

USAID Evaluation News

A Newsletter on Recent Evaluation Findings and Methods

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Development Experience Review

Investments In Agriculture

Private Sector Relies On Good Policies, Public Goods To Be Effective

by Donald G. McClelland, CDIE

USAID has invested substantial resources to support agricultural development in developing countries during the past 30 years (and more).

During six years in the 1980s, annual investments in agriculture exceeded \$1 billion. Even in the early 1990s, investments in agriculture exceeded \$500 million a year, until



Unless agriculture is profitable, farmers like this woman will not produce surplus food for the marketplace; they will produce only enough for subsistence.

fiscal year 1994, when they slid to \$418 million. It is probably accurate to say that, historically, no component of U.S. foreign economic assistance has been larger than the agriculture program.

"Agriculture" is interpreted broadly in the Foreign Assistance Act. It comprises five basic elements, and over the years USAID has provided resources to support and strengthen each of them. They are

- An economic *policy framework* conducive to agricultural growth
- Agricultural *technology* applicable to particular soil, water, and climatic conditions
- Roads and related *rural infrastructure*
- Credit and other *agricultural services*
- Secure *tenure arrangements* to encourage investment in land and other agricultural assets

During 1993–94, USAID's Center for Development Information and Evaluation reviewed the evaluation literature to find out the conditions under

which investments in these areas had been successful—and unsuccessful.

The desk study examined the relative importance of alternative investments in agriculture (questioning "what to do") and the most appropriate entities to undertake such investments (questioning "who should do it").

Findings

Experience suggests that successful agricultural development must rely primarily on the market and that most investment decisions will have to be made by the private sector. However, as pointed out by the findings, the public sector must provide the enabling policy environment and essential "public goods" to allow the private sector to operate effectively.

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What To Do?

- *There is a preferred sequencing of investments in agriculture.*

The first priority is to develop an environment in which agriculture will function. Of greatest importance are economic policies that affect agriculture, directly or indirectly. Farmers must have an opportunity to make a profit, and the economic policy environment must not distort this opportunity.

If a threshold level of proper policies is not in place, it is seldom worthwhile for donors to support any other investments in agriculture. Nor is it worthwhile for farmers to take risks and use new technologies to increase production beyond subsistence levels.

The evaluation literature does not suggest an optimal sequence for investing in agricultural technology relative to rural infrastructure. Investments in both work synergistically if the proper policy environment is in place.

High-yielding technology must be available to promote growth, especially when it is no longer possible to expand acreage. At the same time, agriculture cannot perform well without some rudimentary infrastructure.

Many agricultural services projects have failed, usually because countries were pursuing economic policies heavily biased against agriculture. Credit projects have run into difficulty because there was an inadequate supply of good technology for farmers to adopt.

And there is little value in supplying credit (or modern inputs) if there are no roads for farmers to use to acquire inputs and transport the harvest to market.

Investments to improve land distribution and secure tenure are typically motivated by political, not economic, objectives. Nevertheless, such investments still have economic effects, positive or negative, intended or unintended. The effects are more likely to be positive if a package of ancillary services is already in place. In this sense, investments to improve access to land should support agricultural development, not initiate the process.

- *Investments in agriculture have been most successful when they removed a bottleneck or when existing conditions favored progressive change.*

Nonproject assistance has been most successful when used to support an ongoing program of policy change. It has been less successful when it has been used to "buy" reforms to which the government is not committed.

The most successful policy analysis projects have occurred in countries where a) advisers had access to senior

government decision-makers, b) advisers were assigned appropriate counterparts, c) counterparts had incentives to remain with the analysis units, and d) adequate funding and supplies were available.

By contrast, countries uncommitted to reform have had little use for even the most cogent of analyses produced by such projects.

Investments in agricultural technology and diffusion generate high economic returns. The social benefits from such investments justify the costs in a wide variety of countries, for a wide

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variety of commodities, and under a wide variety of conditions. Moreover, most countries have not achieved sustained economic growth without transforming their agriculture, which typically requires improved biological and mechanical technology.

Investments in rural infrastructure are costly, and existing infrastructure is often poorly maintained. As a result, resources tend to be allocated to infrastructure development only when pressure for services is felt within the political system.

When this occurs, decisions on how much to allocate to infrastructure relative to other activities are typically a matter of judgment; no prescriptions emerge from the evaluation literature.

As with policy reform, few studies have measured the economic rate of return to investments in agricultural services. This is largely because of the difficulty of measuring the return to investments that, by their nature, do not directly increase agricultural output. Instead, they create an enabling environment to encourage use of directly productive inputs such as improved seeds and fertilizers.

Similarly, cost-benefit analyses have not been undertaken for investments that encourage more equitable distribution of, and secure access to, land and other agricultural assets.

However, the literature does identify two costs of *not* investing in this area. First are economic costs associated with maintaining an agrarian structure characterized by high efficiency losses, low profitability, and few incentives to invest in physical and human capital.

Second are social costs manifested by peasant uprisings, civil war, and protracted and violent struggles.

Who Should Do It?

- *Government should become involved in a particular investment only if it raises real national income more than would be the case without public sector involvement.*

It is logical for the public sector to invest in developing agricultural technology and rural infrastructure.

These investments normally have the characteristics of public goods; it is difficult for private providers to recover their costs. However, the cost of using the services made possible by rural infrastructure, including its operation and maintenance (as distinct from the infrastructure itself) should be paid by users, not by government or donors.

In like manner, it is logical that the public sector has been the recipient of most donor assis-

tance designed to support economic policy reform and planning as well as improved asset distribution and access, since it is the responsibility of governments to take decisions in these areas.

Conversely, the private sector can be expected to invest in agricultural services when it is profitable to do so, obviating the need for public sector involvement.

- *The evaluation literature is generally silent about which entities are best suited to implement which agricultural activities, or if the United States has a comparative advantage in providing assistance in one or more of the five subsectors.*

Donors often provide the analytical underpinning for policy reform, and the United States may have an advantage over other bilateral

"Farmers must have an opportunity to make a profit, and the economic policy environment must not distort this opportunity."

donors in providing such assistance, but governments actually implement such reforms.

Although U.S. land-grant universities are well positioned to implement agricultural research programs, there is no empirical evidence the United States enjoys an advantage in providing assistance in technology development—even though U.S. agriculture is among the most productive in the world. Conventional wisdom suggests private contractors are best suited to carry out infrastructure activities, but again there is no empirical evidence one way or the other.

Donors with relatively plentiful resources would seem to be in the best financial position to underwrite big-ticket capital projects in rural infrastructure.

As for financial and agricultural services, the United States has a large pool of analytical talent to study problems in these areas, but private commercial banks and private firms have a better track record than specialized development banks and government agencies in actually delivering such services.

Similarly, international donors, including the United States, can provide advice about programs to improve access to land, but they have little influence over whether such programs are introduced.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Two overarching conclusions emerge from the evaluation literature.

- First, a country's predisposition to agricultural development is important for success—whether or not this predisposition is linked to donor investments. In countries where agriculture cannot be profitable because of an adverse economic policy environment, USAID should invest reluctantly, if at all, in agricultural development.

- Second, the main bottlenecks binding agricultural growth are *most* likely to be inadequate policies, technologies, and infrastructure; they are *least* likely to be agricultural services and asset distribution. USAID should concentrate its investments on priority areas to alleviate the *binding* constraints (not all constraints) to agricultural growth.

Once USAID has determined it makes sense to invest in agricultural development, the following recommendations merit consideration:

1 *Policy reform and planning.*

Provide nonproject assistance to support economic policy reform only in countries where it will be used to facilitate reforms already initiated.

2 *Technology development and diffusion.*

Invest in development of new agricultural technologies and support maintenance research necessary to sustain existing yield levels.

3 *Rural infrastructure.*

Consider investing in new rural infrastructure, and if justified by economic analysis, in maintaining existing infrastructure as well.

4 *Agricultural services.*

Advise developing countries on how best to establish input distribution systems, strengthen financial services, support marketing and storage activities, and develop price information systems. However, actual investments in agricultural services are best left to the private sector.

5 *Asset distribution and access.*

Advise governments on how best to implement titling schemes, public land value surveys, land reforms, and other activities designed to improve access to agricultural assets. However, most investments in this area are best left to the indigenous public sector.

Agriculture and the Environment

Farmers Need Simple Technology, Secure Tenure, and Fast Payback

by Donald G. McClelland, CDIE

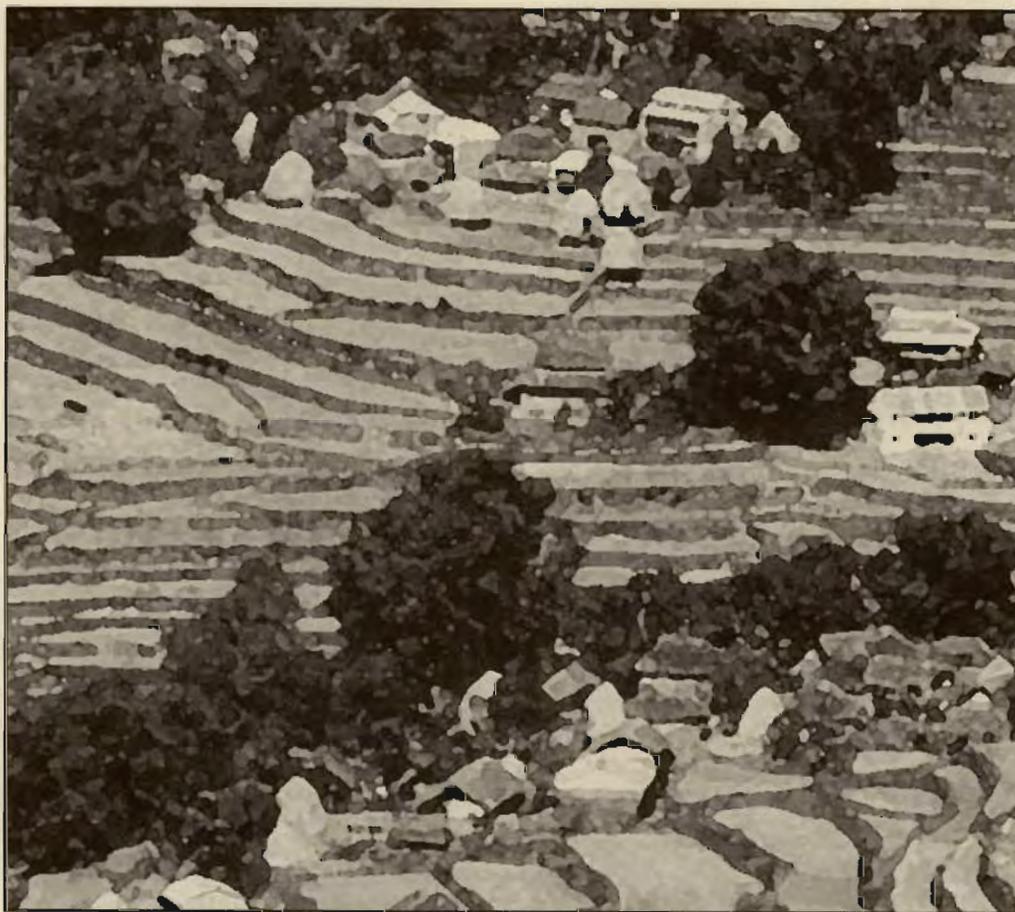
Land degradation looms as a global problem. Between 1975 and the year 2000 the world will have lost 22 percent of its high-potential agricultural land, an area equal in size to Alaska.

The loss is alarming, because as population pressures mount, farmers will have to expand onto medium- and low-potential lands. Such lands are both less productive and more fragile and susceptible to degradation.

Although worldwide trends in soil degradation are clear, specific actions needed to halt or reverse those trends are not. They vary among regions, because biophysical characteristics of land degradation vary. In addition, they depend on the social and economic circumstances under which farmers operate. These are as important as, and often more complex than, the biophysical problems they face.

In 1993–94 USAID's Center for Development Information and Evaluation assessed the Agency's activities in sustainable agricul-

ture—agriculture that conserves and enhances rather than depletes natural resources. Evaluation teams examined programs in the Gambia, Jamaica, Mali, Nepal, and the Philippines.



Terracing is one time-tested remedy farmers use to halt and reverse soil degradation on steep hillsides.

In all five countries, USAID programs have supported activities to improve environmental education and awareness, provide training and strengthen institutions, and encourage appropriate policies. The keystone of the Agency's programs, though, has been the introduction of technologies.

Technological Change

A broad range of soil and water conservation technologies is available "on the shelf," and USAID has introduced many of them in the case-study countries.

Saltwater barriers and water retention dams, introduced in the **Gambia**, were highly successful. They permitted uncultivable land to be brought back into production to grow a crop (rice) that was particularly important to the community. Less readily embraced were terraces, contour plowing, and grass waterways in upland areas. They resulted in smaller yield increases, and the payoff materialized only over 5 to 10 years.

Rock lines in **Mali** also were a successful technology. The concept was easy to understand, the technology was easy to learn, and farmers saw a rapid yield response in the first season after investing their labor to construct the rock lines. By contrast, stabling livestock and developing manure pits was less successful and adoption less widespread.

Two quite different conservation technologies were introduced in **Jamaica** under two different projects. Constructing terraces with heavy equipment was expensive, complex, and clearly inappropriate. In contrast, planting perennial trees using manual labor has been relatively inexpensive, simple, and familiar to most farmers.

In the **Philippines**, sloping agricultural lands technology, which involves cultivating agroforestry hedgerows along hillside contours, has enabled farmers to produce crops without damaging the natural resource base. The hedgerows (between which lie "alleyways" planted in crops) helped stop soil erosion and improve soil fertility on the steep slopes of the nation's uplands.

In **Nepal** no single technology was adopted widely, probably because improved practices (composting, tree planting, gully erosion control, and stall-feeding of livestock) did not generate large economic benefits. They did, however, contribute modestly to increased yields as well as reduced erosion.

Impact and Effectiveness

In most cases the techniques worked well and brought predictable results. The key was getting farmers to implement them.

In addition to doing the job, the improved technology had to provide an economic benefit, usually one with a short-term payoff. Farmers took up technologies not to avoid potential long-term negative effects of soil erosion but to achieve short-term economic benefits.

In the **Gambia**, rice yields increased by 108 percent within one or two seasons after conservation structures were built. The structures protect 15 percent of lowland rice-growing areas from salinization and 1 percent of upland farming areas. From 1983-84 to 1992-93,

140 villages and 30,000 people were positively affected. Because women are the rice growers in the **Gambia**, they were the primary beneficiaries.

Only 2 percent of the land in **Mali** is arable, and this is where the program directed its efforts. Millet and sorghum yields increased by at least 10 percent in fields where rock lines were constructed. The structures decreased soil surface erosion, increased water retention, and improved the buildup of soil cover.

"Farmers took up conservation technologies not to avoid potential long-term negative effects of soil erosion but to achieve short-term economic benefits."

In Jamaica, more than one million coffee and cocoa trees were planted and more than two million trees resuscitated on nearly 7,000 acres of highly erodible steep hillsides. Coffee production increased from less than 20 boxes to almost 30 boxes an acre, and cocoa production increased from 8–10 boxes to about 30 boxes an acre. USAID did not deliberately attempt to reach the smallest, or poorest, farmers, and instead selected young, dedicated farmers who had secure land tenure.

In the Philippines, USAID targeted impoverished rural households and ethnic groups living in one of the poorest regions of the country. Because the sloping agricultural lands technology requires only small amounts of money, virtually any farmer with land could participate. Those who did realized yield increases of 300 percent after several years of cultivation. The technology increased terrace formation as well as helped stabilize the soil.

In Nepal, farmers used multipurpose trees and fodder grasses and legumes to stabilize steep slopes. Improved water management enabled farmers to increase yields. The program targeted those with a predominant role in agriculture, which tended to be women.

Replicability and Sustainability

Each of the five programs was meant to serve as a model that could be extended broadly throughout the host country. Replication was made easier because the technologies were simple, worked well, and did not require a large investment. Nevertheless, significant program expansion occurred only in the Gambia.

In most instances, the model was applied to a much smaller area than intended, and the cost per unit of land was relatively high. As a result, benefits of the programs generally fell short of costs.

Conservation structures, when installed, should cover fairly large areas, usually most

of an entire watershed. This requires villages to organize farmers working adjacent fields.

In addition, institutions such as nongovernmental organizations, government extension services, or the private sector must be in place to train farmers in the use of new technologies and to supply agricultural services and inputs associated with the new technologies. Therein lies the weak link in these programs. Institutions necessary to sustain and promote the soil and water conservation programs were generally inadequate.

Recommendations

Four recommendations emerge from the evaluation:

1 *Demonstrate economic benefits.*

Introduce conservation technologies that yield significant economic (as well as environmental) benefits in a relatively short time.

2 *Use simple technology.*

Introduce conservation technologies that a) are simple and easy to maintain, b) place minimal demands on labor, c) require few changes in existing practices, and d) are relatively inexpensive.

3 *Support local institutions.*

Support and strengthen local institutions and organizations that supply inputs, technical advice, and markets to help ensure the sustainability of conservation programs.

4 *Ensure secure tenure.*

Support soil and water conservation programs only when intended beneficiaries have secure access to land.

Local Involvement Sustains Forests

by Ross Bankson

One of the alarming realities of the late 20th century is the loss of forest cover in many parts of the world. A recent UN study found that the area of tropical forest decreased by an average of 0.8 percent a year from 1980 through 1990. In real terms, that represents a decline to 6,795,500 square miles from 7,374,500. Similar shortfalls are felt in other types of forests as well (see figure below). USAID fosters sustainable local stewardship of forests as part of its strategy to reduce threats to the global environment—in particular, possible climate change and loss of biological diversity.

To promote local stewardship, the Agency has been funding farm and community forestry (sometimes called social forestry) since the early 1970s. The effort uses four strategies: building institutional capacity, introducing appropriate practices, improving education and awareness, and reforming natural resource policies.

Worldwide, most international funding for farm and community forestry has a history of less than 15 years. Only a few projects have been in place long enough to complete a full cycle of activities. Yet experience has been accumulating rapidly, and a recent CDIE evaluation, *Forestry and the Environment: An Assessment of USAID support for Forest Stewardship*, examines progress thus far. The report, by Phillip Church, a CDIE economist, and Jan Laarman, of North Carolina State University, looks at selected projects in Costa Rica, the Gambia, Mali, Nepal, Pakistan, and the Philippines.

The six case-study projects have explicit objectives of increasing local involvement in sustainable management and use of forests by introducing or strengthening national farm- and community-forestry programs. The evaluation finds that in four

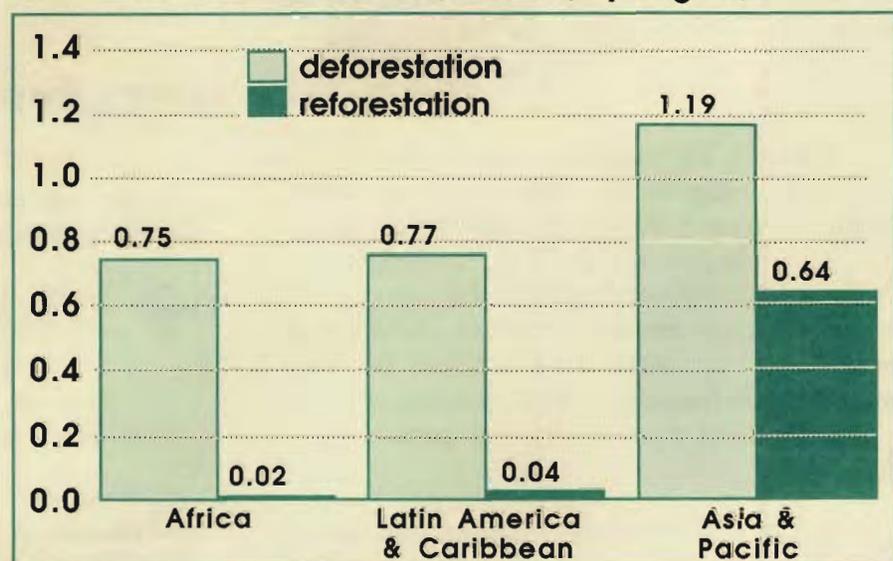
of the countries, USAID contributed directly to getting trees into the ground and keeping them there. (In the two exceptions, Mali and the Gambia, climatic conditions and government incapacity hindered progress.)

Overall, the evaluators observe, local groups and communities have shown willingness and ability to manage forest resources—resources on which they depend for a livelihood—in a sustainable fashion. They find too that governments are beginning to turn to local stewardship to extend the reach of public agencies faced with limited capacity and funds. The findings suggest, however, that the shift to local organizations requires extensive retraining and reorienting of government forestry staff to promote forestry management rather than police against forest encroachment.

Findings

Projects work best when participants have a say in the choice of forestry activities and techniques. "Cookbook" approaches—step-by-step prescriptions of how to manage forests—

Percent Annual Deforestation and Reforestation Rates (1981–90, by Region)



Source: FAO, 1993. Forest Resources Assessment 1990

had a cool reception. At the outset of programs in the Gambia, Mali, and the Philippines, project implementers attempted to introduce outside rules for forest stewardship. They later recognized that adoption accelerated when participants were given more freedom to adapt practices to their own concepts of what should be done. Not surprisingly, the evaluators found that local forest stewardship spreads best when it is linked directly to livelihood activities that produce economic benefits.

For example, the more sustainable forestry interventions have linked forest management with sustainable agriculture. The combination enhances benefits in the form of jobs, income, and food security—not just access to timber products. In contrast, programs with single goals—say, village wood lots for fuelwood alone—have proven neither profitable nor sustainable.

Women, specifically, have benefited from four of the projects. Women have the major responsibility for harvesting fuelwood for cooking and branches and leaves for livestock fodder. Deforestation can increase the time women must spend to collect fuelwood and fodder and thus decrease the time they devote to child care, food preparation—and leisure.

Three of the projects have also generated income for women. In Costa Rica, Mali, and Nepal, women have found employment in nurseries and through planting seedlings. In Pakistan cultural barriers limit the role of women in most forestry activities. However, a program set up under the USAID project to train women forestry extension workers promises to broaden women's income-generating activities.

Contract forestry has been an effective tool in promoting environmentally responsive forest

management. In Costa Rica, tree harvesting must follow strict environmental practices or be subject to fines. In the Philippines, local groups and individuals receive certificates of stewardship that allow access to public forests for up to 25 years if agreed-on management and use practices are followed. Overall, evaluators

observed, local groups are willing and able to manage forest resources in a sustainable fashion. They depend on those resources for their livelihood.

Use of subsidies got mixed reviews. All the projects provided subsidized tree seedlings. The evaluators found that the subsidies discouraged expansion of private tree nurseries beyond those supported by the projects. New nursery operators simply could not compete with seedlings sold at subsidized prices or distributed without cost through project programs. A major issue has been deciding

when to discontinue distributing subsidized seedlings to improve the climate for private nurseries as a measure to increase project efficiency and spread project benefits.

"The shift to local organizations requires extensive retraining and reorienting of government forestry staff to promote forestry management rather than police against forest encroachment."

Recommendations

Several recommendations emerged from the evaluation. Among them:

➔ *Budget sufficient time and resources to introduce farm and community forestry, particularly when institutional capacity needs building and natural resources policies need reform.*

Social forestry programs require considerable effort over a period of years to set up new government structures, erode bureaucratic

resistance, organize local groups, and overcome skepticism among farmers and communities. Resources carefully used over a longer period of time may be more effective at changing government attitudes and public policies than a large splash of resources budgeted once to "buy" reform.

➔ *Structure programs in farm and community forestry so they allocate costs and benefits in a balanced way among participants and over time.*

Private ventures in sustainable forest use offer scope for generating early benefits for local participants—in timber products, of course, but also in such ventures as nuts, honey, rattan, and tree nurseries.

USAID also can foster service enterprises in reforestation, restoration of remaining old-growth forests, and operation of tourist concessions. Such ventures enhance public awareness of

the economic value of forest resources and generate immediate incomes for local communities.

➔ *Foster government partnerships with local communities and nongovernmental organizations to help public agencies extend the reach of farm- and community-forestry programs.*

The Agency should take care to identify and involve NGOs with needed skills in community organization, financial management, and forest management techniques.

➔ *Coordinate program resources to ensure effectiveness of Agency efforts at fostering forest stewardship.*

USAID can use its forestry program funds most effectively when they are coordinated with other Agency programs—for example, micro-enterprise programs and programs aimed at policy reform.

News

New Evaluation IQCs Available To USAID Units

Six new indefinite quantity contracts (IQCs) will help USAID operating units with strategic planning, performance monitoring, and evaluating development policies, programs, and projects. The new IQCs have an advantage over past IQCs in that they are no longer limited to 90 days. Contractors may provide services in the United States or overseas. Moreover, CDIE is changing the management of the IQCs to ensure 1) that all contractors implementing work orders for operating units throughout the Agency carry consistent messages to the field and 2) that a "learning loop" is established to share the results of each work

order across USAID units and across IQC contractors. This should broaden dissemination of substantive learning and promote correction or clarification of policies.

The IQC firms selected offer methodological expertise in data collection and analysis, strategic planning, performance measurement, evaluation, development information systems, and reengineering practices that cut across sectors. Some examples of tasks that might be performed under the IQCs include

- Designing and implementing systems for strategic planning, performance measurement, and evaluation of USAID or host government policies, programs, or activities
- Designing or conducting data collection and analysis, especially rapid and low-cost techniques

- Planning or conducting evaluations of USAID strategies, programs, or activities
- Preparing evaluation syntheses and development experience reviews
- Participating in centrally managed strategic planning, performance measurement, and impact evaluation studies
- Developing, implementing, and disseminating improved methods for strategic planning, performance measurement, evaluation, development information, and reengineering activities.

Contractor Firms

The six firms awarded IQC contracts for strategic planning, performance measurement, and evaluation services are listed below, with each firm's point of contact. They may be contacted directly about available IQC services. For additional information, contact Michael Gushue (M/OP). The contracting officer's technical representative for administration of these IQCs is Lois Godiksen, PPC/CDIE/PME.

1

AEP-0085-I-00-6016-00
Tropical Research and Development Inc.
7001 S.W. 24th Avenue
Gainesville, Florida 32607

Project manager: Letitia Solaun
Tel: 352-331-1886; **fax:** 352-331-3284
E-mail: ls@trd.com

2

AEP-0085-I-00-6017-00
International Science and
Technology Institute, Inc.
(IQC partner: TRG)
1655 North Fort Myer Drive, Suite 300
Arlington, Virginia 22209

Project manager: Bechir Rassas
Tel: (703) 807-2080; **fax:** (703) 807-1126
E-mail: brassas@istiinc.com

3

AEP-0085-I-00-6018-00
Management Systems International
600 Water Street S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20024

Project manager: Roberta Warren
Tel: (202) 484-7170; **fax:** (202) 488-0754
E-mail: rwarren@msi-inc.com

4

AEP-0085-I-00-6019-00
Checchi and Company Consulting Inc.
(IQC partner: LBII)
1899 L Street N.W., Suite 800
Washington, D.C. 20036

Project manager: David Harbin
Tel: (202) 452-9700; **fax:** (202) 466-9070
E-mail: 73203.373@compuserve.com

5

AEP-0085-I-00-6020-00
TvT Associates, Inc.
1611 N. Kent Street, Suite 905
Arlington, Virginia 22209

Project manager: William Millsap
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E-mail: tvt@tvassoc.com

6

AEP-0085-I-00-6021-00
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(IQC partner: SECID)
1816 11th Street N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20001-5015

Project manager: Andrew Simpson
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E-mail: simpsona@erols.com

New Series Provides Performance Monitoring and Evaluation 'Tips'

by Annette Binnendijk

CDIE last year launched Performance Monitoring and Evaluation *Tips*, a series designed to help USAID managers implement the reengineering guidance. The *Tips* provide advice, suggestions, and clarifications on planning and conducting performance monitoring and evaluation. They are supplementary references for the Automated Directives System., chapter 203.

Information in the *Tips* is based on the Agency's best-practices experiences, lessons learned from other agencies, and state-of-the-art literature on performance monitoring and evaluation.

Each *Tips* is typically four pages, in an easy-to-read format. Geared to the generalist manager, the style is practical and nontechnical.

Eleven *Tips* are now available:

- 1 *Conducting a Participatory Evaluation.* Introduces participatory evaluation and how it differs from traditional evaluation; discusses advantages and limitations; provides step-by-step advice on conducting a participatory evaluation. (Order number: PN-ABS-539)
- 2 *Conducting Key Informant Interviews.* Outlines what key informant interviews are and when they are most appropriate; gives advantages and limitations; summarizes steps in conducting the interviews. (PN-ABS-541)

- 3 *Preparing an Evaluation Scope of Work.* Offers suggestions for preparing a good evaluation scope of work. (PN-ABY-207)

- 4 *Using Direct Observation Techniques.* Summarizes direct observation methods and when they are appropriate; discusses advantages and limitations; summarizes steps involved and gives an example of its use. (PN-ABY-208)

- 5 *Using Rapid Appraisal Methods.* Addresses how rapid appraisal methods differ from more formal methods; reviews strengths and weaknesses; indicates when they are most appropriate; provides a summary matrix of five of the most common methods. (PN-ABY-209)

- 6 *Selecting Performance Indicators.* Discusses performance indicators and their importance for monitoring performance; summarizes

requirements under reengineering; provides steps and criteria for selecting performance indicators. (PN-ABY-214)

- 7 *Preparing a Performance Monitoring Plan.* Discusses what they are and why they are important; identifies elements to consider in a performance monitoring plan. (PN-ABY-215)

- 8 *Establishing Performance Targets.* Defines performance targets and discusses their importance; covers types of information and approaches useful for setting targets. (PN-ABY-226)

CDIE Welcomes Feedback

We are interested in your thoughts on Performance Monitoring and Evaluation *Tips*. If you've read any, were they useful, and in what way? How about format and length? Do you think the series should be continued, and if so, what other topics should be addressed?

Please send your comments to Annette Binnendijk, CDIE Senior Evaluation Adviser, via fax (703) 875-4866, or email (Internet address: abinnendijk@usaid.gov).

9 *Conducting Customer Service Assessments.* Discusses customer service assessments, when they should be conducted, and by whom; clarifies how they differ from performance monitoring and evaluation; outlines steps in conducting a customer service assessment. (PN-ABY-227)

10 *Conducting Focus Group Interviews.* Summarizes focus group interviews, their advantages and limitations, and when they are most useful. Provides steps in conducting these interviews. (PN-ABY-233)

11 *The Role of Evaluation in USAID.* Addresses questions about the new role of evaluation under reengineering. Provides operating units with practical steps for planning and conducting an evaluation. (PN-ABY-239)

How to order

Tips can be ordered from the Development Experience Clearinghouse by calling (703) 351-4006, faxing (703) 351-4039, or sending a Banyan email message to cdie_connection@cdie.rrs@aidw.

To order through the Internet, address requests to docorder@disc.mhs.compuserve.com. Please refer to the PN number, and specify if you want electronic format or paper.

Alternatively, you can request to be put on the distribution list for all documents in the *Tips* series as they become available.

Staff with access to Internet can also access the *Tips* electronically from the Agency's internal Website. Start by accessing the Internet address www.usaid.gov.

From the Agency's corporate Web home page, click on the button CDIE ONLINE. To access *Tips*, click on CDIE NEWSLETTERS, SHORT REPORTS, AND BIBLIOGRAPHIES from the CDIE On-Line home page.

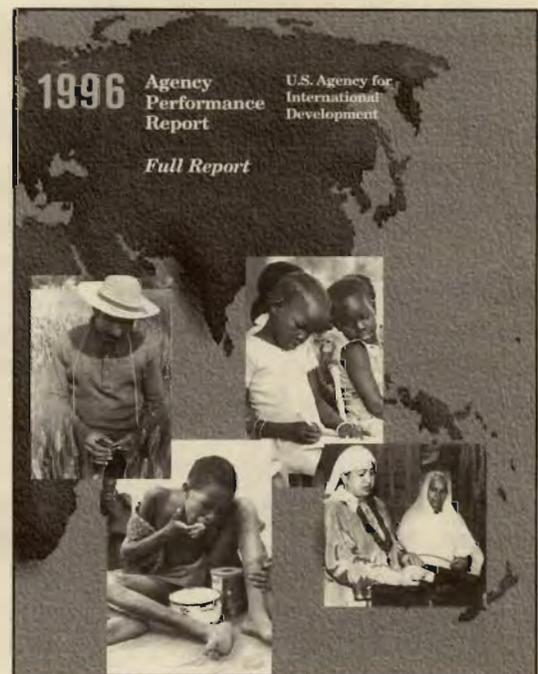
Those outside the Agency who have access to the Internet can get the *Tips* electronically at the USAID Internet website: www.info.usaid.gov.

From the USAID home page, click on the PUBLICATIONS button. Then select "USAID Evaluation Publications." From the Table of Contents, look for "Performance Monitoring and Evaluation *Tips*."

Annual Report '96 Links USAID's Work To Agency Objectives

Published at the beginning of 1997, the Agency Performance Report 1996 is available from USAID electronically via CDIE OnLine, the CDIE home page.

The report is also available on paper from USAID Development Experience Clearinghouse (DEC), 1611 N. Kent Street, Suite 200, Arlington, VA 22209-2111; telephone, (703) 351-4006; fax, (703) 351-4039; Internet, docorder@disc.mhs.compuserve.com.



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(PN-ABY-511)

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(PN-ABS-537)

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Program and Operations Assessment Reports

*Constituencies for Reform:
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(PN-ABS-534)

*Strengthening the Public-Private Partnership:
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PVO and NGO Activities*, 1996 #13
(PN-ABS-548)

*Forestry and the Environment:
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Forest Stewardship*, 1996 #14
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A Synthesis of Findings*, 1996 #18
(PN-ABY-224)

*The Venture Capital Mirage:
Assessing USAID Experience with Equity
Investment*, 1996 #17
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Special Studies

*Rebuilding Postwar Rwanda:
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*Reengineering at USAID/Bolivia:
Why We Did What We Did, 1996 #3*
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*A Partners' Consultation:
Reengineering Relationships, 1996 #4*
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Observations from the Field, 1996 #5a*
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(PN-ABY-228)

*Planning and Managing for Results Under Reengineering:
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*Managing for Results in a Regional Mission
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USAID Evaluation Highlights

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A Synthesis of the Evaluation Literature, 1996 #58*
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Fast Payback, 1996 #60*
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*Shining the Light on Energy Conservation:
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(PN-ABY-232)

USAID Evaluation News

*Focus on Democracy and Participation 1996 ,
Volume 8, #1*

USAID Managing for Results

*Managing USAID's Environmental Portfolio for Results,
Proceedings of March 1995 Environmental Workshop on
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*Ecotourism and Biodiversity Conservation
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Other Publications

*Agency Performance Report 1995
Full Report, 1996 (PN-ABS-543)*

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