observed in food security programmes. Similarly, with the trend towards market recovery in 2011, PRP recruited new implementing partners with experience of working with the private sector to actively link farmers to markets.

Delivery mechanisms

Working through government should be the normal practice for livelihoods programmes, when the government is a sufficiently reliable partner. Support should be provided to enable services to be delivered through government institutions, including the relevant line ministries and local

government. IPs should provide technical support to the government institutions and some financial support is usually required for the institutions to pay for expenses, such as demonstration activities, travel, and communication. Programme managers should engage with government to ensure that services are delivered according to government policy and to enable policy to evolve in the light of programme experience. If the government financial and management systems are unable to accommodate support through the budget, then this will need to be provided through a project mechanism.

M&E

Monitoring and evaluation of large programmes such as PRP is a complex process requiring considerable effort on behalf of both management and implementers. Inevitably much of this effort is channelled towards monitoring whether outputs have been achieved, but there is also need to build in more *reflection* that helps to understand *why* certain results are emerging. This needs to go beyond ‘stories of change’ to embrace more analysis at the outcome level. Such on-going reflection is important firstly, in contexts that may be changing rapidly and where external factors may have a considerable bearing on results, and secondly to assist with the issue of attribution especially when there is no counterfactual analysis or control group. This evidence-based reflection needs to be recorded and reported, both to provide institutional memory and because the process of reporting encourages clarity and precision.

Graduation Framework

The graduation framework attempted to capture both household income (cash, in-kind) aspects of development. This was done by comparing household incomes to thresholds that were related to the costs of achieving set living standards, including the costs of access to social services. This mechanism was at the heart of the monitoring system and of the reporting on graduation statistics. However our enquiry indicates that the way in which the system worked in practice was not explained fully in programme documents. For example, the system should have allowed the relative contribution of income growth and of access to social services to be assessed. This was not done. More clarity about how this system worked would have helped in providing clearer lessons from the evaluation work done by the PRP.

The learning and knowledge

Learning and knowledge transfer components of programmes are underlined as key to sustainability and graduation through the different threshold levels. A consistent message emerged from field work consultations indicating the high value people placed on the knowledge and skills they had learnt in relation to planning for the best use of their limited resources, cultivation, care of animals, savings, personal health and hygiene. Such knowledge transferred into behaviour change which is key to sustainability.

Recommendations for future programming

Diversification

Livelihood programmes need to be designed to promote diversification among both rural and urban poor households. On-going uncertain political and climatic circumstances leave households vulnerable to shocks outside their control and hence they need to spread risk across a number of activities, both on and off-farm. The flexibility shown by PRP in adapting packages of support to specific contexts was critical e.g. the scaling up of livestock in the drier areas that suffered repeated drought.

An integrated approach

An integrated approach is particularly suited for programmes such as PRP, the outcome of which was ‘to prevent destitution and protect and promote the livelihoods of the poorest and most vulnerable’. This target group encounter multiple dimensions of poverty such as lack of food and income, recurrent ill-health, few (no) assets. Single sector programmes that only focus on economic security is unlikely to address the multiple needs of such households.

Moving from relief to development

Moving a programme away from ‘relief’ towards a ‘development’ approach is a complex process that has serious implications for beneficiaries. It is important that best practice is followed in exiting, and this should include monitoring households to gauge the extent to which they can sustain the gains obtained and avoid slipping down the graduation trail.

Internal Savings and Lending clubs (ISALs) and Income Generating Activities (IGAs)

ISALs and IGAs should be a key component of livelihood programmes. For poor households, access to credit at critical moments is essential (illness, beginning of school term, to acquire agricultural or income generating inputs); the psychological reassurance that such credit provides should not be under-estimated. For those households that are able to move along the graduation trajectory, access to credit enables them to expand their production/businesses but in time they will need access to larger amounts of resources.

PRP has reflected the global experience whereby the model of group lending has proven more attractive to women compared with men. Group lending offers women a social safety net in contexts where they own few assets in their own right, and they are confident in taking small scale loans. Less is known about the credit needs of male beneficiaries of PRP but it is likely that, in common with men in other countries, they are typically more interested in larger, individual loans which may require a different financial product e.g. micro finance. Programmes need to give consideration to different financial products to respond to demand.

ISAL training was effective in introducing beneficiaries to the concept of financial management which helped to plan and to be prepared for, and take actions to mitigate shocks rather than being unprotected from shocks.

Livestock

Promotion of small livestock (goats, chickens, rabbits) in semi-arid areas that contain some of the most vulnerable households and have less development opportunities, will enable poor households to get the best return on their labour. Small livestock, supported by animal health, are proving sustainable and are enabling households to access meaningful herd sizes to cushion them against shocks. In the PRP context, the fact that small livestock was generally targeted at women led to important additional benefits in gender relations within the household.

Social protection

Where social protection interventions are used to support beneficiaries, they need to be attuned to and coordinated with national social protection initiatives, from the outset, and handover needs to be planned carefully. As PRP withdrew from cash transfers, it passed lists of beneficiaries to either the Child Protection Fund (CPF) and to the national Harmonised Cash Transfer Programme being implemented by the Government of Zimbabwe. However, it is unknown whether these people were absorbed into the national programmes or whether significant gaps remain.

Focusing on internal community strengths

PRP has demonstrated that communities have capacities and resources that when harnessed appropriately can generate significant gains. For example, members generated resources to fund ISALs, build latrines, kitchens, and protection walls which has strengthened communities and helped to counter dependency on external resources, and given them a sense that they can drive their own development

Community-based planning

Community based planning should be a key component of a community based approach. Although only introduced in the final years of PRP, communities demonstrated that they were enthusiastic about, and were capable of articulating their own priorities, visioning for self-sustainable livelihoods, and action planning. Some were able to implement projects based on their own resources or to harness resources locally. District administrators and local authorities were also enthusiastic about the plans, though funding their implementation also needs to be considered from the outset. Well managed, such processes can play an important role in bringing communities together especially in areas that may traditionally be politically partisan.

Climate change

As the likelihood of rainfall patterns become more unpredictable and extreme rainfall events and droughts become more frequent, programme design, planning and community activities need to explicitly address such issues and ensure that the balance of support provided takes adequate account of more unpredictable rainfall patterns. IPs that are emerging from implementing 'relief' programmes may need support and incentives to address climate change e.g. in terms of reference and contracts.

Partnership between IPs and local authorities

Use of NGOs as implementing partners facilitates a range of expertise, both technical and in relation to community processes, and enhances smooth coordination. However, there is a risk of developing parallel systems. Future programmes should be implemented, as far as possible, using government systems with NGOs providing technical support. PRP has shown that NGOs and local officials can work together drawing on the technical and monitoring capacity of government extension workers.

Engaging men in WASH activities

Support and buy-in by local leaders and men in PHHE is a critical ingredient for success and sustainability. In responding rapidly to the cholera epidemic, and engaging with the whole community on personal health and hygiene, PRP secured the interest and on-going support of men – which is usually lacking. This has resulted in active participation by men in health clubs and sanitation inspection committees, embedded behavioural change in relation to sanitation, and this may also be a reason why many members were able, through ISALs, to save between \$80 and \$120 for latrine construction.

Water

Access to water, both at a household and farm level is a key factor in determining household capacity to move through poverty threshold levels. Future livelihood programmes should coordinate with national and local government initiatives to expand access to water plans e.g. bore hole and dam construction.

Technology

To avoid the risk that improved farming practices over-burden household labour, and especially women who typically carry out planting, weeding, harvesting and processing activities, access to technology needs to be built into the design of programmes. Such technology needs to address the full cycle of cultivation and processing. The energy needs of households also need consideration for heating, lighting, food processing and preparation, small scale businesses, and to enable children to study at night. These have an important bearing on the extent to which communities exploit or conserve local resources e.g. forests.

Gender and Social Inclusion

A Gender and Social Inclusion Analysis needs to be embedded from the start of a programme; in the PRP situation such an analysis was only carried out in 2011 so that it is difficult to capture impact. Moreover, gender equality must go beyond disaggregation of data, and there needs to be indicators that measure the impact on gender issues e.g. the impact of economic empowerment on relationships between women and men, or the impact of the work burden of activities such as conservation agriculture on women's time, energy and health.

Annex 1: Terms of Reference

Terms of Reference for the Project Completion Review and Evaluation of the Protracted Relief Programme II

ARIES : Protracted Relief Programme phase II

ARIES Project Code: 113871

ARIES Component: 113871-128

Objectives

1. i) To establish the impact(s), positive and negative intended and unintended of the Protracted Relief Programme II and identify lessons learned to inform future livelihoods programming.
2. ii) Complete a Project Completion Review (PCR), using the standard DFID PCR template, to measure the achievement of results by the Protracted Relief Programme. A project completion review (PCR) is a DFID requirement but is hoped that other funding donors will be interested in participating in the review.
3. Conduct an evaluation which will follow the guidelines and principles of the Network on Development Evaluation of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) at the OECD, and DFID's policy on evaluation for international development.

Recipients

4. All donors to the Protracted Relief Programme: DFID, AusAID, DANIDA, Netherlands, Norway, EU and World Bank, as well as other development partners involved in food security and livelihood programming. The results will also be shared with the relevant ministries in the Government of Zimbabwe, namely the Ministries of Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development, Labour and Social Services and Local Government. The results will also be shared with GRM International Ltd and the PRP Implementing Partners (including Technical and Innovation Fund partners).

Scope of the Work

5. The team will:
 - i) Develop in the first five days of the assignment, an approach and implementation plan for the evaluation, agreed with DFID, all other PRP donors and GRM. . This will include a review of the reliability, timeliness, access, meaningfulness and validity of the existing quantitative and qualitative data to finalise the scope of work.
 - ii) The PCR will review the progress of the programme against the outcome, outputs and activities set out in the programme proposal at the beginning of the programme in January 2009 and the revised ToR for GRM and their proposal in 2011, as stated in the PRP's logical framework. Assess the delivery of programme results and outcomes, analysing the contribution of outputs and outcomes into longer-term impact.
 - iii) The PCR will also assess the latest logical framework to see if;
 - The outputs were appropriate in order to achieve the Outcome;

- The Indicators were appropriate to monitor progress and
- Milestones were appropriate for the indicators
 - iv) The evaluation will undertake a qualitative assessment of the programme activities and impacts using focus groups discussions, interviews, key stakeholder consultations, analysis of existing qualitative data base and other approaches as appropriate and approved in the implementation plan,
 - v) The evaluation will also undertake a quantitative assessment of the programme activities and impacts using the PRP’s existing data sets. The review and evaluation team will also look into the value for money (VfM) aspects of PRP⁸⁰, including a review of the layers of implementation, by doing a pragmatic comparison with 1-2 other similar DFID programmes (to be identified). This will also include a qualitative assessment of the efficiency of resource utilisation.

Evaluation Criteria

5. In addition to programme achievements, the evaluation team will also assess the design, performance and impact against the following important criteria as specified in the DAC and DFID guidelines, and will consider the merits of possible alternative approaches to programme design, management and implementation according to these areas.

- i.* Relevance
- ii.* Effectiveness
- iii.* Efficiency
- iv.* Impact
- v.* Sustainability
- vi.* Appropriateness
- vii.* Coverage
- viii.* Coherence
- ix.* Coordination

Key questions and themes

6. The review and evaluation will address a number of questions and themes, derived from the programme logical framework. The priority of the evaluation is to answer the below questions.

These are:

- i) How many people have achieved sustainable food security through the programme? Has this resulted from increased production or increased incomes, or a combination of both?
- ii) How has the PRP achieved the protection and promotion of livelihoods? How is this reflected in the graduation of the PRP beneficiaries to different thresholds (included as outcome indicators)? Review how different packages of interventions offered by different partners have affected graduation.

⁸⁰ Covering the 3 E’s of VFM of economy, efficiency and effectiveness.

- iii) How has the PRP increased the wellbeing of poor children, men and women?
 - iv) How has the PRP improved social capital among PRP beneficiaries?
 - v) Does the programme present good value for money as compared to other similar livelihoods project/programmes implemented by DFID?
7. These questions and the below thematic areas need to be assessed, highlighting both positive and negative impacts, together with an assessment of the likelihood of sustainability.

The thematic areas are as follows:

Food security and Poverty

How has PRP changed:

- i) Income and expenditure poverty,
- ii) Sufficiency of food availability, and
- iii) Quantity and quality (diversity) of diets

Assets and livelihoods

What impact has the PRP generated in terms of:

- i) Household income and savings
- ii) Assets (particularly livelihood assets), and
- iii) Resilience to shocks

Climate and Environment

The evaluation will review the following activities promoted under PRP II:

- i) Conservation Agriculture
 - ii) Fertiliser Micro-Dosing
 - iii) Supply of Agricultural Inputs
 - iv) Livestock distribution and improved management practices
 - v) Nutrition Gardens and Market Gardens
 - vi) WASH activities
 - vii) Internal Savings and Lending (ISAL) groups and Income Generating Activities (IGAs)
 - viii) Home Based Care (HBC) for the chronically ill
 - ix) Social Transfers
 - x) Market Linkages and M4P activities
11. Consider the extent to which the programme has responded to the most pertinent climate and environment issues within the context of the programme objectives and outcome.
12. In the absence of quantitative data , make informed judgments and provide reasons to support these judgments on the following issues:

- i) Determine whether the environmental effects of these activities have been, or are likely to be, beneficial, neutral or adverse in both the short term and long term, and the level of impact and risk.
 - ii) Determine whether the impact on climate change of these activities have been, or are likely to be, beneficial, neutral or adverse in both the short term and the long term, and the level of impact and risk.
 - iii) Determine whether these activities are likely to mitigate the effects of climate change.
 - iv) Determine whether any adverse effects and risks are offset by any beneficial effects on the livelihoods and health of individuals and communities in the programme areas, and make an assessment of the acceptability or otherwise of the adverse effects and risks.
13. To ensure proper perspective, make comparisons between the effects of these activities in Zimbabwe and comparable activities in developed countries such as the UK. For example how does the level of fertiliser usage promoted under PRP II compare with the level of fertiliser usage in the UK, and compare the likely resultant environmental effects.
14. Make practical recommendations as to how any adverse effects could have been, or can still be minimized, and how beneficial effects could have been, or still can be enhanced.
15. Consider whether alternative programme designs would have been more beneficial from an environmental viewpoint, and make practical recommendations for avoiding adverse effects and enhancing beneficial effects in the planning and implementation of future programmes.
16. Identify possible opportunities for communities in PRP II areas to benefit from any climate change positive effects from their activities, such as access to carbon credits.

Social capital

- i) What impact has the programme had on increasing social capital?

Gender

What impact has the programme had in terms of:

- i) Increasing women's participation in making decisions and choices,
- ii) Improving women's status within the household and
- iii) Increasing or reducing time necessary for household responsibilities – e.g. weeding, collecting water etc

Targeting and exit

- i) Consider the targeting of beneficiaries throughout the programme (households rather than communities) and the inclusion of socially excluded groups – including, but not limited to, women, youth, the disabled and IDPs.
- ii) What additional impact has PRP activities had on the wider community?
- iii) Consider the success of programme and implementation partner exit strategies.

- iv) Measure the level of hand-over, ownership and uptake by the Government of Zimbabwe at all levels.

Systemic change

How has the PRP changed:

- i) Linkages to markets and innovation, and
- ii) Links to Government service provision

Innovation

- i) Consider the performance of the projects funded through the Innovation Fund, in particular the longer-term prospects for the different technologies or approaches trialled through Innovation Funds.

Implementation

- i) Review of the M&E strategy for the programme and assess its effectiveness with regard to programme delivery and the achievement of results.
- ii) Interrogate the evidence base for each step of the results chain.

Methodology

The evaluation team will consult extensively with the IPs, TPs, GRM, DFID and other PRP II donors, and will visit the field to consult with field level staff, beneficiaries, non-beneficiaries and relevant Government staff, and to inspect examples of activities and interventions. The detailed methodology and work plan will be developed by the team at the commencement of the review and evaluation.

21. The team will carry out the following:

- i) Review available documentation (detailed below).
- ii) Meetings with stakeholders such as DFID, AusAID, Denmark, Netherlands, Norway, World Bank, EC, GRM, Crown Agents, programme beneficiaries and selected IPs.

Key Sources of Information and Documents

22. The following key documents will be available to the evaluation team:

- i) Independent Annual Reviews and the Mid Term Review of PRP II
- ii) PRP II Logical framework
- iii) PRP II Research & Analysis Reports, consultant reports and Technical Reports
- iv) Longitudinal approaches to Impact M&E (LIME) reports
- v) PRP II IP and GRM Quarterly Reports
- vi) Historical reports from PRP I
- vii) Other relevant reports and documents

viii) DAC and DFID Evaluation Guidelines

Deliverables & Reporting

23. The team will provide a presentation to the DFID Zimbabwe programme team and other interested stakeholders on the conclusions from the PCR and the Evaluation on the last day of work in-country.
24. The following reports will be required and should be submitted to the DFID Programme Manager:
 - i) Methodology and work plan report within 5 days of commencement
 - ii) Draft PCR, in DFID template and addressing all aspects of the objectives stated for this review by 11th September, to be finalised by the 14th September
 - iii) Draft final evaluation report and presentation of findings by the end of September
 - iv) Final report (not exceeding 40 pages), taking into account the comments received from DFID, detailing findings, lessons learned, conclusions and recommendations by mid-October 2012

Timeframe

25. The project completion review and evaluation will be completed within a period of six weeks, with a proposed start date of the 3rd September until the 12th October. It should be noted that the implementation of the PRP will finish on 30 September.

Team Composition

26. The review team will comprise of four people with the following skills:
 - i) Evaluation
 - ii) Livelihoods/Agricultural
 - iii) Development economics
 - iv) Social protection
 - v) Climate and environment

Management, Logistics & Support

27. The contact point at DFID Zimbabwe will be Pete Spink, the Livelihoods and Pro-Poor Growth Adviser.
28. Marita Kahwema, Programme Officer for the Governance, Wealth Creation and Vulnerability Team, will be the contact point in DFID for project cycle management issues.
29. Angie Dhlakama will provide support with logistical arrangements in Zimbabwe.
30. The consultants are responsible for their own travel to Zimbabwe and arranging the necessary visa.

Background

31. The Protracted Relief Programme (PRP) was launched in Zimbabwe by the UK Department for International Development (DFID) in 2004. The first phase lasted until 2008, when PRP II (2008-12) was commissioned.

32. PRP II has evolved into a multi-donor funded programme, with DFID as the lead donor. Funds have also been received from Australian Aid (AusAID), Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA), the Embassy of the Kingdom of Netherlands (EKN) and the Norwegian Agency for Development (NORAD).⁸¹ The total budget for the second phase of the programme is just under £89 million. The European Union (EU) and the World Bank channelled additional funding directly through GRM to complement PRP resources, although this funding will not form part of the PCR or the Evaluation.
33. PRP has reached over two million vulnerable people throughout Zimbabwe. The expected **Impact** of PRP II is to reduce extreme poverty in Zimbabwe and the expected **Outcome** is to prevent destitution and protect and promote the livelihoods of the poorest and most vulnerable. The Programme has continued to evolve in response to the changing circumstances in Zimbabwe and builds on the experiences gained in each year of implementation.
34. The PRP includes a number of different components: food security (increased production and household income); social protection (including Internal Savings and Lending clubs [ISALs], and cash transfers); WASH; and community based planning. PRP implementation successes of note include: increased agricultural production through the promotion of CA and provision of agricultural inputs; the formation and performance of ISALs; the delivery of water and sanitation hardware, together with Participatory Health and Hygiene Education; community based planning resulting in development plans; social transfers; and market-based provision of agricultural inputs.

PRP II Target Beneficiaries

35. PRP II has targeted very poor and vulnerable households (categorised as A and B1)⁸² since inception, however in the final year of the programme, the main focus has moved to those households who are labour endowed and have access to land, but are surviving below the PRP II Survival and/or Livelihood Protection Thresholds (mainly B1 households with some B2). These households are being provided with development support from PRP II to enable them to graduate to above the Livelihood Promotion Threshold.⁸³

PRP II Geographical Coverage

36. Implementing Partners were covering 58 Districts during the first 3 years of PRP II; however geographical coverage has been reduced to 45 Districts for the final year of the programme.

Implementation Structure

37. During the first 3 years of PRP II, the programme was implemented by 21 International and National Non-Governmental Organisation Implementing Partners (IPs) and 16 Technical

⁸¹ AusAID: £15,295,850.52, Denmark: £9,815,051.00, Norway: £2,385,488.18 and Netherlands: £6,402,999.00.

⁸² Categorisation of rural households by the Small Holder Farmer Agriculture Inputs, Extension and Market Support Programme for the 2012/13 Summer Cropping Season (June 2012). Category A: Poor households with limited land and labour.

Category B1: Poor households with access to labour and land, but no cash. Households can gain food security through cereal production support, or improved garden or livestock production in combination with extension.

Category B2: Emerging small holder farmers with land and labour, but cash constraints. Households can increase productivity to achieve food and income security.

⁸³ Survival Threshold: this represents 100% of minimum food energy needs (2100 kcales per person per day), plus costs associated with food preparation and consumption (i.e. Salt, fuel, basic lighting), plus any expenditure on water for human consumption.

Livelihoods Protection Threshold: this represents the total income (food and cash) required to sustain local livelihoods. This means total expenditure to ensure basic survival as above, plus maintain access to basic services (e.g. routine medical and schooling expenses), plus sustain livelihoods in the medium to long term (e.g. regular purchases of seeds, fertiliser, veterinary drugs, schooling etc.) plus achieve a minimum locally acceptable standard of living (e.g. purchase of basic clothing, tea etc.)

Livelihood Promotion Threshold: These represents total income (food and cash) to basic survival as above, plus protect livelihoods in the long term as above, plus withstand moderate to severe long term shocks i.e. provide buffer room to maintain livelihood protection needs in the face of defined long term hazards occurring in the region, plus build assets.

and Innovation Partners. In the final 12 months, the programme is being implemented by 21 IPs plus seven Innovation Fund partners.

38. The programme is coordinated and managed by an internationally tendered private sector development contractor - GRM International Ltd - as the central Management, Technical, Learning & Coordination (MTLC) Unit. GRM is responsible for the effective management and implementation of the programme, in accordance with its Terms of Reference, to achieve the delivery of the outputs specified in the programme logical framework. The MTLC Terms of Reference (ToR) for its final year has a number of deliverables in the following areas:
- i) Strategic direction and policy awareness
 - ii) Management
 - iii) Financial management
 - iv) Lesson learning and technical advice
 - v) Coordination
 - vi) Training and capacity building
 - vii) M&E
 - viii) Impact assessment
 - ix) Reporting
 - x) Communications

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Annex 3: People Interviewed

Name	Organisation	Designation
Abraham Makoni	Farm Community Trust of Zimbabwe	Provincial Manager
Adonis Faifi	Help Age Zimbabwe	Programs Manager
Alec Nyikadzino	Ministry of Labour and Social Services (Zvishavane District)	District Social Services Officer
Aman Machamedze	Community Development Technology Trust	District Programme Co-ordinator
Arnold Musoki	CARE	Training Specialist
Augustine Mikike	AGRITEX, Insiza	Extension Office
Banarbas Maymawira	Environment Africa	Country Director
Belete Woldemmanuel	UNICEF	WASH Cluster Co-ordinator
Belinda Chaora	River of Life	Programme Manager
Björn Blau	Royal Danish Embassy Office	Deputy Head of Mission
Brain Mandebvu	AFRICARE	M&E
Bridget Matambo	HWA	Programme Officer
Charlene Ambali	ACF	Grants Manager
Charles Moyo	Khula Sizwe Trust	Director
Chengetai Jiri	Oxfam	Programme Manager
Clepperton Npinda	CARITAS Bulawayo	Finance Officer
Cosmos Ratsakatika	DLPD	District Livestock Specialist and Chairperson of the District Management Team (DMT)
Cuthbert Chamboko	Chasiya Primary School	Headmaster
Derek	Concern	Assistant Field Manager

Murambadano		
Elena Viridenic	ACF	Finance Officer
Erica Keogh	GRM	PMAC Manager
Evelyne Vutuza	CTDO	Project Coordinator
Everest Love	Matobo Council	Chief Executive Officer
Fadzai Mukonoweshuro	AusAid	Senior Program Manager
Francis Kauda	ZCDA	M&E Officer
Gordon Moyo	Runde Rural District Council	Chief Executive Officer
G. Tongowoma	Aquaculture Zimbabwe	Projects Officer
Hakurimwe Memory	Zaka Gardens Association	Chairperson
Hedron Nauba	Ministry of Health, Insiza	Environmental Health Technician
Hlabati (Mr)	Ministry of Local Government and National Housing (Chivi District)	Assistant District Administrator
Irene Chihanga	Department of Livestock Production and Development (Chivi District)	District Livestock Specialist
Indranil Chakrabarti	DFID	Social Development Adviser
Innocent Kabo	Concern	M&E Co-ordinator
Jaison Mushipe	Department of Livestock Production and Development	District Livestock Specialist
John Sibanda	President's Office	Officer
Jonathan Chifamba	World Vision	
Jorge Pereiro Pinon	European Union	First Secretary- Head of Health and Social Sectors
Joseph Kamuzhanje	GOAL Zimbabwe	Acting Country Director
Justice Nyamangara	ICRISAT	Scientist

Kilian Mutiro	GRM	M&E Officer
Lasdon Chiya	President's Office	Officer
Lawrence Dube	CARITAS Bulawayo	Livelihoods Field Officer
Lawrence Naygwande	Environment Africa	Team Leader
Lawrence Nyagwande	Environment Africa	Branch Manager
Liljana Jovceva	World Food Programme	Food Security Cluster Co-ordinator
Lovemore Mupala	HELPAGE Zimbabwe	M&E
Lungowe Sepo Marongwe	Ministry of Agriculture, Mechanization and Irrigation Development	Conservation Agriculture Coordinator
M. Moyo	DA Insiza District	DA, Acting
Marita Kahwema	DFID	
Martha Nyabadza	Empretec Zimbabwe	Programme Officer
Martin Kamba	CARE	Field Supervisor
Matthew Mkiwana	DA	DA, Mzilikazi District
Mercy Katerere	CARITAS Mutare	Social Protection Officer
Mgcini Moyo	Khula Sizwe Trust	Training Officer
Mr. Kasima	DA	Assistant DA, Chimanimani
Mr. Marange	Environmental Agency	District Head, Chimanimani
Mugove Chakurira	CAFOD	Livelihoods Programme Manager CAFOD
Mugove Chakurira	CAFOD	Programme Manager
Munyaradzi Gahadzikwa	Concern	Field Manager
Muza Galeen	DA	DA Secretary, Mutare

Nhako Hondoyemoti	CARITAS Mutare	Programmes Manager
Nicolette van Ducksen	Concern	Assistant Country Director
Noah Kutukwa	Christian Aid	Programme Manager
Nyarai Charimba	SCC	Programme Officer
Nvovo Moyo	AGRITEX Insiza	Extension Office
Nyasha Mudiwa	HWA	M&E Officer
Oliver Gundani	AFRICARE	Field Officer
Pasipanodya Nhapata	Chasiya Primary School	Deputy Headmaster
Paul Matongo	Ministry of SMEs and Cooperative Development	District Officer and DMT Member
Pete Spink	DFID	Livelihoods & Pro-growth Adviser
Phikelele Silulani	ACF	Food Security Programme Manager
Phyllis Banahwa	DA	District Administrator, Murehwa
Prosper Mutimba	CARE	Marketing Specialist
Roadwell Zhanda	Ministry of Youth and Empowerment	District Officer and DMT member
Samson Runyarca	CARITAS Mutare	Agricultural Officer
Sibusisiwe Madyangove	Nharira-Lancashire Dairy Cooperative	Chairperson
Silindile Sibanda	ACF	Wash Community Based Supervisor
Simbarashe Chinokoro	Ministry of Health and Child Welfare	Nurse at Bota Clinic Zaka District
Siringa Sigalke	DA	DA, Mutare
Swedi Phiri	CARE International	Project Manager
Terry Quinlan	GRM	

Vimbai Gova	Ministry of Women's Affairs	District Officer
Webster Rice	CARE	PRP Manager
Wellington Dzvene	CRS	Programme Manager
Winnie Chisai	Chinyika Community Garden	Chairperson

Annex 4: Itinerary

FIELD TRIPS FOR PCR AND IE

DAY	District	Partners to meet	Interventions	Overnight Accommodation
Sunday 2/12	Harare- Zvishavane	Travelling day		Zvishavane
Monday 3/12	Zvishavane	HAZ am Africare pm	CA, Markets, Agric Inputs, Gardens, Cash Transfer, ISALs, WASH	Masvingo
Tuesday 4/12	Chivi	Aquaculture am CAFOD pm	Fisheries, IGAs, WASH, IGAs, Markets & Value Addition, Small livestock	Masvingo
Wednesday 5/12	Zaka	CARE all day	CBA, Gardens, ISALs, WASH, Markets, Small livestock, HBC	Masvingo
Thursday 6/12	Chikomba	SCC	Dairy market	Return to Harare

DAY	District	Partners to meet	Interventions	Overnight Accommodation
Sunday 2/12	Harare- Mutare- Chimanimani	CAFOD	Mutare - Urban Cash Transfers	Chimanimani
Monday 3/12	Chimanimani	Environment Africa all day	Bee keeping, CA, Conditional CTs, ISALs and IGAs, CBA	Mutare
Tuesday 4/12	Nyanga	CWW	Markets (Farming as a Business), ISALs, WASH, Change Process with Drought in Mind (CPDIM)	Nyanga
Wednesday 5/12	Murehwa	CRS	CA, Markets, Agric. Inputs, ISALs, Small livestock, WASH, HBC	Murehwa
Thursday 6/12	Murehwa	FCTZ	Markets, Agric. Inputs, ISALs, IGAs, WASH	Return to Harare

DAY	District	Partners to meet	Interventions	Overnight Accommodation
Sunday 9/12	Harare- Bulawayo	Travelling day		Bulawayo
Monday 10/12	Insiza	ACF all day	CA, Markets, Agric Inputs, Gardens, WASH –uBVIP piloting and Health clubs, Market Stalls, Small Livestock	Bulawayo
Tuesday 11/12	Matobo	KST am World Vision pm	Livestock auctions, Gardens, IGAs, WASH, Markets, Small livestock	Bulawayo
Wednesday 12/12	Bulilima	CAFOD am Practical Action pm	Small livestock, CA, WASH, Agric. Inputs, DRR, Participatory Ext. Approaches, Gardens, HBC	Bulawayo
Thursday 13/12	Bulawayo	WV am	Urban gardens	Return to Harare

Annex 5 Evaluation Matrix

Protracted Relief Programme, Programme Completion Report and Impact Evaluation Matrix⁸⁴

Key Areas for Addressing the enquiry			
Evaluation Criteria	Key Questions as per ToR	Key themes (Major indicators and further areas of consideration according to the TORs) (numbers relate to paragraphs in the ToR)	Methods & Data Sources
Relevance	<p>Priority question 6 (ii) How has the PRP achieved the protection & promotion of livelihoods? Review how different packages of interventions offered by different partners have affected graduation</p> <p>Sub-questions Was the design appropriate to the context:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Were the programme strategies relevant to economic/policy/institutional circumstances 	<p>What are the main government development strategies? Did the PRP design refer to these explicitly?</p> <p>Do the national development strategies include targets for poverty reduction? Did the PRP design estimate how the PRP would contribute to reaching these targets?</p> <p>11. Consider the extent to which the programme has responded to the most pertinent climate and environment issues within the context of the</p>	<p>Desk review of national development plans. Review of design (project memorandum) Drivers of poverty report</p> <p>Review of PRP annual evaluations</p> <p>Discussions with MTLC, DFID, implementing partners, donors, local government and beneficiaries</p> <p>Discussions with climate change experts in Zimbabwe, DFID, MTLC, IPs, donors, local government, beneficiaries</p>

⁸⁴ The numbers in the text refer to paragraphs in the terms of reference.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did strategies change according to changes in context – political, climate change, health • Did strategies respond to needs as perceived by government, other development partners • Did strategies respond to needs as perceived by local leaders, beneficiaries 	<p>programme objectives and outcome.</p> <p>Are the risks from climate change (CC) known? If so, did the programme designer and managers understand these risks and define actions that aimed to address them? Did government understand climate change? Does it have a CC strategy? If so, was this referred to in the PRP design?</p> <p>How do beneficiaries perceive this risks from CC, if at all (eg more drought, unpredictable planting dates ...)?</p> <p>What is the comparative advantage of DFID and other donors in addressing the objectives? Was the balance of DFID and government participation appropriate?</p>	<p>Project memorandum, proposals of IPs for funding. Review of calls for proposals from IPs Discussions with MTLC, government, IPs, project proposals from IPs</p> <p>Facilitated discussion with beneficiaries</p> <p>Review of calls for proposals from IPs Discussions with MTLC, government, IPs, project proposals from IPs, sector/thematic working groups, district development committee representatives.</p>
Effectiveness	<p>Priority questions as per ToR</p> <p>6 (i) How many people have achieved sustainable food security through the programme? (<i>Coverage</i>) Has this resulted from increased production or increased incomes, or a</p>	<p>19 (i) Targeting of beneficiaries throughout the programme (HHs rather than communities) & inclusion of socially excluded groups</p> <p>19 (iii) success of programme and IP exit strategies</p> <p>21. Consider the performance of the</p>	<p>Food security: Final programme report (due 3rd Dec) ZIMVAC reports Annual outcome analysis reports (LIME) Facilitated discussions with IPs, FAO (ZAMVAC), MTLC, district leaders, rural district council (RDC) CEO</p> <p>Targeting: Project memorandum Discussion with IPs, call for proposals, District scoring criteria (2011)</p>

<p>combination of both?</p> <p>6 (ii) How has the PRP achieved the protection and promotion of livelihoods? How is this reflected in the graduation of the PRP beneficiaries to different thresholds (included as outcome indicators)? Review how different packages of interventions offered by different partners have affected graduation.</p> <p>Sub-questions Rationale for & extent of coverage across provinces, districts and wards</p> <p>Are programme and project designs likely to achieve intended outcomes?</p> <p>Extent to which planned results have been achieved?</p> <p>Effectiveness in delivery and achievement of results</p>	<p>projects funded through the Innovation Fund, in particular the longer-term prospects for the different technologies or approaches trialled through Innovation Funds.</p> <p>22 (i) Review of the M&E strategy for the programme and assess its effectiveness with regard to programme delivery and the achievement of results.</p> <p>Linkages to markets and innovation.</p> <p>Does the PRP have a coherent methodology for combining income poverty with wider poverty?</p> <p>For VFM, key parameters might be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Impact on yield conservation agriculture (CA), fertiliser dosing and other ag inputs, • livestock improvement (eg better calving rates, lower death rates) • For nutrition gardens, what is the production, income & effect on family health? 	<p>Graduation strategy. Outcome analysis and final reports. Discussions with MTLC, IPs, field discussions.</p> <p>Innovation Funds: Benefit cost analysis; discussions with beneficiaries.</p> <p>Review of LIME reports: annual reports, end of project reports, value for money Discussion with IPs on how it facilitated their work. Discussion with donors on usage; uptake of lessons e.g. informing national guidelines, working groups etc.</p> <p>Discussion with stakeholders, IPs, beneficiaries, district officials, reports. Subjective comments from households of frequency of use of markets, both for inputs/products and for consumer goods.</p> <p>Analysis of value for money of different interventions. Field discussions. Programme and annual and end of project reports. IP end of project reports. Gross margins comparison report (undated)</p> <p>ISAL Review (undated)</p>
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	<p><i>Coherence</i> Extent of coherence across donors, across IPs, technical partners, with Government, with private sector</p> <p>To what extent is there coherence in approach of the IPs?</p> <p>To what extent is there coherence between approaches promoted by technical partners and IPs? Were strategies and interventions harmonised according to those of other partners?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of people with daily access to clean water. Changes in labour requirements to obtain water. Impact on health. • ISAL repayment rates. • IGA incomes generated. <p>Coordination mechanisms at national & district levels</p> <p>Coordination across IPs</p> <p>Working groups</p>	<p>Discussions with stakeholders, technical and implementing partners, government ministries, district officials</p> <p>Communication strategy</p>
<p>Efficiency</p>	<p>Priority question</p> <p>6 v) Does the programme present good value for money as compared to other similar livelihoods project/programmes implemented by DFID?</p> <p>Sub-questions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GRM providing enough support to IPs and Technical 	<p>Cost Benefit Analysis, in design or evaluation. Any explicit weighting for improved livelihoods at different levels.</p> <p>For those activities that have produced clear benefits (eg yields for agricultural activities) what costs have been involved, including the direct costs (inputs, labour ...) and the indirect costs</p>	<p>Benefit-cost analysis report (Nov 26th 2012)</p> <p>Value for Money Report (Nov 26th 2012)</p> <p>LIME outcome analysis reports</p> <p>IPs in the field</p> <p>Discussions with beneficiaries.</p>

	<p>partners to achieve results</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Efficiency in release of funds and contracts 	<p>of technical support.</p> <p>Is there any way of rating the performance of the different activities, either subjectively or quantitatively? Could participants rate them in order of importance to: a) themselves; and b) their village more generally.</p> <p>Could service deliverers estimate the proportion of their time devoted to each of the main activities?</p> <p>How do beneficiaries rate the PRP compared to other programmes that they have come across? Why?</p> <p>Is there any methodology for assessing which activities are most efficient? Do participants understand the costs and constraints from different activities.</p> <p>Do beneficiaries have any ideas for other activities to reduce vulnerability to CC that they think would be more efficient?</p>	<p>Possible ranking by beneficiaries in the field. Consultation with IPs, village leaders.</p> <p>Discussion with IPs</p> <p>Community discussions on other programmes, and comparison. IPs rating of PRP compared with other programmes.</p> <p>Benefit cost analysis. Discussion with beneficiaries.</p> <p>Ditto</p>
Impact	<p>Priority questions</p> <p>6. (iii) How has the PRP increased the wellbeing of poor children, women and men</p> <p>6. (iv) How has the PRP improved social capital among beneficiaries (relationships that that help sustainability)</p>	<p>8. Food security and Poverty How has PRP changed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> iv) Income and expenditure poverty, v) Sufficiency of food availability, and vi) Quantity and quality (diversity) of diets <p>9. Assets & livelihoods What impact has the PRP generated</p>	<p>Quality of Life Reports Field visits (qualitative)</p> <p>Annual evaluation Mid-term Review PRP Final Evaluation Report 2008-2011 Evaluation of agricultural inputs report 2010-2011 LIME end of project reports</p>

	<p>Sub-questions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Impact/ likely impact of the programme and different types of interventions 	<p>in terms of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> iv) Household income and savings v) Assets (particularly livelihood assets) vi) Resilience to shocks <p>17. (i) What impact has the programme had on increasing social capital</p> <p>18. (i,ii,iii) Increasing women’s participation in making decisions & choices</p> <p>Improving women’s status within the HH</p> <p>Increasing or reducing time necessary for HH responsibilities e.g. weeding, collecting water</p> <p>19 (ii) What additional impact has PRP activities had on the wider community</p> <p>How does the PRP impact on CC vulnerability compare with the impact of other activities (eg any larger irrigation schemes or any standard government extension)?</p> <p>12. Determine whether the impact on climate change of activities have been, or are likely to be, beneficial, neutral or adverse in both the short & the long term, & the level of impact and risk.</p> <p>Determine whether these activities are likely to mitigate the effects of climate change.</p>	<p>Most significant change stories. Final HEA Report PRP Partner M&E Review Report No 28</p> <p>Focus group discussions with beneficiaries and interviews with IPs.</p> <p>Group maturity index reports</p> <p>Gender and social inclusion strategy Gender and social inclusion analysis report</p>
Sustainability	Are outputs likely to be sustained?	12. In the absence of quantitative data, make informed judgments &	National climate change coordinator Technical partners IPs

	<p>provide reasons to support these judgments on the following issues:</p> <p>Determine whether the environmental effects of activities have been, or are likely to be, beneficial, neutral or adverse in both the short term & long term, & the level of impact & risk.</p> <p>Determine whether any adverse effects and risks are offset by any beneficial effects on the livelihoods and health of individuals and communities in the programme areas, and make an assessment of the acceptability or otherwise of the adverse effects and risks.</p> <p>13. To ensure proper perspective, make comparisons between the effects of these activities in Zimbabwe and comparable activities in developed countries such as the UK. For example how does the level of fertiliser usage promoted under PRP II compare with the level of fertiliser usage in the UK, and compare the likely resultant environmental effects.</p> <p>15. Consider whether alternative programme designs would have been more beneficial from an environmental viewpoint, & make practical recommendations for avoiding adverse effects and enhancing beneficial effects in the planning and implementation of</p>	<p>Beneficiaries District officials</p> <p>To be identified with DFID by Climate Change Adviser</p> <p>Communication Strategy Working groups discussions</p>
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		<p>future programmes. How appropriate have the institutional arrangements been and links with the private sector, CSOs and government?</p> <p>16. Identify possible opportunities for communities in PRP II areas to benefit from any climate change positive effects from their activities, such as access to carbon credits.</p> <p>21. Sustainability of interventions trailed through innovation fund.</p> <p>Sustainability of all activities listed in 10 Level of hand-over, ownership & uptake by GoZ at all levels</p>	<p>Community discussions</p> <p>Field visits to Innovation Fund projects Reports from IPs</p> <p>Ministry of Labour and Social Services FAO National Climate change Coordinator Discussions at district level.</p>
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Annex 6: Sensitivity Analysis

Benefit Cost Analysis

The PRP undertook a BCA for PRP II that was presented in PRP Research and Analysis Report Number 5. The report is undated but was produced in late 2012. The report gave an overall Internal Rate of Return (IRR) of 54%, but this has subsequently been corrected to 27%. The report does not estimate a BCR, but total discounted costs were \$114.5m and discounted benefits were \$235.4m, giving a BCR of 2.1. This suggests that the PRP generated good economic returns.

The analysis allocates all the ‘overhead’ costs in outputs 4 to 6 to the ‘directly productive’ activities in outputs 1 to 3. Benefits are estimated for 10 activities which account for 80% of the expenditure, when the overheads allocated to those activities are included. The overall IRR and BCR include the 20% of expenditure that does not generate measurable benefits (mostly on social transfers), despite the fact that the value of the benefits received is not included.

The PRP BCA is very sensitive to a number of assumptions, which are described below.

Discount Rate The PRP BCA assumes a discount rate of 12%, which is selected to reflect the opportunity cost of capital. It may be correct to use a 12% discount rate for the financial analysis of economic investments in Zimbabwe, where capital is not easily available and interest rates are high, especially for smaller entrepreneurs. However, international assistance to Zimbabwe does not currently have a high opportunity cost and the primary purpose of the PRP investment is poverty reduction, not economic growth. For such investments, there are arguments for using a much lower discount rate. For example, the UK Treasury Green Book on public investment appraisal recommends using a discount rate of 3.5% and even suggests using lower discount rates for programmes that have longer term benefits. Using a lower discount rate has a large impact on the economic analysis because longer term benefits are given a much higher weight. For example, if a 5% discount rate is used, the discounted value of benefits is increased by \$180m and the discounted value of costs, which occur mainly in the first few years, is increased by \$30m.

Economic and Financial Prices The PRP BCA appears to have been done using financial prices, rather than economic prices. An analysis in financial prices is useful to throw light on the financial viability of the activities. However, when assessing the economic performance of donor support, the analysis needs to be done in economic prices. This affects, in particular, the prices for maize, livestock and fertiliser. For example, whilst fertiliser may have been available to the PRP at subsidised prices, it is not appropriate to use these prices in the BCA because government or donors will have to fund the subsidy required. It also affects the value assigned to labour, but this is a more complicated topic and market prices for labour are probably a reasonable estimate of the economic value.

Seeds and Fertiliser In the PRP BCA, about 40% of the discounted benefits come from the use of seeds and fertiliser. Total discounted costs are \$60m and discounted benefits are \$125m, giving a BCR of 2.1. The PRP BCA is sensitive to a number of assumptions that are described below. If more conservative assumptions are taken to all these factors, the discounted benefits are reduced by over \$25m and the BCR falls to 1.7.

- The BCA is most sensitive to assumptions about maize prices. The PRP BCA assumed a maize price of 0.2 \$/kg. According to the WFP Zimbabwe Food Security Brief for Oct-Nov 2012, maize prices for 2012 in rural areas were between 0.28 and 0.36 in maize surplus areas and between 0.35 and 0.43 in maize deficit areas. Using a price of 0.3 \$/kg maize in the BCA has a dramatic effect on returns, increasing the discounted benefits by \$120m.

- In the PRP BCA for inputs, it is assumed that top dressing only is applied using micro dosing and that the fertiliser price is 0.38 \$/kg. World bulk fertiliser prices are currently about 500 \$/t fob gulf and were over 550 \$/t for most of 2012. About 100 \$/t are typically added to get fertiliser to a South African port. Import, distribution and retailing costs will increase the full economic price to over 1000 \$/t. Using a price of 1 \$/kg for fertiliser reduces the discounted benefits of input supply by nearly \$80m.
- The PRP BCA analysis assumes that the use of seeds and fertiliser will increase yields from 410 to 615 kg/ha. This is achieved with 83kg of top dressing fertiliser. As a rule of thumb, applying 1kg of nutrient typically results in a yield increase of 5kg maize. Top dressing fertiliser typically has a nutrient content of 40% to 50%, so 83kg of fertiliser supplies about 40kg of nutrients. The expected yield increase of 205kg is thus consistent with the rate of fertiliser application. However, it does not take into account the benefits from use of improved seeds. If improved seeds increased yields by a further 100 kg/ha, then the discounted benefits from input use would be \$11m higher.
- The PRP BCA analysis assumes that input use will expand from 0.4 to 1.0 ha/household over the six years after the end of the PRP. This seems to be an ambitious projection because many farmers will not have access to 1.0ha of land that is suitable for fertiliser application. Furthermore, farmers will have to pay the market price for fertiliser, unless there is continuing subsidisation, in which case the benefits from that subsidy will need to be attributed to the subsidy and not to the PRP. Removing this assumed expansion in areas reduced discounted benefits by \$80m.

Conservation Agriculture (CA) In the PRP BCA, CA contributes 9% of the total discounted benefits, amounting to \$25m, with discounted costs of \$17m and a BCR is 1.5. This is the lowest BCR of all the activities. The PRP BCA for CA is sensitive to the same factors as seeds and fertiliser, and is also sensitive to labour price. The effects of these assumptions are listed below. There are also some small errors in the analysis involving double counting and the analysis includes benefits for PRP I farmers, which are probably already claimed by PRP I. If all the more conservative assumptions were adopted, the BCR for CA would be negative, which demonstrates that importance of supporting the most effective versions of CA, that are well adapted to local conditions.

- As with seeds and fertiliser, the BCA is very sensitive to assumptions about maize prices. If the same approach is taken to that with seeds and fertiliser, and a price of 0.3 \$/kg is assumed, instead of 0.2, the discounted net benefits increase by \$90m.
- The PRP BCA assumed that CA increases yields by 839 kg/ha (from 410 to 1249). The latest ICRISAT panel data suggested that CA actually increased yields by only 419 kg/ha (from 1010 to 1429). If the ICRISAT figures are used instead of those assumed in the PRP BCA, then the discounted benefits are reduced by \$60m. However, the PRP BCA also assumed the CA yields would decrease after 6 years, whilst most analysis of CA suggests that yields increase as soil fertility increases with improved organic matter. If longer term yields were assumed to be 20% higher, instead of 28% lower, as assumed by the PRP analysis, then the discounted benefits from CA would be \$30m higher, partly offsetting the lower assumptions on yield increase.
- The fertiliser prices used by the PRP BCA for CA (i.e. 0.48 and 0.56 \$/kg for top dressing and basal fertiliser respectively) are different to the 0.38 \$/kg assumed for seeds and fertiliser. As discussed above for seeds and fertiliser, a full economic price of 1 \$/kg seems more appropriate and this reduces the discounted benefits of CA under the PRP by \$50m.
- The PRP BCA assumes that half the households practicing CA will switch from manual to mechanised CA over the five years following the PRP. It also assumes that the area cultivated per household under mechanised CA will grow from the current level of 0.4 to

1.0 ha over six years. Whilst these assumptions seem reasonable, it is possible that significant additional costs may be required to make the growth possible, including support for financial services and extension. A conservative approach to economic analysis would exclude this growth, so that it can be attributed to future support programmes. This would reduce the total PRP discounted benefits by \$54m. In the PRP analysis, labour is valued at 1 \$/day. This reflects the value of benefits provided under the government food for work scheme, but casual labour in rural areas typically earns at least 2 \$/day and sometimes 3 \$/day. It could be argued that households can spread CA labour over an extended period and so can fit it into their schedules without it becoming a large burden. However, it is a common mistake in rural development to undervalue the labour of poor households and it would seem more sensible to take a conservative assumption of 2 \$/day, which would reduce discounted benefits by \$20m.

Small Livestock The discounted benefits from small livestock account for 12% of the total discounted benefits in the PRP BCA. Discounted costs were \$17m and discounted benefits were \$45m, giving a BCR of 2.7. The assumptions on small livestock seem realistic and conservative. There are several assumptions that could be varied to explore the sensitivity of the result.

- The PRP BCA does not include the value of the labour required to care for the goats, but also does not include any estimate of the milk produced. Evidence for the value of this is not easily available, but the households interviewed in the PCR fieldwork seemed to consider that the benefits of milk production were roughly sufficient to justify the work required and that the real net benefits came from sales of goats.
- The majority of benefits come from goats and the PRP BCA assumes that benefits build up to \$105 /year over several years. This is based on a herd size of 5 does and 5 followers, off take rates of 35% (of both does and followers) observed in 2004 and sales prices of \$30. The PRP BCA does not explicitly refer to the improvements in fertility and reductions in mortality that the PRP has generated and that were observed by the PCR field consultation. In theory, off take rates of at least 50% should be achievable with basic good husbandry, but this may be difficult to achieve over many households.
- The PRP BCA also does not take into account that many households have been holding on to their goats to build up a larger herds of 10 to 20 does, which is seen as a suitable size for one household to manage, given the grazing that is easily available around a homestead in the more sparsely populated areas where goats have been particularly popular. These households will forego benefits for a couple of years, while the herd is building up, but will then generate benefits that are three or four times greater. If this practice becomes widespread, the discounted benefits could be double the levels estimated in PRP BCA.
- The PRP BCA assumes that the benefits from rabbits and poultry would disappear after 4 years. The reasons for this are not clear and if they were sustained, then discounted benefits would be \$28m higher.

Gardens The PRP BCA suggested that the community gardens would generate a strong BCR of 2.6, with discounted benefits of \$18m. The assumptions are highly sensitive to the prices assumed for vegetable crops, which can be very high, if production can be achieved out of season, but can also be very low. The BCR assumed that benefits would dissipate over four years. If this assumption was dropped and the benefits were assumed to be sustained, then the BCR would roughly double. Because of concerns about water availability, it seems sensible to make conservative assumptions about sustainability.

WASH The PRP BCA for WASH did not estimate benefits directly, but relied on more intensive studies in Africa by WHO and the Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD), which estimated BCRs for water supply and sanitation of 11.7 and 11.3 respectively. The WHO and CSD analysis was

done using a discount rate of 3%. The PRP BCA assumes a BCR of 11.0, with a discount rate of 3% as the basis for projecting benefits from PRP WASH activities. When costs and benefits are then discounted using the PRP BCA rate of 12%, the BCR becomes 6.2.

The sensitivity analysis above identifies 13 assumptions where there may have been reasons to consider variations from the baseline analysis. Of these, 7 assumptions had a positive impact and 6 had a negative impact. The net implications of all the sensitivity analysis suggests that the large reductions in benefits are slightly larger than the large increases in benefits, resulting in a drop in the overall BCR from 2.3 to 2.1. A BCR of greater than 2 is normally associated with an IRR of roughly 20% and programmes that achieve this level of performance, with conservative assumptions, can be considered to provide attractive returns on public investment. If a discount rate of 5% is used, as recommended by the UK Treasury, then the BCR increases to 2.8.

Table 13: Sensitivity Analysis of Costs, Benefits and BCR (US\$)

	Costs	Benefits	BCR
Seeds and Fertiliser			
Original BCA	60	125	2.1
Maize price at 0.3 \$/kg		+120	
Fertiliser price at 1 \$/kg		-78	
Yield 100 kg/ha higher		+11	
Remove expansion/improvement		-80	
Revised	60	99	1.7
Conservation Agriculture			
Original BCA	17	25	1.5
Maize price at 0.3 \$/kg		+90	
Yield increase at 419 kg/ha		-60	
Yield higher by 20% after Y6		+30	
Fertiliser price at 1 \$/kg		-50	
Remove expansion/improvement		-54	
Labour at 2 \$/day		-20	
Errors, double counting, removing PRP I farmers		+1	
Revised	17	-38	-2.2
Small Livestock			
Original BCA	17	45	2.7
Benefits from expanded herd size		+20	
Sustained poultry/rabbits		+28	
Revised	17	93	5.6
Gardens			
Original BCA	7	18	2.6
Sustained benefits		+17	
Revised	7	35	5.1
WASH			
Original BCA	18	114	6.2
No revisions			
Revised	18.4	113.6	6.2

Overall BCA			
Original BCA from above	119	327	2.8
Add all PRP II costs not included above	23		
Original BCA, with all costs	142	327	2.3
Combined changes above	0	-24	
Revised overall BCA with 12% discount rate	142	303	2.1
Discount rate at 5%	+30	+180	
Revised overall BCA with 5% discount rate	172	483	2.8

Notes: costs and benefits are the discounted sum of all values over 25 years. A discount rate of 12% is assumed, although the final element of the sensitivity analysis considers the implications of reducing this to 5%.

The PRP Value for Money Exercise

The VfM exercise explored what could be achieved with the evidence gained by the LIME reports. The unit cost of latrines was estimated as an example and was compared with a reference cost based on the ‘typical’ expected unit construction costs. This analysis suggested that actual costs were about four times higher than the reference cost. This is largely explained by the fact that about two thirds of the PRP costs for latrines were accounted for by overheads at central and IP level, including field staff, management, M&E and coordination. These overhead costs are unavoidable for targeted rural programmes and, whilst comparative evidence from similar programmes is not available, subjective past experience suggests that the PRP overheads were not much higher than in other similar programmes. Most rural development programmes funded by development banks include costs for Project Management Units that will account for between 5% to 10% of the total costs, which is roughly equivalent to the GRM costs. But GRM were also undertaking some of the work that would be done within the development bank, including financing costs. A review of agency costs by Brookings Global in 2008 showed that the overhead costs of aid agencies was 7% for bilateral agencies and between 7% and 15% of Development Banks. DFID’s administration budget was 5% of total DFID ODA. In addition to the overall management, rural development projects would normally have substantial technical assistance (both international and national) to support government activities for each component of the project and these would add a further 5% to 10%. When the work involves substantial community participation, the costs tend to be much higher. Finally, most rural development projects would be able to rely on government officials to deliver much of the work in the field. The costs of this are typically included in the government contribution to the costs of the project, which typically amount to 5%. These costs are based on government salaries which will be a fraction of the salaries paid by the PRP IPs.

The indicators of achievement against logframe targets provide evidence of changes in the economic well-being of PRP households. The PRP has deliberately avoided reporting the income levels involved in graduation, in order to focus on the wider dimensions of poverty that are captured in the process of defining thresholds. However, the PRP did also use two other households classification systems: an earlier income-based system (very poor/poor/middle/better off); and the government’s wealth groups (A/B1/B2/C). Some evidence is provided in PRP reports on the incomes of these groups. This evidence is not definitive, but a rough average of the various reference would suggest that the incomes of A, B1, B2 and C groups is \$150, \$250, \$800 and \$1200, respectively. The wealth groups are roughly aligned with the thresholds, but they are not directly equivalent as households can graduate more easily than they can move between wealth groups, because it takes some years for incomes to be converted into assets. However, if the wealth group incomes also applied to the thresholds, then the total increased income involved in the graduation of 370,000 PRP beneficiary households would be about \$180m.

Similarly high estimates are obtained from output indicator 1.2 which suggests that PRP households increased annual incomes by \$365 over the life of the PRP (up from \$103 in Y1 to \$468 in Y4), suggesting an increase in the total annual incomes of all 372,000 PRP households of \$136m per year. These high levels of benefits would appear to be much higher than could reasonably be expected to

arise from a programme that spent \$158m in total, especially because the most dramatic improvements took place in Y4, which was affected by drought. The high benefits could be influenced if there was a difference in the proportion of LIME households that received inputs and the proportion of PRP households. Whilst the selection of LIME and PRP households was separate, and IPs were asked not to give preference to LIME households, the LIME households were amongst the most obvious target households and so ended up receiving more inputs. They could also be caused by the general economic recovery arising from improved economic conditions. Thus, they cannot be used to provide a direct estimation of VfM, but they do tend to suggest that the PRP produced substantial benefits.

Commercial Improvement and Value for Money

According to GRM, they reviewed the unit costs used by IPs in their proposals and any unit costs that were markedly above norms were questioned. If a suitable explanation was not provided, then IPs were asked to amend their unit costs and, if this was not possible, the proposals were rejected. No record was kept of this activity and so it is impossible to report on the variation in unit costs and whether this was justified by variations in circumstances in different PRP areas.

The direct provision of crop inputs and livestock in the first three years of the PRP may have harmed the emergence of rural markets. However, it was necessary because the economic conditions meant that market activity was almost non-existent in most of the PRP areas. Any harm done by direct distribution was reversed with the switch from direct distribution through implementing partners to vouchers and supply of inputs through local agro-dealers. This was timely and supported the re-emergence of rural markets and the use of open vouchers in the last year was a further boost to rural markets.

The situation with livestock markets was more complicated because, unlike crop inputs, livestock was being purchased by some farmers in the PRP areas, mainly using vouchers at livestock fairs, as well as being supplied by other farmers. There is some evidence that the high level of PRP purchases has led to a temporary increase in the price of small livestock. Whilst this will have benefits for existing livestock farmers, there are reports that it undermined efforts to promote the consumption of goat meat in urban areas. In general, there seems to have been limited attention given by the PRP to promoting an understanding amongst PRP households of the likelihood that the prices for small livestock products may be quite volatile and that successful livestock farming requires farmers to take long term perspectives that accept losses in years of low prices, more than offset by substantial gains in good years. However, many households will have an instinctive understanding of this, because of the strong cattle rearing culture in Zimbabwe.

Role of project partners

Quarterly Reports were produced by IPs and GRM monitored these in detail and responded individually, picking up any major concerns. No comparative review has been undertaken by the PRP on the relative performance of IPs, although the compliance scores provides some aggregate evidence of this. The PCR has not reviewed these IP Quarterly Reports. Some output indicators are provided in the IP Completion Reports and these can be compared with the figures for Y4 expenditure on the related activities to assess the relative performance of different IPs. However, this analysis is problematic because the coverage of outputs is patchy and is not consistent across IPs and it is sometimes not clear whether the IPs refer to cumulative outputs for the whole of the PRP II period or to outputs achieved in Y4 and expenditure data on activities is only available for Y4.

The following figures exclude overhead costs for IPs or central management. Output data is taken from the IP Completion Reports and expenditure data is from the Y4 accounts. Expenditure for conservation agriculture was between 10 and 25 \$/household for most IPs, but was only about 1 \$/household for two of the IPs. For livestock, the support was between 150 and 200 \$/household for most IPs, reflecting the average \$160 value of vouchers, but increased to over 500 \$/household for

one IP that focused on animal health and marketing. For new water points, costs varied from 5400 to 10000 \$/water point and for rehabilitation costs varied from about 800 to 1500 \$/water point. Household latrines cost between 70 and 110 \$/latrine, while for community latrines costs varied from 100 to 250 \$/latrine, reflecting the wider range of circumstances. Expenditure on cash transfer varied from 200 to 300 \$/household for most IPs, but was nearly 500 for one IP. There are few obvious patterns in the figures of IP performance.

There is some suggestion that several IPs are consistently more expensive than others, but more detailed analysis would be required to assess the reasons for this. There was some flexibility in the way IPs were able to approach their activities, which makes it difficult to compare them. However, this would be a useful task as it should reveal which approaches were most effective, as well as which IPs were most effective.

Annex 7: DFID Financial information

DFID provided the following notes in regards to the this financial information:

1. The donor commitments in year 1 do not reflect the costs of inputs that were channelled through CA hence difference in commitments and expenditure.

2. The donor commitments in the BCA where not actual funds received as exchange rates had an effect.

3. Any remaining committed funds where carried over to the next year to reflect only actual expenditure in the financial reports. The BCA was however not adjusted accordingly this will also explain the difference in year 4 consolidated figures and the BCA figure.

4. Under the year 3 donor commitments an amount of £1.3 million had been left out due to an addition error.

PRP Financial Data (GRM, Ips, CA, inputs all included)						
	Donor Name	Year 1 (July 2008 - June 2009)	Year 2 (July 2009 - June 2010)	Year 3 (July 2010 - June 2011)	Total Y1 to Y3	Year 4 (July 2011 - Nov 2012)
Committed	DFID	£ 9,453,416.64	£ 9,697,975.69	£ 11,737,559.29	£ 30,888,951.61	£ 12,781,704.45
	AusAID		£ 1,015,167.18	£ 5,678,329.51	£ 6,693,496.69	£ 9,854,800.00
	Norwegian		£ 2,385,488.18	£ -	£ 2,385,488.18	£ -
	Danish		£ 2,938,233.26	£ 3,174,876.42	£ 6,113,109.68	£ 3,539,494.33
	Netherlands		£ 3,333,321.00	£ 1,035,780.00	£ 4,369,101.00	£ 2,033,898.00
	Sub Total	£ 9,453,416.64	£ 19,370,185.31	£ 21,626,545.22	£ 50,450,147.17	£ 28,209,896.78
	EC	£ -	£ -	£ 1,319,746.57	£ 1,319,746.57	£ 2,401,101.92
	World Bank	£ -	£ 3,296,056.57	£ 4,055,651.85	£ 7,351,708.42	£ 185,879.41
	Total Budgeted	£ 9,453,416.64	£ 22,666,241.88	£ 27,001,943.64	£ 59,121,602.16	£ 30,796,878.11
	Expenditure	Financial reports	£ 8,716,998.87	£ 10,955,409.20	£ 14,086,340.10	£ 33,758,748.17
GRM expenses only		£ 581,497.55	£ 585,930.44	£ 1,464,826.10	£ 2,632,254.08	
CA + Inputs		£ 3,000,000.00	£ 7,457,056.00	£ 5,861,474.90	£ 16,318,530.90	
sub-total		£ 12,298,496.42	£ 18,998,395.64	£ 21,412,641.10	£ 52,709,533.16	£ 27,718,546.00
EC		£ -	£ -	£ 1,319,746.57	£ 1,319,746.57	£ 2,401,101.92
World Bank		£ -	£ 3,296,056.57	£ 4,055,651.85	£ 7,351,708.42	£ 185,879.41
Consolidated PRP figures	£ 12,298,496.42	£ 22,294,452.21	£ 26,788,039.52	£ 61,380,988.15	£ 30,305,527.33	
BCA	BCA Figures	£ 12,922,910.00	£ 24,181,306.00	£ 33,603,352.00	£ 70,707,568.00	£ 28,004,237.00
	differences between BCA and Financial reports	£ 624,413.58	£ 1,886,853.79	£ 6,815,312.48		£ 2,301,290.33
			Assumption			
			Exchange rate			
			£/\$=1:1.55			
			£/€=1:1.24			