FOOD SECURITY AS A MODALITY FOR CHANGE

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The Food Security as a Modality for Change study has been a collaborative effort between the Plan International Cambodia, Plan International Central African Republic, Plan International South Sudan and Plan International Zimbabwe Country Offices (COs), and Plan International Australia (PIA) and Plan International Germany (GNO) National Offices (NOs). The study was led by PIA, and supported financially by PIA and GNO. Plan International Cambodia and Plan International Zimbabwe also contributed significant resources in-kind.

The Food Security as a Modality for Change study was steered by the National Office Research Team and made up of staff from PIA and GNO. This core group developed the Theory of Change, MEL Framework, the methodology, data collection tools and led in the analysis of data and the writing of this report. Field data collection teams were made up of staff from Plan International Cambodia and Plan International Zimbabwe. For a comprehensive list of researchers and data collectors, please refer to Annex 10.

The team specifically acknowledges the significant support, in terms of initiating this study, resources and technical guidance, by Dave Husy - PIA Programs Director and Berhe Tewoldeberhan – PIA Disaster Risk and Resilience Manager. Without this directive, support and encouragement from leadership, the Food Security as a Modality for Change study would not have gotten off the ground.

The research team also wants to thank Sophie Shugg and Tom Rankin for their input in developing the theoretical framework as well as Nicole Rodger, Pia Treichel, Elisebeth Elo, Pasanna Mulha-Merenenge and Jan Parry for their comments and feedback on the analysis of findings and recommendations.

Finally, the research team acknowledges and gives thanks for the involvement and leadership of the communities of Chirumanzu and Chiredzi districts in Zimbabwe, and of Siem Reap in Cambodia. The Food Security as a Modality for Change study would not have been possible without the contribution of their time and willingness to share their personal views, thoughts and experiences.

The Food Security as a Modality for Change study as an image of Samuon, 13, washing vegetables grown in the school vegetable garden, Cambodia.
Dave Husy, Programs Director, Plan International Australia

Is it an oxymoron to speak of humanitarian assistance and agency? The interface of people as ‘beneficiaries’ of development or humanitarian assistance is a complex political engagement, which defies simplistic causality. As the history of development and humanitarianism has shown, the ideology of the international structure is a powerful shaping force on the processes implemented in communities across the globe and by organisations responsible for the implementation of planning and implementation. But at the coalface of these interventions are myriad of engagements by ordinary people, who participate in, shape and blunt the effects of social change stimulated by the development process.

Where does the individual sit in development? On the one hand, neoliberal theory promotes – indeed, the UN has identified the Rakhine as the most oppressed minority in the world.

Nevertheless, the individual of course exists, acts and thereby influences. Individuals exert their own power and influence in the face of interaction with the structure in different ways. It is often individuals who frustrate development processes, or divert them. Or they simply remove themselves from the development or humanitarian arena.

Human agency is therefore an important foundation for understanding individual action and social change. In fact, given that development is concerned with social change, the concept of agency is central to our understanding of development and, in particular, how locally legitimate and appropriate institutions form, change or decay. It is also fundamental to our understanding of the political interface between people and institutions, including those to do with the formation of stable institutional rules of the game as the basis for shaping stable states and politics, and also the establishment of the institutions of economic governance that create the environment in which growth can prosper.

Given this, one would anticipate that agency, transformation and social change should be a key conceptual concern in development or humanitarian discourse. Consequently it is disappointing to find that agency in the context of development is a deliberate construct, often entrenched in a positivist discourse and constrained by presumption about behaviour, thought and action. The global landscape is changing in important ways though, with an increased sensitivity toward localisation, sovereignty and agency. Global development actors need to take heed of these shifts, and explore the ways in which they can adapt their practice to promote stronger principles that recognise individual agency as a centre point for development or humanitarian programs.

Plan International’s (Plan) aspiration to realise the rights of children and achieve gender equality creates a positive challenge for the organisation and an opportunity for refocusing on agency. Strategically, a focus on the rights of children in contexts of extreme deprivation is laudable. Programmatically, the challenge is complex. In striving for programs that are transformative Plan’s strategy asks questions as to how this could be achieved in programs that on first glance appear to be change neutral. Included in these are food and livelihood programs involving the transfer of commodities implemented in partnership with United Nations (UN) agencies including World Food Programme (WFP), United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) and Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO).

Historically, food programs have been severely criticised for undermining the sovereignty of nations, agency of individuals and local economies. Large scale food transfers from developed countries to be distributed in food scarce ones was considered to be a cynical form of distribution through new markets for agricultural products, and at worse, a form of dumping of surplus stock. Recipients of food assistance did not have any say in the form and quality of food they received, and had no option but to receive and consume products selected by others.

Although argued to be ‘life saving’ it was clear that these programs undermined the agency of recipients, and conveyed the crude paternalism of development programs of the 70s and 80s. Assistance from the developed world could be provided to those unfortunate enough to be living in the undeveloped world, regardless of their aspirations and preferences. Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) who participated in these programs often did so from good intent, but ultimately were viewed as a delivery arm for international agencies dominated by the global North.

WFP is an important global partner for Plan. The increase in scale and impact of global emergencies, through both conflict and climate, and the resultant massive displacement and vulnerability has made WFP one of the largest and most important UN agencies. The reason for this is not only contextual, but also related to the strategic changes taking place in WFP and its role. The WFP of old characterised by large scale food programs utilising Western food sources has evolved to a highly strategic, efficient and impactful organisation. WFP is now acknowledged as a highly effective identifier of risk and vulnerability, and their assessments and data capabilities are excellent. In most countries of the world WFP is the most reliable source of data on food and livelihood vulnerability. In 2012, the then Australian Agency for International Development’s (AusAID) assessment of UN agencies identified WFP as one of the most effective.1

WFP program models have also evolved, with increasing use of cash and commodity based programs aimed to increase resilience and agency. Their programs are no longer restricted to life saving emergency response, but increasingly being seen as important recovery support. For Plan International Australia (PIA) the WFP is an important partner for building resilience and livelihoods. They also remain a crucial link in supporting some of the most vulnerable children and communities in the world. PIA-supported programs conducted with WFP and FAO reach beneficiaries in some of the toughest environments in the world, such as South Sudan, Central African Republic and Rakhine camps in Myanmar – where the UN has identified the Rohingya as the most oppressed minority in the world.

Newer technologies are also enhancing the opportunity for agency in humanitarian programs. Stronger digital networks and broader access, and the emergence of digital financial products offer great promise to provide financial assistance to individuals that they can control and influence directly. More research is providing evidence that unconditional cash transfers can create significant additional value and impact than programs designed to transfer pre-designed and restrictive surplus products or support. Accordingly, cash distribution is increasingly utilising digital and mobile technologies to increase reach and decrease cost.

The intended outcome of these modalities is the same: to provide support to affected people which enhances their agency and opportunity. To do so requires consideration of the complementarity of program initiatives based on a clear theory of social change. The Food Security as a Modality for Change approach piloted by Plan is an exciting step in this direction, and combines the potential to design and implement complementary programs.

The Food Security as a Modality for Change study is an attempt to shift the way in which food and cash based projects are designed, implemented, monitored and evaluated. It is a process aimed at helping Plan and other relevant actors, understand how food and cash based projects impact communities, beyond just receipt of goods. Using this information as a base, relevant actors will be able to shift food and cash based projects from short-term, targeted activities to outcome based programs that fit into a broader strategic framework. The Food Security as a Modality for Change study seeks to support the conceptualisation of a clear narrative for gender transformational change for food and cash based interventions.

The study adopted a Theory of Change approach and involved firstly developing the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change and corresponding MEL framework. It is not expected that individual food and cash based projects will achieve every outcome. It is also not expected that each country will meet every outcome on their own. Rather, this Theory of Change is designed at portfolio level with each country and each project contributing in some way to this broader agenda. This Theory of Change is ambitious in its target and highlights the longer term vision for the food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery portfolio. Data collected as a part of the Food Security as a Modality for Change study will act as a baseline, and will support in designing a way forward towards this Theory of Change.

The findings ultimately demonstrate that food and cash based interventions have a wide reaching impact beyond the distribution of food and contribute to influencing change within communities. The findings also demonstrate the importance of integrative programming and the complementarity of project initiatives that focus on different aspects of social and behavioural change. Policy gaps between but not limited to education, economic empowerment and livelihoods, health and nutrition, women’s empowerment, and disaster risk management and protection.

The biggest impact of food and cash based projects was found to be a short-term, targeted activities to outcome based processes. For example, food and cash based projects were found to have a significant impact on family food security and household income. Food projects were also found to contribute to a better quality and more diverse diet. Where Plan does invest in agricultural infrastructure through food and cash projects, and does so well, it is perceived by communities as having a significant impact on their resilience to climatic stresses. Findings also highlight that Plan is very effective in targeting the needs of the most vulnerable through community consultation processes.

Another key finding is that food and cash based projects have the potential to be gender transformative and contribute to advancing gender equality by challenging the root causes of discrimination. For example, food and cash based projects do not actively seek to shift power dynamics between men and women by making them the head of household in distribution. Plan has indirectly promoted women in financial decision-making processes within the household. This influence is enforced through involving women in community consultations, meetings and events through food and cash based projects. Ultimately, the study confirmed that women’s first priority continues to be the household, and their engagement with community level is contingent on their satisfying all household needs. While women continue to do the majority of the work, their households are the main decision makers in the home. The findings suggest that while food and cash based projects don’t challenge this imbalance at household level, they do support in reducing the burden for women who tend to be responsible for sourcing food.

Despite these impacts at household level, the study has found that due to the isolated nature of food and cash based projects there is very little done on linking these projects with advocacy initiatives at government level. Across projects, Plan is ultimately seen as supporting the government in delivering their strategic priorities with some level of support from government and communities. There was little evidence to suggest that Plan uses their position with government to influence changes in policy across education, health and nutrition, women’s empowerment, economic empowerment, disaster risk management and conflict protection.

The impact of Plan interventions was also limited at community level. For example, the study found that girls and boys are not systematically engaged in decisions and decision-making processes or bodies concerning their education or health and nutrition. Those with a disability were also found to be under-represented and inconsistently considered in food and cash projects.

4. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY
Sarah toiling in her fields with her local extension worker. In 2010 she joined Plan Zimbabwe’s Food Security project and was selected as a seed farmer, Zimbabwe.

The Food Security as a Modality for Change study was conducted from January 2017 to October 2017. A mixed-methods approach was adopted utilising content analyses of relevant documents, household surveys, key informant interviews and participatory focus group discussions. Primary data collection was conducted between March 2017 and May 2017 in Zimbabwe and Cambodia and involved nearly 1,000 women, girls, boys and men.

The Food Security as a Modality for Change study, highlights that food and cash based projects influence change for women, girls, boys and men, well beyond just the receipt of goods. While there are significant areas for improvement, collecting this information as a base means Plan is equipped to start designing and implementing gender transformative food and cash based interventions that clearly speak to Plan’s global vision where “Women, girls, boys and men live in a world that advances children’s rights and equality for girls.”

The Food Security as a Modality for Change study proposes seven core recommendations:

- Designing Food and Cash Based Projects into a Broader Framework
- Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment as one of the Core Areas of Focus
- Accessibility for People Living with a Disability
- Integrating Child Protection as a Minimum Standard
- Conducting a Comprehensive Country Situational Analysis
- Conceptualising a Country Food Security Program Advocacy Strategy
- Integrating a Comprehensive Monitoring, Evaluation and Learning Process and Approach

These recommendations are not to be considered in isolation. Rather, they are designed to provide a consistent approach for a way forward for country offices. Ultimately, the onus is on Plan’s country offices and their supporting funding offices to contextualise these seven recommendations to their respective contexts, using the information and findings outlined in this report as a baseline and guidance as to what works, where the gaps and missed opportunities are, and what Plan can do better.

In conclusion, the Food Security as a Modality for Change study, highlights that food and cash based projects influence change for women, girls, boys and men, well beyond just the receipt of goods. While there are significant areas for improvement, collecting this information as a base means Plan is equipped to start designing and implementing gender transformative food and cash based interventions that clearly speak to Plan’s global vision where “Women, girls, boys and men live in a world that advances children’s rights and equality for girls.”
Plan International Australia (PIA) and Plan International Germany (GNO) came together in January 2017 to undertake a study into Plan International’s food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery portfolio across current program countries in Cambodia, Central African Republic, Myanmar, South Sudan and Zimbabwe titled Food Security as a Modality for Change.

The purpose of the Food Security as a Modality for Change study is threefold:

1. Develop and test a clear theory of change narrative for all future food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery projects;
2. Document the change Plan is achieving with food and cash based projects; and
3. Shift from output based/short term results and activities to outcome based/long term results.

The Food Security as a Modality for Change study seeks to support the conceptualisation of a clear narrative for gender transformative change for food and cash based interventions that clearly speaks to Plan’s global vision where “Women, girls, boys and men live in a world that advances children’s rights and equality for girls.” The study adopted a Theory of Change approach and involved firstly developing the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change and corresponding MEL Framework. It is not expected that individual food and cash based projects will achieve every outcome. It is also not expected that each country will meet every outcome on their own. Rather, this Theory of Change is designed at portfolio level with each country and each project contributing in some way to this broader agenda. This Theory of Change is ambitious in its target and highlights the longer term vision for the food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery portfolio. Data collected as a part of the Food Security as a Modality for Change study will act as a baseline, and will support in designing a way forward towards this Theory of Change.

Undertaken between January 2017 and October 2017, the Food Security as a Modality for Change study involved a comprehensive literature review of project documentation and reports from all current program countries, Cambodia, Central African Republic, Myanmar, South Sudan and Zimbabwe, and primary data collection was conducted in Cambodia and Zimbabwe in the first half of 2017. In total, 639 respondents were directly involved in the primary data collection including 143 men, 238 women, 134 girls and 124 boys. In addition, a further 318 households were surveyed as part of the quantitative data collection process.

The findings of this comprehensive process have been outlined in the following report. Section 6 outlines the methodology, timeline and ethical considerations undertaken to inform the study. It also provides a comprehensive overview of the primary data collection including sampling, participants and data collection tools. Section 7 outlines the findings of the study and is structured to align with the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change’s five core objective areas:

- 7.3 LEARN: Education
- 7.4 LEARN: Economic Empowerment
- 7.5 LEAD: Women’s Empowerment
- 7.6 THRIVE: Health and Nutrition
- 7.7 SURVIVE: Disaster Risk Management and Protection

Each core objective area is further broken down to explore findings at Plan’s three levels of engagement – government and policy, community, and at the household and individual level. The conclusions and recommendations are summarised in Section 8.

6. METHODOLOGY

6.1 SUMMARY OF METHODOLOGY

The conceptual framework of this study was informed by a comprehensive literature review of Plan food and cash based project documentation including narrative reports, proposals, concept notes and evaluations across all current program countries: Cambodia, Central African Republic, Myanmar, South Sudan and Zimbabwe. Based on the literature and document review the research team developed the high level Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change (TOC) and Monitoring, Evaluation and Learning (MEL) Framework to support and guide country programs, and to demonstrate the logical relationship between the achievement of overarching goals and intended outcomes, and the delivery of outputs and activities.

A draft method paper was developed which summarised the findings of the literature review and outlined the proposed methodology and way forward. The Food Security as a Modality for Change Working Group (Annex 8: Food Security as a Modality for Change Working Group Terms of Reference) was established with relevant Plan International offices in order to advance this study, refine the methodology and approach, coordinate field visits and to disseminate findings. In an effort to capture the perspectives of a diverse range of staff, the research team, including data collectors, was made up of a mixture of Plan staff. The team was also intentionally gender balanced, made up of approximately 40 staff, 21 of which were male and 19 of which were female.

Data collection tools were developed to specifically reflect the indicators developed in the Food Security as a Modality for Change MEL Framework (Annex 9). All tools were shared with relevant country offices prior to field visits to refine and contextualise. Field visits began with a two-day Induction Workshop with all data collectors and relevant CO staff. The Induction Workshop introduced the Food Security as a Modality for Change study, and explained the Theory of Change and MEL Framework, as well as introducing and testing data collection tools. All data collectors in-country were split into two core teams. The Household Survey team was responsible for coordinating and administering all Household Surveys. The Focus Group Discussion (FGD) team was responsible for conducting all focus group discussions and supporting key informant interviews. The FGD team was made up of two facilitators, in most cases one male and one female, who also supported each other as note takers. Field visits all concluded with a Closing Workshop with all available data collectors and relevant CO staff. The Closing Workshop highlighted key achievements, challenges and initial findings, and outlined next steps.

The lead researchers led the processing of data and analysis of findings. The draft report was shared with the relevant staff in Cambodia and Zimbabwe, as well as key technical advisors to validate findings, analysis and conclusions. A reflection workshop was conducted after the preparation of the draft report to think through recommendations and implications for practice.
6.2 ETHICS
The following ethical considerations were made during the study’s conceptualisation and implementation:

- Informed Consent – All participants gave their informed consent to participate in this study. Each session started with an explanation of the study and the intended use of the data collected. Each session closed with an opportunity for participants to ask questions and voice any additional comments, questions or concerns that they weren’t able to express during the session. Also, given that children under the age of 18 cannot legally provide consent, the research team engaged with their parents and teachers obtaining verbal consent. Children were still informed of the purpose of the study and intended use of the data collected through child-friendly language and engagement of school principals and teachers.

- Voluntary participation – All respondents participated in this study voluntarily. After being given a comprehensive explanation of the study and the purpose of their involvement, they voluntarily agreed to take part and acknowledged their understanding of their right to not participate and to withdraw at any time.

- Confidentiality and anonymity – to avoid identification of respondents they are only referred to by their age group and gender, and not by names or any other identifier. Anonymisation was also undertaken throughout data entry.

- Avoid harm and participation of children under 18 years – the Food Security as a Modality for Change study embeds the agency of women, girls, boys and men in its approach, with a specific focus not only on participation, but on influence and control of individuals over decisions and decision-making processes. This position has been carried through into this study which seeks to provide a space for women, girls, boys and men to contribute to and influence the findings. Community leaders and parents were briefed on the purpose of the study and the involvement of their children prior to the visit, and all children under the age of 18 that participated had the informed consent of their parents and communities. The Participatory Discussion Tool was specifically designed to be used for school-aged children, with activities and questions structured in a developmentally appropriate way to encourage children to articulate personal feelings to their peers that they might normally have difficulty verbalising to adults.

6.3 TIMELINE
The Food Security as a Modality for Change study was implemented between January and October 2017. The methodological steps that were carried out throughout this study were in five key phases:

PHASE 1: INCEPTION PHASE
– consisted of a briefing meeting, collection of the project documents, and finalisation of the study timeline draft and budget. This also involved the establishment of the Food Security as a Modality for Change Working Group. This phase was completed in January 2017.

PHASE 2: DESK REVIEW PHASE
– undertaken to create a conceptual framework for the study. This was both a project document review, including relevant national policies, plus a literature review to ensure alignment with current trends. This phase was completed by March 2017.

PHASE 3: FIELD PHASE
– involved collecting and verifying information from a full range of stakeholders in sample locations. This included discussions/interviews with male and female community members at household level, school level, leadership, donors and project staff. Also, the research team observed the community and household WASH infrastructure. This phase was completed in March 2017 and April 2017.

PHASE 4: SYNTHESIS PHASE
– encompassed the analysis of information, the identification of logical conclusions and the compilation of recommendations based on this analysis. This phase was completed between May and July 2017.

PHASE 5: FEEDBACK, DISSEMINATION AND FOLLOW-UP PHASE
– comprised of organisation of a validation workshop presenting preliminary findings and the compilation of a full study report, including an executive summary, the evaluation findings, and conclusions and recommendations of the study. This phase was completed between August and October 2017.
6.4 SELECTION OF COUNTRIES, SITES AND SAMPLING

Purposeful sampling was used to select the countries of Cambodia and Zimbabwe for primary data collection. The current portfolio is across the five countries (Cambodia, Central African Republic, Myanmar, South Sudan, and Zimbabwe) with varying operational contexts. The selection of country sites for primary data collection sought to encompass a broad representation of Plan activities and operational contexts. The Food Security as a Modality for Change Working Group selected the country sites, taking into consideration geography, political context, diversity of food and cash based activities, and ongoing funding commitments from PIA and GNO. Cambodia and Zimbabwe offered the broadest representation of Plan activities and operational contexts. Sample sizes in both Cambodia and Zimbabwe were calculated with a 95% confidence level, and a confidence interval of five. The study aimed for a representative sample at the district level in both countries.

For the selection at sub-district level in Zimbabwe, a systematic random sample was used with a step of five. The in-country team modified this sample slightly to accommodate logistics and the timeline of the field visit. In Cambodia, the team used a convenience sample, choosing five villages where the schools are and ensuring that different parts of the district were represented. In both Zimbabwe and Cambodia, a systematic random sample was applied at household level to administer the quantitative survey. A convenience sample was used to select participants of the focus groups and interviewees in both countries. The study aimed to cover 430 respondents in Zimbabwe (including 200 household representatives, 30 men and women and 200 boys and girls) and 400 respondents in Cambodia (including 120 household representatives, 180 men and women and 100 boys and girls). The planned sample was reached with minor modification. In the end, 639 respondents were directly involved in the primary data collection through interviews and focus group discussions including 143 men, 238 women, 134 girls and 124 boys. A further 318 households were surveyed as part of the quantitative data collection process.

Table 1. Participants Across Data Collection Sites by Tool

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Collection Tool</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>Cambodia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household Roles and Responsibilities Tool</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participatory Group Discussion</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barriers and Enablers Tool</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview – Plan Staff</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview – External</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group Interview</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB - TOTAL</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>318</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Household Survey

In Cambodia, 118 households were surveyed while in Zimbabwe the sample covered 200 households. In Cambodia 100% of respondents identified as Khmer, while in Zimbabwe the sample covered representatives of multiple ethno-linguistic groups with the highest number of respondents self-identifying as Shona (49.5%) followed by the significantly lower number of those self-identifying as Ndebele (3.5%).

In Zimbabwe the sample included 66% women and 33% men with 72% of respondents aged between 25 and 65, and 24% aged over 65 years old. Among female respondents in Zimbabwe many self-identified as widows (36%). In Cambodia the majority of respondents were also female (72%). This was most likely a consequence of male household members being out of home during the day. The majority of respondents (87.3%) were aged between 25 and 65 while the other three age groups (over 65 years old, up to 15 and from 15 to 25) were represented with 4.2% each. A high majority of respondents in Cambodia were married (83.1%) while some respondents identified as widows (6.8%) and some as single (9.3%).

The survey applied an adapted version of the Washington Group questions to analyse the situation of people living with a disability, and explore possible differences and impacts of Plan interventions on the lives of people both with and without disabilities. In Cambodia 5.1% of respondents face some difficulty seeing even when wearing glasses. A further 2.5% of respondents report a lot of difficulty seeing even when wearing glasses. Not one respondent from the sample was wearing any form of audio aid and no respondent had difficulty learning, speaking or understanding. Around 5% of respondents reported some difficulty when walking or eating compared with other people of their age. In Zimbabwe the percentage of people with disabilities was a bit higher, matching the official statistics on people with disabilities in these two countries. In Zimbabwe an average of approximately 10% of respondents reported some difficulty seeing, while 5% had a physical disability, while over 15% of the total respondents reported a hearing or intellectual disability. Of these people with a disability across Zimbabwe and Cambodia, there was a relatively equal distribution of men and women with no significant difference.

The sample included beneficiaries of Plan’s programs but also those who have not benefited from a program to enable assessment of results of Plan interventions. In Cambodia, 80% of respondents received some support from Plan International while 20% were not direct beneficiaries of any of Plan’s projects. In Zimbabwe, 90% of respondents received some support from Plan International while 10% were not direct beneficiaries of any of Plan’s projects. All statistics are based on all cases with valid data as missing data was excluded from the total percentage in analyses and interpretation of data.

6.5 DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

A mixed-methods approach was adopted utilising seven data collection methods across the two countries. The tools were specifically designed to provide evidence for the set of indicators developed for the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change (Annex 1) as outlined in the Food Security as a Modality for Change MEL Framework (Annex 9). These data collection methods included 63 FGDs using the Household Roles and Responsibilities Tool (Annex 3) and the Barriers and Enablers Tool (Annex 4); 318 Household Surveys (Annex 5), 35 Key Informant Interviews (Annex 6), as well as Sanitation Facilities Audits (Annex 7). Activity Mapping against the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change was also conducted in all five program countries. All sessions began with an explanation of the study and the intended use of the data collected. Each closed with an opportunity for participants to ask questions and voice any additional comments that they weren’t able to express during the session.

Table 2. Data Collection Activities across Zimbabwe and Cambodia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Collection Tool</th>
<th>Boys (Zimbabwe)</th>
<th>Boys (Cambodia)</th>
<th>Girls (Zimbabwe)</th>
<th>Girls (Cambodia)</th>
<th>Women (Zimbabwe)</th>
<th>Women (Cambodia)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Household Roles and Responsibilities Tool</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participatory Group Discussion</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barriers and Enablers Tool</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>118</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview – Plan Staff</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview – External</td>
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Household Roles and Responsibilities Tool

The Household Roles and Responsibilities Tool was a major component of the data collection framework, and was used in all data collection sites with separate groups of women and men. The Household Roles and Responsibilities Tool enabled project staff to measure and monitor gender relations with regard to workload and decision-making authority with women, girls, and boys within the household and looked at four key areas of engagement:

- Food – encompassing time spent and decision-making authority around food preparation, cooking, vegetable gardens for household consumption, grocery shopping and cleaning up after meals.
- Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH) – encompassing time spent and decision-making authority around fetching water for household use, cleaning, managing household toilet and hand-washing facilities.
- Community – encompassing time spent and decision-making authority around community meetings, community events and community groups.
- Finances – encompassing time spent and decision-making authority around household financial decision making, financial management and savings.

There were a total of 33 Focus Group Discussions using the Household Roles and Responsibilities Tool, with a total of 90 male and 196 female participants.

Participatory Group Discussion Tool

The Participatory Discussion Tool is a new data collection and discussion tool tailored to children, focussed on monitoring the impressions of children with regard to health, hygiene, nutrition and participation in decision making at home and in school. It was designed specifically for children and was the central forum to capture the perceptions and views of boys and girls. The Participatory Group Discussion Tool was used in each data collection site with separate groups for girls and boys. There were a total of 25 Focus Group Discussions using the Participatory Group Discussion Tool, with a total of 124 male and 134 female participants.

Barriers and Enablers Tool

The Barriers and Enablers Tool was designed specifically for teachers as a way of identifying the barriers and enablers to children’s participation and engagement within the classroom. The Barriers and Enablers Tool was used only in Cambodia due to the nature of Plan’s operations, which are targeted at schools. There were a total of five Focus Group Discussions using the Barriers and Enablers Tool, with a total of 18 male and 28 female participants.

Household Survey

Quantitative research formed a key component of this evaluation. A comprehensive data collection strategy was employed, utilising a Household Survey on households that have benefited in Plan programs. The Household Survey had eight core components focussed on exploring:

- Disability
- Household resources and coping strategies
- Markets and supply chains
- WASH

A total of 318 Household Surveys were conducted across Zimbabwe (200) and Cambodia (118).

Key Informant Interviews (internal and external)

Key Informant Interviews were conducted with traditional and formal leaders, and other individuals who were considered important to assist in understanding or contextualising the data collected. Selection criteria also included government officials, school support committee representatives, donors and relevant Plan staff. There were a total of 35 interviews with individuals and group interviews conducted with a total of 35 male and 14 female participants.

Activity Mapping

The Activity Mapping exercise was a core component of the data collection process, as well as forming a part of the training and sensitisation around the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change. Activity Mapping was formally conducted in Zimbabwe and Cambodia with field staff, and an abridged version was conducted in Myanmar with the Emergency Response Manager. Data for South Sudan and Central African Republic programs was collected using a desk review of project documents and reports. The process for in-country Activity Mapping involved exploring the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change in detail. Field staff were then tasked with listing activities undertaken, both within the food and cash based projects, and as a part of broader office activities that were undertaken in the same geographic region. As a group, staff then discussed the intended impact of each activity, mapping it against the specific outcome in the Theory of Change that the activity most contributed to.
Sanitation Facilities Audit

The Sanitation Facilities Audit formed the basis of assessment of WASH infrastructure in the household and at community level. The Sanitation Facilities Audit assessed the functionality, safety and cleanliness of household and community sanitation and hand-washing facilities. It also sought to measure the inclusiveness, accessibility and suitability of facilities for children, boys and girls. There were a total of 70 Sanitation Facilities Audits conducted in 65 households in Zimbabwe and 5 schools in Cambodia.

6.6 DATA STORAGE, PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

Data entry of the interview and FGD transcripts was done manually, using the respondents’ own words as much as possible. Data entry of transcripts was comprehensive with details captured by the type of FGD (men, women, boys or girls), by district/school and by country to facilitate tracking, cross-checking and aggregation of responses. Corresponding diagrams developed as a part of the FGDs, including the Time, Power and Participation diagrams, were spread on the tables for facilitation as well as data collection tools themselves. Each diagram was quantified with details also captured by the type of FGD, by district/school and by country to facilitate tracking, cross checking and aggregation of responses. Household Surveys were entered into SPSS for analysis by the research team, with details captured by the gender of the respondent, ethnic group, district/school and by country to facilitate tracking, cross checking and aggregation of responses. All notes, transcripts and data sets from the focus groups, interviews and surveys will be safely stored on password protected shared drives and researchers’ hard drives for a period of two years as per Plan’s internal policies and procedures.

This report presents an analysis of both the qualitative and quantitative data collected by the research team. Analysis of the qualitative data included in SPSS represents a simple analysis of descriptive statistics including frequencies (a raw output of the percentages), some cross tabulations and some statistical tests to determine the significance of correlation between different variables (chi-square). The latter helped determine the probability that any difference in results was a consequence of the intervention and not a random fluctuation in the data. A test result is considered statistically significant if the probability of the difference in responses occurring randomly or by chance is less than 5% out of a 100% chance. In SPSS this is represented as p<0.05. Any chi-square with p<0.05 is considered a ‘statistically significant’ finding. Analysis also produced an output of percentages disaggregated by gender, age, disability and relation to Plan.

The processing and analysis of qualitative data was informed by the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change and centred around the five core objective areas relevant to this study:

- 7.3 LEARN: Education
- 7.4 LEARN: Economic Empowerment and Livelihoods
- 7.5 LEAD: Women’s Empowerment
- 7.6 THRIVE: Health and Nutrition
- 7.7 SURVIVE: Disaster Risk Management and Protection

All data collected, including the transcripts from interviews and FGDs, findings from the Sanitation Facilities Audits and diagrams from FGDs was coded against the five core strategic objectives. Using the Food Security as a Modality for Change MEL Framework, data was further clustered around key indicators. Under each indicator, similar responses were organised and then aggregated to provide the summaries of key response themes. The research team then reviewed the main commonalities, nuances and outliers from the data and analysed the findings in relation to the context, Plan’s strategy, existing interventions and best practice. Major themes that were not properly captured as part of the Food Security as a Modality for Change MEL Framework were noted and further explored. More in-depth analyses were conducted on cross cutting themes and into particular areas of interest including:

- Comparing data between Cambodia and Zimbabwe.
- Comparing data between respondents in Cambodia that received take-home rations and those that didn’t.
- Comparing the data between respondents in Zimbabwe from Chiredzi district and Chirumanzu district.
- Comparing data between male and female respondents in the Household Roles and Responsibilities Tool.
- Comparing data between boy and girl respondents in the Participatory Group Discussion Tool.
- Analysing data collected on people living with a disability.
- These deep dives were integrated into the analysis of the five core strategic objectives.

6.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE METHODOLOGY

While the selection of country sites sought to encompass a broad representation of Plan activities and operational contexts, a notable absence from the sample selected is the inclusion of a country currently experiencing conflict. Plan implements food and cash based projects in the Central African Republic, Myanmar and South Sudan, all of which are currently involved in internal conflicts and civil unrest. While the study originally sought to undertake primary data collection in South Sudan, it was decided that this was unfeasible and put unnecessary pressure on the country office due to the ongoing security concerns coupled with the escalation of emergency operations following the declaration of famine in 2017.

Resource and time constraints resulted in a modified approach for the implementation of the data collection than was originally envisioned. Data collection tools were not fully tested in each context prior to implementation, nor were they translated to local language. Data collectors also had limited time prior to the field visits to fully learn and understand the tools. A limited amount of time was also allocated at the conclusion of visits to facilitate the transcribing of notes. Multiple measures were implemented to mitigate the impact of these issues. Data collection tools were tested in the Induction Workshops with the data collectors themselves role-playing respondents and data collectors. Considering the circumstances, this proved an effective way of refining the tools and training data collectors. It also provided a space for data collectors to ensure consistent translation of questions. Data collection tools were also circulated to field teams in advance so they had the opportunity to familiarise themselves with the tools and formats. And finally, where possible, additional staffing support was provided for transcription notes, with note takers there to check the accuracy of the transcripts. On reflection more time should have been allocated for both training and data collection to ensure data collectors were fully trained and confident in administering tools from the beginning.

The study acknowledges that there is considerable diversity in the way ‘gender’ is defined. In developing the methodology and approach, the team considered specifically incorporating individuals who identify themselves as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transsexual, transgender, intersex, queer and other such categorisations (LGBTIQ+). The decision was made that this was beyond the scope of the current study, and that there are significant ethical and safety issues associated with seeking out such respondents in the contexts of the field visits. Beyond this, and more tailored study would be needed to address and minimise these risks.
7. FINDINGS

7.1 BACKGROUND

PIA began its food and cash based programming in 2006. Since then, PIA has responded to emergency and cyclical food shortages, implementing food and cash based projects with donors such as WFP and FAO across five countries in Africa (Central African Republic, Ethiopia, South Sudan, Tanzania and Zimbabwe), and three countries in Asia (Cambodia, Myanmar and The Philippines). Currently, PIA in partnership with GNO has ongoing food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery projects across five countries – Cambodia, the Central African Republic, Myanmar, South Sudan and Zimbabwe. Between FY10 and FY16 PIA programmed a total of US$46 million in funding, leveraging a total program value of approximately US$58 million inclusive of grants and gifts in kind (GIK) reaching approximately 5 million women, girls, boys and men. In 2017, famine was declared in parts of South Sudan following escalations in ongoing conflict and climatic factors. Plan International South Sudan, supported by PIA and GNO, responded to the crisis reaching almost 450,000 vulnerable women, girls, boys and men with food, cash and nutrition projects. The food assistance response constituted approximately 89% of Plan International South Sudan's emergency response.

Plan implements food and cash based projects in partnership with an array of donors and UN agencies, most notably WFP, FAO and UNICEF. The interventions are context specific dependent on the immediate food needs of affected populations and government priorities. The main interventions adopted in the food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery portfolio include:

1. General food distributions to populations displaced by conflict or affected by natural disaster;
2. Seasonal food assistance to mitigate cyclic hunger gaps;
3. Targeted nutrition support to vulnerable groups including children and pregnant/lactating mothers;
4. Food/cash for assets where communities are engaged in public works to support community infrastructure;
5. Food for education where schools are supported to provide school meals and school gardens; and
6. Where appropriate, unconditional and conditional cash grants.

This significant investment in food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery projects is a demonstration of how strongly PIA and GNO believe in the contribution of food and cash based programming towards achieving the global vision where “Women, girls, boys and men live in a world that advances children’s rights and equality for girls”. The focus is now on better understanding how food and cash based interventions impact communities, designing programs to better support women, girls, boys and men.

WFP is an important global partner for Plan, generally, and specifically for PIA and GNO as two of the leading offices both in terms of portfolio size and donor relationship management. While Plan’s food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery projects are implemented in partnership with an array of agencies, WFP is by far the largest of all UN donors for the portfolio. Like Plan, WFP is transitioning to a new way of operating and trying to better bridge the gap between humanitarian and development programming through a new Country Strategic Planning (CSP) Framework. They are shifting away from short term, more reactionary programming to longer term planning that fits into a broader strategic framework. All 82 countries where WFP has operations will transition to the new CSP Framework. Expected to be designed for a period of up to five years, these plans will encompass country specific development priorities and be flexible enough to integrate emergency interventions where necessary. Gender sensitivity is now a mandatory part of project design for WFP. In an effort to ensure that the different, often sensitive needs of girls, boys and men are met, and that WFP funded activities contribute to greater gender equality and transformative change, implementing partners such as Plan, will also need to shift their approach to correspond with WFP’s new strategy. Rather than implementing relatively short term and targeted interventions, Plan will be expected to align with the CSP and fit food and cash based interventions into a broader framework.

WFP’s CSP model closely aligns with the sentiments of Plan’s new global strategy, purpose and approach to programming, influencing and operating. In 2017, Plan launched 100 Million Reasons 2017 - 2022. The strategy takes its name from its ambition to transform the lives of 100 million girls so they are able to Learn, Lead, Decide and Thrive (LLDT). Food Security as a Modality for Change was conceptualised within this LLDT framework, framing food and cash based projects in a way that demonstrates Plan’s global vision of “a world that advances children’s rights and equality for girls”.

The focus is now on better understanding how food and cash based projects are framed as one of the key strategic frameworks. The 100 Million Reasons and WFP’s CSP Framework, and shift the way in which Plan designs, implements, monitors, and evaluates food and cash based projects. Analysis of Plan practices highlights that food and cash based projects are usually designed and implemented in isolation, responding directly to the donor’s call and not necessarily to fit within the organisation’s broader strategic objectives. Food and cash based projects generally fail to record and capture the richness and complexity of the impact of these activities, and as a result they tend to be focused on output level deliverables and miss the opportunity these interventions bring in progressing Plan’s longer term vision.

7.2 FOOD SECURITY AS A MODALITY FOR CHANGE THEORY OF CHANGE

The Food Security as a Modality for Change study is an attempt to bring together these two key strategic frameworks, 100 Million Reasons and WFP’s CSP Framework, and shift the way in which Plan designs projects. The study is an attempt to bring together these two key strategic frameworks, and shift the way in which Plan designs, implements, monitors, and evaluates food and cash based projects. Analysis of Plan practices highlights that food and cash based projects are usually designed and implemented in isolation, responding directly to the donor’s call and not necessarily to fit within the organisation’s broader strategic objectives. Food and cash based projects generally fail to record and capture the richness and complexity of the impact of these activities, and as a result they tend to be focused on output level deliverables and miss the opportunity these interventions bring in progressing Plan’s longer term vision.

The Food Security as a Modality for Change study was informed by Plan International’s 100 Million Reasons, in particular the LLDT framework, and WFP’s CSP approach. On reflection the Food Security as a Modality for Change Working Group adapted the framework to include “Survive” in acknowledgement of the complex context in which food and cash based projects tend to operate.

The Theory of Change seeks to put individuals at the centre, supporting an enabling environment for women, girls, boys and men to control their own lives. The agency of individuals is embedded in this approach, with a specific focus not only on participation, but on influence and control of individuals over decisions and decision-making processes. The Food Security as a Modality for Change approach is transformative in its ambition, seeking to transform attitudes and behaviours, advancing gender equality by challenging the root causes of discrimination. As well as encouraging all projects to respond to the individual needs and capabilities of women, girls, boys and men, the approach explicitly seeks to promote the empowerment of women and girls.

The approach acknowledges that activities don’t occur in a vacuum but rather are part of an intricate network of interventions that collectively contribute to changing attitudes and behaviours. This approach distinguishes between a ‘project’ and a ‘program’, terms that are commonly used interchangeably. Individual projects are seen as contributing to a broader program that sits within the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change. Rather than programmatic outcomes in and of themselves, food and cash based projects are framed as one of multiple activities whose collective impact supports Plan’s global vision.

Food Security as a Modality for Change acknowledges that people don’t experience their lives in the fragmented stages of development rhetoric and practice – response, recovery etc. Rather, it seeks to bridge the gap between humanitarian and development practices and maintain objectives, and after conflicts. While the modalities and operational models for change, ultimately interventions support the same objectives and are held to the same standards.

The Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change is centred around five core objective areas:

**LEARN: Education** - Girls and Boys receive quality education before, during and after disasters and conflicts. Food and cash based projects seek to support girls and boys to attend school and better engage in the classroom through increasing household resources and encouraging parental engagement in their child’s education, and through supporting schools to respond to the needs of students.

**LEARN: Economic Empowerment** - Women, Girls, Boys and Men are financially independent before, during and after disasters and conflicts. Food and cash based projects seek to increase household resources through direct contributions, or by supporting livelihoods opportunities and improving agricultural practices. In doing so, they support the economic empowerment of women, girls, boys and men to have control of their life and work.

**LEAD: Women’s Empowerment** - Women and Girls have the power to actively participate in their communities and influence change before, during and after disasters and conflicts. As well as encouraging all projects to respond to the individual needs and capabilities of women, girls, boys and men, the Food Security as a Modality for Change approach specifically seeks to promote the empowerment of women and girls at all levels. Food and cash based projects provide women and girls with leadership opportunities, and support women’s involvement in decision making within their communities and households.

**THRIVE: Health and Nutrition** - Women, Girls, Boys and Men enjoy good health and nutritional status before, during and after disasters and conflicts. Food and cash based projects seek to increase quantity, quality and diversification of household food consumption. Through the provision of food and cash, and targeted support for children, and pregnant and lactating women, they seek to support women, girls, boys and men to enjoy good health and nutritional status.

**SURVIVE: Disaster Risk Management and Protection** - Women, Girls, Boys and Men are protected, safe and resilient to disasters and conflicts. Food and cash based projects are traditionally required in contexts where agricultural systems or supply chains have broken down, whether by natural disaster or conflict. Acknowledging this, Food Security as a Modality for Change has expanded the LLDT framework to specifically focus on building the individual and collective resilience of governments, communities and women, girls, boys and men to adapt and respond to shocks and stresses.

Within these five core objectives, change has been conceptualised at three distinct levels:

**Government and Policy:**
Food and cash based projects will seek to influence government structures, policy and practice, supporting communities to hold government to account and collaborating with other actors to influence policy change that advances children’s rights and equality for girls.

**Community:**
Food and cash based projects will seek to support community structures, processes and leadership to advance children’s rights and equality for girls by implementing services, infrastructure and strategies that achieve the best outcomes for their residents. Community has been defined in a broad sense and encompasses collective spaces including schools, villages etc.

**Household and Individual:**
Food and cash based projects will seek to support individuals and households in setting and meeting their priorities. They will also seek to challenge knowledge, attitudes and behaviours of women, girls, boys and men.
7.3 LEARN: EDUCATION

Plan seeks to support girls and boys in receiving a quality education before, during and after disasters and conflict. Food and cash based projects contribute to achieving education outcomes by cooperating with relevant government institutions, involving communities in children’s education, enhancing local infrastructure, engaging parents in their child’s education and encouraging students to actively participate in the classroom. In Cambodia specifically, Plan allocates food to schools through school meals and take-home rations to improve children’s attention in class and to increase the likelihood of attending a school. School feeding programs are also undertaken as part of the programs in the Central African Republic and South Sudan. Indirectly and in other contexts, Plan supports education outcomes through increasing household resources, supporting child protection mechanisms and improving individuals’ health and nutritional status. The study found evidence of Plan’s influence on the education of girls and boys at all three levels – government policy and practice, community structures and processes, and within the household.

GOVERNMENT AND POLICY

The Food Security as a Modality for Change. Theory of Change emphasizes the importance of engagement and commitment of responsible government actors in the provision of quality education. The study sought to assess Plan’s contribution towards this through exploring government budget allocation towards education, the quality of policies addressing education, enrolment and dropout rates, as well as government investment in conferences addressing education, plans of action, investment plans with budget allocation to address education issues and the types of Plan activities aimed at influencing policy and budget. The enrolment rate in Cambodia and Zimbabwe is high, and continues to grow. For instance, according to the Provincial Office of Education in Cambodia the net enrolment rate in Cambodia is approximately 93.5% for the 2016/17 school year. In Zimbabwe the most available data indicates that the net enrolment rate is 85.8%.1

While the enrolment rate across both countries is quite high there is no evidence to suggest that Plan’s work has directly contributed to any increase in enrolment. In Cambodia, the government budget for education has decreased in recent years with available World Bank data suggesting that the education budget is 9.094% of total government expenditure, down from the peak 9.913% in 2013.2 Based on the evidence collected, there is a clear absence in Plan’s programs or advocacy efforts to influence government budget or prioritisation of student enrolment. Across both countries government respondents identified two key issues in the education system:

1. Low attendance rates; and
2. Gender stereotypes faced by female students.

A low attendance rate indicates broader consequences, most notably interrupted schooling for students, in particular girls and those students from economically disadvantaged families. All respondents identified low attendance as a problem. While enrolment rates have generally been high, school attendance rates were significantly lower and dropout rates were often high or had not been tracked at all. While relevant actors at government level are aware of this issue, there are no clear action plans or budget allocation in place to address the low attendance rates in Zimbabwe or Cambodia.

The second issue identified was the negative gender stereotypes faced by female students. This was highlighted as an important issue and barrier for girls by both Zimbabwe and Cambodia. According to an official from the Provincial Office of Education in Cambodia: “Girls are still less sent to school and that is why it is important to raise importance of education among parents.” The Provincial Office of Education identified activities they currently undertake, some of which are in conjunction with Plan, to tackle the issue. Together with school principals the Provincial Office of Education mapped schools where girls have lower enrolment rates or where girls were less likely to attend school regularly. Identified schools were then targeted with specific activities to try to address this. For example, one of the reasons identified for the lower enrolment and attendance rates of girls was the increased security concerns for girls while commuting to school. As distances are usually far with girls often harassed on the commute. In response, local governments in cooperation with schools, try to organise school accommodation for these girls so that they do not have to commute home every evening. In cooperation with Plan, the government encourages local communities to actively support girls to attend schools, persuading them of the benefits to their daughters’ education and the importance of educating girls.

At government level Plan is recognised as having a good relationship with government actors and is seen as one of their most flexible and respected partners. In Cambodia, due to the ongoing educational processes, the government faces huge financial barriers to addressing issues in regard to education. Significant budgetary challenges mean that the government is not able to meet all identified needs and government officials acknowledge Plan’s role in supporting to fill the gaps through the provision of scholarships and other such activities.

“There are cases where we cannot support children to attend school, or situations where we cannot respond to due to the lack of budget. Plan is filling the gaps when these gaps are identified.”

In Cambodia, the government also highlighted Plan’s comprehensive approach in the implementation of the school feeding program with WFP, and their respectful engagement and partnership as incredibly helpful.

“WFP and Plan are special because they focus on child friendly schools ... Also, the project specially focus on poor kids as they can get food and also learn better because they can concentrate. Further, very important component of the project implemented by Plan is health oriented. Based on [sic] few important components of the project and these are: equality, learning outcomes, health and gender.”3

While the study highlights Plan’s strong positioning and partnership with government in both Cambodia and Zimbabwe, it also indicates that the relationship is rather one-sided and limited to just supporting government priorities. Evidence collected suggests that Plan does not have a clear advocacy or influencing strategy with government actors in relation to the education agenda – even in the Cambodia school feeding program, which is specifically targeted at schools. According to Plan staff in Cambodia this gap is partially due to a lack of understanding of the government departments’ roles and responsibilities.

“We do not know whom to talk within the government when it comes to school feeding. For instance, WASH is within the ministry of health while school feeding with the department of education. Health department usually deals with the under five children. We do not know whom rural development belongs to.”

Plan, as part of a broader education program, has done some advocacy work to influence government around key sector issues. For example in Cambodia Plan is part of a coalition of NGOs for education. So far this coalition has successfully advocated for higher teachers’ salaries and is currently engaged in advocating for better monitoring of teaching hours due to teacher absenteeism. This advocacy work however, does not link with or reference food security. According to respondents a lack of influencing activities is partially due to the limited capacity of Plan staff to conduct advocacy initiatives.

While there is no clear advocacy strategy as a part of the food and cash based projects related to education, this study identified numerous potential advocacy issues raised by students, teachers and parents that Plan could integrate into their broader education advocacy efforts. For example, students who participated in the study identified a number of barriers to their education that they would like to see resolved yet don’t have a clear avenue to express these frustrations. For instance they complained about the learning environment: “school is not well equipped”, “no text books”, “school is not well equipped” and “it is very late”; infrastructure: “in November, roof was destroyed by heavy rains”, “no safe drinking water available”, “distance to school is too long”, and a lack of food: “when I am hungry I cannot get to a school and I cannot concentrate.”4

The study wasn’t able to identify any evidence of advocacy actions conducted by children, communities or by Plan to address any of these issues.
COMMUNITY

The study indicated that where Plan works, girls and boys do engage and actively participate in decisions around their education in either fragile or stable settings. The study explored this through assessing the representation of children and education issues in national strategic documents, the level of participation of children in decision making around education, collective actions and advocacy actions led by children, as well as established mechanisms for consultations and complaints monitoring, and the representation of children in local government meetings. The study found that ultimately the voices of children are not represented in national strategic documents. Their general participation in decision-making processes concerning their education is also limited as reported by participating girls and boys.

Evidence collected identified various community meetings at different levels in both Zimbabwe and Cambodia where community representatives come together and discuss different issues, including children’s education. These community meetings centre around community issues, including development, school renovation and other public works. While there are some examples identified where children were consulted on issues that concerned their education this is the exception and is in no way systematic. For example, one respondent explained that when they need the input of children they “...meet with children at their school through the junior counselor” or “sometimes children representatives from school come to the meetings”.

At times we engage children and consult them for their ideas as, for example, learning material because children have complained in the past on the quality of their learning materials/books, so I met with the Village Development Committees to discuss how we will source these materials.

Some community members actually raised concerns that in these meetings many issues relevant for children’s wellbeing were decided upon without children actually involved in the discussions. In Zimbabwe there were some examples collected of suggestion boxes placed in schools, however there was very little uptake on these boxes as children weren’t aware of their existence. The study also found that children have been involved in Plan’s annual Program Area Update, however there were no other attempts to engage children in the process of program planning or design identified.

While children have not been systematically involved in decision-making processes concerning their education, the study found examples of established community networks and groups concerning education. The study sought to assess this through exploring the levels of community groups and organisations participating in national education processes, the quality of the engagement of these groups and the number of these groups led by women, and examples of women in leadership positions. While there were no formal parents’ associations or established Community-Based Organisations (CBOs) identified in either Zimbabwe or Cambodia, the study identified community groups that meet periodically and that are an opportunity for Commune Council members, chiefs and other traditional leadership, School Committee Members and School Principals to meet and discuss children’s welfare and education. Sometimes child representatives also join these meetings and according to one Council member that is a great opportunity for children’s voice to be included in the Communal Plan. Additionally, there are some community and school-based groups focused on children’s wellbeing, however education is rarely a priority. Evidence collected also suggests that children rarely participate in these meetings. While it is emphasised by respondents that children and women’s voices are listened to and respected, very few groups are led by children or women. While there is evidence of some children’s clubs in schools, these were found to be organised and led by teachers.

Despite this lack of children’s participation, evidence suggests that community groups have significantly improved education issues at the community level. In Zimbabwe and Cambodia evidence suggests that these groups work to identify issues and barriers to children’s education, and then implement different follow-up actions to resolve identified problems. The study highlighted how these groups have a significant impact in influencing change, and that this impact is in areas of interest for children, including child protection and school meals. For example, one respondent highlighted that they “organise provision of meals to the students when they come to school”.

The study found that women are more likely to analyse issues in relation to their child’s education. Several mothers actually conceptualised economic hardship through its impact on their children.

If I do not look for money then my child will not go to school.

Women also tended to raise issues specific to girls’ education including their safety walking to school and menstrual issues, with one focus group mentioning the importance of supporting girls to learn more so that women can stay in school longer and “providing more learning materials to girl students and other scholarships as needed”.

Women in Zimbabwe in particular, also highlighted the need to “encourage girls to consider their education rather than just rushing into marriage” with “the need for more education to be provided to women so that they believe in themselves and have confidence”. While men in Zimbabwe and Cambodia also saw the importance of educating girls, female respondents were more likely to consider barriers specific to girls.

14 Male Counsellor, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
15 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
16 Male Counsellor, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
17 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
18 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
19 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
20 Male Counsellor, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
21 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
22 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
23 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
24 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
Both men and women stressed the importance of local infrastructure including different WASH facilities, their functionality and maintenance. The study sought to assess this through exploring the accessibility of toilets for girls and boys, and whether they are equipped to manage menstrual hygiene; whether these facilities mainstream protection needs; the hand-washing practices of girls and boys; the safety of the learning environment; and, the ability of school staff to understand and respond to the needs of boys and girls, and children with a disability. Through the food program in Cambodia, Plan has prioritised making WASH facilities gender sensitive and inclusive. Despite this target, the study found that schools still have a long way to go in achieving this. As a part of this study Sanitation Audits were conducted in five schools across Siem Reap. The audit results indicated that the majority of toilets are not inclusive, despite some efforts by schools and Plan. The toilet facilities in 60% of schools assessed were not accessible for people with a disability. Most toilets had steps and did not have ramps, and when there were ramps they were not accompanied by walking paths. In addition there were no lights, disposal bins or proper walking paths at any of the toilets assessed. While some schools had water stations, these were not positioned close enough to the toilet facilities to make them practical. The auditors also noticed street dogs around the toilets in some schools, which were a potential threat to student safety. In 60% of schools assessed there were separate latrines for boys and girls. However, in the girls’ facilities menstrual hygiene had not been considered and there were no bins for sanitary product disposal. This is commonly cited as a reason why many girls do not come to school during their period, further impacting on their attendance and potentially causing them to dropout.

In terms of water facilities in the Cambodian schools, 60% of the water facilities were assessed as functional, while only 40% were considered well maintained. Soap for hand washing was only found in 20% of the schools assessed. Following discussions with children at their schools it was clear that they know that they should wash their hands but they are not as aware of when, why or how often. It was also clear that children struggle with where they should wash their hands at school and are prevented from practicing good hygiene due to a lack of access to functioning water facilities.

“I wash my hands when writing so that my books won’t get dirty”24.

“At school I wash my hands at the tap or at the borehole. Nowadays the tap is not functioning so I go to the borehole which is not close to the school”26.

“Here at school we don’t have water. The school needs to have a tap but it can’t afford it”25.

“Some wash their hands using the water they bring from home, some do not wash. We are asked to bring our own water. The majority of us don’t wash hands”27.

“At school (Kubatani Pri) I go to a nearby dam to wash hands. But there are crocodiles in the river so at times I will be afraid to go to the dam”28.

The study also identified a slight difference between male and female students in terms of their experiences of washing hands. For instance girls spoke about washing their hands before cooking, which was not mentioned by boys.

“I wash my hands... before cooking”29.

“At school I wash my hands(s) before cooking porridge for the whole school”30.

Food insecurity at the household level was also found to have a negative impact on the education of boys and girls to reinforce the importance of education. Teachers highlighted that the security of students when travelling to and from school is often a problem and as a result, students are unable to fully participate in the classroom and are denied things like books or are unable to quality for their certificates.

“We buy food instead of paying school fees”31.

“Sometimes we are sent away from school because of school fees non-payment”32.

“On the negative the crisis has affected children. When we go for casual labour sometimes we are forced to drink make things that they either take care of siblings or heir cattle”33.

In Cambodia, Plan supplements household food and resources through other programs including the lean season assistance and food for asset projects. Parents and children highlight how, as a result, they are more able to pay for school fees and children are more likely to go to school.

In Cambodia migration was identified by teachers and students as a key challenge. Teachers noted that children were often sent out of school to move with their family to Thailand or were left at home with grandparents or siblings who are not as equipped to support girls’ and boys education.

“To maintain their living, some families asked their children to dropout of school and migrate to Thailand”34.

“They need to help them so they request to stop this year and go to Thailand with my two older brothers stop studying at Grade 10”35.

“Grandmother or grandfather take care [of] many grandchildren (3 to 7 or over) so he/she did not pay attention on taking his/her them to school”36.

In Cambodia teachers identified other barriers to students’ attendance, as well as potential solutions. When they notice children are regularly absent from school, teachers report that they actively engage parents and seek to reinforce the importance of education. Teachers highlighted that the security of students when travelling to and from school is often a problem and as a result, students are more likely to go to school because all the kids are invited to a school and to stay in a school37.

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While boys also reported undertaking school maintenance tasks, these were described positively as a way of participating in their learning, as opposed to how girls described these tasks, which is more as a barrier to learning.

“How can students participate in a classroom...? Cleaning the classroom and schoolyard” 34.

The difference between the experiences of boys and girls around school maintenance tasks is unsurprising and indicates the participation of students by gender. When these tasks disrupt learning and are not distributed equally between the genders, girls are unjustly disadvantaged in fulfilling their academic potential and gender inequality from a young age is reinforced.

Evidence collected highlights the additional barriers to education faced by children living with a disability. Respondents identified various challenges for children with a disability in attending school. Not only are common access barriers likely to be more pronounced for children living with a disability (e.g. cost, distance/transport and food), but there are also many disability-specific barriers including a lack of teacher training/materials, inaccessible WASH/school infrastructure, parental attitudes and discrimination from other students.

The availability of inclusive education for these children is significant in its potential broader impact, excluding some of the most vulnerable children from school feeding programs, health/hygiene/nutrition-related education, community inclusion and future opportunities for employment. Households with children with disabilities may benefit from targeted activities, as they face more significant educational barriers and potential discrimination. Targeting these households for cash scholarships and take-home rations may therefore improve access to education for children with disabilities.

“Cleaning the classroom and schoolyard” 34.

The study also highlighted how girls and boys actively participate in their learning in many different ways. The study sought to assess this through exploring levels of student engagement in the classroom, the knowledge and level of teacher understanding of the importance of student participation, the availability of inclusive methodologies and tools, and any impacts of the school meals and rations program. Across Zimbabwe and Cambodia, students listed an array of ways they can participate in their learning including raising hands, reading, listening, writing, doing corrections, sports, asking questions and following instructions. Using a participatory method, data was collected about children’s classroom participation. Boys and girls were assessed separately. Participants were asked to identify modes of participation, and rank their level of engagement with each mode. Analysis included the frequency children identified different modes of participation and the proportion of responses that indicated full, some, and no engagement. Both gender disaggregated and aggregated data are presented.

Similar numbers of both boys and girls identified the same modes of participation, with some exceptions. In particular boys (6%) were much more likely to identify group work than girls (1%). In contrast, girls (11%) were more likely than boys (7%) to name different methods of performing arts as modes of participation, including music, traditional dance and drama.

The level of engagement also varied between boys and girls within some modes of participation. Girls were almost twice as likely as boys to fully participate through raising their hands in class. This was reflected in 86% of girls’ responses, despite boys and girls equally identifying ‘raising hands’ as a mode of participation.

School maintenance was also more likely to be fully engaged with by girls than boys, despite more boys groups identifying it as a mode of participation. In Zambia for example, the food program implemented by PFLP gives school gardens and the children highlight how much they enjoy and appreciate them. They expressed how much they like working in the gardens and how they think that their school looks nicer with a garden in it. Girls (61%) were almost four times as likely as boys (16%) to identify full participation through gardening. Boys were much less likely to have full engagement in gardening, with the majority of boys having half or no engagement with gardening as a means of participation.

Both boys and girls had a low level of full participation through performing arts, however boys were more likely to have some participation through arts (41%), while girls (42%) were more likely to have no participation in this area.

Boys were slightly more than girls to identify as being motivated by family to fully participate. There were no boys who indicated no participation through motivation by family, while 8% of girls indicated this.

There was a significant difference between boys and girls in their level of participation through helping their peers. All (100%) of the girls who named this as a mode of participation indicated that they fully participated through this method, while only 9% of boys were the same. A total of 91% of boys indicated some participation through helping their peers.

Participation through asking questions also varied between genders. Girls were much more likely (71%) to fully participate by asking questions in class, while boys were equally likely to have some or full engagement with this means of participation.

In summary, girls were more likely than boys to experience classroom participation through asking questions, raising their hands, helping their peers, and conducting school maintenance tasks and gardening. Boys were more likely to receive motivation from their families to participate, and were less likely than girls to have no participation in these areas.

Recommendations

Teachers interviewed in Cambodia agree that participation in the classroom and active engagement from students is very important as it helps develop communication skills and promotes solidarity so children are “good students, good friends and good children to their parents” 35. Both girls and boys believe that active participation in the classroom is very important for achieving the best learning outcomes. They also highlight that active participation helps them gain confidence and it increases their knowledge levels. They listed multiple enablers and obstacles to their classroom participation. The study highlights that boys and girls are faced on different barriers to participation in the classroom. They diverged on the barriers of corporal punishment, school maintenance and food. Girls in particular highlighted corporal punishment as a factor that prevented them from participating in the classroom.

“Can I participate more if teachers do not beat me for saying the wrong answer during mental work” 36.

“We don’t raise our hands because the teacher... will beat others while we are not beaten” 37.

“I don’t ask for clarity because I am afraid of being beaten” 38.

When boys spoke about corporal punishment however, they highlighted teachers using corporal punishment as a method of encouraging, or forcing, participation.

“Our teacher encourages us to participate by threatening to beat us. Because we are afraid of the beating we raise our hands even when we do not really know the answer to the questions asked” 39.

“I am not happy with my participation because our teachers beat us when you fail to answer questions” 40.

The use of violence to enforce student participation suggests an attempt by teachers to increase student involvement in learning. This study suggests that as girls were less likely to have their participation reinforced with violence, it may be an indication that there is a difference in teaching approaches towards different genders. Regardless, the use of corporal punishment to encourage participation is not only a less effective method for achieving learning outcomes, but it infringes upon boys’ and girls’ rights to a safe learning environment.

Other obstacles to participation include the number of students in the classroom, with some students identifying that sometimes they cannot participate as there are a lot of students and the teacher doesn’t get around to everyone. The study also found that the fear of being teased from peers is another key obstacle.

Table 3. Modes of Participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>% Full</th>
<th>% Some</th>
<th>% None</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raising hands</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School maintenance (include fetching water)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gardening</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening to the teacher</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School club</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performing arts, including traditional</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group work</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation from family</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helping peers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking up in class</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking questions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

30 Boy, FGD, Kwekwa Primary School, Cambodina.
31 Girl, FGD, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.
32 Boy, FGD, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.
33 Boy, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
34 Boy, FGD, Kwekwa Primary School, Cambodina.
The study found that Plan's food and cash based interventions immediately have a very direct impact on student learning, most notably student attendance and their concentration in the classroom. Both boys and girls highlighted food as a very important factor in their classroom participation. On the one hand students are unable to concentrate and focus on learning when they are hungry. On the other hand they perform better when they are full. Students stressed that when they are hungry they cannot think about anything else but food.

“If not hungry we study hard and we are able to concentrate more”.

In Zimbabwe where there are no Plan implemented school meals, by supplementing household food and resources through other programs, parents and children highlight how children are more likely to attend school, and participate in the classroom as they are not going to school hungry.

While both boys and girls described food as a key factor in their classroom participation, this was framed differently by the two groups. Boys spoke about food as an enabler of participation.

“Food is important because it enhances concentration in class”. 49

“Food gives us the power to work harder at work”. 50

“Food gives us energy to write books”. 51

“(Food) improves our vision as without food our vision is impaired”. 52

Girls on the other hand were more likely to describe hunger as a barrier to participation.

“We don’t participate because we will be hungry”. 53

“I am unhappy with the participation because I will be hungry”. 54

The study indicates that women and girls have lower levels of positive thinking and confidence levels as compared to boys. This has been found across sectors from participation in education through to women in leadership.

“Girls are not fully participating in community activities as they are said to lack confidence”. 55

Women, girls, men and boys identified that it is this ‘inferiority complex’ that stops girls from actively participating, from voicing their opinions more freely and from framing things in a more positive light.

The Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change emphasises the importance of the engagement of parents and family in their study as a key factor in their receiving a quality education before, during and after disasters and conflict. Despite the hardship that many families experience on a daily basis, parents and families in principle engage in their children’s education in both Zimbabwe and Cambodia. The study sought to assess this through exploring parental engagement in school activities and meetings, and in school homework.

Both students and teachers believe that parents and families should actively engage in their children’s education. Having this support motivates and encourages students resulting in better learning outcomes. The students that receive help from parents say that they like when their parents and family help them with their homework and work at home as it gives them new ideas, helps them find solutions to problems and encourages them to try harder in their studies. Some students involved in the study go as far as saying that if they receive assistance from their parents and families, they are:

• “More confident at school”. 56
• “More likely to pass during exams or tests”. 57
• “More likely to participate in the classroom”. 58

While the majority of students report that they receive support with their homework from parents or other family members, some do not because they do not have enough money or they do not have the time. There were also some instances where students indicated that they don’t want assistance from their family for fear of being physically punished.

“I am unhappy because I have no one to assist with homework. I arrive home late in the evening, so when I request for assistance, no one wants to assist me that late”. 59

“I live with grandparents. When I asked for help they told me they don’t know”. 60

“My brother help me but he beats me too”. 61

The study found that boys were much more likely to speak about their parents and families as enablers of participation in a classroom, as compared to girls.

“Motivation from parents, encourage to study, help to do homework (mainly mother). Motivation from brothers or sisters”. 62

This could indicate greater encouragement from families in educating their sons as compared to their daughters. Alternatively this could also indicate the difference between boy’s and girls’ perceptions of enabling factors to their participation in education.

The study found that, at least in Cambodia where the food program is centred around schools, Plan staff encourage parents to engage in their children’s education despite a lack of time or knowledge.

“Parents are usually not confident because they do not feel as if they can help. We explain to parents that it is important that they ask their children if they have done a [sic] homework. They can just ask what they were doing in school. In addition, parents do not bring children to the field with them any more so that we decrease number of sick leaves. We also show to parents that this is important. We are kind of broker between parents and schools”. 63

This is further reinforced by officials within the Provincial Office of Education in Cambodia.

“Even if parents are not educated they can just encourage students to study at home, they can have children read to them. They can record how much time students spend learning although if they do not seat [sic] and learn with them. Sometimes teachers conduct informal home visits to the household. This should be formalised. Parents help their kids only in cities. Community meetings can help to parents who are less educated”. 64

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the study confirmed the relevance of the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change with regard to education. While Plan contributes in varying degrees to a large part of this Theory of Change there are also some areas where Plan could make some significant improvements. Plan significantly contributes to students accessing education through the provision of meals and resources both at school and within the household. They also support children to actively participate in their learning through increasing food consumption both at home and at school. While Plan sometimes supports the establishment of school WASH infrastructure these facilities are often not functioning, not close enough to working hand-washing facilities and are not inclusive of children with disabilities. Other notable gaps include the meaningful and systematic inclusion of boys and girls in making processes that relate to their education, as well as a lack of clear advocacy strategies and influencing of engagement with government. While Plan supports the establishment of community networks concerning education, there is no evidence of addressing gender inequalities and promoting women’s leadership in these processes. Plan should also do more work to address key barriers to education for more marginalised students, including addressing negative gender stereotypes and working with schools and communities to better support children with disabilities to access and participate in quality education.
7.4 LEARN: ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND LIVELIHOODS

Plan supports women, girls, boys and men to enjoy financial independence before, during and after disasters and conflicts. Food and cash based projects directly contribute to economically empowering communities by increasing household resources through the direct provision of food and cash resources, supporting income generating activities and through cooperatives working at building the resilience of local industries. The study found evidence of Plan’s influence on economic empowerment at all three levels – government policy and practice, community structures and processes, and within the household.

GOVERNMENT AND POLICY

Plan seeks to support responsible government actors to engage and commit to economically empowering community members. The study sought to assess this through exploring government activities aimed at economic empowerment of communities and households through activities including trainings, subsidies and employment opportunities. In Zimbabwe for example, there was evidence collected of government-funded activities and services from various ministries. The Ministry of Social Welfare supports various activities aimed at economically empowering households. For example, they support public works where communities are engaged in the building and rehabilitation of public assets including bridges, roads and schools, improving community infrastructure and providing employment to poor men and women. They also have a public assistance scheme that provides vulnerable households with cash transfers of approximately US$20 per month to support meeting their basic expenses67.

The Ministry of Social Welfare also has an array of services targeted to people living with a physical disability. There is a fund available for people living with a physical disability that provides small loans of up to US$1,000 at 0% interest to support the start-up of small businesses. There are also three government technical vocational training centres across the country where people living with a physical disability are able to attend for free. Courses available in these centres include carpentry, building, hairdressing and sewing. They also offer scholarships to private institutions where a suitable course can be identified. Due to significant budget restrictions, all services are means tested to target only the most poor68. The Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Gender and Community Development has various activities aimed at economically empowering women. This includes loan schemes and business skills training to foster female-led small businesses as well as establishing village savings and loans (VSL) groups.

“The study did find that in general, governments seek to support the economic empowerment of communities and households through activities including trainings, subsidies and employment opportunities. In Zimbabwe for example, there was evidence collected of government-funded activities and services from various ministries. The Ministry of Social Welfare supports various activities aimed at economically empowering households. For example, they support public works where communities are engaged in the building and rehabilitation of public assets including bridges, roads and schools, improving community infrastructure and providing employment to poor men and women. They also have a public assistance scheme that provides vulnerable households with cash transfers of approximately US$20 per month to support meeting their basic expenses.”

“Finances are an issue with implementation and they currently rely on the contribution from civil society.”

73. Male, Interview, Plan Staff, Zimbabwe.
66. Male, Interview, Plan Staff, Zimbabwe.
69. Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
70. Male, Interview, Ministry of Social Welfare, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

COMMUNITY

Plan seeks to support communities in accessing gender sensitive and inclusive social protection and safety nets. The study sought to assess this through exploring the availability and use of social protection mechanisms by the most vulnerable; the sensitivity of social protection mechanisms to the needs of young people; as well as the effectiveness of this through a child protection and gender assessment; and evidence of child protection systems and community based mechanisms. While Plan doesn’t directly implement national social protection mechanisms and safety nets, the study found that Plan interventions, with the provision of food and cash to vulnerable households, are themselves perceived as part of the national social safety net system. The provision of cash to vulnerable households is itself seen as part of the broader social protection strategy, with the program due to be absorbed by the government following WFP’s imminent departure from Cambodia.

Plan seeks to engage government at national level in key forums around economic empowerment and social safety nets, however there is limited data to suggest Plan has a clear advocacy position or strategy. In Zimbabwe for example, Plan is a member of the Food and Nutrition Council’s annual Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZimVAC) which seeks to capture agricultural and household data and informs the assessment process, as well as in implementing the strategy. There is however limited evidence to suggest that Plan seeks to influence the advocacy needs of the most vulnerable; girls, boys and other such vulnerable

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“Where possible, Plan leverages its strong relationship with government to coordinate with government services and other agencies’ programs to limit duplication and maximise efforts. In Zimbabwe for example, Plan coordinated with the government’s Presidential (Sachem) Council for Agricultural and Rural Development (CARD) to coordinate the design and implementation of its Social Protection Policy. This Social Protection Working Group was composed of the relevant government line ministries (including Ministry of Social Affairs, Ministry of Vocational Training and Employment) and key development partners (such as UNICEF and WFP). NGOs however, are not formal members and are unable to participate directly. Plan in Cambodia has had to bilaterally engage with relevant ministries and development partners, including WFP, in order to influence change in this forum. There does not seem to be clear advocacy strategies at government level around economic and livelihoods policy and investment.”

“We include the work of NGOs like Plan and UNICEF in the calculations of our annual targets. We see this as integrated – otherwise we wouldn’t be able to meet our annual targets.”

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“Largely the social protection mechanisms in Zimbabwe are focused on food security and there are food safety nets to target vulnerable communities”.

Plan plays a significant role in linking government with communities through the provision of things like cash support for programs and directly implementing services. Plan also seeks to informally link government services with communities through the provision of transport, meal allowances and other incentives to government staff. Plan links government extension workers, who are largely responsible for implementing government social protection services, with rural communities.

“For example in Chilocho, there were no government officers visiting the villages because of broken motorbikes so Plan repaired 15 government motorbikes so they had to start visiting the villages”.

“Plan has supported us to attend distributions by providing transportation and lunch allowance. This way we can go out into communities and be mobile – without the support of Plan we wouldn’t have been able to go out into these communities”.

Plan seeks to support food production systems to be sustainable with gender sensitive and resilient agricultural practices before, during and after disasters and conflicts. The study sought to assess this by exploring the level of sustainability of local food production systems and whether these production systems are sensitive to the needs and capabilities of men and women. The study found that, in general, Plan does support food production systems through some of their food and cash based interventions, however this is not consistent. Where Plan isn’t currently supporting food production systems and community assets, respondents stressed the need for investment in community infrastructure to support their agricultural systems in becoming more efficient, effective and resilient to climatic shocks and stresses. The study found that, overall, food production systems are inefficient, don’t maximise production and are not resilient to climatic shocks and stresses.

“Plants are the people who have cattle to help them grow crops, the majority do this by hand alone which isn’t efficient”.

“They have small dams but they don’t have irrigation systems. For example, they have to use buckets for transporting water from the dams to their gardens and cultivating”.

“The application of fertilizer is also lagging behind and they can’t sustain their crops, especially with climate changes”.

At all levels, from leadership through to households, community involvement in the production of small grains which are planted which leads to diet diversity. I have also seen evidence of vegetable gardens. There is more of an adoption of small grains which produce better yields.

Evidence collected suggests that, in general, investment in food production systems has had a significant positive impact on agricultural systems. Plan recognised the importance of women where their general food security and earning capacity has been improved as a direct result of Plan interventions.

“Plan international managed to reduce the issues of food crisis through the rehabilitation of Fungazi irrigation scheme, fish ponds were constructed at the scheme and a solar system is being used to pump water to the ponds. This has a bright future because if we sell fish we get money for paying school fees and buy more food. Our children are no longer under-nourished”.

“The impact of these trainings has been an increase in intercropping where multiple crops are planted which leads to diversity. I have also seen evidence of vegetable gardening. There is more of an adoption of small grains which produce better yields”.

Despite the generally positive impact of these activities, there were examples collected where tasks hadn’t been adequately completed, rendering the assets ineffective or completely unusable. In one ward in Zimbabwe, the construction of the irrigation scheme and ponds was left unfinished, the pump installed incorrectly and as a result, remained unused following the conclusion of the project.

Evidence of irrigation scheme done by Plan under the LSA [Lean Season Assistance] program. We have a good relationship with Plan but fish ponds and irrigation scheme must be finished.

Irrigation scheme is not yet finished, fish ponds were constructed under FFA [Food for Assets], but not all of them are functional yet”.

Following discussions with Plan staff it is clear that there are gaps in terms of post-distribution monitoring. Plan limits itself by WFP timeframes and budgets for project implementation. As such, post-distribution monitoring isn’t funded and is done on an ad hoc basis. When staff are in the area on other business they make the effort to consult with communities, reporting any serious issues to the District Administrator, however this is not a systematic or mandatory process.

Evidence suggests that food and cash based projects run the risk of fostering or supporting attitudes of dependency, and rather should be integrated within broader thinking around food production systems wherever possible as opposed to doing food distributions as standalone activities. For example in Zimbabwe, where Plan implemented LSA projects with WFP, vulnerable households received food and cash, as well as some training opportunities to support their basic needs. The study highlighted that for Plan’s support, communities highlighted how now that the food has run out and with insufficient crop yields, they are in the same position without enough food to meet their basic needs. They requested investment in community infrastructure, most notably water systems.

“If we manage to irrigate our lands, we can pay school fees for our children”.

The study found that food production systems and practices don’t take into account the different needs of men and women, and interventions are generally not informed by a gender analysis. Traditional gender divisions are replicated in food production practices, with women responsible for household food and nutrition, and men responsible for income generation.

“The women’s crops tend to be for the household and food for the table. Whereas the men’s crops produce the income for the household”.

“Colton (cash crop) only managed by men (women don’t want to carry the knapsack nor being close to chemicals), food crops managed by women. Livestock: cattle is men’s business, goats and chicken women’s business”.

To supplement the household crops, women also provide casual labour for income generation. While it is recognised that women do the majority of the work in terms of time spent, men in particular stressed that women were limited to the smaller tasks, while men did the larger, more physical tasks.

“We women are main actors in agriculture: they do weeding and planting, men take care of ploughing and cultivating”.

“Usually the land preparation and the harder labour is done by men. The ploughing and the weeding that don’t require too much muscles are done by women”.

The study also found that Plan’s activities focused on agricultural infrastructure, and food production systems fail to systematically include people living with disabilities. People with disabilities require particular attention at the government, community and household level to reduce economic vulnerability. Plan activities aimed at economic empowerment do not target people with disabilities, with little evidence collected that suggests Plan programs track the needs and capabilities of people with disabilities.

Plan seeks to enable local markets and supply chains before, during and after disasters and conflicts. The study sought to assess this through exploring limitations of the local markets, the satisfaction levels of local populations with markets and the availability, diversity and pricing of basic

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Female Counsellor, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

Male, Interview, Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

Female Counsellor, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

Female Counsellor, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
products available at the market. In Cambodia approximately 75% of respondents were satisfied with the local market. This discrepancy that they can always or almost always purchase everything they need locally. When asked how far they need to travel to get supplies, less than half of respondents travel up to 5 km while all others travel between 11 km and 38 km. The majority of respondents, however, were not satisfied with the diversity and cost of items, with only 7% of respondents satisfied with the price of goods. On the other hand quality was considered an area of concern, with only 15% of respondents not satisfied with the quality of goods. In Zimbabwe the results were very similar with approximately 30% of respondents not satisfied with the local market, including its accessibility and availability of different items. Like Cambodia, a large majority (almost 80%) of respondents in Zimbabwe were not satisfied with the cost of products at the local market.

Different factors were analysed that could influence people’s satisfaction with the local market including gender, age, disability, education and employment status. Only disability status showed a significant correlation with satisfaction levels with the local market. People with a disability were much less likely to be satisfied with the local market.

The study found that, in general, Plan does indirectly provide support in enabling local markets and supply chains through increasing household and community resources by encouraging spending and through improving local supplies. Through the provision of cash and food to households through general food distributions, cash/food for work and take-home rations in school feeding programs, Plan is directly increasing household resources. In doing so, Plan seeks to increase resources available in the community, encouraging spending and stimulating local vendors and markets. By working with farmers and promoting more efficient and sustainable farming practices, and in supporting agricultural infrastructure, Plan seeks to improve local supply. In the school feeding program, home grown school feeding models where Plan gives schools cash to procure all food locally, and hybrid models that incorporate WFP rations with locally procured food, also stimulate local markets and supply chains. Plan supports schools in linking with farmers and promoting the procurement of rice, protein and vegetables.

Despite the investment of Plan, especially in food and cash based projects, evidence collected highlights several factors with local markets and supply chains, outside Plan’s sphere of control, that impede efforts in this space. For example in Cambodia, the steadily falling price of rice is severely affecting farmers’ ability to earn an income. In the school feeding program, where WFP supplies rice with the support of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the rice has been imported from the United States. Where Plan provides cash to schools to purchase a fraction of the budget is for rice at a competitive price meaning that farmers struggle to make a profit.

The rice yield and cash crops are not sufficient and the sale cost is cheap. Therefore, to maintain their living some community people decided to borrow money from others such as microfinance institution and private lenders. It used to be 1300 Riel/kg and now it is down to 900 Riel/kg.

In Cambodia, the ongoing financial crisis has resulted in a fragmented and declining national market. At community level, the study found that even when farmers had produced enough to sell, there were limited markets available to on-sell their produce.

*Lack of markets means no cash*.

*There are no income-generating projects and even if they have these, there is limited or no market for their produce*.

*The bus stop is their marketplace so they sell things to people on the side of the road*.

As a result of these more complex issues, coupled with limited employment opportunities, migration to urban centres and neighbouring countries in both Cambodia and Cambodia has escalated. The impact of migration on communities goes beyond financial, with this study finding that migration negatively impacts all sectors including education, health, nutrition, protection and women’s empowerment.

*Some families decided to allow one or two family members to migrate to provincial town or out of the country to get the job with better pay/income to support their families*

As I know the migrate [sic] rate from Chroy Neang Nguyen commune is about 600 out of 7,000 people in the community. This included both in-country and out-country migration.

*Families are now all going to Thailand – estimated to be 1.5 million from last year to Thailand*.

Plan seeks to support households to have increased resources before, during and after disasters and conflicts. The study sought to assess this through exploring the diversity and levels of household resources, and the different activities aimed at increasing household resources. Through the provision of food and cash, coupled with investment in agriculture and income-generating activities, Plan activities seek to directly increase household resources. The study found that, in general, Plan programs generally do increase household resources, at least in the immediate term. The impacts of these activities are far-reaching, increasing individual agency and giving households choice to address their own priorities.

Evidence collected suggests that by increasing household resources Plan programs have supported households to meet their basic needs, somewhat reducing the financial pressures for men and women, and enabling them to pay for major expenses including school fees and medical costs.

*Plan International is the organisation that changed our welfare. They gave us cattle and agricultural equipment*.

*What is a long term impact of those SPF [School Feeding Program] initiatives? Reduced burden of household on money provision to their children when they go to school*.

*Plan provided vocational training to out-of-school youth so that they could get jobs with better pays*.

*Plan International provided scholarhip supports to the poor students such as rice, money, bicycles and other school materials*.

*To the community and schools, Plan supported vegetables needs to grow in order to reduce the burden of household to buy vegetables from the market*.

The evidence indicates that only 27% of Plan’s beneficiaries in Cambodia have enough money to satisfy all of their basic needs. A total of 55% of the non-beneficiary populationceland in Cambodia reported enough money to cover their basic needs. Although this indicates effective targeting by Plan as the poorest people from the community are a part of Plan’s interventions, it also shows that support provided from Plan has not been sufficient to meet the basic needs of women, girls, boys and men within the household.

In Cambodia, 190 of the respondents were Plan’s beneficiaries while 10 were not. There is no significant correlation between ability to satisfy basic needs on one side and support from Plan on the other. Beneficiaries of Plan are slightly but not significantly likely to have the resources they need to satisfy all their basic needs. Men are also less likely to satisfy all the household needs than women. This discrepancy can be explained by the more severe food deficiency in Cambodia as a result of the ongoing financial crisis. The survey results found that 27.5% of households in Cambodia do not have any single source of income. In Zimbabwe, 27.8% of households have at least two individuals bringing in income (48.3%) while the rest have a single income or no income at all. In Cambodia 12% of respondents identified three individuals contributing to the household income. It is also important to mention that only 7% of respondents have a rental income. All the workers work as seasonal workers both within their country and/or as migrants outside their country, which certainly contributes to the lack of income stability.

The study sought to assess the sufficiency, sustainability and increase of household resources by measuring household perceptions of their income, past, present and future. Of respondents in Cambodia, 25.4% believe that their household budget has decreased in the last six months. A further 32.2% report that it increased, while the majority (42.4%) believe that their household income has remained the same. Amongst Plan’s beneficiaries, more people reported that their funds have decreased in the last year as compared to households who have not received any resources from Plan. In Zimbabwe, 70% think that their household income has remained the same in the past six months, 14.5% think that it has increased, while only 15.5% feel that their household income has remained the same. When it comes to the future, respondents in Cambodia are optimistic, with over 40% of them believing that their household income will increase in the next year. In Zimbabwe they are more pessimistic, with 39% thinking that their income will keep decreasing and only 22.5% believing it will increase. Across both countries people with a disability are much more likely to believe that their income will decrease (almost 20% more than those without a disability). Ultimately, the data has shown that Plan interventions haven’t lead to a sustainable increase of household resources. As highlighted above, while Plan may be effectively targeting the most vulnerable, resources provided continue to not meet basic needs. If it is worth noting that external forces outside of Plan’s control, such as the financial crisis in Zimbabwe, significantly impact the intervention’s ability to meet this target.

Many respondents reported borrowing money in order to satisfy their basic needs. In Zimbabwe 77% and in Cambodia 63.5% of households borrowed some money in the last year. Almost half of those who borrow money use various microfinance institutions, while others ask relatives (mainly siblings) for assistance. In Cambodia approximately 11% of those who had to borrow...
money in the last six months did it to buy food; 12.7% used borrowed money for capital investments; approximately 3% used their borrowed money for clothes; only one respondent used borrowed money to buy school material; and 5% of respondents used it to buy machines for work. While in Cambodia a significant number of households borrow money from microfinance institutions, in Zimbabwe most people borrow from family and neighbours. In Zimbabwe a significant portion of respondents borrowed money for food – around 43% of households.

Data was analysed against possible factors that could increase the likelihood of borrowing money and identified gender, disability and affiliation with Plan as significant correlations, while age and education were not identified as significant. Findings indicated that men are more likely to borrow money and, as explained in more detail below, men continue to maintain control over financial decisions. This might explain the higher representation of men as it is easier for them to access loans. People with disabilities are also more likely to borrow money as compared to people who do not have a disability. While approximately 50% of people without a disability borrow money, 70% of those people with a disability had to borrow money for basic needs in order to survive. In terms of age, the most likely to borrow money are respondents aged 15 to 24 (almost 80% of them) and the least likely people are those over 65 (60%).

Despite the impact of Plan’s programs, the study found that in general, the needs and capabilities of people living with disabilities aren’t considered systematically and, as a result, individuals and households with a person with a disability are under-represented in Plan’s programs. While these households may be targeted as vulnerable for livelihoods programs do not systematically target people with disabilities, who are consistently seen as disadvantaged as compared to men, however evidence collected suggests a shift towards more collaborative and equitable decision making. In Cambodia and Zimbabwe, like at community level, men continue to be celebrated as the ultimate authority within the household.

“As I am the breadwinner, I have more influence in decision making”113.

“When a woman gets married she goes to the house of the husband hence has to listen to the voice of authority. You risk divorce if you fail to listen to the husband”110.

“Societal norms and expectations about what a woman can do and her role in her household. It has been ingrained in women since birth that they are to leave decision making in the household to their husbands or the men in the household”114.

While there is some evidence to suggest that increasingly women are being consulted, ultimately the decision rests with the man of the house.

“Long back it was only men making decisions but these days we consult each other. However, when a conflict arises, decisions rest on men”111.

All the women agreed that in every debate in every conflict their men would win hands down because of several factors that have been in existence since long ago”112.

“Before purchasing the big thing, my wife and I discuss together. However, as I am the breadwinner, I have more influence in decision making”115.

This is further supported through the quantitative analysis of FGDs where women and men in Cambodia and Zimbabwe ranked decision-making authority amongst household members around key sectors, including financial management and savings. Middle-aged men were identified as the most influential sex-age group consistently across virtually all sectors, except WASH. This ranking was most evident with regard to household financial decisions where middle-aged men were by far the most influential household member. While middle-aged women were consistently ranked second, the margin between first and second was the greatest in this sector.

### Table 4. Ranking of Decision-Making Authority, Financial Decisions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Cambodia Responses Ranking</th>
<th>Zimbabwe Responses Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Older Man 6</td>
<td>Older Man 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle-Aged Man 1</td>
<td>Middle-Aged Man 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Young Boy 3</td>
<td>Young Boy 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Older Woman 4</td>
<td>Older Woman 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle-Aged Woman 2</td>
<td>Middle-Aged Woman 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Young Girl 6</td>
<td>Young Girl 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Older Man 4</td>
<td>Older Man 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle-Aged Man 1</td>
<td>Middle-Aged Man 1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Young Boy 3</td>
<td>Young Boy 5</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Older Woman 4</td>
<td>Older Woman 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle-Aged Woman 2</td>
<td>Middle-Aged Woman 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Young Girl 6</td>
<td>Young Girl 6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

113 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
114 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
115 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
This decision-making authority is linked with control over household resources as earning capacity, borrowing capacity and the ability to provide for one’s family. Both men and women highlight that it is the man’s responsibility to provide financially for their family. In Zimbabwe in particular, men identify that providing for one’s family is part of what it means to be a husband and as a result being unable to provide for one’s family indicates failure. “I look for money because I need to marry and have a family and also own livestock”119.

“[If] I as a men do not provide for my family that would be unfair to my wife” 116.

Evidence has suggested that women are more readily entered into decision making role as compared to the past. Women are increasingly participating in income-generating activities, especially in times of financial hardship, in order to fulfill their duties as the household’s main carer.

“Before, my husband work and I manage the finances. Now we both go to work and I still manage the finances. Because the need is more than before and he cannot earn enough alone” 117.

“The power of the women is only realised nowadays. I remember my mother wanted a passport so that she can go to South Africa and buy grocery for selling but my father refused saying that she wants to be a prostitute. Compared to my husband he forced me to have a passport so that I can also earn a living with him together” 118.

For example, the drought in Zimbabwe coupled with the ongoing financial crisis, has reduced household resources and the availability of food and water. While the crisis has increased women’s workload it has also given women the opportunity to more easily enter the workforce.

“It has also improved in the household because of economic hardship, it has meant that men have been consulting their women more about financial decisions because there is less finances and they are more open to discuss”119.

With women increasingly contributing to household income, evidence suggests that they are also increasingly involved in decision-making processes with how money is spent. It seems that if you are involved in earning the money, you have a bigger say as to how it is spent. As food and cash based projects are so important, and their beneficial outcomes are evidence to suggest that these activities have some influence in shifting dynamics within the household and empowering women in financial decision making processes.

“Women are these days part of the working class. That they now have resources meant they have more power”120.

“Women are now taking up work and can also make decisions like man over resources”121.

Conversations with men and women in Zimbabwe and Cambodia indicate that compared to the past, couples are increasingly budgeting for household expenses together. While men remain the ultimate decision maker, women are increasingly consulted. Women are also increasingly recognized for being good at managing the household budget.

“The money kept by the women lasts longer and makes timely expenditure on anything”122.

“For me and my husband we discuss on what we want to buy and we buy on preferences. This is because my husband has received education on women empowerment and understands its contents” 123.

“When the wives or husbands want to buy the big thing like motorbike, both of them need to discuss with each other. It is different from before that the wives just ones who keep money, but the men are the ones who control over resources make decision to buy or sell on the big things. The women are just consulted”124.

Data collected highlights that men and women spend their money in different ways and different things, dependent on their role within the household. Women, as the traditional carers, tend to spend their earnings on things for the family including food, school fees and other such expenses. Men, on the other hand, seem to be responsible for larger household expenses such as big purchases.

“In my household as a man look for money but my wife look for food for my kids and prepares it well for them to eat. I usually look for money for the grinding meal only”125.

“Payment of things like food, children study material the women makes decision to buy everything. Money to contribute to community development is the woman decision. Big payment, like buying moto, building, is the man’s decision with wife”126.

“Afet I have sold the crops, I get to use the money however I want. However if he sees that I have too much money, he will stop paying for things like school fees. When it is the man who has earned the money, women never get a say in how he chooses to spend it”127.

“My husband sometimes look for money but if he works he keeps the money to himself and all what he thinks about is beer and cigarettes”128.

Plan does not explicitly work at household level to support a more equitable distribution of resources. However, there is some evidence to suggest that Plan’s food and cash based projects contributed to women’s increased participation in decision making within the household. By increasing women’s access to resources through systems registered as head of household. Plan has temporally increased their authority within the household.

“When I used to go home with some cash my husband would say that I got it from a boyfriend and that would be an argument. Now he prelits we plan and I never used to happen because until my name was registered in the Plan programme. I have hope that even when it ends my husband would have realised I can do a good job of budgeting for our family” 129.

“Plan international encouraged women to be registered as beneficiaries. This has given them more leeway to decide on how to use the cash. Therefore Plan promoted women to make decisions”130.

The study found that decision making within the household around finances is very much linked to how the resources were earnt, as a result, children and individuals with different incomes have little decision making authority. The study also found that children in general are not involved in financial decisions at household level. Women were the ones who kept limited evidence to suggest that in some situations children are consulted, their limited earning capacity and the status of women in societies means that they have very little influence on household decision making.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the study confirmed the relevance of the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change with regard to livelihoods and economic empowerment. While Plan contributes in varying degrees to a large part of this Theory of Change there are also some areas where Plan could make some significant improvements in order to better support women, girls, boys and men to enjoy financial independence before, during and after disasters and conflicts. At government level, Plan plays a large role in supporting governments to implement their policies and strategies around economic empowerment. While Plan doesn’t directly implement national social protection mechanisms and safety nets, the study found that Plan interventions, with the provision of food and cash to vulnerable households, are seen as part of the national social safety net system. Plan plays a significant role in linking government with communities through the provision of things like cash support for programs and directly implementing services. Plan also seeks to informally link government services with communities through the provision of transport, meal allowances and other incentives to government staff. While Plan seeks to support government to implement their policies and programs through targeting vulnerable households and coordinating with government services, Plan has not been using its position to advocate for change in policy or budget.

The study found that, overall, food production projects and interventions don’t maximise production and are not resilient to climatic shocks and stresses. Investing in food production systems is seen as a more sustainable intervention and a way out for communities who are reliant on food aid. Evidence collected suggests that where successful, investment in food production systems has had a significant positive impact on agricultural systems. In order to counter attitudes of dependency and to have the most sustained impact, where possible, food distribution should be complemented with investment in food production systems and community infrastructure, where appropriate.

Plan, in general, does not undertake gender assessments when designing or implementing agricultural or livelihoods interventions. Evidence collected suggests that in agriculture, there are really clear and distinct roles between women and men that should be taken into consideration when targeting activities. The study also found that Plan’s activities focused on agricultural infrastructure and food production systems fail to systematically include people living with disabilities.

The study found that in general, Plan projects do increase household resources, at least in the immediate term. The improvements are far-reaching, increasing individual agency and giving households the choice to address their own priorities. Evidence suggests that by increasing household resources Plan projects have supported households to meet their basic needs, somewhat reducing the financial pressures for men and women, and enabling them to pay for major expenses. Control over financial resources within a household continues to be an area where women are disadvantaged as compared to men. This decision-making authority is also linked with control over financial resources and the ability to provide for one’s family. Women increasingly contributing to household income, evidence suggests that they are increasingly involved in decision-making processes with how money is spent. Control over financial resources within a household continues to be an area where women are disadvantaged as compared to men. This decision-making authority is also linked with control over financial resources and the ability to provide for one’s family. With women increasingly contributing to household income, evidence suggests that they are increasingly involved in decision-making processes with how money is spent.
Plan supports women and girls to actively participate and influence change before, during and after disasters and conflicts. Food and cash based projects directly contribute to empowering women, and by providing leadership opportunities within communities and encouraging female decision making over resources. The study sought to assess this by exploring the effectiveness and nature of policy change before, during and after disasters and conflicts. Food and cash distributions. Plan also works with MOWAGCD in community level projects directly contributing to gender based violence and women’s empowerment.

In Zimbabwe, inheritance and land rights are other areas where evidence suggests positive steps towards reducing the inequality between women and men, however it is not clear how consistently the law is applied. Zimbabwean law provides for relatively equal property and inheritance rights for men and women. Interviews with government representatives and community leaders indicate that in more recent times, women have been able to inherit and own land unlike in the past. “If you think of divorcing, you will lose in the end because property is shared equally” 133.

“For example, the Anti-Domestic Violence Council led by MOWAGCD at a national level is meant to bring together various government agencies, service providers, police and civil society organisations. Analysis of the budget highlights that nothing was allocated to the Anti-Domestic Violence Council so since its inception in 2013 it has not been able to deliver on its mandate. Due to this consistent underfunding, Plan, in its engagement with government across all sectors, acts as the broker between government and communities, providing access for MOWAGCD resources to piggy-back on the transportation of food and cash distributions. Plan also works with MOWAGCD in community level projects directly contributing to gender based violence and women’s empowerment.”

“Plan seeks to support functioning and robust law enforcement and legal systems that uphold rights, especially the rights of women and girls before, during and after disasters and conflicts. The study sought to assess this by exploring the status, effectiveness and nature of policy change that supports women’s empowerment and rights, government budget allocation to address gender inequality and government policy specifically looking at gender based violence, representation and inheritance rights.”

There are clear gaps at government level that Plan could address for MOWAGCD in the empowerment of women and girls. The gender equality and women’s empowerment agenda in countries where Plan works shows a noticeable discrepancy between policy and practice. Both countries where extensive data collection was conducted have an established government ministry dedicated to women’s affairs tasked with addressing gender inequality at all levels, legal frameworks and action plans promoting gender equality. However limitations in political will, funding, capacity, influence and a failure to address causes of inequality impact the efficacy of a legal system and policy platform that upholds the rights of women and girls.

“In principle the government takes into consideration gender, however in practice it is not always there and the vulnerabilities of women still remain” 134.

In Zimbabwe for example, the National Gender Policy (NGP) was unveiled on July 6, 2017 with a call for gender justice, equality, integration, inclusiveness and shared responsibility for sustainable development in Zimbabwe. This policy complements the extensive changes made in the Constitution in 2013 that seek to promote gender equality, gender parity and equal opportunity. This has been further strengthened by the passing of 17 pieces of legislation to advance the gender equality and equity objective and these include: Matrimonial Causes Act (1987); Maintenance Act (1999); Administration of Estates Act (1997); Sexual Offences Act (2001); Education Act (2004); Labour Act (Chapter 28:01); Criminal Law Code (2006); and Domestic Violence Act (2007). This comprehensive legal framework seeks to provide a platform for change and a basis for understanding and dealing with issues around gender equity and equality. Despite this robust framework, there are gaps in terms of implementation.

“The should be noted therefore that despite the provisions in the Constitution there is little evidence that much has yet been done to ensure gender equality becomes a reality in Zimbabwe, particularly for women who have been marginalised for centuries. There has been an outcry from women who see no political will on the part of the powers-that-be to ensure gender equality is realised. As a country we have beautiful policy papers on gender, laws and a constitution which are there as mere window dressing and not implemented, it is high time the government moved from gender theory to action and start walking the talk” 135.

For example, an analysis of the 2014-2017 budget shows that there has been little effort to promote gender equality in Zimbabwe. The Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Gender and Community Development (MOWAGCD) is the ministry mandated with promoting gender equality, empowering economically and ending all forms of discrimination and gender-based violence. However, in the 2014-2017 budget it was allocated a paltry US$10.8 million, less than 1% of the US$4.3 billion national budget 136.

Gender-based violence (GBV) is an example of an issue where some positive steps have been taken in both Zimbabwe and Cambodia at policy level, however, this has not necessarily been followed through in practice. In Cambodia, the Ministry of Women’s Affairs (MOWA) has established the Cambodian National Council for Women, a coordination mechanism tasked with providing guidance to the government on matters relating to the elimination of all forms of discrimination and violence against women 137.

In 2014, Cambodia launched its second National Action Plan to Prevent Violence Against Women (2014 – 2018) which is focused around five strategic sectors: 1) primary prevention; 2) multi-sector protection and legal service; 3) policy, capacity building; and, 5) monitoring and evaluation 138. Although the policy framework has improved significantly, the Cambodia Gender Assessment (2014) highlights that, particularly around gender-based violence, there is a lack of coordination between authorities, a lack of investigative resources and skills, and no clear guidelines to carry out and enforce the law 139. Plan Cambodia’s engagement with the MOA on this issue has not been focused on violence against women and girls, but on violence against children generally, supporting research, the development of an operations plan and guidelines on positive parenting.

In Zimbabwe, there is a comprehensive legal framework and national strategy around addressing GBV. The MOWAGCD plays a role in responding to the impacts of GBV. MOWAGCD offers various services to support victims of domestic violence including case management through outreach programs and social workers. A comprehensive Referral Pathways system has also been established and launched in 2014 to link identified victims of violence to relevant medical and legal services. Evidence collected from discussions with community members highlights that there also seems to be a positive shift around people’s awareness of rights and the legal consequences of domestic violence.

“Mysell, I know the law, so when we sometimes argue, I backtrack if I see I am losing my temper. I know if I touch her I will be arrested” 140.

While there is at least a framework and services intended to deal with the consequences of violence, there seems to be little investment from government around prevention, education, and identifying, understanding and addressing the underlying factors that contribute to gender based violence and under-reporting. On top of this it is clear that budgetary restrictions severely impede MOWAGCD’s ability to implement programs within communities. Budget restrictions have meant that many of these government services have had to be cut.

“What makes the Ministry not effective is that it doesn’t have resources to implement the strategies and actions. It relies more on non-governmental funds as they operate on zero budget… as a result, services, such as victim-friendly units, legal access, temporary shelters for survivors, and psycho-social support still only have a limited influence in society.” 141.

For example, the Anti-Domestic Violence Council led by MOWAGCD at a national level is meant to bring together various government agencies, service providers, police and civil society organisations. Analysis of the budget highlights that nothing was allocated to the Anti-Domestic Violence Council so since its inception in 2013 it has not been able to deliver on its mandate. Due to this consistent underfunding, Plan, in its engagement with government across all sectors, acts as the broker between government and communities, providing access for MOWAGCD resources to piggy-back on the transportation of food and cash distributions. Plan also works with MOWAGCD in community level projects directly contributing to gender based violence and women’s empowerment.”

In Zimbabwe, inheritance and land rights are other areas where evidence suggests positive steps towards reducing the inequality between women and men, however it is not clear how consistently the law is applied. Zimbabwean law provides for relatively equal property and inheritance rights for men and women. Interviews with government representatives and community leaders indicate that in more recent times, women have been able to inherit and own land unlike in the past. “If you think of divorcing, you will lose in the end because property is shared equally” 142.

“Past the women were looked down upon and no inheritance was transferred. Due to education received now women or girls can now inherit their father’s wealth” 143.

However, discussions with women in communities highlight that this isn’t consistently applied in practice, with “women, even now… not… able to own much land, let alone inherit it” 144.

131 Female, Interview, UNICEF, Zimbabwe.
132 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
133 Female, Interview, Plan Staff, Zimbabwe.
134 Female, Interview, Plan Staff, Zimbabwe.
135 Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Leading the Way, Cambodia Gender Assessment 2014, p. 28.
136 Male, FGD, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.
137 Female, Interview, Plan Staff, Zimbabwe.
138 Female, Interview, Plan Staff, Zimbabwe.
139 Male, FGD, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.
140 Male, FGD, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.
141 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
Across Zimbabwe and Cambodia, advocacy efforts to date have predominantly been focused on reflecting the rights of children in national policy and legal frameworks, for example work undertaken around child marriage and child-friendly courts etc. At this stage, there is little evidence to suggest that at country level Plan is shifting focus in policy influencing efforts in line with the global strategy towards gender equality and women’s empowerment.

In Zimbabwe, there is an additional layer of intricacy in the government’s implementation of a policy platform and legal systems that upholds rights, especially the rights of women and girls. The importance of traditional leadership and courts are a celebrated and fully recognised component of Zimbabwe’s governance structures. They play an important role in Plan’s engagement with communities, as well as in the government dissemination and enforcement of policies and services. Traditional leaders including Chiefs, Headmen and Village Heads all have authority in dispute resolution and as such are incredibly influential in whether and how these national policies and laws are applied. As these positions are largely inherited from father to son, as outlined in Table 5 below, there are limited examples of women in these positions across the country. There is evidence to suggest that traditional leaders are enforcing legal protections for women more than they used to, however it is clear that customs that discriminate against women continue to influence decisions.

Table 5. Zimbabwe Formal and Traditional Governance Structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal Position</th>
<th>Appointment</th>
<th>Geography</th>
<th>Reports To</th>
<th>Areas of Responsibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Minister</td>
<td>Elected/Appointed by the President</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>President</td>
<td>Policy making and implementation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governor</td>
<td>Elected/Appointed by the President</td>
<td>Provincial</td>
<td>President</td>
<td>Policy implementation and development interventions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Member Of Parliament</td>
<td>Elected</td>
<td>District</td>
<td>President</td>
<td>Policy making and feedback to electorate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counsellor</td>
<td>Elected</td>
<td>Ward</td>
<td>Member of Parliament</td>
<td>Ward development and coordination of activities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional Position</th>
<th>Appointment</th>
<th>Geography</th>
<th>Reports To</th>
<th>Areas of Responsibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chief</td>
<td>Inherited</td>
<td>Certain amount of Headmen’s areas</td>
<td>District Administrator</td>
<td>Oversees cultural issues, values and traditional ceremonies. Rules over disputes referred to them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Headman</td>
<td>Inherited</td>
<td>Certain amount of Village Heads areas</td>
<td>Chief</td>
<td>Leads traditional ceremonies. Rules over disputes referred to them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village Head</td>
<td>Inherited</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>Headman</td>
<td>Looks after village values. Rules over disputes referred to them which are within their mandate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Women are more protected in the courts today than they used to be. For example from a divorce it is now out of wedlock, the traditional courts are enforcing the payment of maintenance for the women. In terms of land inheritance cases, we are also lagging behind and it is still discriminatory against women – but it has been getting better.144

While there is meant to be a clear delineation between roles and mandates between the various court structures, evidence suggests that women in particular won’t always challenge decisions in traditional courts and take matters to formal proceedings in order to maintain the peace in their communities.

Women can choose to use traditional structures and can go to village chief who decides about their access to assets. If they aren’t satisfied with the outcome of the traditional proceedings, then they are able to go through the legal process and the magistrate to decide on those cases. However, widows tend to want to return to their communities and so don’t tend to challenge the chief’s decision and try to keep the peace in community145.

Food and cash based projects arguably don’t utilise their engagement with traditional leadership structures to challenge them on gender equality or women’s empowerment issues.

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Food and cash based projects arguably don’t utilise their engagement with traditional leadership structures to challenge them on gender equality or women’s empowerment issues.

“Long ago women were looked down upon and were seen as powerless people who did not have a say, No women’s decision was considered during my father’s time”146.

“Previously, one of the Commune Council member who is woman. She dared not to share her opinion in the meeting. She only sat and listened to the men speaking. But, now she dares to speak, share her ideas and suggestions to the meeting because through various trainings she is knowledgeable, and the idea provided by her sometime is better than man”146.

Community leaders, both formal and traditional, also seem to be increasingly open to consulting women in decision-making processes. Both male and female respondents were able to identify multiple examples where leaders promoted the inclusion of women in their community structures.

“Once boys went to school for more years than girls because ‘girls don’t need to go to school because they become prostitutes and marry immediately’ , this was the view when it comes to education for girls, as well as merely actions and training around gender equality from NGOs. A lack of education and knowledge of rights was seen as a real gap for women, both in terms of their capabilities and in terms of the way others in the community saw and respected them.

“Women identified that this positive shift in attitudes has largely contributed to increased formal education for girls, as well as worked actions and training around gender equality from NGOs. A lack of education and knowledge of rights was seen as a real gap for women, both in terms of their capabilities and in terms of the way others in the community saw and respected them.

There was evidence collected to suggest a presence of community activities initiated by women, for women.

Women sometimes hold their own meetings which do not include men. For example, we hold Sexual Reproductive Health meetings with girls148.

Women do have their own groups where they teach girls to behave in their homes after being married. They also discuss on the importance of cleanliness and some of the women stuff which I do not know because my wife does not open up to me issues to do with women”149.

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Women do have their own groups where they teach girls to behave in their homes after being married. They also discuss on the importance of cleanliness and some of the women stuff which I do not know because my wife does not open up to me issues to do with women”149.
There is also evidence to suggest that Plan's food and cash based projects, as well as broader program activities, have contributed to women's increased participation at both community and household level. In addition to women and girls engaging and participating at community level, Plan also seeks to support women and girls to influence decision making around their lives at both community level and the household level. The following key Plan activities were highlighted as being particularly influential in shifting attitudes and perceptions around women's involvement in the public sphere:

1. Registering women as the head of household in food and cash distributions has contributed to increasing women's engagement in the community through shifting perceptions around women, men and community leaders. Registering women as the head of household means that the commodity, whether it be food or cash, is distributed to the women. As a result of being given such responsibility it is seen as acceptable for women to hold leadership positions, as long as they remain within realms that they are considered responsible for. While there are examples of women leading outside of these areas, it is the exception and not the rule.

2. Community consultations specifically for the implementation of the program have contributed to increasing women's participation in the community as, coupled with the fact that women are registered as heads of household and therefore required to attend, community consultations provide an opportunity for women to engage in development activities. It was also noted that as these meetings would result in a tangible benefit for participants (food or cash), participation was encouraged and women were more likely to attend.

3. Awareness raising around rights, gender equality and women's empowerment by Plan and other NGOs was cited in Cambodia and Zimbabwe as a contributing factor in shifting in public perceptions around women's participation in the community. Interestingly, Plan's food and cash based projects through their implementation of the Public Address Messaging as a key activity in promoting a women's empowerment agenda within the community. This Public Address Messaging was not mentioned by the project beneficiaries themselves as an activity that contributed to changing perceptions around gender inequality or women's empowerment. Rather, specific activities (usually done in interventions outside of the food and cash based projects) aimed at educating women and men about rights, legal frameworks, gender inequality and women's empowerment were cited as being influential contributors for change.

In addition to women and girls engaging and participating at community level, Plan also seeks to support women and girls to influence decision making around their lives at both community level and the household level. The study sought to assess this by exploring perceptions around women's leadership by community, cultural, customary and religious leaders; the inclusivity of leadership of women and girls in decision making; decisions that have been influenced by women and girls; and, the level of women's engagement in and leadership of community groups, committees and activities. Further, the study explored a change in participation of women living with disabilities at both community and household level.

There was extensive evidence collected to suggest that women seem to be taking up more leadership roles in the community, though definitely not at the same levels of male leaders. While women are increasingly seen in leadership positions, examples collected in Zimbabwe and Cambodia indicated that these tend to be isolated to 'women's issues' most notably food, children's education and religious/custodial roles. The study found that at all levels of leadership women are seen as acceptable for women to hold leadership positions, as long as they remain within realms that they are considered responsible for. While there are examples of women leading outside of these areas, it is the exception and not the rule.

Across Zimbabwe and Cambodia there were many examples collected in all target areas suggesting that women in leadership positions in schools both as school principals, vice principals and as members of the school development committees. As women are seen as responsible for child rearing it seems that it is therefore an acceptable space for women to hold leadership positions.

“This is the real example of Tshang primary school, the school director is female. She can organise the school well and the school looks beautiful. This showed that the woman can perform the work and produce as good results as men”141.

"Out of the four School Development Committees in this Ward, there are two chaired by females”142.

Religious and cultural ceremonies were also seen as areas where women could take on a leadership role in both Zimbabwe and Cambodia. Examples collected indicate that in both cultures, women play an important role in religious and cultural practices, and therefore it makes sense that they play a leadership role in this space.

“Tshang people are very religious, some people say that women have power because of their age and so they can advise men on what to do such as rain making ceremonies”143.

It is also implied that there are more opportunities for women to participate in religious and cultural ceremonies because men prioritise income generating activities and tend to be away for work, whereas women, who tend to be focused at home, are able to attend.

“Women participated in religious ceremony more than men because men do not stay in the village so women are more available”144.

In Zimbabwe there were also examples collected of women in elected political positions, previously only held for men. While these are the exception and not the rule, there has been a shift in perceptions around women and leadership.

“I am seeing an improvement for women however, that women are now occupying more positions that they never used to because they were female. For example there is a female councillor in this district, and we have a female MP”145.

“I am a female councillor and previously, this would have never happened before. Out of the 25 councillors in the district, there are five who are female”146.

When it comes to holding positions within government however, in most cases evidence collected suggests that women are under-represented. Despite provisions in the Constitution in Zimbabwe that clearly set out gender balance in all institutions and agencies of government at every level, national data, further confirmed by the study, highlights that government positions are dominated by males. For example at national level there are only 11 females out of 64 ministers and deputy ministers147.

“(The sincerity of the State regarding gender equality is thus put under scrutiny and one cannot help but conclude that there is no political will to address the issue of gender equality, validating women's claims that the policies and laws are just window dressing whilst women continue to be sidelined from the political arena)”148.

As a result of Plan food and cash based projects with WFP mandates that FDP Committees are headed by women. As a result, in these areas women are seen making key decisions, are put in positions of authority over men and challenge traditional gender roles.

“Things have changed. Women are now part of the leadership. We have women leading in FDP Committees. Men now have no option except to respect us. Women in leadership are seen making decisions”149.

“During LSA the FDP chairperson had all the powers to tell people what to do even to assign men to come and off-load truck and guard food waiting for distribution”150.

There is also evidence to suggest that women in these positions act as role models to other women. They are seen in positions of power, respected as individuals of authority within the community and challenge the perceptions that men dominate the public sphere.

“Currently in LSA we have a female chairperson and people listened to her during public address”151.

A risk identified in mandating that FDP Committees be headed by a woman is that the program perpetuates the belief that women are responsible for feeding the family, promoting the segregation of roles and responsibilities between men and women. Rather than challenging gender norms, this activity risks re-enforcing them.

Only the LSA program is where women are in leadership positions at community level because they ‘always’ stay at home, the men are always away for work and feeding the family so they should take the lead here”152.

Plan International demands that we register women in food aid programmes. They say men are not responsible”153.

“Food and education are the two areas that it is okay to have women in leadership”154.

A second risk in mandating that women hold leadership positions is that these positions are seen as tokenistic by the community, without actually shifting perceptions around women in leadership. The risk is that people perceive the main reason that women are in these roles is because it is prescribed, not necessarily because they are seen by the community as effective leaders. In as much as there are no topics that women are excluded from in today's society sometimes to higher leadership roles are only ceremonial because it has been encouraged nationally to let women participate in decision making forums”155.

While evidence collected suggests that there is a positive shift in terms of women participating in community structures, influencing decisions and decision makers, as well as taking up leadership positions themselves, women continue to face significant barriers. Cultural norms that celebrate the woman's role in the home, in the private sphere and men's role as leaders, makes it a challenge for women to influence change in their communities. The evidence supports the position that in general, a woman's first responsibility is to her home and ensuring that they are provided for and have been clothed, fed and cleaned before engaging in community affairs. The evidence suggests that in many cases, in order for a woman to engage in the public sphere she would need to be supported, or at least not denied, by her husband.

“For me, before engaging with any community development activities, I would first consult my husband, and I need to prepare the food first before going out to participate in any community development activity such as participating in the meeting etc.”156.

141 Female Counsellor, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
142 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
143 Male, FDP Chair, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
144 Male, Interview, Plan staff, Zimbabwe.
145 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
146 Male Counsellor, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
147 Male and Women's Group, Group Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
148 Male Counsellor, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
149 Male, Men and Women's Group, Group Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
150 Parents – Women's Group, Group Interview, Kauk Prich, Cambodia.
151 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
152 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
153 Male, Interview, Plan staff, Zimbabwe.
154 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
155 Male Counsellor, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
156 Male, Men and Women's Group, Group Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
Food Security as a Modality for Change

If I am not around my wife attends the meetings, she says that a man says goes:180 it is always men.181

This is further supported through the quantitative analysis of FGDs where women and men in Cambodia and Zimbabwe quantified how much time they spent per week on various tasks, and in ranking decision-making authority between sex-age groups. Community activities were explained as encompassing community meetings, community events and community groups. Women identified that they are spending more time than men on community tasks across Zimbabwe and Cambodia. On average 51% of women reported a lot of time spent on community activities. While 51% of men identified that they spend only some time on community activities. Consistent with the discussions had in FGDs, women appear to be participating to a greater extent in community meetings and activities as compared to the past. However, while more women may be attending meetings, this does not reflect their influence over decision making or their levels of leadership. On average across Zimbabwe and Cambodia, men and women both identified middle-aged men as having the most authority for community decision making. In Zimbabwe elderly men were identified as having the most power at community level, followed closely by middle-aged men and then middle-aged women identified as the third most influential. In Cambodia middle-aged men were identified as having the most decision-making authority, followed by middle-aged women. Consistently, older women, young girls and young boys were identified as having the least amount of influence over community decision making. While women identify spending a lot more time than men participating in community activities, men continue to have the most influence over community meetings, events and groups.

There is evidence to suggest that some men genuinely believe that the patriarchal structure that favours men above women and perpetuates discrimination against women is right and that, at least at community level, “men should have the most power”120.

“No, women and men are not supposed to be equal. Men must have control and make important decisions”121.

This study highlights the importance of working with men and boys to raise awareness of gender inequalities, the challenges faced by women and girls, and the importance of women’s empowerment. Men maintain the position of ultimate decision makers. While women are increasingly able to influence decisions, the decision makers are overwhelmingly men and “at the end of the day what the man says goes”122.

“There is an example where at community level, a Headman has declared that a woman is not allowed to speak at his meetings so I have experienced this where I as the Village Head, I have been unable to speak because I am a woman.”123.

Traditional village courts are an example where women are unable to fully engage. As traditional courts are conducted by the Village Head, Headman or Chief, who are usually males, women are allowed to give their testimony as part of formal proceedings, but are otherwise excluded and unable to partake in the decision-making process.

“For community decision making, the women mostly are consulted and the men, especially the elderly with high rank in the community or society, make the decision124.

As the main decision makers in their communities and within the household, in order to influence real and long lasting change on the position of women and girls, men and boys need to not only understand but be supportive.

In Zimbabwe in particular, local leaders, both religious and traditional, play a key role in communities. While they can be a driver for change, evidence suggests that these leaders are in many cases another barrier to gender equality in Zimbabwe. The recognised traditional leadership structure continues to enforce patriarchal norms. Traditional leadership positions including Chiefs, Headmen and Village Heads are inherited positions and in most cases are passed from father to son. There are examples of females in Village Head positions, however this is only in exceptional cases where, for example, the family no longer has sons in the village and this is approved by the Headman and Chief. From data collected in target areas, representation of women as Village Heads varies from 2.5%172 to 22%125. There are very limited examples of female Heads or female Chiefs across the whole country. These community leaders form an integral part of Zimbabwe’s governance structures and support in disseminating information, applying and enforcing the law, as well as acting as the main conduit by which government and civil society actors engage with communities. The lack of women in these traditional leadership structures plays a part in perpetuating gender inequality by reinforcing men as community leaders, and limiting the representation of female opinions and views in key forums. Even when women are represented as Village Heads, there is evidence to suggest that they are still not seen as equal to their male counterparts.

“The village head selects the panel for the court system, they can choose who they want - even women. However there are no examples I know of where women have been selected to be on this panel – it is always men”126.

Religious leaders are influential community members and in some cases are another barrier to achieving gender equality and shifting the position of women and girls.

“Religion is also playing a part. Christianity says that a woman is supposed to submit unto her husband and that means the power is within the man”127.

“The bulk of the women kind of feeling discriminated at certain events for example on church gatherings the leaders do not accept feminine ideas”128.

Evidence collected suggests that some religious leaders support patriarchal structures through their teachings, advocating that women should be subordinate to men.

“Most of us might want to argue but the bible clearly states that women should submit unto their husbands and it has been taught their generations so we do it129.

In Zimbabwe, the study highlights the importance of working in partnership with traditional and religious leaders in combating gender inequality. As the traditional decision makers in their communities, working with traditional and religious leaders is an opportunity to influence real and long lasting change on the position of women and girls. There is an opportunity in Zimbabwe to work with and educate local religious leaders and develop a narrative using the bible that promotes gender equality.

Perhaps one of the biggest barriers identified to women’s active participation and leadership at community level is a lack of confidence within women and girls themselves. Partly, this lack of confidence can be attributed to patriarchal norms themselves that position women as subordinate to men.

“Girls are not fully participating in community activities as they are said to lack confidence”130.

It is this ‘inferiority complex’ that inhibits women and girls from actively participating in community meetings and decision-making processes, from voicing their opinions freely and from electing more female representation. Women self-identified a need for increased formal education as well as training to expand their knowledge and skills to be able to speak with confidence in what they are saying. They also highlighted the importance of specific leadership opportunities for women in increasing their confidence in their ability to lead.

“Plan International’s plan to put more women on FDP Committees, and registered as heads of households. Plan food and cash based projects provided women with a platform from which they had the space to exercise authority and leadership. The gap however is supporting women in meaningfully taking up these leadership positions through developing their leadership skills, building their capacities, and public speaking and working with men who are in positions to promote and encourage women and girls in their communities.

However, despite the evidence collected of women in general increasingly participating in community decision-making processes, there is no evidence collected of women or girls living with a disability engaging in community affairs of their interest. Gender inequalities are compounded by physical, social and cultural barriers to make it incredibly challenging for women and girls with disabilities to engage at community level.

“Plan International’s plan to put more women on FDP Committees and as leaders of households. Plan food and cash based projects provided women with a platform from which they had the space to exercise authority and leadership. The gap however is supporting women in meaningfully taking up these leadership positions through developing their leadership skills, building their capacities, and public speaking and working with men who are in positions to promote and encourage women and girls in their communities.

Mother share a laugh at nutrition support group in Karchin state, Myanmar.

Findings

11 Mole, FGD, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.
12 Male, FGD, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.
13 Male, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
14 Male, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
15 Male, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
16 Male, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
17 Male, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
18 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
19 Female, FGD, Chiro Primary School, Cambodia.
20 Female – Meri, female, FGD, Chiro Primary School, Cambodia.
21 Male, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
22 Male Village Head, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe. 1 out of 18 village heads are women
23 Female Village Head, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
24 Male, FGD, Chiro Primary School, Cambodia.
25 Female, FGD, Chiron, Zimbabwe.
26 Male, FGD, Chiron, Zimbabwe.
27 Male, FGD, Chiron, Zimbabwe.
28 Female, FGD, Chiron, Zimbabwe.
29 Male, FGD, Chiron, Zimbabwe.
30 Male, FGD, Chiron, Zimbabwe.
31 Mole, FGD, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.
32 Male, FGD, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.
33 Male, FGD, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.
34 Male, FGD, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.
35 Female, FGD, Chiron, Zimbabwe.
36 Male, FGD, Chiron, Zimbabwe.
37 Male, FGD, Chiron, Zimbabwe.
38 Male, FGD, Chiron, Zimbabwe.
39 Male, FGD, Chiron, Zimbabwe.
Evidence collected suggests that the distribution of labour within the household between men and women is not equitable, with women still responsible for the majority of work. “There is no fairness in terms of roles. Women have more roles than men”186. “I look for food because I am responsible for my family compared to my husband who just woke up and demand food from me and goes to the beer hall to drink with his friends”187. “My wife has full authority to decide what and when to wash the clothes. I just ask her wash my clothes as needed”188. This is further supported through the quantitative analysis of FGDs where women and men in Cambodia and Zimbabwe quantified how much time they spent per week on various household tasks, and in ranking decision-making authority amongst household members. Analysis of these findings included the proportion of responses that indicated a lot, some, and a little to no time spent on each task further disaggregated by gender. Overall women reported a significantly higher workload than men in WASH, food and community tasks. The one domain that continues to be male dominated is with regard to household financial tasks. 

Despite the significantly higher workload for women, middle-aged men were identified by both men and women as having the most decision-making authority across all sectors, except for WASH. Middle-aged men were ranked either the most or second most influential by men and women across Zimbabwe and Cambodia in all sectors. On the other hand, women were consistently ranked second or third by all sub-groups across Zimbabwe and Cambodia in all sectors, except WASH where they are the most influential, and in the community where they are consistently the third or fourth most influential group in decision making. Consistently, young boys and girls were identified as having the least amount of decision-making authority and influence within the household. In particular, young girls were consistently ranked by all sub-groups in Cambodia and Zimbabwe as the least influential group in decision making. Consistently, young boys and girls were identified as having the least amount of decision-making authority and influence within the household. In particular, young girls were consistently ranked by all sub-groups in Cambodia and Zimbabwe as the least influential household member in all sectors, except for WASH where they have some more influence.

### Table 7. Time Spent on Household Roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How much time do you spend per week on...?</th>
<th>A Lot</th>
<th>Some</th>
<th>A Little To Not At All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cambodia</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wash</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Zimbabwe</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wash</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wash</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Food security was explained as encompassing food, water, sanitation, and hygiene with a focus on household tasks such as fetching water, cooking, and cleaning, which are traditionally performed by women. Women identified middle-aged men as having the most influence, followed by middle-aged women and then elderly women. When making authority with regard to WASH-related tasks, the majority of women spent a significant amount of time, while 34% of men said they spent some time, and 25% of women, compared to only 2% of men. On average, 75% of women reported spending at least some time on financial-related tasks. These results were consistent across Zimbabwe and Cambodia with the majority of women spending a lot of time, while 34% of men said they spent little to no time at all. These allocations were also burdened them with traditionally male roles. Women have been assigned a lot of duties in the household because they say these are women’s jobs for example care giving and household chores because men have also been burdened them with traditionally male roles.

WASH activities were explained as encompassing fetching water for household use, cleaning, and managing household toilet and hand-washing facilities. Men consistently reported spending a little to no time on WASH-related tasks. Across Zimbabwe and Cambodia, men reported the lowest levels of time spent on WASH-related tasks. While 71% of women reported spending a lot of time on WASH-related tasks, only 25% of men said they spend this much time. Young girls, boys, and older men were identified as having the least amount of decision-making authority around water, and women frequently take a significant portion of household-related tasks. As the man who continues to hold the decision-making authority, middle-aged women were identified as being the most influential in regard to household decision making. Middle-aged women were identified as being the second most influential, however, with a significant margin between them and middle-aged men. Older men and women, and then younger girls and boys were identified as being the least influential across these decisions.

Unsurprisingly the drought and ongoing financial crisis in Zimbabwe has had a negative impact on women at the household level, with evidence suggesting that as a result of less resources and less food, women's workload has significantly increased in recent years. Women are responsible for caring for the family, they are required to work harder to meet their family's basic food, WASH and education needs.

Droughts have increased workload on women. Long back food was plenty, so our involvement in food related work was less. We were awakened by perennial droughts. If you just sit, the family will suffer, otherwise men don't bother.

The burden for women has actually increased. Back then the work was a bit less than now. These days men can't afford to take care of their wives and they can't even afford to have polygamy.

Droughts have made it worse as we now work day in day out to feed the family.

While women continue to be disproportionately responsible for the majority of household tasks, there is evidence to suggest that there have been some changes over time. Women remain primarily responsible for ensuring the household is cared for, however, it seems that in some cases men play a more active role in terms of household chores compared to the past.

Currently I spend less time to prepare the food because my husband helps me to prepare the food when he is busy with other tasks.

At my household, my husband and son do even women's jobs though most men believe that I have bewitched my husband.

Based on the evidence collected, it does not appear that Plan and other partners are doing work aimed at challenging traditional roles and responsibilities within the household around productive and reproductive labour. While Plan is offering women more opportunities to engage and lead in the community, there does not seem to be interventions targeting women to promote the equitable distribution of labour between men and women within the household.

There is a genuine misunderstanding between men and women about what the terms ‘gender inequality and discrimination’ actually mean. There were significant differences in the way that men and women discussed gender. While men tended to discuss gender within an abstract institutional framework, citing laws and policies, women emphasised personal experiences. Men tended to discuss gender in more abstract terms related to principles of gender equality.

‘Gender bias is now limited – there is gender sensitivity and equality’.

‘I feel things have changed because of the gender equality laws’.

In contrast, women were more likely to cite their personal experiences when asked about gender inequality rather than referencing national laws or gender equality concepts. Women also often reflected on the gaps between legal protections and the reality of individual experiences.

‘My husband respects me if he is not drunk. If he is drunk he is violent’.

‘In principle the government takes into consideration gender, however in practice it is not always there and the vulnerabilities of women still remain’.

In some cases it seems that men genuinely believe, despite seemingly obvious inequalities between men and women, that everything is equal and that unjust, patriarchal structures of the past have been eliminated.

‘Women are involved in everything we also do due to the elimination of patriarchal societies’.

‘Women's views are considered even in community meeting than long ago due to the elimination of gender bias and patriarch’.

‘No, there is no discrimination against women in my community’.

However, within the same conversations, these men and community leaders also discussed the prevalence of domestic violence in their communities, with boys and men being the champion over girls, or fail to recognise the absence of female leadership to the same levels of men as discrimination.

There is no discrimination against women. However, boys in the communities are still regarded as the champions as compared to girls.

The importance of raising awareness and understanding around rights, gender equality and women’s empowerment can be demonstrated when comparing results of community consultations in Chiredzi and Chirumanzu in Zimbabwe. In Chirumanzu District, Plan has had an understanding presence implementing a variety of programs from women’s empowerment interventions (for example Plan’s Promoting Rights and Achieving Empowerment in African Communities (PRAA) program) to food security and livelihood projects in the same region. In Chirumanzu District, Plan started implementing food and nutrition projects following the recent escalation of food insecurity due to El Ninó. In Chiredzi, there has been a large NGO presence, beyond just Plan, whereas in Chirumanzu Plan is the only child-focused NGO. When comparing the responses of men and women between the two districts, there were differences in the conceptualisation of gender issues, the factors influencing their views and the extent to which women’s leadership the study suggests that where there has been a real investment in programs targeted at helping communities understand their rights, they are better able to articulate and promote these rights.

The focus in Chirumanzu is on equal access, with potential neglect of the underlying root causes of gender inequality in the community and the specific needs of women and the relevant barriers.

Women and men are equal insofar as they are human and have human rights.

There is access for all and no discrimination based on gender. We don’t have any services that just target women as we provide services for all girls, boys, women and men.

However while women in Chirumanzu may now be aware that they have equal legal rights, they are often prevented from exercising their rights due to deep-seated cultural barriers.

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However while women in Chiredzi may now be aware that they have equal legal rights, they are often prevented from exercising their rights due to deep-seated cultural barriers.
Compared to Chiredzi, religion and culture have a strong influence on gender relations in Chirumanzu. There was also a strong focus in all wards on women lacking the confidence to lead or participate in community decision-making processes, while in Chiredzi this was only raised by one respondent.

“Pull-down syndrome by other women who feel that only men are capable of being good and able leaders as women can be too emotional and not objective”\(^\text{208}\).

“I think that men have to be given their dues as the heads as there are more things that they can do that we can’t”\(^\text{209}\).

In Chirumanzu, religion was also discussed much more frequently as an influence on gender relations, whereas in Chiredzi, again, this was only raised by one respondent.

“Most of us might want to argue but the bible clearly states that women should submit unto their husbands and it has been taught their generations so we do it”\(^\text{210}\).

This divide can be demonstrated by the different levels of participation in community decisions and the public sphere. In Chiredzi women indicated that they spend more time engaging at the community level when compared with respondents in Chirumanzu. Men and women appear to spend close to equal amounts of time engaging at the community level in Chiredzi.

In Chirumanzu on the other hand, time spent engaging at the community level continues to be dominated by men. The findings suggest that, while barriers continue to exist across contexts, in Chirumanzu where respondents hadn’t participated in any rights-based programs, they were more likely to couch their understanding of gender relations within traditional frameworks.

Evidence shows that even within Plan there are some gaps in terms of how staff understand the concepts of ‘gender’, ‘gender equality’ and ‘women’s empowerment’. For instance, while most field staff were aware of Plan’s new global strategy and its focus on gender transformative programming, most were unable to articulate what this means in practice. Many staff understood gender equality to mean increasing women’s participation by having women and girls as the central beneficiary. Plan staff clearly understood the strategy as Plan promoting ‘women’s issues’.

While middle-aged men were identified by both men and women as having the most decision-making authority across all levels, and Plan’s food and cash based project activities are positively contributing to this shift. However, the evidence suggests that while women are increasingly being accepted as participants in community meetings as part of discussions, when it comes to actually making decisions the results highlight that in general, women continue to be discriminated against.

While there are positive examples of women in decision making or leadership positions, women continue to face barriers and tend to be limited to topics considered ‘women’s issues’. The evidence also confirms the position that in general, a woman’s first responsibility is to her home and ensuring that her family are provided for and have been clothed, fed and cleaned, before engaging in community affairs. While women are increasingly able to influence decisions, the decision makers are overwhelmingly men. This study highlights the importance of working with men and boys to raise awareness of gender inequalities, the challenges faced by women and girls, and the importance of women’s empowerment. Perhaps one of the biggest barriers identified is a lack of confidence within women and girls themselves. Plan should look to invest in activities aimed at supporting women in developing leadership skills, building confidence around public speaking and working with men who are in positions to promote and encourage women and girls in their communities.

While there have been some positive shifts in terms of dynamics within the household between men and women, overall it seems that women continue to be disproportionately responsible for most of the household labour. Overall women reported a significantly higher workload than men in WASH, food and community tasks. The one domain that continues to be male dominated is with regard to household financial tasks. Despite the significantly higher workload for women, middle-aged men were identified by both men and women as having the most decision-making authority across all sectors, except for WASH. Middle-aged men were ranked either the most or second most influential by men and women across Zimbabwe and Cambodia in all sectors. On the other hand, women were consistently ranked by all sub-groups across Zimbabwe and Cambodia as the second most influential household member in all sectors, except WASH where they are the most influential, and in the community where they are consistently the third or fourth influential group in decision making. Based on these findings, while it is clear that women continue to face barriers and are consistently the third or fourth influential group in decision making, the evidence suggests that women continue to be disadvantaged in the application of policy and law at local level.

In conclusion, the study confirmed the relevance of the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change with regard to women’s empowerment. While Plan contributes in varying degrees to a large part of this Theory of Change there are also some areas where Plan could make some significant improvements in order to better support women and girls to have the power to actively participate and influence change before, during and after disasters. At government level, there is a real disconnect between policy and practice. Across countries, there was evidence collected of established government ministries dedicated to women’s affairs tasked with addressing gender inequality at all levels, as well as legal frameworks and action plans promoting gender equality. However limitations in political will, funding, capacity, influence and a failure to address causes of inequality impact the efficacy of a legal system and policy platform that upholds the rights of women and girls. To date Plan has limited its advocacy with government around child-focused issues such as child marriage. However, with the new global purpose Plan should look to support an advocacy platform with government focused around the empowerment of women and girls. The study also highlights the importance of working with traditional leadership structures in order to influence the application of policy and law at local level.

The study found that, generally, women and girls are increasingly participating in community decision-making processes and that in some cases this is supported and encouraged by community leadership. Across Zimbabwe and Cambodia it seems that there is a shift in how women and girls are listened to and consulted at the community level, and Plan’s food and cash based project activities are positively contributing to this shift. However the evidence suggests that while women are increasingly being accepted as participants in community meetings as part of discussions, when it comes to actually making decisions the results highlight that in general, women continue to be discriminated against.

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limited number of the most vulnerable. In Zimbabwe budget constraints and services are targeted to a of government health policies is often limited by severe lack of funding in this area. Implementation across government and within Plan staff report a evidence collected suggests that while the provision of services and activities.

GOVERNMENT AND POLICY

Plan seeks to support responsible government actors to be engaged and committed to good health and nutritional status for all. The study assessed the impact of Plan’s food and cash based projects at the government level through exploring government budget allocations towards health and nutrition, the quality of policies addressing health and nutrition, and government investment in health and nutrition through conferences, plans of action and the provision of services and activities.

Evidence collected suggests that while the percentage of GDP allocated to health in Cambodia and Zimbabwe has increased in recent years, across government and within Plan staff a severe lack of funding in this area. Implementation of government health policies is often limited by budget constraints and services are targeted to a limited number of the most vulnerable. In Zimbabwe in particular, the ongoing financial crisis has meant that many health and nutrition programs have ceased or have been significantly scaled back and don’t reach individuals in need. There is also a heavy reliance on civil society and NGOs to enable implementation of government health activities. As a result Plan, through its food and cash based projects, is often a facilitator of other government programs linking government services with communities through the provision of transport, petrol, meals and personnel. Government staff indicated that they will usually join a distribution and use the opportunity to administer vaccines and conduct check-ups in communities211.

The study indicated a disconnect between the key health concerns identified by communities, and government priorities – this could be the result of limited financial resources. For example in Cambodia drug use was a key theme among many Cambodian respondents, however when speaking with government officials it was not identified as an area of focus. Teachers frequently reported a lack of drug education and treatment, with some focus groups reporting limited attention to the issue from local authorities and police.

There is evidence to suggest that while governments tend to focus on increasing awareness across their communities, there is a gap in terms of the depth of this knowledge and awareness in the health and nutrition sector. For example, in across Zimbabwe and Cambodia only one respondent mentioned the existence of a health/nutrition-related conference, while multiple campaigns and public events were discussed (e.g. Breastfeeding Week, Africa Vaccination Week, AIDS Campaign and Diabetes Campaign). While there is investment in raising public awareness, there is not so much of a commitment or interest in developing a deeper understanding of the issues or contributing to improved knowledge and practice within the sector. While Plan is involved in various food and nutrition committees at the local, national and district level, its role in influencing activities advocating for change is limited. While in rhetoric Plan aims to influence decisions and policy, and enhance communication with ministries and partners, in practice this study found that Plan’s main role is supporting the implementation of government priorities in the field of health and nutrition. There was limited evidence identified to indicate that Plan has a structured advocacy policy around health and nutrition, especially not as part of the food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery portfolio.

Plan also sought to assess the development and effectiveness of plans of action as an indication of government commitment to supporting good health and nutrition. In Zimbabwe, evidence was collected to suggest the development of national plans of action in health and nutrition. The national Nutrition Policy in Zimbabwe is linked to local level monitoring in which clinics record progress against key nutrition and health indicators through Child Health Care cards. One respondent also referred to local, provincial and national plans accompanied by quarterly implementation plans. The District Nursing Officer in Chirumazu noted three key priorities within the current Nutrition Policy: 1) Vitamin A Supplementation, 2) Food fortification, and 3) Exclusive Breastfeeding Policy. In Zimbabwe, these policies are also supplemented by food security monitoring through the bi-annual ZimVAC evaluation coordinated by the national Food and Nutrition Council. Plan in Zimbabwe plays a key role in supporting this evaluation by being part of the coordination mechanism and data collection teams. This is a pivotal process in establishing health and nutrition priorities at government level as this evaluation is used by donors such as WFP and FAO in the determination of priorities, program modalities and geography.

In Cambodia, Plan expressed difficulty in engaging with government on health and nutrition issues as a part of their food and cash based projects. Plan staff reportedly a separation of education and nutrition within government departments in Cambodia making it difficult to engage with relevant government authorities on nutrition issues as a part of the school feeding program. For example while in-school WASH and preschool children (0-5 years of age) are managed by the Department of Health, school feeding is handled by the Department of Education. This separation of responsibilities within the government has made it difficult for Plan to develop a structured advocacy strategy around health and nutrition within the school feeding program. Plan staff did however reflect that when it comes to engaging with government, Plan looks at separations in responsibilities as ‘walls’, rather than looking at these as opportunities for synergy212. Plan does however engage at local and district level in Cambodia around the school feeding program through a process of funding mobilisation, encouraging community investment in school meals. The study found that Plan is largely filling gaps and enabling the delivery of government identified health and nutrition programs and priorities through its support with personnel, transport and resources. However, Plan does not actively seek to engage in specific advocacy or influencing activities related to health and nutrition at national level. Funding constraints appear to be significantly limiting the government’s capacity, with food and nutrition programs limited in scope and reliant on NGO partners.

COMMUNITY

Plan seeks to enable girls and boys to engage in, participate and influence decisions concerning their health and nutritional status. The study sought to assess the impact of food and cash based projects on community structures and processes through exploring decision-making processes around health and nutrition, the influence that boys and girls have at this level, and assessing program design processes and the accountability of monitoring systems to ensure the relevance to and representation of all women, girls, boys and men. The study also sought to explore community health and hygiene infrastructure, analysing health hazards associated with food distributions, quality of health facilities and health facility staff and referral systems, as well as exploring access and functionality of water points, drinking water, hand-washing facilities, latrines and soap.

The study found that boys and girls do not appear to be actively involved in decisions regarding their health and nutrition at community level. Community mechanisms report inviting children and youth to attend meetings on an infrequent basis and in a consultative manner, however this is not systematic or monitored. For example in a village leadership in Zimbabwe recalled an example where children were asked for their input in relation to a cholera outbreak. Some village leadership reported concerns that involving children in such decisions would negatively impact their education if they were to attend on a regular basis.

Within the household, children reported differing levels of influence regarding decisions about their nutrition. Most children reported that their carers consulted them to some extent regarding their views, however most were not actively engaged in decision making. Children reported positive feelings when included in decision making at the household level: “Makes me feel important. Makes me feel my suggestions are valuable. Makes me feel loved and recognised”213.

Despite this, children recognised that food availability and financial constraints may impact their parent’s ability to consider their opinion.

7.6 THRIVE: HEALTH AND NUTRITION

Plan supports women, girls, boys and men to good health and nutritional status before, during and after disasters and conflicts. Food and cash based projects directly contribute to improved health and nutrition by increasing the sufficiency, quality and diversity of food, seeking to improve the overall health status of women, girls, boys and men, and reducing vulnerability to disease and illness. The study found evidence of Plan’s influence on the health and nutrition of women, girls, boys and men at all three levels – government policy and practice, community structures and processes, and within the household.

**Footnotes:**

211 Male, Interview, Ministry of Health, Zimbabwe.
212 Male, Interview, Plan Staff, Zimbabwe.
213 Big Six, Chirumaza, Zimbabwe.
Food Security as a Modality for Change

While there is limited evidence to suggest that food and cash based projects are designed with the participation of all targeted people, this study found that there is a level of community consultation more generally in Plan’s planning and monitoring processes. There are broader consultative processes that are undertaken that involve target groups, however information collected does not always influence the design of food and cash based projects. A design of WFP being ‘top-down’ as being a key reason why these projects do not undergo a comprehensive needs assessment and community consultation.

In Zimbabwe for example, there is a process of Community Led Participatory Planning (CLPP) done at district level to identify community needs and priorities. In the design of food and cash based projects however, Plan responds to the call from WFP and doesn’t factor in the broader community health and nutrition needs through complementary activities. In Cambodia, while Plan used to conduct their own comprehensive school and community assessments, they now use the WFP assessment for alignment to understand the needs and status of schools. Unlike in Zimbabwe, Plan in Cambodia does incorporate complementary health and nutrition activities, including building and repairing toilets and hand-washing facilities.

In terms of capturing community feedback and consulting with beneficiaries, post distribution monitoring forms a large part of the accountability processes in Cambodia where this is mandated by WFP. Through post distribution monitoring staff are able to monitor satisfaction levels, lineage to food distribution points, and household decision making regarding use of ration and associated time/financial costs. They are also able to indirectly analyse the availability of adequate and safe food preparation material and equipment by assessing trends in cooking time and costs incurred by beneficiaries. Other forms of monitoring accountability in Cambodia include help desks at distribution points. In Cambodia there is no systematic post distribution monitoring of feedback mechanism for children or parents for the school meals programs. There is also no analysis of the availability of adequate and safe food preparation material and equipment or water supply. Plan staff highlight that they undertake five formal monitoring meetings, the distribution of school material, food, cash, bicycles and take-home rations. Out of the 318 respondents surveyed in this study, only 10 had negative comments about Plan’s activities or the goods they received. In Cambodia two respondents reported that the food was not of good quality. In Zimbabwe eight respondents had complaints due to a decrease in their food rations.

As a part of Plan’s community level engagement in the health and nutrition sector, Plan seeks to support enabling gender sensitive health care services and referral systems. There is however limited evidence collected to suggest that Plan interventions directly contribute to this outcome. In general, survey respondents report high satisfaction levels with health services. Only 3.4% of respondents were not satisfied at all, followed by 21% who were sometimes satisfied and sometimes not. Around 75% of respondents were satisfied with health services in both countries. These figures represent the aggregate result for both countries as the findings did not differ significantly. However, when looking deeper into the structure of those respondents who were not satisfied with the health services, the findings showed that men in general, and men and women with a disability are more likely to be satisfied with health services than women without a disability. This can be an indication that health services have not been gender sensitive and therefore women show less satisfaction with what health centres offer. It also might indicate that women living with a disability prioritise their disability-based needs over their gender-based needs. Further, data shows that health centres are being utilised by residents. For instance in Zimbabwe 78% of respondents did visit a health centre in the last year and 49% were visited by health centre staff. Out of those who did not engage with health centres reasons are given for why they did not have to. There were however four respondents that did not engage with the health centre because it is too far away and is too expensive. In discussions with respondents, two respondents further highlighted their experience with health services reporting access barriers:

“No health care/clinic, small cars are only going up each evening” 215.

“I do not like sports because I might get injuries and the school will not be able to go with me to the clinic and my father does not have money” 216.

Of those that did visit the health centre, the study further explored their satisfaction level with different aspects of the centre work including centre cleanliness, child friendliness, respectfulness of staff and costs. Around 70% of respondents said that centres are clean, child friendly, respectful and that costs are reasonable. Due to the focus and nature of Plan operations, the survey did not explore community views of health services in Cambodia.

In ensuring good health and nutrition, Plan also seeks to support various gender sensitive infrastructure to be enabled and functioning. In particular, respondents frequently site Plan’s involvement in establishing various WASH facilities, including toilets, wells, latrines, water filter facilities and a health centre.

“Long back we didn’t have toilets but now we have. Toilets came now when we were educated about hygiene” 217.

“We invested about 24,000 dollars for the WASH component. Although it is mainly an education project and it is not very strong in nutrition, still, it is much better when there is a synergy of all different aspects” 218.

An audit of WASH infrastructure, including private and school latrines and water sources revealed that across areas assessed, reduced maintenance and accessibility of WASH facilities is a common theme.

“Toilets are at the zenith of collapsing, boreholes have become dysfunctional and available water is being fetched from unprotected water sources” 219.

In Zimbabwe, 37% of household toilet facilities were in poor condition, needing to be restored or rehabilitated due to old or broken infrastructure (e.g. flooring, ventilation pipes). Another 35% of facilities were found to be unclean and 41% had a bad smell. In regards to sanitation facilities, only 20% of audited school toilets in Cambodia were found to be regularly maintained. Across both sites, the majority of WASH infrastructure was found to be inaccessible for people with a disability, as well as presenting various safety concerns (e.g. street dogs guarding toilet, broken/cracked/open roofs, and squat holes unsafe for children). Of the public toilets assessed, the majority had separated facilities for boys and girls with 60% of schools in Cambodia having separate toilets. Despite this, respondents rarely discussed WASH needs specific to girls. Only 26% of the household toilet facilities in Zimbabwe provided bins for the disposal of menstrual products. Of the toilets assessed in Cambodia, there were no bins identified.

Evidence suggests that there are some gaps in the appropriateness of WASH infrastructure for women, girls, boys and men.

In terms of hygiene facilities, the study found that the majority of toilets did not have soap for hand washing. The majority of children in both Zimbabwe and Cambodia reported reduced access to clean water at school and a lack of adequate hand-washing facilities.

“No we do not use soap at school as it is not available” 220.

“The school has no hand-washing facility, so we don’t wash hands unless if you bring your own water” 221.

Accessibility of water points for hand washing is also a key issue across both sites with only 40% school toilet facilities in Cambodia serviced by water points. In Zimbabwe, the majority of toilets did not have a water source and most had a water source within 10-100 metres, some toilets were 1-4 km from water facilities.

Findings
HOUSEHOLD AND INDIVIDUAL

At the household level Plan aims to ensure that women, girls, boys and men have sufficient quality and nutritious food. This is done through a combination of methods across countries, including the distribution of food and cash, supporting agricultural activities, and through a hybrid and homegrown school feeding approach. The study sought to assess the impact of these activities and their contribution to ensuring women, girls, boys and men have sufficient quality and nutritious food by exploring access to adequate foods including staples, pulses, fats and other nutrients, as well as assessing the quality and type of interventions and budget allocated to increasing quantity and quality of nutritious food.

There is clear evidence for the positive impact of Plan and WFP increasing food availability through rations and cash for households, and for students. Children in particular emphasised the affect on their mental and physical health.

“Because of having school meals I am not hungry and it helped me have energy and be able to pay attention to the teaching of my teachers. As a result, my study is getting better.”

“Cash for food helped our children to be more focused at school, they could now eat and be merry.”

“The food aid Plan gave us made our children to weigh more and it also reduced thieves, and school children go to school with lunch boxes and full stomachs.”

Findings indicate a positive change in both countries in relation to household nutrition. The majority of respondents in both Zimbabwe and Cambodia (53% and 80% respectively) self-reported a change in practices in relation to how they ate and handled food. The study showed that in Cambodia, project beneficiaries demonstrate an understanding of the importance of a diversified diet and are much more likely to include different types of food in their diet now as compared to the previous year. In Zimbabwe the biggest change in practice identified by survey respondents is in relation to the food quantity. The amount of food and number of meals consumed has increased as a direct result of Plan’s interventions. For instance, a few respondents from Zimbabwe said that with Plan’s help they can finally afford three meals a day for their family. Statistical tests showed no correlation between gender, age, education and economic status, or hygiene knowledge, and knowledge and practices around nutrition.

There were also some queries raised around quantity and diversity. When food was distributed as part of the WFP program food packages, there were mixed reports regarding the sufficiency of food distributed. Some respondents were satisfied with the quantity of food included in the food packages.

“Food assistance has been good in terms of variety and quantity.”

“We no longer have to feel our hearts breaking as our children would be suffering and crying because of hunger. Plan has been God sent.”

Other respondents highlighted that while the food rations were good, there was not enough to meet their households’ needs for the whole month.

“Food assistance was good though did not often last until the end of month.”

“The distributed food is not sufficient in terms of quantity.”

“With the current food crisis there are approximately 4.1 million people in need of food.”

The variety of products available in the food packages is limited by the availability of WFP. With regard to the diversity of products available in the food packages themselves, respondents emphasised a lack of choice and diversity of nutrients as an ongoing concern.

“Nutrition security, especially the diversity of food, is always a problem and must be improved.”

“We just get carbohydrates from our food and less protein.”

**Research Methodology**

**Interviews**

20 Male, Interview, WFP, Zimbabwe.

230 Male, Interview, WFP, Zimbabwe.

231 Male, Interview, WFP, Zimbabwe.

232 Girl, FGD, Kubatana Primary School, Ward 22, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.

233 Male, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

222 Boy, FGD, Chroy Neang Ngoun Primary School, Cambodia.

223 Male, FGD, Chirediz, Zimbabwe.

224 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

225 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

226 Village Head, Interview, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.

227 Female, FGD, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.

228 Counsellor, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

229 Village Head, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

230 Village Head, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

231 Male, Interview, WFP, Zimbabwe.

232 Girl, FGD, Kubatana Primary School, Ward 22, Chiredzi, Zimbabwe.

233 Village Head, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

234 Village Head, Interview, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

**Focus Group Discussions**

235 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

236 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

237 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

238 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

239 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.

240 Female, FGD, Chirumanzu, Zimbabwe.
Despite these challenges, respondents reported a change in habits in relation to what they eat and how they take care of food. For instance, some respondents in the survey included more vegetables in their diet, diversified their food and included more nutritious food. In order to encourage more diversity in terms of household consumption, Plan supports a variety of activities including establishing school gardens, promoting hybrid school feeding programs, and providing cash to give households more choice. However there is limited data collected that suggests that these activities directly influence diversity of food consumption at household level. The study suggests that in giving cash, households are able to prioritise major expenses such as school fees or medical expenses. With limited nutrition knowledge as well as limited availability, households seem to spend cash on food staples like rice or millet that provide sustenance but don’t increase their food diversity.

The evidence suggests that school gardens also don’t provide much in the way of diet diversity in school meals as these gardens aren’t big or commercial enough to provide sufficient food for the entire program. The hybrid and homegrown school feeding program models, however, give schools a combination of staple like rice and oil, and then cash to purchase additional vegetables and sources of protein. As compared to schools that are on WFP rations exclusively, these children consume a more diverse range of foods in their school meals.

Through food and cash based projects, Plan seeks to support women, girls, boys and men to have increased knowledge of nutrition. The study sought to assess this through exploring attitudes and practices around nutrition, hygiene and food safety; awareness around nutrition, hygiene and food safety; staff food and water handling and hazards; and, by exploring knowledge around nutrition and hygiene.

Overall, this study presented strong evidence that children in particular have an awareness of food hygiene and nutrition, however reduced resources and WASH facilities often limit implementation.

In relation to food hygiene many children demonstrate knowledge of the importance of hand washing for disease prevention.

“It’s important to wash hands so that we prevent diseases like cholera, diarrhoea”233.

Children also indicated awareness of critical moments for hand washing.

“I wash my hands... before cooking”234.

“At school I wash my hands before cooking porridge for the whole school”235.

While children know when they should wash their hands, they are limited by reduced access to functioning facilities, clean water and soap. At household level in Cambodia, 94.9% of respondents have their water source within their households, however 40% of them reported that there is no water available from this source during the dry season. This is drastically worse in Zimbabwe, with only 31.5% of households surveyed having toilets in the household, and only 27% having a water source in the household. A total of 67.9% of respondents also confirmed that there are regions where during the dry season when there is no water in the household at all. Across both countries households that had an individual with a disability are less likely to have a water source in the household, most likely an indicator of the disadvantaged economic situation of people living with a disability.

While indicators on hygiene knowledge and practice indicated some areas for improvement, around 20% of respondents reported a recent behaviour change in regard to drinking water, which can be attributed to Plan’s work. In Cambodia 66.6% of respondents do treat water in some way before consumption: 34.7% boil water; approximately 30% use water filters; and the remainder use other ways including leaving water to settle (10%) or adding bleach or chlorine. Very few respondents can afford to buy water (3%) and 70.3% of respondents report washing their hands regularly, while 28% wash their hands sometimes. Further, 57% of respondents wash their hands with soap all times, while only 39% wash their hands with soap sometimes. Only 3 respondents identified that they have never used soap: 89.8% report washing their hands before preparing food; 24.6% wash their hands before feeding young children, and 50.8% after using the toilet. A very low percentage of respondents wash their hands after cleaning young children who have defecated. Respondents also listed some other occasions when they wash their hands including after school, before bed, and after eating, as well as after holding or touching dirty things.

In Zimbabwe only 17% treat water in some way before consumption. Of this 17%, 8% boil water, while the others add chlorine. Of the respondents, 50% indicated that they wash their hands. Out of these 50%, 23% use soap; 59.5% use soap sometimes; and 16% never use soap for hand washing. A total of 56% of respondents wash their hands before preparing a meal, 81% after using the toilet; 23% before feeding children, and 24.5% after cleaning children who have defecated. Interestingly though, while the WASH indicators appear much worse in Zimbabwe, only 11% of respondents reported that they had experienced some form of health problems caused by food. While in Cambodia 21.2% of respondents reported some health issues as a result of food. Diarrhoea was reported as the most common symptom. Across Zimbabwe and Cambodia, out of those who faced some health problems, approximately 5% did not receive any medical assistance while all others did. Of these respondents, 10% sought assistance from health services while others got medicine from the pharmacy and/or help from family members and neighbours. In Zimbabwe only 5% of those who faced health problems sought treatment.

Respondents also reported an improvement in handling food and food hygiene. Some of them reported that they had started to clean dishes and pots, wash vegetables and boil water before consumption, while others reported that they have started washing their hands before cooking, and some discussed the appropriate storage of food. In Zimbabwe and Cambodia staff receive training in food handling and hazards as well as basic food hygiene practices. The way this is disseminated to communities is through Public Address Messaging, an activity mandated by WFP. Plan places a lot of reliance on this messaging resulting in real behavioural change and the study found that there is limited evidence to support its effectiveness around public food handling and hygiene. Very few adult respondents mentioned food handling and hygiene, with none specifically mentioning Plan’s Public Address Messaging.

“Sources of water of yesteryear were plenty because they didn’t mind whether it was protected or not. Nowadays cleanliness is being promoted”236.

In terms of nutrition knowledge, there is some evidence to suggest that children, particularly, have a good understanding of basic nutrition principles. There is however limited evidence linking any Plan activities with this knowledge. Through group discussions, children demonstrated an understanding of a balanced diet as well as stressing the importance of good nutrition for overall health.

“[Food] make my body strong and protect me from other disease”237.

“Yes, these foods are nutritious as they are from all three categories of the foods – energy foods, construction foods and protection foods”238.

The study found that putting this knowledge into practice in the household is limited by a lack of resources and food availability. While children are aware of good nutrition, families are often prevented from providing balanced meals due to a lack of food.

“Knowledge of mothers is improved in terms of quantity of meals that should be provided each day but difficulty with variety as they prepare what is available”239.

Food Security as a Modality for Change

Findings
The surveys across Zimbabwe and Cambodia indicated a limited availability of food in households. For instance in Cambodia, 26.3% of respondents reported a limited variety of food for their children due to a lack of resources, while 20.3% reported eating smaller portions as there was not enough food. A smaller but significant number of respondents (13.7%) had to eat fewer meals in a day because there was not enough food. On average, households enjoyed two meals a day however 6.8% of respondents even reported that there were days in the last four weeks when there was absolutely no food in the household. In Cambodia, the survey found that despite challenges, the majority of respondents did enjoy a diversified diet. Over 64% of households use iodised salt, 76% consume cereals and 87% consume fish. However, less than half of the respondents (45%) eat different types of vegetables, fruits, fresh meat and oils. A very small percentage of households regularly consume organ meat (5.9%), nuts (17.8%) and milk products (9.5%). Of small children, 54.2% were not breastfed at all. Among those mothers who breastfed only 35.6% have been breastfeeding for one year or more and 33.1% reported giving supplements to their baby after they turned six months old. When asked to explain what type of supplements were given to children, the majority listed porridge, rice and some fruits. Only 15% of mothers reported that they spoke with someone about breastfeeding, identifying mainly local health workers and other mothers. There is no evidence to suggest that Plan has influenced knowledge about breastfeeding and infant diet. In Cambodia and Zimbabwe, there are no targeted activities aimed at supporting breastfeeding women to meet their dietary and nutritional needs.

"No special products for them provided in LSA, high potential/need to launch activities for them." 241.

The data collected highlighted that in Zimbabwe the situation with regard to diet diversity is worse than in Cambodia, with 36% of households surveyed indicating that they ate a diet of limited variety (10% more than in Cambodia). In 45.3% of households children had to eat smaller portions due to a lack of food (25% more than in Cambodia). In 44% of households children consumed less meals because of the lack of food and 26.5% of households reported that there were days in the past month when there was no food at all (20% more than in Cambodia). Child nutrition indicators were also worse in Zimbabwe as compared to Cambodia. For instance, according to data collected only 14.5% of children are breastfed and only a small percentage (12%) of mothers talked about breastfeeding with village health workers. This does differ from official government statistics in Zimbabwe where exclusive breastfeeding is estimated at 90%. While results for Cambodia indicated a significantly better situation in terms of food availability, findings in Zimbabwe indicated a better food diversity, likely due to a high percentage of households with home gardens. In Zimbabwe, 90% of households have gardens and a high percentage of them (45%) grow three different types of produce; 22.5% grow either two or four products; while 5% grow only one product. They reported growing corn, eggplant, beans, peas, lettuce, cabbage, tomatoes, onions and shallots. Almost all households consume some cereals on a weekly basis (99%), 23% more households than in Cambodia. Dark green vegetables are consumed by 65.5% of households in Zimbabwe, 20% more than in Cambodia. Colourful vegetables are also consumed at higher rates - 47% of the households as compared to 24.6% in Cambodia. Fruits, meat, eggs and fish are also consumed much less in Zimbabwe than in Cambodia – 5.6% (compared to 39% in Cambodia), 8% (33.9% in Cambodia), and 14.5% (87% in Cambodia) respectively. This lack of important nutrients was further highlighted in focus group respondents.

"The food I eat at home is not nutritious because it contains only carbohydrates and no fats, proteins or vitamins.”242.

In terms of increasing knowledge on nutrition, Plan’s activities are largely limited to Public Address Messaging at distribution points. Respondents did not mention this activity as influencing their thoughts or practice around nutrition. Evidence suggests an over-reliance on this Public Address Messaging to increase knowledge, shift attitudes and behaviours rather than investing in more targeted complementary activities.

The study found that across Zimbabwe and Cambodia, women are responsible for health, hygiene and nutrition at household and community level. Children frequently mentioned that their mother “took care of my health”. Some women also noted that they were responsible for ensuring children and children were not endangering their health in assisting with household tasks.

"I am the one who look after them to ensure they are safe to do.”243.

"I am the one who allows him to do or not because I care about their health.”244.

In the home, women were consistently tasked with maintaining the cleanliness of the household across Zimbabwe and Cambodia. While there appears to be a shift in terms of sharing tasks, hygiene remains the responsibility of women.

"It is our role to make sure that the family and premises are clean. Men do not bother themselves with cleanliness.”245.

This responsibility is mirrored at community level where women play a more active role in health and nutrition decisions. Many respondents across Zimbabwe and Cambodia cited female leadership in village health groups, health centres, community gardens/vegetable planting groups and as cooks of school meals.

"Food and education are the two areas where it is okay to have women in leadership” 246.

Within communities, Plan supports the most vulnerable in meeting their nutritional needs through consultative targeting mechanisms, monitors impact through Post Distribution Monitoring as well as providing community level WASH infrastructure to promote good hygiene practices. However, Plan should look to incorporate food and cash based projects into broader community health and nutrition priorities rather than as stand-alone projects; institutionalise post distribution monitoring to better monitor impact; and look to better integrate inclusion and gender concerns in the establishment of WASH infrastructure.

"Women only involved in community meetings that has a lot to do with health.”247.

At household level, the study found that Plan food and cash based projects directly support women, girls, boys and men in meeting their dietary and nutrition needs. However, there are issues around quantity and diversity of food products consumed. The study found that there is an over-reliance on Public Address Messaging to affect behavioural change, especially around food handling, hygiene and nutrition. Plan should look at investing in complementary activities to increase knowledge and better promote changes in behaviour, such as cooking demonstrations and home visits.

**CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, this study indicates that Plan’s food programs are contributing to improved health and nutrition within target communities. While Plan contributes in varying degrees to a large part of this Theory of Change there are also some areas where Plan could make some significant improvements in terms of design and delivery of programs to better contribute to health and nutrition outcomes.

At the government level, commitment to health and nutrition is evident through national policies, action plans and committees that encompass the local, district and national level. Plan plays a fundamental role in enabling the delivery of government health/nutrition programs through the provision of personal, transport and resources. However, Plan does not engage in focused advocacy activities, and government funds for health and nutrition projects remain limited.
Plan seeks to support responsible government actors to enable gender sensitive national disaster management systems. The study sought to assess this through exploring the establishment of national disaster management systems, government budget allocation to disaster management, and the responsiveness of disaster management systems to the individual needs of women and girls, and whether systems are informed by a broader gender and stakeholder analysis. In both Zimbabwe and Cambodia, Plan contributes to enabling national disaster management systems through supporting government actors. However, there are clear gaps in terms of capability, coordination and funding where Plan could play more of a role.

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In Zimbabwe for example, Plan is a member of the Civil Protection Unit coordination mechanism, and the Food and Nutrition Council’s annual ZimVAC as well as various other forums. Plan operates in close cooperation with government, giving them a strong reputation and clear position of influence.

“Plan understands that you need to work with the government to make the programs successful”[249].

Plan uses this position and acts as a relationship broker between government and communities through supporting government mobilisation in assessments, community consultations and the delivery of services.

“One of Plan’s main roles is as a broker between the government and the communities – we support the government by making them mobile, providing transportation, meal allowances and petrol to engage with local communities”[250].

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“One of Plan’s main roles is as a broker between the government and the communities – we support the government by making them mobile, providing transportation, meal allowances and petrol to engage with local communities”[250].
The way Plan operates in communities is through structured community consultations and they have a strong reputation for working collaboratively in both communities and with government. In implementing programs, Plan engages the community through formal and informal community structures including village leadership, committees, interest groups and schools. Targeting mechanisms, while guided by the donor, involve community consultation. For example in Zimbabwe, Plan works with communities to determine vulnerability criteria, and the ranking of households. Data collected from household surveys highlights that this approach is resulting in Plan interventions targeting the most vulnerable households. For example, 27% of Plan’s beneficiaries in Cambodia have enough money to satisfy all of their basic needs as compared to 55% of the non-beneficiary population. Despite this, these community mechanisms are linked to traditional patriarchal structures, which raises questions as to the meaningful engagement of women and children in such consultations. While women are represented in these forums, evidence suggests that they have less influence over decision-making processes and as such, gaps are evident. In Cambodia, efforts have been made in child rights programs to help children build confidence and better engage through trainings and activities. In Zimbabwe there are limited opportunities for children to directly participate in and influence decisions concerning their protection or response efforts. Rather the approach adopted is that adults, such as caseworkers and decision makers, consider issues they self-identify as relevant to children. There are some examples of where children have been present, or have been encouraged to be present, however this is not mandated and there are no specific structures for children.

‘A child might not say anything but we are witnessing things in our interventions and that is enough to say the voice of the child is present’ 256.

There are also questions around the representation of women in community consultation processes which traditionally hold these posts. Even in committees where women are the majority, there is evidence to suggest that because of patriarchal norms it is the men that dominate conversations and are looked to in decision making. In the food and cash based projects, there is no evidence to suggest structured forums for the specific engagement of women.

As a part of the design process, food and cash based projects now integrate different feedback mechanisms into the project to allow space for affected populations to share experiences, issues and concerns. As mandated by the donor, help desks, hotlines and suggestion boxes are established to capture any feedback. Also in Zimbabwe, Post Distribution Monitoring captures information around satisfaction levels, waiting times, transportation and expenses. There is no such structured monitoring in Cambodia, with staff checking in with communities informally at each distribution. Plan seeks to support enabled and functioning gender sensitive infrastructure locally including roads, irrigation systems and WASH facilities before and during and after disasters and conflicts. The study sought to identify this by exploring the satisfaction levels of communities with local infrastructure, the quality, functionality and accessibility of local infrastructure, and whether any infrastructure initiatives are informed by a situational and gender analysis. Enabled and functioning community infrastructure is said to make communities more resilient and better able to resist, respond to and recover from shocks and stresses. Through food and cash based projects, Plan significantly invests in supporting communities to build and rehabilitate community infrastructure, specifically through cash for work activity as complementary activities to food distributions. In Cambodia for example, in the current school feeding program Plan has allocated $3000 annually to support the rehabilitation of school toilets and hand-washing facilities. In Zimbabwe, Plan has supported local farmers in constructing latrines and identifying water points. In Myanmar, Plan has supported local communities to construct ponds, and rehabilitate roads and schools. As part of the study, a comprehensive assessment was conducted and over it all found that hygiene facilities were not consistently functioning, were generally non-inclusive, and didn’t cater for the specific needs of women and girls in their construction. Toilet and latrine facilities were assessed and analysed on their accessibility and safety, function and maintenance, and hygiene and sanitation. In Cambodia, five schools’ toilets and hand-washing facilities were assessed. Of the five schools, 60% of toilets were inaccessible for people with physical disabilities. Most toilets assessed had steps, which were inappropriate for wheelchairs, and where toilets were fitted with ramps, there were often no handrails and fixtures. Toilets assessed in Cambodia had separate facilities for boys and girls, however none of the toilets assessed were accessible to people with disabilities. Most toilets assessed had water basins or soap for hand washing. The school has no hand-washing facility, so we don’t wash hands unless if you bring your own water” 258.

In Zimbabwe, the survey found that 71% of respondents were unsatisfied with the local roads considering them very unappealing and a bad quality of a bad quality. In Cambodia this was significantly less with approximately 39% of respondents not satisfied with the roads. In Zimbabwe, only 27% of households were satisfied with the level of access to water source in their household, while in Cambodia 49% of respondents indicated that there are months when there is no water at all. In Cambodia, 94.9% of respondents have access to a water source within the household and 40% of them report that during the dry season, there is no water available. Across both countries people are generally satisfied with school buildings and their accessibility.

Further to infrastructure, Plan also seeks to support communities, schools and households to be prepared with enabled and functioning inclusive and gender sensitive disaster management systems and response plans. The study sought to assess this by exploring disaster management systems of schools and households, the quality of plans and whether these systems are responsive to the needs and capacities of women, girls, boys, men, and informed by a gender analysis. The study suggested that there is very limited government allocation towards disaster warning systems from national level down to village level. While there is evidence to suggest that Plan has worked with some communities to develop action plans through other programs in both Cambodia and Zimbabwe, this is not a mandated or systematic process.
The study suggests that communities, schools and households are not disaster prepared, increasing community vulnerability to the potential impact of disasters.

It is also clear that such Plan, donor and government interventions and plans are not informed by a targeted gender analysis to identify and subsequently respond to the needs and capabilities of women, girls, boys and men. In both Cambodia and Zimbabwe, no gender analysis was conducted or even referenced in designing the various food and cash based projects. There also seems to be a fundamental misunderstanding around what gender analysis is with a target of 50/50 participation seen as satisfying this requirement - this is true for both Plan staff and local government. A reason for this identified by staff is the 'top-down approach' taken by WFP as the donor.

“Social workers that are available are not well equipped, both in terms of training and funding. Some districts don’t have social workers at all”260.

It is clear that an important role is played by local and traditional community structures in the space of child protection. The community structures provide the first step in resolving cases, sometimes even before formal legal mechanisms. In Zimbabwe for example, community judicial structures are the first step in handling child protection issues.

“Only serious issues go to the court and if they aren’t serious, they are handled within traditional structures. There are no guidelines for the handling of child protection cases within customary courts”261.

There were also multiple examples of targeted actions from Plan, through these are outside the food and cash based projects, and are aimed at increasing the competency of women, girls, boys and men to identify, prevent and respond to protection risks. In Cambodia as part of a child rights program, for example, work is done with parents in the establishment of parents’ groups where they raise awareness on child rights, parenting techniques, and domestic violence and protection mechanisms. In Zimbabwe, Plan advocated for and financially supported the establishment of Child Friendly Courts aimed at improving the handling of child protection cases.

There were also examples of child protection activities mainstreamed into food and cash based projects, however evidence suggests that these are only in place where there are other investments and programs implemented in the same area. In Cambodia, there is an established process as a part of the broader program unit with regard to handling child protection cases. For example, when comparing the results between Chiredzi and Chirumanzu Districts in Zimbabwe, it is clear that child protection mechanisms are prioritised when there are other funding sources, funding local child protection organisations such as Child Line to case manage. In Chirumanzu, where Plan is implementing just grant-funded activities and there are funding shortages in the government, as well as the absence of other child protection organisations, there are not adequate structures in place to respond to identified cases. Data collected indicated that in these cases, protection mechanisms are not adequately mainstreamed.

Plan also seeks to support women, girls, boys and men to have sufficient resources to meet their individual needs during and immediately after disasters and conflicts, especially through the food and cash based projects. The study sought to assess this through exploring household negative coping strategies, the time and use of women’s labour, as well as assessing whether distributions aligned with core humanitarian standards including the presence of ration cards, distance to distributions being less than 10 km, consideration of the needs of those with reduced mobility, and the promotion of choice and the dignity of disaster-affected populations. The injection of cash and food into communities provides support in meeting households’ immediate needs. Plan provides food to households, supports vulnerable families through the provision of cash for casual labour, as well as providing take-home rations and scholarships for students. Plan also supports livelihood activities through the provision of trainings, agricultural inputs and investment in food production systems. Despite these efforts, the survey found that some households have not been able to consistently satisfy even their basic needs. For instance, 6.8% of respondents in Cambodia and 26.5% of respondents in Zimbabwe said that there were days in the four weeks when there was no food in the household.

In Zimbabwe, Plan contributes to supporting disaster-affected people through the distribution of food and other non-food items. However, due to the absence of a high functioning and central disaster management coordination forum, or even disaster preparedness and planning down to community level, there are issues with regard to the timeliness of responses. As Plan cannot implement without first engaging government, this also affects the impact of Plan’s response.

“Zimbabwe is not disaster prepared especially at government level, not enough people are trained and finances are a serious issue. We need to do networking to get a response which seriously affects the timeliness of responses and our response always lags behind”262.

With the absence of a gender analysis in project design, implementation and evaluation, Zimbabwe’s response, and even Plan’s, is gender blind and unaware of the particular needs of the various sub-groups affected by disasters. There is evidence to suggest that certain individuals, notably women, do not have their immediate needs met in response, with women often sometimes failing to give them choice or promote their dignity.

“Small details specific to the needs of women are often overlooked as men are in decision-making positions and they overlook issues that women would stress, e.g. high workload for women (caring for family, food preparation etc.)”263.

People with a disability are often vulnerable to exclusion from food programs. Firstly, those with disabilities often face barriers to accessing food distribution sites, including local health centres, schools and food distribution points. Issues such as distance, transport, building access and cost can prevent these individuals from receiving food aid. Secondly, social stigma can act as a barrier, with community members potentially not prioritising people with disabilities in the distribution of food aid. Despite this, there is no evidence to suggest Plan adequately considers and responds to the needs of people living with a disability in their project activities. With regard to food distribution points and school kitchens in Zimbabwe and Cambodia, consideration for people with limited mobility is not a major factor. Rather, it is expected that able-bodied students or community members will support them in bringing them food - whether though this is actually happening isn’t systematically assessed.

“Mostly children with physical disabilities get support from their friend. No all students have to go to kitchen but the student in grade 5-6 arrange and serve meal for all students”264.

“People collect food for disabled/not mobile people and bring it to their homes”265.

“In the recent flooding for example there was an issue of sanitary requirements for women not being a part of the first response, but rather came later after a secondary assessment. ‘Save lives, dignity comes later’266.

People with a disability are often vulnerable to exclusion from food programs. Firstly, those with disabilities often face barriers to accessing food distribution sites, including local health centres, schools and food distribution points. Issues such as distance, transport, building access and cost can prevent these individuals from receiving food aid. Secondly, social stigma can act as a barrier, with community members potentially not prioritising people with disabilities in the distribution of food aid. Despite this, there is no evidence to suggest Plan adequately considers and responds to the needs of people living with a disability in their project activities. With regard to food distribution points and school kitchens in Zimbabwe and Cambodia, consideration for people with limited mobility is not a major factor. Rather, it is expected that able-bodied students or community members will support them in bringing them food - whether though this is actually happening isn’t systematically assessed.

“Mostly children with physical disabilities get support from their friend. No all students have to go to kitchen but the student in grade 5-6 arrange and serve meal for all students”264.

“People collect food for disabled/not mobile people and bring it to their homes”265.
The evidence suggests that Plan seeks to uphold the core humanitarian standards (CHS) in the distribution of food and cash, however this is not consistent in every context. In Zimbabwe, efforts are made when multiple beneficiaries are travelling longer than 10 km. This is validated through Post Distribution Monitoring where time spent travelling is analysed and red flags are responded to.  

“We also do Post Distribution Monitoring where we monitor distances beneficiaries have to walk for the FDPs. If the distances are above 3-4 hours we start asking questions and assessing the distribution points. For example in Chirumanzu, we identified that there were multiple beneficiaries walking for 3-4 hours so we split the distribution sites. We just had to notify WFP to ensure they would absorb the financial implications.”

Efforts are also made to ensure that beneficiaries are aware of their entitlements through the presence of either ration cards or banners at distribution points, with their rations explained in Public Address Messaging. Only 3% of all respondents had complaints in relation to the items and services they got via Plan.

In Cambodia however, the CHS are not applied as uniformly – potentially because the situation in Cambodia is not technically a humanitarian response. For example, distribution sites are determined by the Department of Education and teachers of relevant schools, with distributions encompassing four to seven schools in a particular area. In certain situations this requires beneficiaries to travel more than 10 km. Anecdotally, Plan staff believe that these individuals will seek to acquire transportation as a group to reduce costs. However there is no systematic Post Distribution Monitoring to capture satisfaction levels, travel times or costs incurred by beneficiaries to verify this.

“There is no post monitoring conducted after the distribution. However some information can be collected in the next distribution. For example, in 2nd distribution we can ask beneficiaries on what they spend food/cash for, how many day[s] consumed. There is no structural questionnaire.”

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the study confirmed the relevance of the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change with regard to protection and DRR. While Plan contributes in varying degrees to a large part of this Theory of Change, there are also some areas where Plan could make some significant improvements in order to better support women, girls, boys and men to be protected, safe and resilient to disasters and conflicts. Plan engages in government forums and decision making around disaster management through participating in assessments, coordination meetings and networks. Despite this, by working through the government mechanisms Plan and other civil society actors are bound by government priorities and response. In these assessments and planning Plan should be advocating for mainstreaming and prioritisation of the needs of women and children in the first response. Plan should also seek to support the government in becoming more proactive in terms of disaster management, advocating for the establishment of a well-resourced and capacitated disaster management authority. The study suggests that communities, schools and households are not disaster prepared, increasing community vulnerability to the potential impact of disasters. Plan, in its DRR work, should be prioritising disaster preparedness and the establishment of action plans from national level down to village level.

The way Plan operates in communities is through structured community consultations and has a strong reputation for working collaboratively in both communities and with government. In implementing programs, Plan engages the community through formal and informal community structures including village leadership, committees, interest groups and schools. However, these community mechanisms are linked to traditional patriarchal structures, which raises questions as to the representation of women and children in such consultations. It is clear that Plan, donor and government interventions and plans are not informed by a targeted gender analysis to identify and subsequently respond to the needs and capabilities of women, girls, boys and men. There is also no evidence collected that suggests there are targeted consultations with people with disabilities, and their needs and voices are notably absent in national and community disaster planning and response. In terms of child protection, there are examples of child protection activities mainstreamed into food and cash based projects, however evidence suggests that these are only in place where there are other investments and programs implemented in the same area. It is recommended that there are minimum child protection mechanisms integrated into all programs that Plan implements. If these do not already exist through other programs in the project area, then these should be integrated as complementary activities as a part of the grant-funded project.

At household level, Plan directly supports families to meet their immediate needs with the injection of cash and food. There is however evidence to suggest that certain individuals, notably women, do not have their immediate needs met, with responses sometimes failing to give them choice or promote their dignity. People with a disability are also often vulnerable to exclusion from food and cash based projects. While some programs seek to apply humanitarian standards, consult with communities and monitor the impacts of distributions, this is not done systematically across contexts.

Further to this, food and cash based projects were found to contribute to advancing gender equality by challenging the root causes of discrimination. For example, while food and cash based projects do not actively seek to shift power dynamics between men and women by making women the head of household in distributions, Plan has indirectly promoted women in financial decision-making processes within the household. This has also contributed to shifting women's position at community level where they were found to be more engaged and active in community meetings and events.

The study ultimately confirmed that food and cash based interventions have a significant impact in communities, beyond just the distribution and receipt of food. In different ways and to different degrees, food and cash based projects contributed in some way to promoting the sector goal of ending hunger, achieving food security and improved nutrition, and promoting sustainable livelihoods for women, girls, boys and men before, during and after disasters and conflicts. The evidence suggests that these food and cash based projects provide a good entry into communities as people are more likely to want to engage with Plan when they are getting something. In particular, food and cash based projects were found to have a large impact at the household and individual level. For example food and cash based projects directly support school attendance, food and financial insecurity in the household was found to be a significant barrier to school attendance and the impact of any efforts supporting households to meet their food needs extends to children being more likely to access education. At the household level it was found that food and cash based projects directly increase individual's food consumption and knowledge about the importance of good nutrition and food handling. Food projects were also found to contribute to a better quality and more diversified diet.
8.1 RECOMMENDATIONS

Despite these positive impacts of food and cash based interventions, the study found that the way Plan currently treats these types of projects, as isolated grants just responding to the donor requirements, means that impacts beyond the distribution and receipt of food aren't properly recognised and reported. On top of that, by not conceptualising these interventions within the broader framework Plan is missing significant opportunities to capitalise on the potential these projects offer as entry points into communities and to better achieve these broader impacts in health and nutrition, women’s economic empowerment, education, disaster risk management and protection, and economic empowerment and livelihoods.

The Food Security as a Modality for Change study has made seven core recommendations outlined below. These recommendations are not to be considered in isolation and rather, are designed to provide a consistent approach for a way forward for country offices. Ultimately the onus is on country offices and funding national offices to contextualise these seven recommendations to their respective contexts, using the information and findings outlined in this report as a baseline and guidance as to what works, where the gaps and missed opportunities are, and what Plan can do better.

1. DESIGNING FOOD AND CASH BASED PROJECTS INTO A BROADER FRAMEWORK

It is recommended that there is a shift in the way food and cash based projects are conceptualised, designed and implemented so that individual projects are seen as contributing to a broader Country Food Security Program that sits within the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change, as well as the Country Strategic Plans. Food and cash distributions should ideally no longer be done as stand-alone activities to avoid fostering a culture of dependency. Rather than programmatic outcomes in and of themselves, food and cash distributions are framed as one of multiple activities whose collective impact supports Plan’s global vision. This approach champions transformative ambitions into the food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery portfolio. Priority should be placed on up-skilling and training field staff around gender equality so that they are better able to operationalise its gender transformative agenda, the Food Security as a Modality for Change approach presents a way of mainstreaming gender transformative ambitions into the food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery portfolio, to support inclusion should be conceptualised, vetted and designed in consultation with people living with a disability. Informed by the Country Situational Analysis, Plan should seek to actively remove barriers to participation and engagement for people living with a disability.

Considering Plan’s global vision and shift in focus to girls as the core impact group, it is expected that all programs contribute to this objective of gender equality and women’s empowerment. The study found that, to varying degrees and in different ways, food and cash based projects do contribute to this national agenda. Of course this could be done better however in a period where Plan is trying to conceptualise how to operationalise its gender transformative agenda, the Food Security as a Modality for Change approach presents a way of mainstreaming gender transformative ambitions into the food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery portfolio.

2. ACCESSIBILITY FOR PEOPLE LIVING WITH A DISABILITY

It is recommended that the Country Food Security Program and corresponding MEL Framework and Advocacy Strategy also seriously consider the inclusion of, and specifically accessibility for, people living with a disability. The report highlights how this issue is inconsistently considered across country offices, with significant gaps identified in the accessibility of food and cash based projects for people living with a disability. Informed by the Country Situational Analysis, Plan should seek to actively remove barriers to participation and engagement for people living with a disability.

3. INTEGRATING CHILD PROTECTION AS A MINIMUM STANDARD

Due to the implications of food and cash based projects, the injection of resources into vulnerable communities and the nature of mass distributions, there is an increased risk to children who are especially vulnerable. No matter the country or operational context, all food and cash based projects should seek to mitigate this increased risk by:

1. Mainstreaming child protection into projects with a particular focus on where and how resources are distributed, as well as ensuring meaningful consultation with children;

2. Ensuring referral and case management mechanisms are in place to deal with any identified cases or concerns.

It is understood that food and cash based projects don’t operate in a vacuum, and that child protection and case management mechanisms are in place as a part of broader Plan programs and activities. When designing food and cash based projects it is expected that staff conduct an assessment of existing services and activities. Where Plan is moving into a new area of operation, it is identified that there are no services or Plan programs providing child protection and case management support, it is recommended that this be built into the project design and budgeted for appropriately.
5. CONDUCTING A COMPREHENSIVE COUNTRY SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

Ensuring a comprehensive situational analysis is an integral step in designing any program. When doing a Country Situational Analysis for the Country Food Security Program and Advocacy Strategy, Plan should look to the Food Security as a Modality for Change Theory of Change and in particular the three levels of engagement—government and policy, community, and household and individual. Gathering data at each level will support in the identification of key stakeholders, gaps and strengths, and in the development of advocacy and programming priorities. At each level, Plan should seek to integrate a gender analysis into this process. Plan should also ensure the systematic engagement of the community, beyond community leadership, and in particular engage boys and girls in these needs identification and prioritisation processes. The findings of this Food Security as a Modality for Change study contributes towards a baseline portfolio situational analysis. The tools provided in Annexes 2 – 7 can be adapted and applied in different country contexts to inform Country Situational Analyses.

6. CONCEPTUALISING A COUNTRY FOOD SECURITY PROGRAM ADVOCACY STRATEGY

An advocacy strategy should include the activities that will engage and persuade not only the final decision maker, but the individuals and organisations that have influence over the decision maker. Advocacy activities are wide ranging and include:

- Relationship building with key stakeholders & decision makers
- Meetings with decision makers
- Workshops and conferences to build support for change amongst allies and influencers
- Coalition building and joint advocacy with allies and partners (nationally, regionally and globally)
- Use of international and regional human rights instruments (such as CRC and CEDAW)
- Supporting communities and young people to advocate for change
- Publishing articles, blog posts
- Social media
- Public campaigning – circulating a petition, letter writing etc.

It is recommended that Plan also develops an evidence base that will support its advocacy efforts. This will need to be built into program activities and will be a piece of work to collect the information that is needed to engage and persuade decision makers. In addition to data, program evaluations, independent research and reports, and comparative examples, ideally an evidence base should include the experiences of girls and boys, young people, and other affected community members.

3. Meaningfully consult with communities and leadership at all levels and determine a change goal that will create benefit for them.

4. Prioritise advocacy issues in order to identify the single change goal for that core objective area. When prioritising advocacy issues, Plan offices may consider:

- Conducting an Impact vs. Resources graph analysis to determine what is feasible within resource parameters. This exercise is also valuable in identifying whether additional resources are necessary to carry out activities that are high impact and will yield the greatest results.
- Opportunities that may not be specifically identified at country level, but where the food security sector could be especially influential.

At the country level, Plan should design a Country Food Security Program MEL Framework that draws from:

- Country Food Security Program
- Food Security as a Modality for Change MEL Framework
- Country Food Security Advocacy Strategy ensuring specific indicators regarding engagement and change.

There should be investment in periodic evaluations to assess the impact against the Country Food Security Program. It is recommended that there also be an investment into case studies across different contexts in terms of how food and cash based projects are implemented (for example the Food and Nutrition Unit in the Central African Republic etc.) to reflect and share experiences and learnings between country offices and programs.

7. INTEGRATING A COMPREHENSIVE MONITORING, EVALUATION AND LEARNING PROCESS AND APPROACH

The study found that due to the nature of food and cash based projects, their sheer size and the effort involved in implementation, most projects monitor the minimum contractual reporting requirements from the donor which tends to be focussed at output level. Plan needs to adjust its approach to the monitoring of food and cash based projects and shift from output based/short term results and activities to outcome based/long term results that have a broader impact, beyond just the distribution and receipt of food. In order to adequately track the impact of interventions, projects need to integrate comprehensive MEL standards and strategies into the design, implementation and reporting processes at both the country and individual project level.

At individual project level it is recommended that all food and cash based interventions, at a minimum:

1. Design the individual donor funded grant projects within the Country Food Security Program, referencing the relevant outcomes and how the project contributes to this broader framework
2. Develop a corresponding project MEL framework that references the appropriate outcome and output indicators within the Country Food Security Program MEL Framework, as well as integrating priorities within the donor strategic results framework
3. Adequately budget for comprehensive and regular monitoring of both output level and outcome level indicators
4. Post distribution monitoring is integrated into all food and cash based projects
5. Supplement any donor minimum reporting requirements with the additional outcome level data collection and analysis.

In conclusion, the Food Security as a Modality for Change study, both in terms of process and findings, supported in the development of an understanding of how food and cash based projects impact communities, beyond just receipt of goods, and the different experiences of women, girls, boys and men. Using this information as a base Plan is equipped to start shifting food and cash based projects from short term, targeted activities, to outcome based programs that fit into a broader strategic framework. Food Security as a Modality for Change as a programmatic approach conceptualises a clear narrative for gender transformational change for food and cash based interventions that clearly speaks to Plan’s global vision where ‘Women, girls, boys and men live in a world that advances children’s rights and equality for girls’.
9. BIBLIOGRAPHY


10. ANNEXES:

ANNEX 1: FOOD SECURITY AS A MODALITY FOR CHANGE

THREATS AND INDIVIDUALS

Women, Girls, Boys and Men Live in a Just World That Advances Children’s Rights and Equality for Girls

LEAD

Vulnerable and excluded children, particularly girls, receive education and skills they need to succeed in life and make a decent living.

LEARN

Vulnerable and excluded children, particularly girls, participate in and influence the social, economic and political decisions that matter to them.

THRIVE

Vulnerable and excluded children, particularly girls, access and complete quality education from pre-primary to secondary.

Women, Girls, Boys and Men enjoy good health and have the skills, knowledge and nutrition they need from gender bias.

SURVIVE

Vulnerable and excluded children, particularly girls, receive food and cash based projects tend to operate.

Women, Girls, Boys and Men are protected, safe and resilient to disasters and conflicts.

GOAL

End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable livelihoods for women, girls, boys and men before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

OBJECTIVES

Girls and Boys receive education before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Households are financially independent before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Women and Girls have the power to actively participate in their communities and influence decisions before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Women, Girls, Boys and Men enjoy good health and have the skills, knowledge and nutrition they need from gender bias.

Governance and Policy

Responsible Government actors are engaged and committed to providing quality education.

Responsible Government actors are engaged and committed to economically empowering community members.

Functioning and robust legal and systems that uphold rights, especially the rights of women and girls before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Responsible Government actors are engaged and committed to good health and nutritional status for all community members.

Gender transformational leadership and influence are established and functioning before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Gender transformational and inclusive social protection safety nets are established and functioning.

Women and Girls engage in community affairs of their interest before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Women and Girls protection needs are mainstreamed throughout national strategies and responses.

Community level inclusive and gender transformational responses plans, both disaster and child protection, are enabled and functioning.

GOALS

Gender transformational infrastructure is enabled and functioning before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Gender transformational health care services and systems are enabled and operating before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Gender transformational food production systems are sustainable with local markets and supply chains are enabled and functioning before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Gender transformational and inclusive school infrastructure is enabled and functioning before, during and after disasters and conflicts for example WASH facilities, school gardens etc.

Gender transformational and inclusive social protection safety nets are established and functioning before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Local markets and supply chains are enabled and functioning before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Women and Girls engage, participate and influence disaster management and response plans, both disaster and child protection, are enabled and functioning.

Community level inclusive and gender transformational responses plans, both disaster and child protection, are enabled and functioning.

END HUNGER, ACHIEVE FOOD SECURITY AND IMPROVED NUTRITION AND PROMOTE SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS

FOOD SECURITY AS A MODALITY FOR CHANGE

GOVERNMENT AND POLICY

PLAN International

GLOBAL OUTCOMES

RESOURCES AND INDIVIDUALS

Vulnerable and excluded children, particularly girls, receive education and make a decent living.

Vulnerable and excluded children, particularly girls, participate in and influence the social, economic and political decisions that matter to them.

Vulnerable and excluded children, particularly young women, acquire skills for work and access to decent employment and entrepreneurial opportunities.

Vulnerable and excluded children, particularly girls, access and complete quality education from pre-primary to secondary.

Vulnerable and excluded children, particularly girls, receive food and cash based projects tend to operate.

Government and Policy

Girls and Boys engage, participate and influence decisions concerning their health and nutritional status before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Girls and Boys protection needs are mainstreamed throughout national strategies and responses.

Girls and Boys engage, participate and influence decisions concerning pre-primary, response and recovery efforts.

Girls and Boys have the skills, knowledge and nutrition they need from gender bias.

Women, Girls, Boys and Men have sufficient quality and nutritious food before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Women, Girls, Boys and Men have increased knowledge of livelihood and hygiene.

Women, Girls, Boys and Men have increased knowledge of livelihood and hygiene.

Community level inclusive and gender transformational responses plans, both disaster and child protection, are enabled and functioning.

Women, Girls, Boys and Men have sufficient knowledge and nutrition to meet their individual needs before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Women, Girls, Boys and Men play protected, safe and resilient to disasters and conflicts.

World, Girls, Boys and Men enjoy good health and have the skills, knowledge and nutrition they need from gender bias.

Women, Girls, Boys and Men have the power to actively participate in their communities and influence decisions before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Women, Girls, Boys and Men play protected, safe and resilient to disasters and conflicts.

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Women, Girls, Boys and Men play protected, safe and resilient to disasters and conflicts.
Roles and Responsibilities

Lead Facilitator (1)

The role of the lead facilitator is to lead the focus group discussion including opening and introducing key staff at each community meeting, and facilitating the analysis of the data meeting following the focus group discussion. The lead facilitator will also lead one of the sub-groups (e.g. women) which will require them to also take notes of the discussion and outcomes of each session.

Co-Facilitators (1)

The co-facilitators work closely with the lead facilitator and are responsible for leading sub-groups (e.g. men). Co-facilitators will ensure that participation is maximised within their sub-group and that everyone has the opportunity to provide input. The co-facilitator will also play the role of note taker, actively observing and taking notes of the discussion and the outcomes of each session.

Ideally, each gender sub-group will have a facilitator of that gender. This means that you need at least 1 male and 1 female facilitator.

In communities:
- To raise awareness about gender roles and relationships in household activities;
- To understand, anecdotally, change over time in gender relations;
- For project staff:
  - To develop practical skills for gender monitoring;
  - To understand, anecdotally, change over time in gender relations;
  - To raise awareness about gender roles and relationships in household activities;
- To develop practical skills for gender monitoring;
- To collect sex-disaggregated information.

**ANNEX 2: DATA COLLECTION TOOLS 1 – HOUSEHOLD ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES TOOL**

**Household Roles and Responsibilities Tool**

Plan International Australia (PIA) would like to share the Household Roles and Responsibilities Tool. Literature suggests that measuring change in the context of gender relations presents ongoing challenges for monitoring, evaluation and learning (MEL). Drawing inspiration by Plan International Australia’s award winning Gender WASH Monitoring Tool (GWMT), PIA has taken the opportunity to develop an explicit tool focused on monitoring changes in gender relations within the household. Please note that the tool is still in piloting stage and we invite feedback as a part of the tool’s continued development.

What is the Household Roles and Responsibilities Tool?

The Household Roles and Responsibilities Tool seeks to address the following aims:

- To develop practical skills for gender monitoring;
- For project staff:
  - To understand, anecdotally, change over time in gender relations;
  - To develop practical skills for gender monitoring;

The Household Roles and Responsibilities Tool enables project staff to measure and monitor gender relations with regard to workload and decision making authority with women, girls, boys and men within the household.

Ideally, each gender sub-group will have a facilitator of that gender. This means that you need at least 1 male and 1 female facilitator.

**1. INTRODUCTION**

5 minutes

Introductions
- Introduce facilitators
- Thanks for time commitment
- Briefly outline the process – broken up into the two groups to discuss individual experiences, then come back together

Explain the program context
- Explain the Plan interventions relevant to this group
- Outline the timeframe relevant to the interventions
- Part of a broader evaluation and monitoring process
- Will inform programming going forward

Explain that we will be spending 1.5 hours together
- Agree on how we will work together in this time laying some ground rules:
  - Everyone’s participation is equal
  - Everyone must listen and respect each other
  - One person speaks at a time
  - Any other rules you would like to add?

Request permission to take photos to document the process
- Ensure people that names will not be added into the record always to protect privacy
- Ask if anyone has questions or concerns

**2. EXPLAINING HOUSEHOLD TASK AND RESPONSIBILITIES IN FOUR TASK CATEGORIES**

5 minutes

Explain the Four Task Categories
- Food –
  - Cooking
  - Cleaning
  - Buying food
- WASH –
  - Washing clothes
  - Setting water
  - Cleaning toilet facilities
- Finances/Resources –
  - Saving
  - Budgeting
  - Paying daily expenses

Community Engagement –
- Participating in community meetings
- Participating as community leader
- Participating in community groups

**3. WOMEN’S AND MEN’S TIME SPENT ON TASKS AND RESPONSIBILITIES IN HOUSEHOLDS**

30 minutes

Divide the whole group into 2
- Divide the group into men and women.
- There will be one facilitator with each group.

Time Star

Explain that the centre of the Time Star represents 0 hours spent and the task, while the outside of the Time Star represents more than 20 hours.
- Ask: On average, how many hours do you spend per week on this task?
- Give the participants a marker and ask the participants to mark along the line how many hours they spend for each task.

Repeat for each of the four Task Categories

Discuss changes in allocation of time (past, present, future).

Discussion questions:
- Have you always spent this much time on these tasks? Think back to the time of your grandparents – did they spend more or less time on these tasks?
- Can you give an example of what has changed?
- Can you identify what has caused this change? Has the recent food crisis changed anything? In what way?
- Do you think that the distribution of labour between male and female in your household is fair/equitable? Why?

Indicator

% of girls and women who report positive shift in the distribution of labour as a consequence of our project

Evidence of change in responsibility for household chores distributed based on skills and availability of time

Evidence of positive change in family practices in the direction of equitable distribution of labour

Positive change in women’s allocation of labour as reported by woman
4. WOMEN’S AND MEN’S ROLE IN DECISION MAKING IN HOUSEHOLD

30 minutes

Explain the different age groups represented in the sex-age Cards

- Young Women
- Middle Aged Women
- Older Women
- Young Men
- Middle Aged Men
- Older Men

Power Star

- The centre of the diagram represents the least decision making authority
- The outside of each Task Category line represents the most decision making authority
- For each Task Category, participants discuss each of the sex-age Cards and agree on who along the line they feel that group sits based on their decision-making authority.

Prompt:
- Food: If there is a debate in the household about what meal to cook for dinner, who has more decision-making authority?
- Finances/Resources: If there is a big financial decision to be made such as buying a new motorcycle, who has more decision-making authority?
- WASH: If there is a debate in the household about when to do the washing of clothing, who has more decision-making authority?
- Community Engagement: If there is a decision to be made at community level, such as involvement in the Village Development Plan, who has more decision-making authority?

5. FACILITATED SEX AND AGE DISAGGREGATED DISCUSSION AROUND WOMEN’S/GIRL’S LEADERSHIP AT COMMUNITY LEVEL

20 minutes

Ask:
- With regard to finances/resources, have women always had this much power? Can you give an example of what has changed?
- Can you identify what has caused this change? Has the recent food crisis changed anything? In what way?
- Are there any examples of women or girls in leadership positions at community level?
- Are there any particular topics that women/girls especially engage in at community level? Are there any particular topics that women/girls are not able to engage in?
- Do male community leaders (cultural, customary and religious) engage women/girls in their decision making?
- Are women/girls opinions valued at community level?
- What could be done to increase the decision-making authority of women/girls at community level?
- Do you think that there is a discrimination against women in your community? Has it increased or decreased lately or is it at the same level as always?
- Can you identify what has caused this change? Has the recent food crisis changed anything? In what way?
- Did Plan International do anything in that regard?

6. FACILITATED SEX AND AGE DISAGGREGATED DISCUSSION AROUND WOMEN’S/GIRL’S LEADERSHIP AT FAMILY LEVEL

20 minutes

Ask:
- % of girls and women participating in our project who report that their voice has been listened to at community level in relation to affairs of their interest (health, education, marriage)
- Change in the acceptance of women’s leadership by a community and cultural, customary and religious leaders
- Evidence of decisions that have been influenced by girls and women

7. CHANGING PRACTICE IN WASH AND HYGIENE

5 minutes

- Increased women’s access to and control over resources
- Women having greater income and acceptance of this by men
- % of 18+ girls and women who report positive shift in the distribution of labour as a consequence of our project
- a change in responsibility for household chores distributed based on skills and availability of time
- Evidence of positive change in family practices in direction of equitable distribution of labour

ANNEX 3: DATA COLLECTION TOOLS – PARTICIPATORY GROUP DISCUSSION TOOL

Participatory Group Discussion Tool

Plan International Australia (PIA) would like to share the Participatory Group Discussion Tool. PIA has taken the opportunity to develop an explicit tool focused on monitoring the impressions of children with regard to health, nutrition and participation in decisions at home and in school. Please note that the tool is still in piloting stage and we invite feedback as a part of the tool’s continued development.

What is the Participatory Group Discussion Tool?

The participatory discussion groups provide the space for child participants to reflect on health, nutrition and participation in decisions at home and in school. The groups will be divided according to gender with a separate group for boys and a separate group for girls.

In selecting participants for the community meetings, inclusive approaches are important and attention should be given to ensuring the most marginalised boys and girls are able to participate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATORS TO INFORM</th>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>QUESTIONS</th>
<th>TIMING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Energiser</td>
<td>Tailor to local context</td>
<td>Let’s talk about washing your hands at home and in school. Do you think it is important to wash your hands? When do you wash your hands? Where do you wash your hands at home? When do you wash your hands at school? When?</td>
<td>5 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#evidence of impact of students who received school meals</td>
<td>Group Discussion: Hygiene</td>
<td>Evidence of increased awareness and knowledge about food hygiene and quality</td>
<td>10 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence of changed behaviour in regard to good hygiene and food quality</td>
<td>Evidence of knowledge, attitudes and practices around nutrition and food safety</td>
<td>Evidence of students with daily washing activity (with soap and without soap)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Plan International Australia (PIA) would like to share the Barriers and Enablers Monitoring Tool. PIA has taken the opportunity to develop a tool that is explicitly focused on monitoring barriers and enablers to children's participation and engagement within schools. Please note that the tool is still in piloting stage and feedback is invited as a part of the tool’s continued development.

What is the Barriers and Enablers Monitoring Tool?

The Barriers and Enablers Monitoring Tool enables local project staff to explore and monitor the barriers and enablers with regard to engagement and participation of boys and girls in the classroom. The Barriers and Enablers Monitoring Tool seeks to address the following aims:

In schools:
- To raise awareness about barriers and enablers to engagement and participation of boys and girls in the classroom;
- To raise awareness around the gendered nature of barriers and enablers in the classroom.

For project staff:
- To support implementing staff to develop their understanding of the barriers faced by boys and girls in the classroom to inform their gender analysis;
- To develop practical skills for gender monitoring.

**INDICATORS TO INFORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Timing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group Discussion: Food and Nutrition</td>
<td>What is your favourite food? When did you eat it last? Do you eat at school? Does it help you to study better? Do you think what you eat is nutritious? Can you decide what you get to eat at school or at home? Do your parents usually ask you for your opinion about different things? About what for instance? Do they take on board your advice? Can you give us some examples?</td>
<td>10 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation Star</td>
<td>Okay, let’s talk about how you can participate in the classroom. How can students participate in a classroom? Do you usually ask if something is not clear to you? How often do you do it? Does your teacher encourage you to participate? In what way? Does your teacher sometimes discourage you from participating? In what way?</td>
<td>15 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happy/Unhappy Face: Participation</td>
<td>Ask: Are you satisfied with your level of participation? If satisfied, stand under the Happy Face. If unsatisfied, stand under the Unhappy Face. Would you like to participate more? Why? Would you like to participate less? Why? For any children under the Unhappy Face: What would make you happier? What should teachers do/change? What should parents do/change?</td>
<td>10 minutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ANNEX 4: DATA COLLECTION TOOLS 3 – BARRIERS AND ENABLERS MONITORING TOOL**

**Roles and Responsibilities**

- **Lead Facilitator (1)**
  The role of the lead facilitator is to lead the focus group discussion including opening, introducing key staff at each community meeting and facilitating the analysis of data meeting following the focus group discussion.

- **Note Taker (1)**
  The role of the note taker is to note the discussion and outcomes of each session.

**Step 1. Introduction**

Time: 5 minutes

- Introductions
  - Introduce facilitators, note takers and other staff
  - THANKS for time commitment
  - Briefly outline the process

**Explanation of the program context**

- Explain the Plan interventions relevant to this group
- Outline the timeframe relevant to the interventions
- Part of a broader evaluation and monitoring process
- Will inform programming going forward

**Discuss what we will be spending 1 hour together**

- Agree on how we will work together in this time laying some ground rules:
  - Everyone’s participation is equal
  - Everyone must listen and respect each other
  - One person speaks at a time
  - Any other rules you would like to add?

**Ask if anyone has questions or concerns**
Food Security as a Modality for Change

ANNEX 5: DATA COLLECTION TOOLS 3 – HOUSEHOLD SURVEY 2017

Introduction: Thank you for agreeing to meet with me and answering some questions for this study. I am here from Plan International with regard to a study into our food and cash based projects. Your answers are being recorded today and will be used to inform Plan International’s Food Security as a Modality for Change Study. Information gathered will also be used to inform future Plan programming. If you have any questions or concerns with this, please let me know.

Note for Qs 10, 12, 13 and 14 use the following options: Would you say (name) has: no difficulty (1), some difficulty (2), a lot of difficulty (3) or cannot do at all (4)?

Food Security as a Modality for Change

No.

Interviewer Name:

Respondent’s Name:

Ethnic group of HH head:

Village name:

Contact telephone number:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q.</th>
<th>Q1</th>
<th>Q2</th>
<th>Q3</th>
<th>Q4</th>
<th>Q5</th>
<th>Q6</th>
<th>Q7</th>
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<th>Q11</th>
<th>Q12</th>
<th>Q13</th>
<th>Q14</th>
<th>Q15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Names of household members</td>
<td>Names of household members</td>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>Relationship to Household Head</td>
<td>Name of (male/female) (Year of Birth)</td>
<td>What is your marital status (name)?</td>
<td>In (name) currently enrolled in school?</td>
<td>What is the highest level that (name) completed in school?</td>
<td>Over (name) wears glasses or contact lenses?</td>
<td>Does (name) have difficulty seeing?</td>
<td>When using (name) hearing aid, does (name) have difficulty hearing sounds like peoples’ voices or music?</td>
<td>Compared with other people of the same age, does (name) have difficulty walking or eating?</td>
<td>When (name) speaks, does he/she have difficulty being understood by other people?</td>
<td>Compared with other people of the same age, does (name) have difficulty learning?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
16. Did you have enough money to satisfy all needs of your household in the last six months?

1) Yes
2) No

17. Did you have to borrow ask someone for some money/resources?

1) Yes
2) No
3) Other
If no, please skip to question 20.

18. If yes, from whom did you borrow money?

1) Local lender (including family)
2) Micro finance institutions
3) Other

19. What did you use borrowed money for?

1) food
2) clothes
3) capital investment (car, house)
4) other

20. How many people contribute to the HH income (including those who live outside household)?

1) 0
2) 1
3) 2
4) 3
5) 4
6) More than 4

21. What are the sources of income in your HH?

1) Self-employed
2) Employed
3) Something else, what

22. Would you say that resources of your HH in the last four years decreased, increased, or stayed the same?

1) Decreased
2) Increased
3) Stayed the same

23. When you look to the future, do you think your resources will continue to increase, decrease, stay the same?

1) Decreased
2) Increased
3) Stayed the same
4) I do not know

24. Can you get everything you need for your household at the local market?

1) Yes, always
2) Yes, mostly
3) Sometimes yes and sometimes no
4) Mostly not
5) Almost never

25. Can you get everything you need for your farm/local business at the local market?

1) Yes, always
2) Yes, mostly
3) Sometimes yes and sometimes not
4) Mostly not
5) Almost never

26. How far away do you need to go to get all the supplies/assets you need to operate?

1) Within 1km from home
2) Under 5km from home
3) More than 5km
4) Other

27. Please rate your satisfaction with different aspects of the local market (Always satisfied 5, mainly satisfied 4, sometime satisfied and sometime not 3, mostly not satisfied 2 and never satisfied 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Availability</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Costs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Diversity of products</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Quality of products</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

28. How would you estimate your satisfaction with the following infrastructure in your community: (Always satisfied 5, mainly satisfied 4, sometime satisfied and sometime not 3, mostly not satisfied 2 and never satisfied 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health services</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Roads</td>
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<tr>
<td>Public well</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Accessibility of schools</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

29. Does your HH have a water source?

a) Yes
b) No
If no, please skip to question 35.

30. How far away from your house is the water source?

1) Within the house
2) Less than 100m
3) More than 100m

31. Are there months when your main source of drinking water is dry i.e. no water is available?

1) Yes, when? 
2) No
32. Do you do anything to the water you use for drinking to make it safer to drink?
   1) Yes
   2) No
If no, please skip to the question number 34.

33. What do you usually do to make the water safer to drink?
   1) Boil
   2) add bleach/chlorine
   3) strain through a cloth
   4) use water filter (ceramic/sand)
   5) solar disinfection
   6) let it stand and settle

34. When did you start doing this to your water?
   1) Less than one year ago.
   2) Long time ago
   3) I have always done it this way.

35. Have you changed your habits lately in terms of what you eat and how you take care of the food? If yes, give us an example.
   1) Yes
   2) No

36. Do you wash your hands?
   1) Yes, always
   2) Sometimes
   3) Never
If never skip to question 39.

37. Do you use soap for hand washing?
   1) Yes, always
   2) Sometimes
   3) Never

38. At what time of the day it is important to wash hands with soap (ask for each of the alternatives and circle all situations in which respondent thinks hand washing is appropriate)?
   1) before preparing food,
   2) before feeding young children,
   3) after using toilet,
   4) after cleaning young children who have defecated
   5) Other

39. Have you had any health problems caused by food you eat?
   1) Yes
   2) No
If no, please skip to the question 42.

40. What was the problem?

41. Did you receive some help with that? If yes from whom?
   1) Yes
   2) No

42. In the past four weeks, did any child in your HH have to eat a limited variety of foods due to a lack of resources?
   1) Yes
   2) No

43. In the past four weeks, did you or any child household member have to eat a smaller meal than you felt they needed because there was not enough food?
   1) Yes
   2) No

44. In the past four weeks, did you or any child household member have to eat fewer meals in a day because there was not enough food?
   1) Yes
   2) No

45. In the past four weeks, was there ever no food to eat of any kind in your household because of lack of resources to get food?
   1) Yes
   2) No

46. How often does your child/children usually eat per day?
   1) 1
   2) 2
   3) 3
   4) 4
   5) 5
   6) 6 and more

47. Do you/your child use iodised salt in your/his/her diet?
   1) Yes
   2) No

PLEASE REQUEST THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION FROM THE PRIMARY FOOD PREPARER FOR THE HOUSEHOLD. EXPLAIN YOU ARE ONLY TALKING ABOUT FOOD EATEN IN THE HOME, NOT FOOD EATEN OUTSIDE THE HOME.
### I would like to ask you about the types of foods that you or anyone else in your household ate yesterday at any time during the day or night while at the house, and where you got the food.

**Read the list.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Record if each of the foods has been eaten or not</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| 1. Did anyone in your household eat... | Yes | No |
| 2. CEREALS rice, corn, wheat, etc. | 1 | 2 |
| 3. COLORFUL TUBERS AND VEGETABLES pumpkin, carrots, sweet potatoes, etc. | 1 | 2 |
| 4. WHITE TUBERS AND ROOTS (WHITE FLESH) white potatoes, yams, cassava root, etc. | 1 | 2 |
| 5. DARK GREEN LEAFY VEGETABLES cassava leaves, kale, phak khad, phak hom, bay man dang, bay man ton, phak kut, phak gnok, bay mak hai, phak samek, phak van, etc. (exclude herbs eaten in small amounts) | 1 | 2 |
| 6. OTHER VEGETABLES tomato, onion, eggplant, mushrooms, bamboo, mak buap, mak baep, long beans, etc. | 1 | 2 |
| 7. COLORFUL FRUITS (ORANGE FLESH) ripe mangoes and papaya, cantaloupe, etc. | 1 | 2 |
| 8. OTHER FRUITS banana, guava, fig, longan, lychee, pineapple, tamarind, mangosteen, etc. | 1 | 2 |
| 9. ORGAN MEAT liver, kidney, heart, etc., including blood-based food | 1 | 2 |
| 10. FLESH MEATS beef, pork, chicken, birds, frogs, wild game | 1 | 2 |
| 11. EGGS duck, chicken, quail, other birds, snake, monitor lizard, etc. | 1 | 2 |
| 12. FISH fresh or dried eels, etc. | 1 | 2 |
| 13. OTHER AQUATIC ANIMALS, WORMS, INSECTS shrimp, crabs, snails, worms, grubs, insects, etc. | 1 | 2 |
| 14. LEGUMES, NUTS AND SEEDS beans, soy, peas, lentils, peanut, sesame | 1 | 2 |
| 15. MILK (NOT SOY) AND MILK PRODUCTS | 1 | 2 |
| 16. OILS AND FATS oil, fats - including pork fat - added to food/used for cooking | 1 | 2 |
| 17. MICRO-NUTRIENT tablets or syrup | 1 | 2 |
| 18. COMMERCIAL PRODUCTS Ovaltine, formula, cakes, sweets, (kanom), etc. | 1 | 2 |

**Just for households where woman was pregnant in the last 2.9 years (children less than 2). If there is no child below 2 years old in the household please skip to question number 53.**

| 48. Did/do you breastfeed your children? | 1) Yes, more than one year | 2) Yes, for one year | 3) Yes, up to six months | 4) Yes, for less than six months | 5) No |
| 49. Did you give any supplements to your baby? | 1) Yes, since baby was born | 2) Yes, after baby turned 3 months | 3) Yes, after baby turned 6 months | 4) No |
| 50. If yes, what kind of supplements do you give him/her? | 1 | 2 |
| 51. How do you get them? | 1 | 2 |

| 52. Did you talk with someone about breastfeeding and if yes, with who? | 1) Yes | 2) No |
| 53. We will ask you a few questions about our organization Have you heard of Plan International? | 1) Yes, From | 2) No |
| 54. Do you receive any resources from Plan International (food, NFI)? | 1) Yes, what? | 2) No |
| 55. Did you ever experience some unpleasant event as a part of distribution/receiving these items? | 1) Yes | 2) No |
| 56. Did you ever have to give something back for the resources you got? | 1) Yes, explain | 2) No |
| 57. How far was the distribution point from your household? How long did you have to walk to reach it? | 1) Less than 15 minutes | 2) Less than one hour | 3) More than one hour |
| 58. Do you have a garden/farm? | 1) Yes | 2) No |
59. How many types of food do you produce on your garden/farm?
1) One
2) Two
3) Three
4) Other ____________

60. Have you visited the health centre in the last year?
1) Yes
2) No, because I was not sick/did not have a need
3) No, because it is too far away
4) No, because it is too expensive
5) No, because I did not have time
6) No, because of something else

61. Have you been visited by the health centre staff at your home or community?
1) Yes
2) No, because I was not sick/did not have a need
3) No, because health centre did not visit our village
4) No, because it is too expensive to have them visit me
5) No, because I did not have time
6) No, because of something else

If no, skip to question 63.
If yes to questions 60 or 61:

62. How satisfied were you with the following aspects of the health care:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cleanliness</th>
<th>1 not satisfied at all</th>
<th>2 mainly not satisfied</th>
<th>3 sometimes not satisfied</th>
<th>4 Mostly satisfied</th>
<th>5 Always satisfied</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child friendliness</td>
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<td>Respectfulness</td>
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<td>Accessibility</td>
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<tr>
<td>Effectiveness of the provided care</td>
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63. Do you have a toilet within your Household?
1) Yes
2) No

If yes, can you please let us see it - please conduct the audit of the toilet using the Sanitations Facilities Audit tool.

---

**ANNEX 6: DATA COLLECTION TOOLS 4 – INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE**

Key Informant Interview Questionnaire

Introduction:
Thank you for agreeing to meet with me and answering some questions for this study. I am here from Plan International with regard to a study into our food and cash based projects. Your answers are being recorded today and will be used to inform Plan International’s Food Security as a Modality for Change Study. Information gathered will also be used to inform future Plan programming. If you have any questions or concerns with this, please let me know.

Date: __________________________
Interviewer Name: __________________________
Interviewee's Name: __________________________
Interviewee's Gender and Age: __________________________
What is your role? __________________________
What do you do in that role? __________________________
How long have you been in that role? __________________________

Questions | Answers
---|---
**SOURCE: Government/Ministry Officials**
Have you heard of Plan International? Can you please tell us something about your cooperation with Plan, for instance have you implemented any programs together, and if so how was that relationship?

We would like to ask you a few questions about your relevant policies, conferences and budgets. Can you please tell us if there are some new policies addressing poverty reduction, nutrition and/or food security that your institution is involved in? Can you tell us more about that policy/law/strategy/plan/initiative? Which stage is it at (implementation, design, evaluation etc.)? How do you plan to measure successes of these initiatives?

Did you have in the last year some conferences and events addressing these topics? Who organised them? What was their success? Do you have any evidence of their impact? Do you have any planned in the future?

Are there any Local/districts/national plans of action addressing food security? Are you involved in their creation? What do you think about their quality and feasibility? What are the weak and strong aspects of these plans?

Is your budget sufficient? Was there some recent increase or decrease in the budget?

Did you work with Plan International on any of the above-mentioned initiatives (laws, strategies, conferences, events, local plans of action, budget allocation …)? If yes, what was their role (financial support, influencing, specific activities etc.)?
### Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Would you say that children's voices are represented in the national strategic documents (link the question to the answer given to question 3)? Are there some mechanisms established to ensure that? Are those mechanisms tailored for children? In what way? Can you please provide an example? How often do they use it?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Can children submit complaints to someone? Do they ever submit complaints? How are complaints handled after they are lodged? Are parents associations or other child-based organisations involved in creation of the national documents and strategies? Who for instance? What is evidence of their input/influence?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Were there some campaigns/collective actions to improve food security? Who led it? What were the results? What is your opinion about the success and approach of that initiative? Did some of the campaigns address the importance of good nutrition? Is there some evidence of the impact of that campaign? Did Plan International have some influence on that?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lately Plan International has dedicated its mission to fight gender inequality across the world. Let me ask you a few questions about that aspect of your work. How many female ministries do you have? How many female managers in your ministry do you have? Do you think that girls and boys are equal? Is there some type of discrimination against girls in schools or at the community level? Do you do something to prevent it?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Questions Specifically for Ministry of Women's Affairs/Ministry of Social Services/Ministry of Labour:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Can you tell us about activities that are implemented by the Gov. aimed at economic empowerment? Are there some trainings, subsidies, tax reductions etc.? Conferences? Local plans? Is Plan involved in those? How about local NGOs? Child-based organisations? Are there mechanisms to involve children? Do you get good quality input from them? Do you get complaints? How do you handle complaints? Are mechanisms tailored for the children? Please provide as many examples as possible. How do you measure success? Why do you think those activities are successful?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Which social protection and health care mechanisms are available for the most vulnerable? Are some of them new? Tell us something about their quality. Are they gender sensitive? Are there some at the local level? For instance if there is a food shortage in the HH where does the family go to get food? If there is family violence, who do they approach? Are there any recent changes to these mechanisms? Are they positive or negative? Is there some evidence that they are strengthened?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Can you tell us something about the process you use to develop some social programs? Do you know what gender analysis or child protection risk analysis are? Do you do these analyses before you create your programs? How do you ensure that the social protection program you create addresses the needs of children? Is there evidence of care services and referrals provided that resulted in positive treatment and/or transformative change?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Are there some specific policies addressing women's rights at the country level? Who initiated them? When? Why? Are they being implemented? How successful? Was Plan involved in any way? How about other NGOs, specifically other women and children focused organisations? Is there a specific budget allocation for implementation of these kinds of projects/plans/strategies? Did it increase? Why or why not? Can you give us some examples of such policies? For instance is there a policy addressing female right to work or to inherit land etc.? Did girls and women initiate some of these policies and was there a gender analysis completed before they were developed?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Do you think that women should be equal to men? Are they at the moment in your opinion? Can you give us an example of equality or inequality in your community? Is there an example of women in leadership positions that is very positive? Do you think that there is discrimination against women in your community? Did it increase or decrease lately or is it at the same level as always? If there was a change, what caused the change? Did Plan International do anything in that regard? Are leaders respectful of women's voices? Can you give me an example of that? Can you please give us some examples of women in leadership positions?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOURCE: Local Leaders and Women Groups</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We would like to ask you a few questions about your role, your meetings, ways you do or do not include children in your work and, also, your opinion and actions about gender equality in your community/school. Can you please describe your role in the project Plan is implementing? How long have you been in that role? How often do you meet?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is there some form of child representation at your meetings? How active are those representatives? Do child representatives raise specific topics of their interest?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are parents' associations involved in your work? How?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you think that women should be equal to men? Are they at the moment in your opinion? Can you give us an example of equality or inequality in your community? Is there an example of women in leadership positions that is very positive? Do you think that there is discrimination against women in your community? Did it increase or decrease lately or is it at the same level as always? If there was a change, what caused the change? Did Plan International do anything in that regard? Are community leaders respectful of women’s voices? Can you give me an example of that? Can you please give us some examples of women in leadership positions at the community level? Are any community committees led by women?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### ANNEX 7: DATA COLLECTION TOOLS 6 – SANITATION FACILITIES AUDIT

#### Sanitation Facilities Audit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender of Assessor:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Date:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HH/School Number:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latrine Construction date:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 1. Accessibility and Safety

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No problem or obstacle that prevents you from getting to (walk or wheel to) the facilities.</td>
<td>Yes ○ No ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If there is problem or obstacle, write these down, take photographs of good/bad examples:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No problem or obstacle that prevents HH members with disability, elderly or small children from getting to (walk or wheel to) the facilities.</td>
<td>Yes ○ No ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If there is problem or obstacle, write these down, take photographs of good/bad examples:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safe to get into or use facilities</td>
<td>Yes ○ No ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If NO, write these down, take photographs of good/bad examples:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the toilet equipped for the handling of menstrual hygiene (e.g. bin to safely dispose of pads for instance).</td>
<td>Yes ○ No ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If NO, write these down, take photographs of good/bad examples:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separate facilities for males and females (if applicable)</td>
<td>Yes ○ No ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If NO, write these down, take photographs of good/bad examples:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 2. Functioning and Maintenance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sanitation Facilities – Functioning</td>
<td>Yes ○ No ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanitation Facilities - Well-maintained</td>
<td>Yes ○ No ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### ANNEX 8: FOOD SECURITY AS A MODALITY FOR CHANGE WORKING GROUP TERMS OF REFERENCE

#### Background:
This significant investment by PIA and GNO in WFP as a partner, and food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery projects more generally, is a demonstration of how strongly PIA and GNO believe in the contribution of food and cash based programming towards achieving the global vision where ‘Women, girls, boys and men live in a world that advances children’s rights and equality for girls’.

To better demonstrate the broader impacts of the food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery projects and to build a stronger evidence base for programming, PIA and GNO are leading an evaluation in **Food Security as a Modality for Change**. The purpose of this study is threefold:

1. Document the change Plan is achieving with food and cash based projects;
2. Shift from output based/short term results and activities to outcome based/long term results; and
3. Development and testing of a clear theory of change narrative for all future food assistance, nutrition and livelihoods recovery projects.

#### 3. Hygiene, Sanitation and Environment Surrounding Latrine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>General Observation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clean</td>
<td>Yes ○ No ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad smell</td>
<td>Yes ○ No ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance from water source</td>
<td>Yes ○ No ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water available in basin</td>
<td>Yes ○ No ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good platform (if applicable)</td>
<td>Yes ○ No ○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Membership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Office</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sambath Thy</td>
<td>Monitoring, Evaluation and Research Manager</td>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sony Lam</td>
<td>School Feeding Program Manager</td>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyacinthe Lodeou</td>
<td>WFP Program Coordinator</td>
<td>Central African Republic</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michel Kamano</td>
<td>WFP Program Unit Manager</td>
<td>Central African Republic</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blaire Davis</td>
<td>Emergency Response Manager</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S'Paing Oo</td>
<td>MER Coordinator</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taungana Dzikati</td>
<td>MEL Specialist</td>
<td>South Sudan</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haifil Ghebrehiwet</td>
<td>Food Assistance and Nutrition Manager</td>
<td>South Sudan</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardife Takada</td>
<td>Emergency Response Manager</td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zvividai Chidhakwa</td>
<td>Program Support Manager</td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jasmina Kjечcanin</td>
<td>Monitoring, Evaluation and Learning Advisor</td>
<td>Plan International Australia</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chrissy Galerakis</td>
<td>Gender and Inclusion in Emergencies Technical Advisor</td>
<td>Plan International Australia</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Julia Garz</td>
<td>Food and Nutrition Security Specialist</td>
<td>German National Office</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Activity Plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Estimated Timeframe</th>
<th>Lead</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Profiling and Capacity Assessment of FSMC-WG Members</td>
<td>January – February</td>
<td>Jasmina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Finalisation of Theory of Change</td>
<td>January – February</td>
<td>Chrissy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Draft and Finalise the MEL Framework</td>
<td>February</td>
<td>Jasmina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Methodology for Field Visits</td>
<td>February</td>
<td>Jasmina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Field Visits - 3 countries</td>
<td>March – April – May</td>
<td>Jasmina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Analysis of Findings Development Report and Recommendations</td>
<td>June – September</td>
<td>Jasmina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Learning Event</td>
<td>TBC</td>
<td>Jasmina</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Annex 9: Food Security as a Modality for Change MEL Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Output Indicator</th>
<th>Data Collection tool</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Girls and Boys receive education before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td>Evidence of girls and boys being involved in decision making concerning their education</td>
<td>Evidence that programme decisions are based on full participation of all targeted people</td>
<td>Interview Analysis of Administrative Data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls and Boys access education before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td>Frequency and quality of engagement of CBGs and CSOs with relevant decision makers</td>
<td>if and types of CSO and CGO (Parent associations etc.) participating in decision making processes aimed at children education if of CBGs and CSOs led by women</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls and Boys actively participate in their learning before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td>Increase in the level of students, especially girls and student with a disability, engagement in classroom</td>
<td>Evidence of impact of student enrolment campaigns conducted for disability &amp; gender inclusion concept</td>
<td>FGD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caregivers actively engage in their children’s education before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td>Increase in caregiver engagement with school activities</td>
<td>Evidence of impact of support in framework</td>
<td>FGD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Collection Tools have been specifically developed to inform this MEL Framework. Please refer to the Food Security as a Modality for Change Report for tool summaries and templates.

Pictured: Girls play with educational toys at ECD centre supported by Plan International in South Sudan.

Girls and Boys engage, participate and influence decisions concerning their education before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

- Girls and Boys receive education before, during and after disasters and conflicts.
- Girls and Boys access education before, during and after disasters and conflicts.
- Girls and Boys actively participate in their learning before, during and after disasters and conflicts.
- Caregivers actively engage in their children’s education before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

Evidence of girls and boys being involved in decision making concerning their education.

Evidence that programme decisions are based on full participation of all targeted people.

Girls and Boys receive school meals, take-home activities.

Evidence of impact of financial-kind supports to child’s education.

Evidence of impact of school meeting participated by the parents.

Evidence of impact of student enrolment campaigns conducted for disability & gender inclusion concept.

Evidence of impact of students receiving school meals, take-home rations and cash scholarship.

Evidence of impact of financial-kind supports to child’s education.

Evidence of impact of student enrolment campaigns conducted for disability & gender inclusion concept.

Evidence of impact of student enrolment campaigns conducted for disability & gender inclusion concept.

Evidence of impact of student enrolment campaigns conducted for disability & gender inclusion concept.

Evidence of impact of student enrolment campaigns conducted for disability & gender inclusion concept.

Evidence of impact of student enrolment campaigns conducted for disability & gender inclusion concept.

Evidence of impact of student enrolment campaigns conducted for disability & gender inclusion concept.

Evidence of impact of student enrolment campaigns conducted for disability & gender inclusion concept.

Evidence of impact of student enrolment campaigns conducted for disability & gender inclusion concept.
### LEARN
#### Economic Empowerment and Livelihoods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Data Collection Tool</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Households are financially independent before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td>Responsible Government actors are engaged and committed to economically empowering community members</td>
<td>Households</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in budget allocation towards household level economic empowerment</td>
<td>Government Representative - Finance/Business/Social Services Department</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased interest in education at national level for example through national conferences addressing the topic</td>
<td>Government Representative - Social Services Department</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence of gender sensitive child-protection systems and community-based mechanisms</td>
<td>Plan Staff - Livelihoods Specialist, Food Program Manager</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation of social protection mechanisms is a result of comprehensive gender and child protection analyses. Specific social protection mechanisms designed to meet the needs of people with a disability</td>
<td>Agricultural Specialist</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women and Girls engage in community affairs of their interest before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td>Women and Girls have the power to actively participate in their communities and influence decisions before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td>Women, Girls, Boys and Men</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence of decisions that are more inclusive</td>
<td>Women's access to and control over resources</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women and Girls have equitable distribution of labour in the household before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td>Women and Girls have equitable distribution of resources in the household before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of beneficiaries of distributions who reported that their safety and wellbeing was compromised by food and cash distribution % of beneficiaries who have had to borrow money or sell productive assets in order to meet basic needs</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence of positive change in family practices in the direction of equitable decision making</td>
<td>Women having greater income and acceptance of this by men</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women, Girls, Boys and Men have equitable distribution of labour in the household before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td>Evidence of positive change in family practices in the direction of equitable distribution of labour</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of beneficiaries of distributions who reported that their safety and wellbeing was compromised by food and cash distribution</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of beneficiaries who have had to borrow money or sell productive assets in order to meet basic needs</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence of positive change in family practices in the direction of equitable decision making</td>
<td>Women and Girls have equitable distribution of resources in the household before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence of positive change in family practices in the direction of equitable distribution of labour</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### LEAD
#### Women’s Empowerment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Data Collection Tool</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women and Girls are aware of their rights</td>
<td>Women and Girls have increased decision making power within their households and communities</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functioning and robust law enforcement and legal systems that uphold rights, especially the rights of women and girls before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td>Government Representative - Women's Affairs Department</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status, effectiveness, and nature of policy change that supports women’s rights</td>
<td>Men and Women</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women and Girls participating in our project report that their voice has been listened to at community level in relation to affairs of their interest</td>
<td>Men and Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence of girls and women participating in community activities (clubs, CBOs, networks, localgov)</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence of decisions that have been influenced by girls</td>
<td>Men and Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women and Girls engage, participate and influence decision making at community level before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in the acceptance of women's leadership by a community and cultural leaders % of community leaders that are more inclusive of women and girls in decision making Evidence of decisions that have been influenced by girls</td>
<td>Men and Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of community leaders led by women</td>
<td>Men and Women</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence of actions initiated by girls and women.</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution of NFIs specific to males and females at different ages</td>
<td>Women's Groups</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

*Data Collection Tools have been specifically developed to inform the MEL Framework. Please refer to the Final Guide for an跌落略数据 rend of instruments and templates.*

*Plan staff are the leads for the data collection tools.*

*Women’s groups play a key role in the data collection tools.*

*See Plan’s guidelines on how to perform a social audit.*

*Source: Plan International, South Sudan,*

*Annex 107*
### Household and Individual

#### Objective
- Women, Girls, Boys and Men enjoy good health and nutritional status before, during and after disasters and conflicts.

#### Objective Indicator
- Exclusive breastfeeding rate in children up to 6 months
- Rates of malnutrition and stunting

#### Source
- Government Representative - Health Department/Social Services Department
- Health Facility Representative

#### Output Indicator
- Increase in budget allocation towards health and nutrition
- Evidence of change in policies addressing quality health and nutrition

#### Outcome Indicator
- Evidence of increased budget allocation towards health and nutrition at national level for example through national conferences addressing the topic and type of activities aimed at policy change and/or an increase in budget

#### Data Collection Tool
- Analysis of Administrative Data

### Community

#### Objective
- Men have sufficient quality knowledge of nutrition and health care services

#### Objective Indicator
- Gender transformational and referral systems are enabled and operating
- WASH infrastructure is enabled and operating during disasters and conflicts

#### Source
- Government Representative - Health Facility Representative

#### Outcome Indicator
- Evidence of referrals from health hazards caused by food that have resulted in positive treatment.
- Evidence of referrals from health hazards caused by food that have resulted in positive treatment.

#### Output Indicator
- Men and Women Boys and Girls
- Nutritionist Specialist
- Government Representative
- Health Facility Representative

#### Data Collection Tool
- FGD

### Government and Policy

#### Objective
- Girls and Boys engage, participate and influence decisions concerning their health and nutritional status before, during and after disasters and conflicts

#### Objective Indicator
- Men and Women Boys and Girls
- Nutritionist Specialist
- Government Representative
- Health Facility Representative

#### Source
- Plan Staff - Health/Food Nutrition Specialist

#### Outcome Indicator
- Evidence of girls and boys being involved in decisions making concerning their health and diet.
- Evidence that programme decisions are based on full participation of all targeted people.
- Evidence of girls and boys attending and engaging in community meetings.

#### Output Indicator
- % of health centre staff who demonstrate skills to provide clean, safe, child friendly and respectful care (both in a facility and in a community)
- % of health facilities that provide clean, safe, respectful care

#### Data Collection Tool
- Survey

### THRIVE

#### Health and Nutrition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Collection Tool</th>
<th>Interview</th>
<th>Analysis of Administrative Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective Indicator</td>
<td>Girls and Boys engagement</td>
<td>Evidence of increased budget allocation towards health and nutrition at national level for example through national conferences addressing the topic and type of activities aimed at policy change and/or an increase in budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome Indicator</td>
<td>Women, Girls, Boys and Men enjoy good health and nutritional status before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### SURVIVE

#### Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Collection Tool</th>
<th>Interview</th>
<th>Analysis of Administrative Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective Indicator</td>
<td>Girls and Boys engagement</td>
<td>Evidence of increased budget allocation towards health and nutrition at national level for example through national conferences addressing the topic and type of activities aimed at policy change and/or an increase in budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome Indicator</td>
<td>Women, Girls, Boys and Men enjoy good health and nutritional status before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Collection Tool</th>
<th>Interview</th>
<th>Analysis of Administrative Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective Indicator</td>
<td>Girls and Boys engagement</td>
<td>Evidence of increased budget allocation towards health and nutrition at national level for example through national conferences addressing the topic and type of activities aimed at policy change and/or an increase in budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome Indicator</td>
<td>Women, Girls, Boys and Men enjoy good health and nutritional status before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Household and Individual

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Collection Tool</th>
<th>Interview</th>
<th>Analysis of Administrative Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective Indicator</td>
<td>Girls and Boys engagement</td>
<td>Evidence of increased budget allocation towards health and nutrition at national level for example through national conferences addressing the topic and type of activities aimed at policy change and/or an increase in budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome Indicator</td>
<td>Women, Girls, Boys and Men enjoy good health and nutritional status before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

#### Government and Policy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Collection Tool</th>
<th>Interview</th>
<th>Analysis of Administrative Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective Indicator</td>
<td>Girls and Boys engagement</td>
<td>Evidence of increased budget allocation towards health and nutrition at national level for example through national conferences addressing the topic and type of activities aimed at policy change and/or an increase in budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome Indicator</td>
<td>Women, Girls, Boys and Men enjoy good health and nutritional status before, during and after disasters and conflicts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Annexes

[View Annexes]
## ANNEX 10: FOOD SECURITY AS A MODALITY FOR CHANGE RESEARCH TEAMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National Office Research Team</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Role in Research</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANO</td>
<td>Dr. Jasmina Kijevcanin</td>
<td>Monitoring, Evaluation and Learning Advisor</td>
<td>Co-lead researcher - conducted literature review, developed TOC, MEL Framework and methodology, collected data, analysed quantitative and qualitative data and wrote final report.</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chrissy Galerakis</td>
<td>Technical Advisor - Gender and Inclusion in Emergencies</td>
<td>Co-lead researcher - conducted literature review, developed TOC, MEL Framework and methodology, coordinated field work, collected data, analysed quantitative and qualitative data and wrote final report.</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zoe Stewart-Jones</td>
<td>MEL Data Analyst</td>
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<td>Christine Deng</td>
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<td>Data Analyst - Intern</td>
<td>Supported analysis of quantitative and qualitative data.</td>
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<td>Christina Ting</td>
<td>SPSS Consultant</td>
<td>Data entry of quantitative data and supported analysis of quantitative data.</td>
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<td>GNO</td>
<td>Julia Garz</td>
<td>Food and Nutrition Security Specialist</td>
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<td>Laura Balmer</td>
<td>DRM Project Officer - ROA and Food and Nutrition Security</td>
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<tr>
<th>Cambodia Data Collection Team</th>
<th>Name</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Sambath Thy</td>
<td>Co-Facilitator FDG</td>
<td>Monitoring, Evaluation and Research Manager</td>
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<td>Saman An</td>
<td>HH Survey Interviewer</td>
<td>Provincial Manager- SFP (SR)</td>
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<td>Community Development Officer (CDO)</td>
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<td>Rungano Harzel Marumani</td>
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<td>Supported coordination, training and data collection</td>
<td>ER Support Advisor</td>
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<td>Track Murauzi</td>
<td>Supported coordination, training and data collection</td>
<td>PAM Support Advisor</td>
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