

# The New Logical Framework: A Tool for an Effective Development Project Design

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## **Abstract**

Projects and programs that aim at fostering development have to go far beyond the delivery of goods and services. Since the concept of development implies transformation and changes in behavior of people, as well as organizations, the goods and services of development projects have to generate impact in the way people and organizations do their work. The main challenge of this type of project is that they occur in complex environments and the objectives that really matter are expected effects and, therefore, are not directly manageable. The Logical Framework Approach takes this into account and offers a matrix that summarizes the main elements of such a project. The present article demonstrates how the New Logical Framework goes a step further and creates a more explicit link between the project's strategy and its operationalization and thus, helps to create a more consistent design of development projects and programs.

## **Introduction**

The Logical Framework tool has been around for over four decades, mainly in the context of international development and cooperation. Although it has suffered changes and experienced adaptations and variations, its basic structure remains useful for many organizations. There are many organizations and professionals that find it useful and apply it frequently, and there is also criticism of the supposed linear cause-effect relationship and the mechanistic logical structure.

The Logical Framework (LF), also widely known as the Logframe, is generally referred to as a planning tool, and it is frequently used to support monitoring of projects and programs. Although it is related to both of these management functions, I prefer to define the Logframe as a project design tool. This difference is relevant, because for planning and monitoring, there are many more necessary elements that do not fit into the Logframe. In fact, there are many other aspects of project management that are not addressed by the Logframe. I do not consider this to be a deficiency, since there is no single tool that can

include all that is necessary for the project's success. The Logframe specifically serves the project design, which, in turn, is part of the overall planning process.

The purpose of this paper is to present an approach to the Logframe with new elements in order to increase the effectiveness of project design. This tool, called the New Logframe (NLF), will be easier to apply, even for project managers who are not experts in development projects.

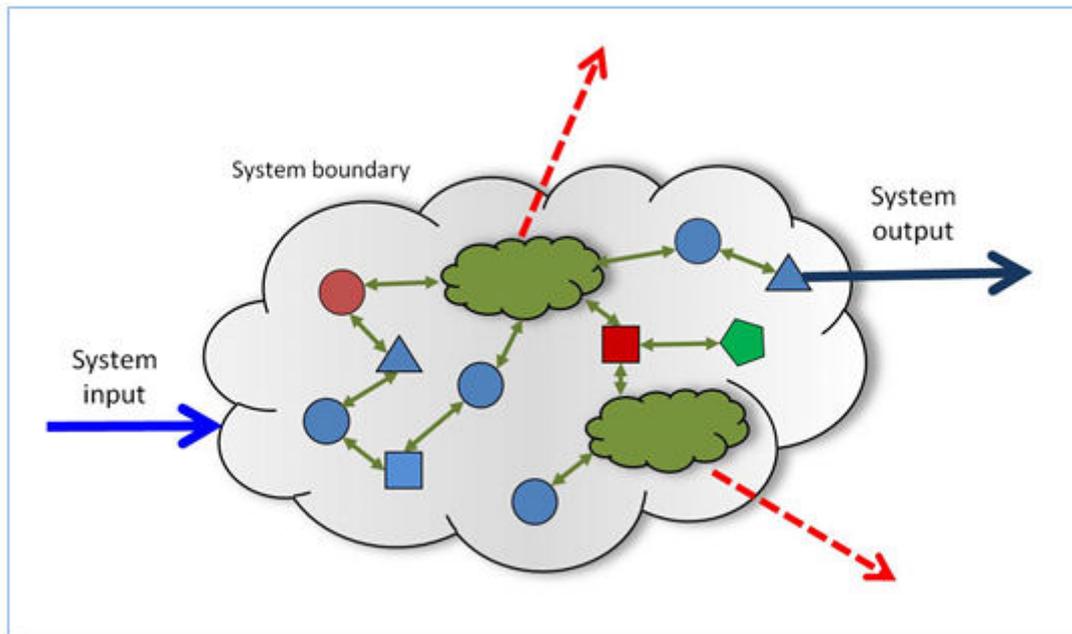
It is important to consider that the NLF is only one tool to help design and set up a project. This paper does not treat the whole project planning process and the respective tools. The different analyses that are necessary before one starts to develop a Logframe and the operational planning that follows the approval of a Logframe are not discussed; neither are key issues such as project organization and stakeholder management, among others.

### **Why Use Planning Systems at All?**

The design of a project is crucial to its future success, whether it is a development project or any other type. Serious flaws in the design result inevitably in rework, conflicts, or even the failure of the initiative. The argument of not having much time for preparation and the alleged urgency of solving problems are often used to "skip" this phase or at least to shorten it. However, the cost of this practice can be very high.

Another limitation of project or program design is that they are very often seen as more or less closed units, whereas they should be seen as subsystems within a larger context. It is reasonable to affirm that development project management "occurs within a complex, dynamic system involving several nominally independent stakeholders," as Tony Boland and Alan Fowler describe it for the public sector management (Boland & Fowler, 2000, p. 424). The interconnection of these nominally independent entities—in order to act together for a common purpose or produce results impossible to achieve by the action of one alone—meets the definition of a system, and in relation to the macro system of the larger context, it becomes a subsystem. On the other hand, the project or program itself consists of a series of subsystems.

Thus, the nominally independent entities become interdependent so that "each subsystem receives inputs upon which it performs some form of transformation process to create outputs or outcomes. These outputs, in turn, become the inputs of other subsystems, and, in many cases, closed loops are formed whereby an output from a subsystem proceeds through a chain of events to eventually become an input to itself, at some time in the future" (Boland & Fowler, 2000, p. 424). This means that any given designed project may or may not achieve its planned outcome.



**Figure 1: System and subsystems.**

The consideration that development projects aim to influence social, cultural, economic, and institutional factors, but are also influenced by them—along with the fact that these factors are not stable—has serious implications for the design, planning, and management of this type of project. While in many engineering projects there is a relatively large number of controllable variables, in development projects, direct control is very limited. The traditional command and control model hardly works because “when attempting to control processes within management subsystems, so that inputs are transformed into the required outcomes, there may exist unseen, unimagined systemic forces which are capable of undermining the efforts and intentions of those who assume that they are in control” (Boland & Fowler, 2000, p. 426).

A widespread reaction to this is trying to reduce the planning, since apparently one cannot get a definite plan. This reasoning may be adequate when the prime purpose of the planning is to have a plan (i.e., a definitive document). However, if planning is seen as a process of seeking and building appropriate solutions and the plan is used as a tool for communication and collaboration, planning still makes a lot of sense, even in complex and dynamic situations with limited direct control. What is needed in this situation is a basis for common understanding among key stakeholders on what the challenges are to be faced, what changes need to be made, and what strategy should be used to get there. One tool for the strategic planning of a project is the Logical Framework.

## **The Logical Framework**

The Logical Framework (LF, also known as Logframe) is the core document of the Logical Framework Approach (LFA), which was developed in the 1970s for the United States Agency for International Development with the purpose of facilitating the evaluation of international development projects. It was originally inspired by the Management by Objectives concept, which was developed to avoid “the activity trap,” which means getting so involved in the day-to-day activities that the main purpose or the objectives get lost from sight. For this reason, the LFA also became known as objective or goal-oriented project planning.

The Logical Framework Approach consists of two main phases. The analyses phase is focused on identifying the problems to be tackled, the stakeholders involved, the desired objectives, and possible alternative strategies. Based on the results, the planning phase follows, which starts with the design of the project strategy and for which the Logical Framework tool is used. After approval, planning also includes scheduling, budgeting, and resource allocation.

Thus, the Logframe has become the main instrument for the design of development projects, and it is a key element of proposals and decisions, because it summarizes the strategy and the global scope of the project. Despite several improvements and changes that have occurred over the years in a series of development organizations that adopted the approach, its essence still remains. Most multilateral and bilateral development organizations, as well as many national governments, have adopted and generally adapted the Logical Framework Approach. Many of the documents are available on the Internet and can be found by searching for "Logical Framework Approach" in English, as “Quadro Lógico” in Portuguese, or as “Marco Lógico” in Spanish.

There are a large number of variations of formats of the Logical Framework, but its basic structure is similar to the example in Figure 2.

Project Structure	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Means of Verification	Important Assumptions
Goal [Grey Box]			[Large Grey Box]
Purpose [Grey Box]			
Outputs [Dark Grey Box]			
Activities [Dark Grey Box]			

**Figure 2: Example of a logical framework.**

**Source: Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations**

While the upper part of the matrix, which includes the goal, the purpose (or outcome), and the outputs, is very similar in most formats, the parts that are related to the activities, the indicators, and the sources of verification vary considerably. Some of them include resource estimates or preconditions.

The upper level in the first column of the Logical Framework is a higher objective called the goal. The project is one of the necessary conditions for achieving this goal, but it will not be sufficient by itself to achieve the goal. However, its contribution should be significant and, to some degree, measurable with respective impact indicators.

The second level is a more specific objective and is called purpose or outcome. It refers to the reason for the realization of the project and should express the desired changes in the behavior or performance of individuals or organizations. The rationale behind this is that if people or organizations don't change the way they are doing things, there is no development.

Both goal and purpose are anticipated effects and are not manageable, but they are results coming from the output generated by the project.

The outputs are aggregated deliverables, often large components or even subprojects. They give a general overview of the scope of the project and allow a first link to the different executors, if there are any.

The fourth level of the LF includes the main activities necessary to generate the outputs. They are macro activities that help to estimate the resources to be applied.

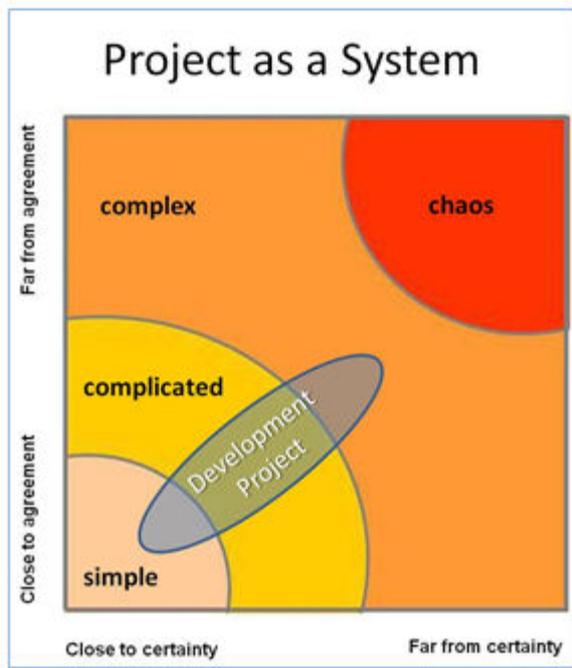
The second column of the LF is to register indicators that help measure the progress and achievement of the objectives and outputs. And, in order to avoid considering indicators that don't have a practical use, the third column requires the register of the means of verification that indicate where you can find the relevant data.

Finally, the fourth column lists assumptions, which are factors external to the project and, therefore, are not directly manageable, but are essential for the project's success. The consideration of assumptions is especially important for development projects, because external—but influential—factors are very common, and if not adequately analyzed and monitored, the impact on a project can be devastating.

While the core of this initial LF model was maintained in many organizations, there were also a number of variations developed. The adaptations that the tool has undergone in recent decades occurred basically due to the specific needs of user organizations, to become more compatible with their own management processes of international cooperation and the management of their projects and programs.

However, the changes suggested in this paper—introducing the New Logical Framework (NLF)—do not have this purpose. The motivation for the revision of the Logframe comes from experiences with the application in many projects for almost three decades and numerous trainings of various target groups. These experiences showed that the fundamental idea of establishing a logical chain between the challenges to be faced, the given conditions and the available resources, the outputs to be generated, and the changes to be made remains relevant. It also remains, of course, that its implementation requires the people and organizations involved in a project to reflect on the consistency of this logic and the feasibility of the project. This logical and rational exercise is necessary and valid, even though we know that the development processes are extremely complex and are never completely predictable and able to be scheduled. However, the systematic and flexible use of the Logframe, applied with skill and good judgment, helps immensely to navigate the choppy waters of a development project.

To better understand the limitations of a planning tool or any management method, we can use Ralph Stacey's systems model and apply it to a project or program. According to this approach, a system can be divided into four domains: simple, complicated, complex, and chaos.



**Figure 3: Project as a system.  
Based on Ralph Stacey (1996)**

On a square field, four fields are configured that characterize the situation that is typical for the system (or project). Of the two axes, one represents the level of agreement between the stakeholders and the other, the degree of certainty about facts and trends. Of course, if the project is located in the field of chaos, terminating it as soon as possible to avoid further loss should be considered. However, complicated and complex domains are prevalent in development projects. It is also important to remember that the boundaries between the domains are not clearly defined and fixed, but rather fluid, and they may shift throughout the project cycle.

Projecting a development project over the model would show that the management will have to deal with simple, complicated, and complex situations, and each one of them may require different tools and methods. This fact should be reflected starting at the beginning of the cycle with the design phase and continue until the final evaluation.

The NLF takes this into account by defining two different, but complementary rationales: the production rationale for the simple and complicated domains and the intervention rationale for the complicated and complex domains.

This model also highlights the need for an appropriate approach for the integration of the stakeholders, since one of the two axes refers to the level of agreement. The need for this integration has been recognized for a long time and is part of most organizations that are implementing Logframes with groups using participatory techniques. And even in more commercial and technical projects, stakeholder management is considered essential today. This is why the Project Management Institute included Project Stakeholder Management as new Knowledge Area in *A Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK® Guide) – Fifth Edition* (Project Management Institute, 2013a).

And finally, it is also important to remember that the Logframe was designed as a tool for designing the strategy of a project, not for operational planning. However, the proposal of the NLF is to better visualize and facilitate the connection between the project strategy and its operationalization.

## From the Logical Framework to the New Logical Framework

The construction of the New Logical Framework begins with the deconstruction of the Logical Framework, which we might call "classical" or "traditional." Then, the differences are presented to facilitate comparison.

**“Classical” Logical Framework**

Project Structure	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Means of Verification	Important Assumptions
Goal			
Purpose			
Outputs			
Activities			

**New Logical Framework**

Intervention Rationale	Impact Indicators	Sources/ Means of Verification	Important Assumptions
Goal			
Outcome/ Purpose			
<i>Production Rationale</i>			
Expected Outputs	Key Deliverables	Required Inputs	Preconditions to meet the Outputs
	←	←	←

The fact that the Logframe has survived so long and in so many organizations as a planning tool is a good indicator that it has great value for them. Even so, some of the elements of the "classical" or "traditional" Logframe deserve to be reviewed and revised, as they are sometimes mistakenly used or sometimes hinder understanding. It is mostly the manageable portion of a development project that can become more consistent by using complementary instruments. The Logframe can be conceptually divided into three parts:

- The "Production Rationale," which is the manageable part of a project and covers the preconditions, inputs, its implementation, and the generation of deliveries. In the project as a system concept, it refers to the "simple" part.
- The non-manageable part of the project, which includes the goals and outcomes, expressing the changes and the benefits arising from deliveries. In the project as a system concept, these refer to the "complex" and "complicated" parts, respectively.
- The "Intervention Rationale" of the project, which represents the connection between the two parts in a plausible, realistic, and consistent manner.

### The Project Production Rationale

With the resources assigned to the project and considering the organizational/institutional conditions, the task of project management is to organize resources and conduct them in such a way that the expected outputs can be generated within an estimated time frame.

The traditional LF uses the rationale "inputs → activities → outputs." Although this reasoning corresponds perfectly to the reasoning of any production process, considering the

complexity of the outputs, the list of activities that is usually presented is generally very small and hardly shows the extent of the scope of work. And using the term "Main Activities" does not clarify if there is no definition of what makes an activity a main activity. Moreover, in the design phase of a project, it is premature to consider activities, which are actually part of operational planning. For this reason, it is likely that the original concept of the logical framework did not consider activities; its intervention rationale was composed by "input à output à project purpose à sector or programming goal" (Rosenberg, Posner, & Hanley, 1970 p. IV-3).

Therefore, the first change of the NLF is the elimination of the element, "Main Activities," which can be found in most Logframe formats. But the practice of including main activities has, of course, a purpose, which is to make the content of the expected outputs more explicit, except that conceptually, it does not optimally describe activities. Since the result is to describe macro activities, which sometimes last for months or even years, they are not really manageable activities. The proposed change is to break down the outputs into smaller products or services (deliverables) as suggested by the Work Breakdown Structure (WBS) technique (Project Management Institute, 2006). Thus, the overall scope of the project becomes more evident, as the main deliverables give a broader and more detailed view of the outcome.

In the traditional LF matrix, one generally finds the indicators next to the outputs. As the delivery of outputs is the responsibility of the project management and, therefore, must be considered manageable, the respective indicators would not be impact indicators, but rather, performance indicators for monitoring targets. However, in practice, it is very common for these two types of indicators to be confused, which can invalidate them at the time of verification. On the other hand, if there are indicators used to monitor the targets, they usually describe some measurable content of the outputs. Thus, we propose to eliminate these indicators, which, in practice, are mostly targets and are put into their place in the matrix, **Key Deliverables**. The operational project plan that is created after the project design approval will detail the generation of the deliverables. Therefore, there is no need to have output indicators if one applies the Work Breakdown Structure and does the respective monitoring. The original version of the logical framework also did not include output indicators, but "targets" for each output (Rosenberg, Posner, & Hanley, 1970 p. IV-3).

The absence of indicators at the output level will also turn the respective sources obsolete. In place of these, we include fields for general estimates of the resources required to generate the **Key Deliverables**, which, in turn, make up the outputs. As the information about the project in the design phase is still limited, we do not expect to have a very detailed or precise estimate of the required resources. It will be enough to have an order of magnitude, and the resources can be differentiated into two basic types: human resources and investments. Knowing the amount of labor needed and the duration, it contributes to

the calculation of the overall project cost. This information can be critical to the approval of the project design and the go/no go decision for the project.

This line of reasoning is further complemented by the element, **Preconditions**. At this level, this concept seems more appropriate than the element "**Assumptions**," because it is the foundation of the entire project. In practice, it occurs frequently that even the basic requirements of the project are not given. In order to increase the chances of success, we first suggest solving these issues before investing into a project design that may be interesting in itself and may even be consistent, but that does not have the necessary foundation. Including estimates of necessary inputs helps to visualize the matrix' logic of the production process, "inputs -> key deliverables -> outputs."

This **Production Rationale** is also complemented by the inclusion, **Preconditions**. Knowing the type of **Preconditions** and the possible difficulties in fulfilling them can be a deciding factor for approval, since the evidence of the lack of sufficient conditions to start the project may require previous explanations.



**Figure 4: Production rationale.**

With this, all manageable portions of the project are summed up in the "horizontal logic": Precondition - Inputs - Key Deliverables - Outputs. And, in this context, established and proven project management tools can—and should—be used as appropriate to the specific situation.

### **The Non-Manageable Part of the Project**

Development projects aim to generate social, economic, or organizational changes, which always entail a change in the behavior of the people involved. It is evident and generally accepted that these changes cannot be delivered by a project as if they were goods, and, therefore, they are not directly manageable. They are, by the logic of a development project, the effect of what the project generates and delivers in the form of goods or services. These expected changes and improvements that characterize the development are expressed as outcomes and goals of the project. They describe the place (or situation) where the project's beneficiaries want to be in the future.

It is one of the greatest merits of the LFA to have conceptually clarified what goals and outcomes are and how they are different from deliverable outputs and, therefore, show which part is manageable and which is not manageable. However, both of these parts have to be related by a connection of plausibility, which is the **Intervention Logic**.

The two elements of the LF, the project outcome and the project goal, are conceptually well defined. While the first should describe the desired situation at the end of the project, expressing the changes that will have occurred in the target group, the second describes how the successful project impacts a broader context in which the project is embedded and contextualized.

The explanation that management cannot be directly responsible for the achievement of project goals and outcomes is often questioned, especially in training. But when the nature of the two parts, the manageable and non-manageable parts, of the project are understood, the view of the project and its management changes. Therefore, the concept of goals and outcomes should remain as defined in traditional LF, and one should limit the design to a single outcome of the project, to ensure clear focus without ambivalence.

Also, the concept of the goal, describing how the project impacts the improvement of a broader context, is appropriate and should remain. But since the project outcome contributes to improving the wider situation, it is perfectly reasonable to define more than one goal. In practice, it has proven interesting to elect one goal related to the beneficiaries' situation, and another goal related to the organization's benefits.

The changes suggested in the non-manageable part of the LF are not conceptual, but practical. First, the information found in matrix fields of the impact indicators, which may also be called "effect indicators," often falls short. It is often generic and reduced in scope, as if it had a subtext of what is intended and does not have to be explained. In reality, it is a rather complex exercise, but when done properly, it helps to understand where a project can possibly get to. Another common difficulty is also the fact that in the initial phase of a project, few data can inhibit a more realistic definition. So, it is important that the LF is not perceived as an instrument that is applied once and then has no more importance. Precisely monitoring and updating indicators is a critical management task in a development project.

It is also recommended that the scope of the indicators be broadened. A technique can be set at least one impact indicator related to each of the outputs. Thus, the relevance and contribution of each of the outputs becomes evident. The indicators should also be part of the management information system. Their sources are useful proof and must remain in the matrix.



**Figure 5: Information for the monitoring of the project.**

Another key concept for the design of a development project is the assumptions. The concept remains relevant for the exercise of reflection on the feasibility and risks that a

project may have to face. The changes that are suggested are to replace the assumptions with preconditions at the output level and to place the assumptions related to the goal and outcome at the same respective levels. Thus, reading the "vertical logic" changes positions, but the logic does not change. The rearrangement in the structure of the matrix does not interfere with understanding. Only the assumption on the same level as the goal disappears, which will hardly be missed, as it is very rarely used or considered relevant.

### The Project Intervention Rationale

The **Intervention Rationale**, which describes the project strategy, continues to have the greatest relevance for the design of a project. It is pertinent to have a goal that helps contextualize and guide the intervention as a whole.

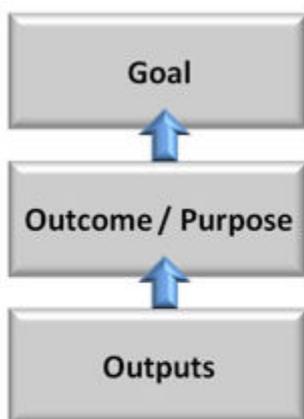


Figure 6:  
Intervention  
rationale.

It is equally important to have a single outcome to focus clearly on what is considered the priority and should be subject to changes. The aspect of changing people's behavior is critical.

The outputs of a first outline of the general scope of the project highlight the areas in which it will operate and, by exclusion, in which areas it will not work. Practice has shown that having four to five expected outputs is ideal. It is also helpful to use the traditional terminology in describing the outputs, using a verb in the past tense to better show what will have been delivered by the end of the project.

As the outputs indicate the general lines of action of the project, they provide only an overview of the scope. To better understand how much work it entails, we included in the **Production Rationale**, the **Key Deliverables** that are related to each of the outputs. These detail the scope better than the formerly used main activities because they better visualize what has to be produced and delivered.

Therefore, to complete the Intervention Rationale of a project in a consistent manner, it is necessary to build the Production Rationale as described above because it shows the resources that will be required and preconditions that are the foundations that underpin all the logic that follows.

## **Program Versus Project**

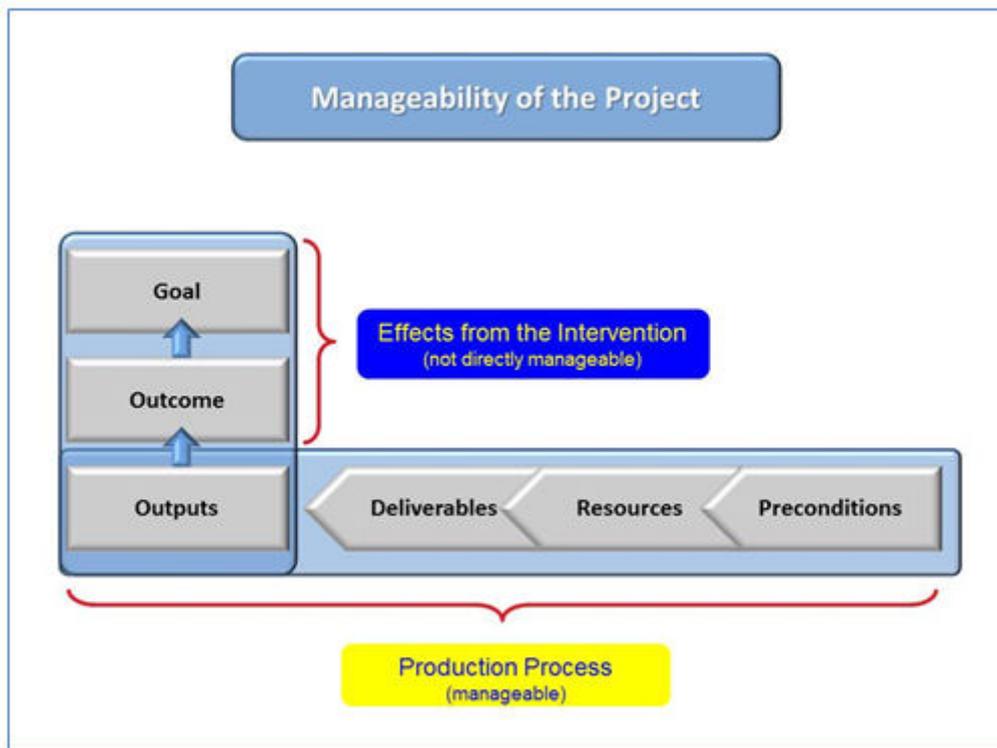
Initiatives in development cooperation are often called "projects," and sometimes, "programs." However, it is rare that one finds a conceptual difference between the two terms; on the contrary, they are often used as synonyms. This perception is due to the fact that projects and programs can have very similar characteristics, although they are, in fact, not the same.

In the specialized literature, one can find differences that have important implications for the management. A widely accepted definition is, for example, that "a program is a group of related projects managed in a coordinated way to obtain benefits and control not available from managing them individually" (Project Management Institute, 2013b).

Although complementary from a managerial point-of-view, it is important to distinguish between projects and programs. While the focus of a project is the generation of deliverables, the program's focus is on the realization of benefits that are based on projects. The NLF suggests taking this fact into account in their application:

- There is an additional level of effects above the project.
- The program goal connects and integrates the various project outcomes.
- The program does not generate products, but effects. Therefore, there are no program outputs, but rather, program components.
- The program management activities are fully dedicated to coordination, while the activities of project management are focused on the production.

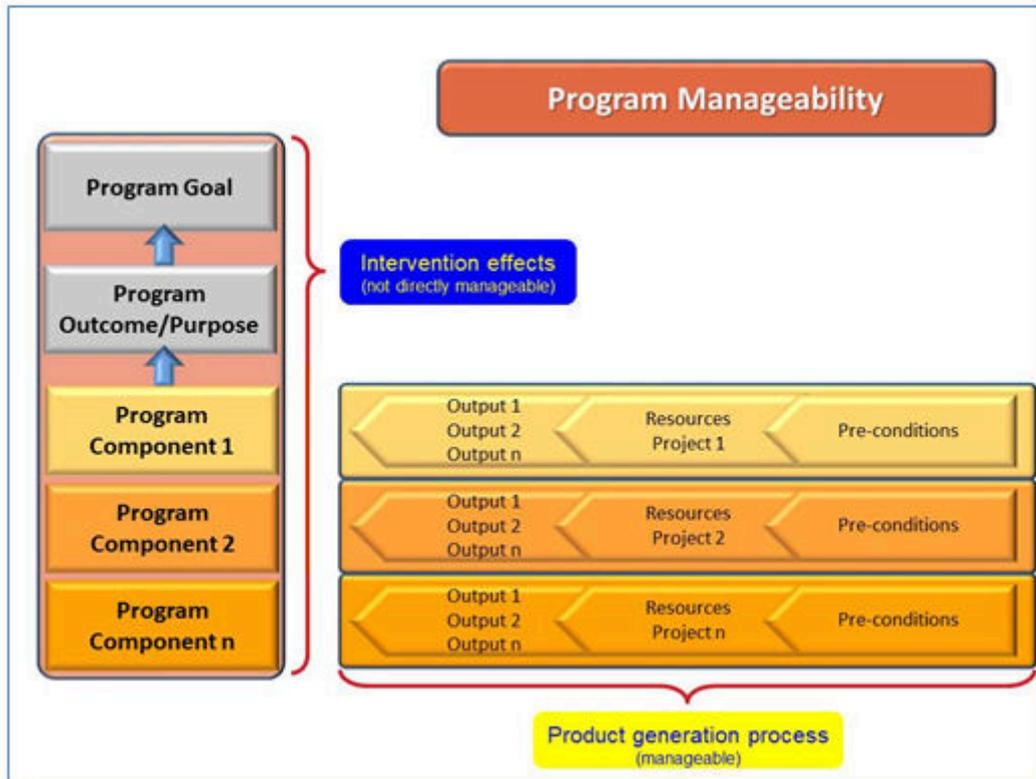
The differences are directly reflected in manageability, as shown in Figure 7.



**Figure 7: Manageability of projects.**

If the intervention consists of only one project, the production of outputs should be manageable, considering the prerequisites and available resources. But the expected effects that are expressed in the intervention rationale with project outcome and goal are not directly manageable.

If the intervention consists of a set of projects related to each other to increase the expected benefits when compared with their single application, it is a program. The link between the different projects and the program is the components that correspond to the outcomes of each project. By the logic set out above, each project will have its own production rationale by which the project or component management is responsible for the outputs of the project. The coordination and integration of the effects that the projects must cause are the responsibility of the program.



**Figure 8: Manageability of programs.**

The consequence of this logic is that the management processes for projects and programs are different—planning happens in complementary, but different levels; execution happens at the project level and not the program level, and monitoring and leadership are main functions at the program management level. Likewise, the evaluation of a project will have a different focus from the program and, of course, the level of complexity increases in the passage from the outputs to the components, the outcome of the program, and finally, the program goal.

## **Conclusion**

The Logical Framework Approach, as well as the instrument Logical Framework, continue to have the same importance and actuality they have had for more than the last four decades. The New Logical Framework aims to preserve the essence of the original instrument, but proposes changes due to experience gained during more than 25 years of application in numerous projects and training to hundreds of professionals from different organizations. Thus, we believe that the planning matrix of the New Logical Framework is richer in relevant information and more practical, summarizing critical project information and being a fundamental tool for strategic planning projects.

For the appropriate application of the NLF, the distinction between projects and programs is also essential for a better understanding of the limits of manageability. While the former operates a great deal in the simple and complicated domains, the latter falls entirely into the complicated and complex domains.

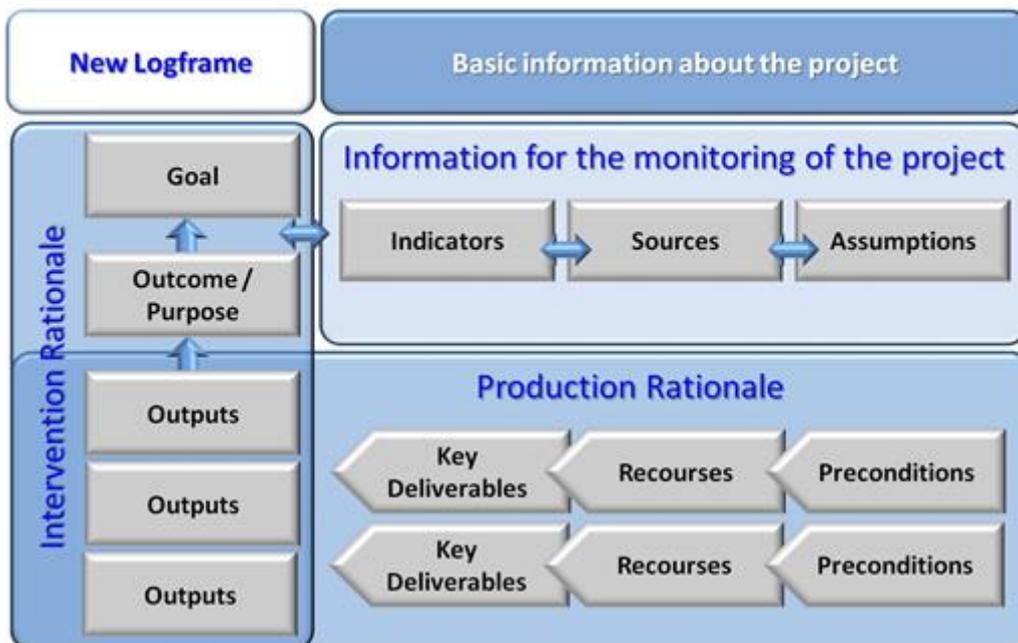
With regard to operational planning, the New Logical Framework incorporates a connection with tools of modern project management—especially the WBS, which was the "missing link" between the strategic vision of the project and its operational organization. With this, operational planning can be more effective, as long as the re-planning loops are short enough and consider the changes that naturally occur in complex and dynamic systems.

Using Stacey's complexity model, we can also relate the different domains to the Logframe levels: The production of the key deliverables falls into the simple domain, the outputs relate to the complicated, and the outcomes and goals relate to the complex domain. The fact that the NLF uses a logical structure does not invalidate the consideration of complexity and respective models. On the contrary, they are helpful for understanding the challenges of project management. It is critical, however, that the NLF is used as a tool only to support the management process. Flexible and skillful application, experience, and common sense will be necessary to help the tool develop its full potential.

## Appendix 1: New Format of the Planning Matrix

<b>New Logframe</b>	<i>Project Title:</i>		<i>Created:</i>
	<i>Project Duration:</i>		<i>Revised:</i>
	<i>Responsible Institution:</i>		<i>Revised:</i>
	<i>Executing Organization:</i>		
<b>Intervention Rationale</b>	<b>Impact Indicators</b>	<b>Sources</b>	<b>Important Assumptions</b>
<i>Goal:</i>			
<i>Purpose/ Outcome:</i>			
<b>Expected Outputs</b>	<b>Key Deliverables</b>	<b>Required Inputs</b>	<b>Preconditions to meet the Outputs</b>
	1.1	1.1	
	1.2	1.2	
	1.3	1.3	
	1.4	1.4	
	2.1	2.1	
	2.2	2.2	
	2.3	2.3	
	2.4	2.4	

## New Logframe Structure



## Appendix 2: Description of the NLF Elements

<i>Element</i>	<i>Definition LF</i>	<i>Definition NLF</i>	<i>Change/Difference</i>	<i>Recommendations NLF</i>
<b>Goal</b>	Future situation to which the project intends to contribute.	Future situation to which the project intends to contribute. Indirect benefits obtained due to the realization of the project.	No fundamental change. Explicates the indirect benefit.	Use two goals, one related to the initial situation to be changed, the other to the indirect benefits obtained by the organization.
<b>Outcome</b>	Desired future situation. Describes the changes that occur in the target group.	Desired future situation. Describes the changes that occur in the target group. Direct benefits obtained due to the realization of the project.	No fundamental change. Explicates the direct benefit.	Use a single project outcome related to the target group, which can be either a social group outside the executing organization or part of the organization.
<b>Outputs</b>	Goods or services produced by the project.	Goods or services produced by the project.	No change.	Explicate the nature of the component. Remember that outputs are aggregated products and, thus, comprise a number of products (deliverables).
<b>Impact Indicators</b>	Objectively verifiable indicators. Indicators that show the effects of the goal or outcome.	Impact or effect Indicators for the goal and outcome.	No need to use "objectively verifiable." The terms "effect" and "impact" are generally not differentiated and, therefore, can be used synonymously.	Use more indicators than normally used in Logframes. Set at least one indicator for each outcome. They may appear in both the project goal and/or outcome.
<b>Indicators for Monitoring Outputs</b>	Objectively verifiable indicators. Indicators for monitoring the outputs.	Key deliverables.	Does not use indicators for monitoring the outputs.	Indicators for monitoring the outputs are usually expressed by products or quantitative targets. These can also be described as "key deliverables," corresponding to the 2 <sup>nd</sup> level of the WBS.

<b>Source of Verification</b>	Where the evidence for an indicator can be found.	Where the evidence for an indicator can be found.  Only for effect/impact indicators.	No change for the effect/impact indicators.  Without output indicators, there are also no sources.	In place of the sources of verification for the output. Indicators should enter the column "required inputs."
<b>Assumptions</b>	Factors outside the control of the management, but important to achieve the goals.	Factors outside the control of the management, but important to achieve the goals.	Change in the position of assumptions related to goal and outcome.	Assumptions at goal level are the factors to achieve the goal.  Assumptions at outcome level are the factors to achieve the outcome.  At the output level, both preconditions and assumptions can be used.
<b>Preconditions</b>	Are not considered explicitly in the Logical Framework, although they are part of the project logic.	Are considered for the generation process of products and services and are recorded in NLF in terms of outputs.  Are "prerequisites, essential and indispensable to achieve something."	Replace the assumptions at the output level.  Are less abstract than assumptions and help to establish and demonstrate the basic conditions to carry out a project.	The preconditions are the extension of the line of reasoning of the generation of deliverables.  Taking preconditions into account requires one to be more realistic with the project design.
<b>Main Activities</b>	Tasks to be performed by the project to achieve the outputs.	Not part of the NLF.	The main activities are translated into products for each output (or component).	As the main activities are actually macro activities, they often highlight a product or service to be produced.  These can be described as "Key Deliverables," corresponding to the 2 <sup>nd</sup> level of the WBS.
<b>Key Deliverables</b>	Do not exist, but are implicit in the output indicators in Main Activities	Are sub-products of each output (component).  Help to outline better the project scope.  Are the basis for resource	Fundamental change.	Perform an initial breakdown of the project outputs.  Three to five deliverables should be sufficient.  One should pay attention to description

		estimation.		of sub-products that help estimate time and required resources.
<b>Inputs (required resources)</b>	Resource estimate.  (In some Logframes, the indicator's column beside the outputs was used to mention inputs).	Estimation of required resources for each sub-product.  May include human resources, material, or financial (investment).	Fundamental change.	Show the production process, inputs leading to the key deliverables, and these compose the outputs.  The inclusion of defined inputs turns the whole intervention rationale more consistent.
<b>Intervention Rationale</b>	Project strategy, showing the activities that lead to outputs, then causing changes, and finally, effects.	The logical chain that includes the set of outcomes that lead to a project outcome as a direct effect of the intervention, up to the goal, which expresses the desired effects in the larger context, caused by the intervention.	Main activities were excluded from this logic.	The relationship— outputs - outcome – goal—remains, but the reading of the assumptions must be:  "Outputs achieved + assumptions at outcome level leads to outcome."  "Outcome achieved + assumptions at goal level leads to goal."
<b>Production Rationale</b>	This term does not exist, but it is implicit in the relation <i>input – output</i> .	The logical chain that comes from the pre-project requirements, required inputs, through to the key deliverables to the expected result.	Fundamental change by the inclusion of resources related to the products and the key deliverables.	The logical chain comes from the preconditions and resources to the key deliveries, which are products or services generated by the project. The whole set configures an output.

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