



Impact Report 2025

Impact monitoring report 2025

Annual monitoring of progress towards self-sufficiency

Publication date: December 2025

First edition

Acknowledgements

The successful completion of this 2025 impact monitoring round represents the continued dedication and collaborative effort of individuals and teams across ForAfrika. Their commitment to systematic measurement, rigorous data collection, and evidence-based programming has enabled this second annual assessment of our progress towards household self-sufficiency.

We extend our gratitude to the country office teams in Angola, Ethiopia, Mozambique, Rwanda, South Africa, South Sudan, and Uganda. The country directors, programme managers, and DMEAL leads provided essential leadership in implementing the monitoring methodology whilst ensuring adaptation to evolving local contexts. Their intimate knowledge of operational realities and strong relationships with communities were fundamental to gathering high-quality data across diverse and sometimes challenging settings.

Special recognition goes to the Ethiopia country office for successfully establishing baseline data for Ethiopia's operational areas and expanding our impact measurement framework to include a seventh country context. Their careful implementation of the methodology ensures comparability whilst acknowledging the unique challenges of Ethiopia's agro-pastoral communities.

We are grateful to Marcelo Sette-Mosaner for his technical expertise and support in refining the Sustainable Livelihoods Index during the 2024 methodology review. His contributions strengthen the rigour and reliability of our impact measurement approach.

The Executive Committee's sustained commitment to evidence-based decision-making and adaptive management has been instrumental in prioritising annual monitoring. Their strategic guidance enables ForAfrika to learn from programme implementation systematically and to adjust approaches based on evidence.

Above all, we express our profound appreciation to the communities and households who participated in this monitoring round. Their willingness to share their experiences, challenges, and progress forms the foundation of our understanding. Their resilience, determination, and agency continue to inspire our work towards an Afrika that thrives.

Acronyms and Abbreviations

AR	Activity Reach
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DMEAL	Design, Monitoring, Evaluation, Accountability, and Learning
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FSL	Food Security and Livelihoods
GPS	Global Positioning System
GSO	Global Support Office
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
ITT	Indicator Tracking Tool
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (measure of sampling adequacy)
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
SLI	Sustainable Livelihoods Index
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UI	Unique Individuals
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WASH	Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene
WHO	World Health Organization

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Executive summary

ForAfrika conducted its second annual impact monitoring exercise in 2025, measuring household self-sufficiency across seven operational contexts: Angola, Ethiopia, Mozambique, Rwanda, South Africa, South Sudan, and Uganda. The assessment covered 2,858 households representing diverse vulnerability profiles ranging from stable development environments to acute humanitarian crises. This comprehensive monitoring provides evidence of programming outcomes, identifies acceleration opportunities, and informs strategic resource allocation decisions as ForAfrika works towards its goal of enabling 20 million Africans to achieve self-sufficiency by 2036.

Programme reach and integration

ForAfrika's 2025 programming reached 2.78 million people through 6.31 million activity interventions across eight countries, representing approximately 35% of the 7.95 million people living in operational communities. However, only 403,750 people (5% of target population, 14.5% of direct beneficiaries) are currently on track to self-sufficiency, defined as receiving layered interventions across multiple dimensions enabling comprehensive household development. This limited penetration of integrated programming represents a critical constraint on accelerating progress towards the 20 million self-sufficient Africans by 2036 goal.

Overall self-sufficiency performance

Four countries showed improvements in self-sufficiency rates between 2024 and 2025. South Sudan observed the most change in programme areas, increasing from 1.5% to 5.4% self-sufficiency (+3.9 percentage points), representing 90,294 additional people in self-sufficient households, a remarkable achievement in a protracted crisis context. Uganda improved from 34.0% to 35.4% (+1.4pp, +16,233 people), Rwanda from 40.8% to 41.8% (+0.9pp, +1,268 people), and Mozambique from 12.1% to 12.5% (+0.5pp, +3,746 people). These gains demonstrate that programming effects can compound over time when sustained. However, South Africa declined from 46.5% to 38.8% (-7.7pp, -220,143 people) and Angola from 16.3% to 4.5% (-11.7pp, -138,351 people). Validation exercises suggest these apparent declines may reflect methodological recalibration and sampling variations.

Dimensional patterns reveal differential responsiveness

Analysis across the five capital dimensions demonstrates markedly different patterns of achievement. Natural Capital (0.04 to 0.71) shows the widest variation, driven primarily by rural versus urban contexts rather than programming quality. South Africa's urban focus yields extremely low Natural Capital (0.04), whilst Mozambique's predominantly agricultural communities demonstrate strong land access (0.71). WASH-Health Nexus (0.35 to 0.73) performs moderately but reveals that infrastructure gaps in fragile contexts create persistent bottlenecks. South Africa leads (0.73) due to urban infrastructure advantages, whilst South Sudan (0.35), Angola (0.39), and Ethiopia (0.36) face acute challenges requiring sustained systems strengthening.

Education-Productivity Nexus (0.25 to 0.47) proves highly sensitive to national infrastructure and economic opportunities partially beyond programme control. The persistent gap between basic education access (moderate across contexts) and technical skills development (critically low, ranging from 1.2% in South Sudan to 11.4% in Rwanda) represents a fundamental constraint on economic empowerment. This pattern indicates that basic literacy without practical skills leaves households unable to convert education into income generation.

Financial Capital (0.24 to 0.50) emerges as universally constrained and slow to change. Even the highest-performing countries achieve only moderate scores, with South Africa and Uganda at 0.50 and 0.46 respectively. The documented gap between financial inclusion, high in Uganda (81-87%) and Rwanda (77%), and saving capacity (universally low, typically 3-8%) demonstrates that financial service access alone proves insufficient for economic empowerment. Social Capital (0.34 to 0.52) demonstrates relative consistency, suggesting community networks remain robust even under stress, representing an underutilised resource for programming.

Cross-cutting insights

Several patterns emerge from cross-country analysis. Integration generates synergies: countries implementing multi-sectoral programming achieve stronger outcomes than those delivering siloed interventions. However, these synergies require sufficient programme penetration to materialise, the current low on-track population constrains impact acceleration. Contextual factors significantly shape outcomes independently of programming quality. South Sudan's protracted crisis, Angola's economic challenges, and Ethiopia's humanitarian context create operating environments where traditional development programming proves insufficient, requiring adapted models balancing humanitarian response with resilience-building.

School feeding consistently emerges as a high-impact intervention across contexts (54.5% average achievement), combining nutrition, education, and food security objectives efficiently. Immunisation shows persistently weak performance (7.7% to 46.3%) despite moderate health service access, indicating last-mile service delivery gaps requiring community-based approaches. Climate impacts threaten to erode programming gains across contexts, with validation reports confirming that recurring droughts, floods, and agricultural disruptions undermine household resilience despite programming investments.

Impact acceleration opportunity

Analysis identifies 2.5 million people living in households scoring positively on 8-10 indicators out of the 22, the impact acceleration zone. These near-threshold households represent the most cost-effective pathway to expanding self-sufficiency rates, requiring targeted support addressing specific bottleneck indicators rather than comprehensive foundational programming. The acceleration zone concentration varies from 19.4% in South Sudan to 47.2% in Mozambique, translating to substantial populations positioned just below the self-sufficiency threshold. Indicator-level profiling identifies country-specific gaps: Mozambique's acceleration zone struggles with technical education (5.3%), productive tools (4.3%), and basic education (14%); Uganda faces enabling technology (4.5%) and food security (4.1%) constraints; Ethiopia shows critically low enabling technology (3.9%), education access (5.2%), and food security (11.5%). This granular understanding enables evidence-based resource allocation focusing on precise constraints preventing near-threshold households from achieving self-sufficiency.

Strategic implications and recommendations

The findings demand strategic choices about programme depth versus breadth, integration intensity, and contextual adaptation. Three key organisational priorities emerge: accelerate on-track programming expansion through strategic layering intensification,



targeting 800,000 people in layered programming by end-2026; implement targeted impact acceleration programming for near-threshold households, converting 30% of acceleration zone households to self-sufficiency within 18 months; and differentiate programming models based on contextual typologies, developing distinct models for stable development contexts, protracted crises, and recovery-to-development transitions.

Country-specific recommendations address contextual realities: Angola requires investigation of self-sufficiency decline factors and intensified economic empowerment; Ethiopia needs comprehensive foundational programming addressing multiple bottlenecks simultaneously; Mozambique should leverage high acceleration potential through targeted technical skills development; Rwanda can consolidate high achievement through economic graduation programming; South Africa must investigate decline causes and intensify income generation support; South Sudan should continue humanitarian-development nexus approaches whilst prioritising food security; Uganda can leverage high performance through acceleration zone programming focusing on enabling technology and food security.

Sector-specific recommendations strengthen technical quality: WASH programming should integrate with health service delivery and strengthen community-based management mechanisms; Education must

address the critical gap between basic access and technical skills whilst scaling school feeding; Food Security and Livelihoods requires intensified climate-smart agriculture and market linkage development; Health and Nutrition should strengthen community-based service delivery and mainstream nutrition-sensitive approaches; Economic Empowerment needs comprehensive business development support beyond financial services access, with targeted support for women and youth.

The 2025 impact monitoring exercise demonstrates that ForAfrika's programming achieves measurable impact across diverse contexts. Four countries showed improvements despite challenging environments, whilst the identification of 2.5 million people in the impact acceleration zone presents immediate opportunities for cost-effective self-sufficiency expansion. However, accelerating progress towards organisational goals requires deliberate strategic choices: expanding on-track programming penetration, targeting near-threshold households with precision interventions, differentiating programming models to match contextual realities, and addressing universal challenges in Financial Capital development. These evidence-based recommendations provide a roadmap for strategic resource allocation, operational adaptation, and partnership development ensuring ForAfrika remains on trajectory to enable 20 million Africans to achieve self-sufficiency by 2036.





Part I

Impact Findings



1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and context

ForAfrika operates with an ambitious vision to reach 20 million Africans by 2036, enabling them to achieve self-sufficiency through integrated development programming. As part of this strategic vision, the organisation set a milestone target to support 1 million people in achieving self-sufficiency by 2027. These targets reflect ForAfrika's commitment to measurable, transformative impact that addresses the root causes of poverty and vulnerability across the continent.

In 2024, ForAfrika established a comprehensive baseline across six countries (Angola, Mozambique, Rwanda, South Africa, South Sudan, and Uganda), providing the first systematic measurement of household self-sufficiency using the Sustainable Livelihoods Index. This baseline, covering a sample of 2,425 households representing a population of 8.44 million people, established a rigorous foundation for tracking progress towards organisational targets. The baseline revealed significant variation in household self-sufficiency across countries, with proportions ranging from 1.5% in South Sudan to 46.5 per cent in South Africa, highlighting the diverse contexts in which ForAfrika operates.

The 2025 monitoring round represents the second annual measurement, positioning ForAfrika to track year-on-year changes in household self-sufficiency and assess programme effectiveness. This monitoring round expands the geographical scope to include Ethiopia, where ForAfrika established operational programmes during 2024. The inclusion of Ethiopia brings the total to seven countries, reflecting ForAfrika's growing continental footprint and commitment to systematic impact measurement across all operational contexts.

1.2 Purpose and objectives of 2025 monitoring

The primary purpose of the 2025 monitoring exercise is to track progress against baseline values established in 2024, enabling systematic assessment of whether households are moving towards or away from self-sufficiency over time. This longitudinal perspective provides critical insights into programme effectiveness and the pace of change achievable through ForAfrika's integrated development approach. The monitoring aims to generate evidence that informs strategic decision-making at both country and organisational levels, providing data-driven insights for resource allocation, programme design, and operational priorities.

An additional objective is to establish baseline data for Ethiopia's operational areas, bringing this seventh country into ForAfrika's systematic impact measurement framework. The Ethiopia baseline follows the same methodology applied in other countries, ensuring comparability whilst acknowledging the unique contextual factors of agro-pastoral communities facing recurrent drought and displacement.

The monitoring also serves important accountability functions, generating reliable, validated data on household self-sufficiency, the exercise strengthens ForAfrika's ability to demonstrate progress towards its 2027 and 2036 impact targets to donors, partners, and most importantly to the communities ForAfrika serves.

Finally, the monitoring contributes to organisational learning by identifying patterns, trends, and relationships between programming inputs and household outcomes. This learning function enables ForAfrika to refine its programme models, strengthen integrated approaches, and share evidence with the broader development community about effective pathways to household self-sufficiency in African contexts.

1.3 Scope of the 2025 monitoring round

The 2025 monitoring round encompasses seven countries where ForAfrika implements development programming: Angola, Ethiopia, Mozambique, Rwanda, South Africa, South Sudan, and Uganda. The geographical scope reflects ForAfrika's operational footprint across Eastern, Southern, and Horn of Africa regions, capturing diverse contexts from stable middle-income settings to fragile and conflict-affected environments.

The monitoring covers a combined population of approximately 8.5 million people living in communities where ForAfrika implements development programmes. This represents the total population in sampled communities, not just direct programme participants. The population-based approach enables assessment of broader community-level effects beyond direct beneficiaries, recognising that ForAfrika's integrated programming aims to create enabling environments for self-sufficiency rather than solely targeting individual households.

Sample sizes maintained statistical rigour at country level, with each country contributing approximately 400 households randomly selected from 20 communities. Ethiopia's baseline followed the same sampling methodology, contributing 397 households from communities in Borena, Konso, and South Omo districts. The combined 2025 sample encompasses over 2,800 households, providing robust data for country-level analysis and organisational aggregation.

Data collection occurred during 2025, with specific timing varying by country to account for seasonal factors and match the period of baseline data collection. All countries completed data collection using the standardised household survey instrument developed from the Sustainable Livelihoods Index framework. Field teams received training on consistent application of measurement protocols, ensuring comparability across diverse contexts.

The monitoring explicitly focuses on development programming contexts, excluding communities currently receiving exclusively emergency response assistance. This methodological decision reflects the reality that measuring self-sufficiency is neither feasible nor appropriate in acute emergency contexts where basic survival needs take precedence.

The methodological consistency across the 2024 baseline, 2025 monitoring, and Ethiopia baseline provides confidence that observed changes reflect

genuine shifts in household self-sufficiency rather than measurement artefacts. Where data quality concerns arise, country-specific validation chapters document these issues transparently, enabling readers to interpret findings with appropriate caution.

1.4 Report structure

This report presents the findings of ForAfrika's 2025 impact monitoring exercise through a structured progression from broad organisational patterns to granular country-specific analysis, enabling both strategic decision-making and operational learning.

Chapter 1: Introduction establishes the context and purpose of the monitoring exercise. It articulates ForAfrika's strategic vision of enabling 20 million Africans to achieve self-sufficiency by 2036, positions the 2025 monitoring within this trajectory, and explains the conceptual framework for the measurement approach.

Chapter 2: Programme coverage and reach analysis examines ForAfrika's programming footprint across operational contexts. The chapter provides country-level breakdowns of programming coverage, identifies variation in integration depth, and establishes the strategic imperative of expanding layered programming penetration. This coverage analysis contextualises subsequent outcome findings by clarifying the intensity and integration level of programming interventions underpinning observed results.

Chapter 3: Overview of 2025 impact results synthesises the key findings across all seven countries, providing a cross-country perspective on self-sufficiency achievements and dimensional performance. This overview chapter enables readers to grasp the diversity of outcomes across ForAfrika's portfolio whilst identifying common patterns that transcend contextual differences.

Chapter 4: Cross-cutting analysis steps back from country-specific details to identify thematic patterns, shared challenges, and insights emerging across contexts. This synthesis chapter provides strategic insights for organisational learning, revealing which intervention approaches prove effective across contexts and which require contextual adaptation.

Chapter 5: Impact acceleration introduces an analytical framework identifying households positioned just below the self-sufficiency threshold, the impact acceleration zone. This analysis enables cost-effective resource allocation by identifying where strategic investments yield disproportionate impact, complementing foundational programming serving more vulnerable populations.

Chapter 6: Conclusions synthesises the report's main findings and articulates what the evidence reveals about ForAfrika's programming effectiveness, the nature and magnitude of progress achieved, the factors constraining or enabling self-sufficiency advancement, and the strategic implications for organisational direction.

Chapter 7: Recommendations translates findings into actionable guidance at three levels. Three organisational strategic recommendations address portfolio-wide priorities, two recommendations per country respond to specific contextual realities and identified opportunities, two recommendations per sector (WASH, Education, FSL, Health and Nutrition, Economic Empowerment) strengthen technical quality and cross-sectoral integration.

Chapter 8: Methodology documents the technical approach underpinning the monitoring exercise with sufficient detail to enable methodological assessment and future replication. The methodology chapter also documents measurement system insights emerging from implementation experience, including indicator performance assessment and methodological refinements for future rounds. This transparency enables readers to assess the reliability and validity of findings whilst contributing to broader impact measurement practice in the development sector.

This structure serves multiple reader needs simultaneously. **Strategic leaders** can focus on the Executive Summary, Chapters 3-5, and Chapters 6-7 for insights informing portfolio-level decisions. **Programme managers** should engage with Chapter 2, their specific country chapter, and sector-specific recommendations for operational guidance. **Technical specialists** will find value in the cross-cutting analysis, impact acceleration methodology, and methodological documentation. The modular structure enables readers to navigate directly to content matching their interests and responsibilities whilst maintaining narrative coherence for those reading comprehensively.

1.5 Conceptual framework

The 2025 monitoring round employed the revised methodology which incorporated recommendations from an independent statistical robustness assessment conducted in May 2025. This revised methodology maintains all 22 indicators from the original framework but reorganises them into five dimensions based on conceptual nexus relationships that better captures the interconnected nature of household wellbeing:

Natural Capital (2 indicators) encompasses household access to and management of natural resources essential for livelihood strategies. This dimension includes land access, which measures both legally recognised documentation and perceived tenure security, and sustainability of natural resources, which assesses household adaptation of climate-smart practices in land preservation and water management.

WASH-Health Nexus (7 indicators) represents the updated framework's recognition of the well-documented causal pathways between water, sanitation, hygiene, and health outcomes. This nexus dimension consolidates indicators that were previously distributed across separate physical and human capital categories, bringing together sanitation availability, water quality, access to health services, immunisation coverage, perceived health, food security, and school feeding programmes. This integration acknowledges that improvements in water and sanitation directly influence health outcomes, whilst adequate nutrition and health status reciprocally affect the effective use of water and sanitation facilities.

Education-productivity nexus (6 indicators) captures another critical relationship in the revised framework, linking education and skills development to productive capacity and economic participation. This dimension brings together access to education infrastructure, basic education attainment, technical education and training, enabling technology, energy security, and

productive tools. The nexus structure recognises that education and skills development cannot be separated from the material resources required to translate knowledge into productive activity, whilst simultaneously acknowledging that access to productivity-enhancing tools and technologies amplifies the returns to education investments.

Financial capital (4 indicators) measures household economic resources and their capacity to generate, manage, and protect financial assets. This dimension includes asset resilience, income generation, financial inclusion, and access to markets. Together, these indicators assess both the stock of financial resources available to households and the systems that enable their effective deployment and protection.

Social Capital (3 indicators) examines the networks, relationships, and institutional connections that support household livelihoods and community resilience. The dimension encompasses social networks and participation, representation in community decision-making, and access to disaster risk reduction systems.

The self-sufficiency threshold remains consistent with the 2024 baseline methodology. A household is classified as self-sufficient when it achieves minimum thresholds in at least half of the indicators overall, which translates to meeting minimum standards in 11 or more of the 22 indicators. This threshold accounts for the multiple pathways to sustainable livelihood strategies according to the specific contexts of each location, recognising that households may achieve self-sufficiency through different combinations of strengths across the five capital dimensions.

Full indicator definitions, measurement methodologies, and threshold specifications are documented in the ForAfrika Impact Measurement Guideline and metadata, ensuring transparency and replicability of the measurement approach.

2 PROGRAMME COVERAGE AND REACH ANALYSIS

ForAfrika's programming footprint across its operational countries reflects diverse contexts, ranging from emergency response in fragile settings to integrated development in more stable environments. Understanding the scale, distribution, and integration of programming interventions is essential for assessing the organisation's trajectory towards its strategic goal. This chapter analyses programme coverage and reach using intervention tracking data from January through December 2025, examining both the breadth of ForAfrika's engagement and the depth of programmatic integration across countries.

The analysis draws on Indicator Tracking (ITT) monitoring data compiled from country offices, which systematically tracks Activity Reach (total programme interventions delivered) and Unique Individuals (distinct persons reached) across all programmatic pillars. It is important to distinguish between ForAfrika's *programme reach* - the people we directly engage through programming - and the *target population* living in our operational communities. The target population represents the total number of people residing in communities where ForAfrika implements programmes; this provides important context for understanding programme density and coverage, while Activity Reach and Unique Individuals represent our actual programme engagement.

This chapter also examines the extent of programming integration, assessing the proportion of communities and populations receiving layered interventions across multiple programmatic areas - a key determinant of household progression towards self-sufficiency as established in the Technical Note on the Self-Sufficiency

Proxy. The 'on-track' metric identifies individuals who both receive programming directly and live in communities where interventions span three or more programmatic areas simultaneously.

While this chapter presents programme coverage data for all eight ForAfrika operational countries, the 2025 impact measurement exercise covers seven countries: Angola, Ethiopia, Mozambique, Rwanda, South Africa, South Sudan, and Uganda. Central African Republic represents a new operation that has not yet conducted baseline impact assessment and is therefore excluded from the impact analysis presented in subsequent chapters. Ethiopia, whilst a new operation established in 2025, conducted its baseline assessment during the year and is included in the impact measurement exercise.

2.1 Overall programme reach

In 2025, ForAfrika achieved 6.31 million Activity Reach and directly engaged 2.78 million Unique Individuals across eight operational countries. These individuals live within target communities comprising approximately 7.97 million people. The ratio of Activity Reach to Unique Individuals (2.3:1) indicates that on average, each person directly engaged received approximately 2.3 programme interventions during the reporting period, reflecting the intensity of programming amongst those reached.

Table 1 presents the programme reach data by country alongside the target population living in operational communities. The relationship between programme reach (AR and UI) and target population varies substantially across countries, reflecting different programming strategies, operational contexts, and organisational histories.



Table 1 Programme reach by country

Country	Population in target communities	Activity Reach	Unique Individuals	AR/Pop Ratio	UI/Pop Ratio
Angola	1,796,854	1,148,653	732,765	63.93%	40.78%
CAR [†]		8,282	3,500		
Ethiopia	97,587	103,155	15,097	105.71%	15.47%
Mozambique	549,620	1,039,244	545,667	189.08%	99.28%
Rwanda	133,603	45,252	6,236	33.87%	4.67%
South Africa	2,733,122	112,168	29,478	4.10%	1.08%
South Sudan	1,874,708	3,634,033	1,331,861	193.85%	71.04%
Uganda	782,084	218,467	118,635	27.93%	15.17%
TOTAL	7,967,578	6,309,254	2,783,239	79.19%	34.93%

[†]CAR represents a new operation established in 2025; baseline population data are not yet available. CAR is not included in the 2025 impact measurement exercise presented in subsequent chapters. Ethiopia conducted its baseline assessment in 2025 and is included in impact analysis.

Note: Target Population represents total people living in operational communities; Activity Reach and Unique Individuals represent people directly engaged through programming. AR/Pop and UI/Pop ratios indicate programme intensity and penetration within target communities. Ratios above 100% (Mozambique, South Sudan) reflect intensive programming where individuals receive multiple interventions, resulting in Activity Reach exceeding target population.

The reach patterns reveal three distinct operational profiles. South Sudan and Mozambique demonstrate the most intensive programming footprints, with Activity Reach substantially exceeding target population (193.85% and 189.08% respectively) and reaching two-thirds to nearly all residents as Unique Individuals (71.04% and 99.2%). This reflects the scale of emergency and development programming required in fragile contexts, where multiple interventions per person are necessary to address immediate humanitarian needs whilst building longer-term resilience.

Angola demonstrates moderate programme intensity (63.9% AR/Pop ratio) with substantial direct engagement (40.8% UI/Pop ratio), indicating focused programming in select communities as the country transitions from emergency response towards more consolidated development approaches. Ethiopia, whilst showing high Activity Reach relative to its small target population (105.76%), reaches only 15.5% of community residents as Unique Individuals, reflecting its status as a new operation in initial establishment phase where programming is intensive but not yet broadly distributed across all target communities.

In contrast, Rwanda, South Africa, and Uganda demonstrate more modest programme intensity, though these reflect very different programmatic strategies. Rwanda's low ratios (33.9% AR, 4.7% UI) reflect a highly integrated development model operating in a small number of communities - a deliberate strategy prioritising depth over breadth within its 134,000-person target population. South Africa's minimal ratios (4.1% AR, 1.2% UI) reflect targeted urban programming focused on specific vulnerable populations within a large 2.67-million-person target community base, where ForAfrika does not aspire to universal coverage but rather addresses specific pockets of acute need. Uganda presents a balanced approach (27.9% AR, 15.2% UI), maintaining moderate programme intensity within its 782,000-person target population whilst building towards greater integration.

Central African Republic (CAR), as a pilot operation launched in 2024, shows initial programming establishment with 8,282 Activity Reach and 3,500 Unique Individuals reached. Baseline population data are not yet available for CAR, and the operation has not conducted impact measurement exercises. CAR

is therefore excluded from the impact analysis in subsequent chapters, though its programming data are included here to provide a complete picture of ForAfrika’s operational footprint.

2.2 Programming integration and on-track analysis

The technical note on the self-sufficiency proxy establishes that households receiving interventions across three or more programmatic areas (Education, WASH, Food Security and Livelihoods, Health and Nutrition, Economic Empowerment) demonstrate significantly higher probabilities of achieving self-sufficiency than households receiving programming in fewer areas. This threshold of three programmatic

areas represents the minimum integration required to create synergistic effects across multiple dimensions of household wellbeing, enabling families to build comprehensive resilience rather than addressing isolated vulnerabilities.

ForAfrika tracks this integration through its ‘on-track’ metric, which identifies individuals who both receive programming directly and live in communities where programming is delivered across three or more programmatic areas simultaneously. This represents the subset of Unique Individuals who benefit from layered, integrated approaches most likely to support progression towards self-sufficiency. Table 2 presents the on-track population by country in 2025.

Table 2: On-track population by country in 2025

Country	Target Population	Layered Pop	On-Track Pop	% On-Track
Angola	1,796,854	562,306	82,156	4.57%
Ethiopia	97,587	19,834	3,455	3.54%
Mozambique	549,620	127,880	29,114	5.30%
Rwanda	133,603	127,015	5,929	4.44%
South Africa	2,733,122	298,154	2,443	0.09%
South Sudan	1,874,708	1,205,632	257,423	13.73%
Uganda	782,084	178,400	23,232	2.97%
TOTAL	7,967,578	2,519,221	403,750	5.07%

Note: Layered Population represents people living in communities where programming spans three or more programmatic areas. On-Track Population represents individuals who both receive programming directly and live in layered programming communities. % On-Track calculated as On-Track Population / Target Population. CAR excluded as layered programming data are not yet available for new operations.



The integration analysis reveals substantial variation across countries but consistently low overall on-track rates. Only 5.1% of the target population (403,750 people) are on -track - meaning they both receive programming directly and live in communities with layered interventions across multiple sectors. This low overall rate indicates substantial opportunity for expanding integrated programming approaches that research and organisational experience suggest are essential for sustainable household self-sufficiency.

Notably, 32% of the target population (2.52 million people) live in communities with layered programming across three or more areas, but only 16% of these individuals (403,750 of 2.51 million) are actually - on track through direct programme engagement. This gap between layered community coverage and on-track population indicates that whilst ForAfrika operates integrated programming in many communities, the proportion of residents actually receiving direct services within these communities remains limited. This pattern suggests opportunities to expand programme penetration within existing layered programming communities before necessarily expanding to new geographic areas. Additionally, mapping actors delivering complementary interventions in ForAfrika-supported communities is required to assess the actual level of integration and to strengthen coordination mechanisms.

South Sudan shows the highest on-track rate at 13.7%, with 57,423 individuals both receiving programming and living in integrated programming communities. This reflects the country's dual mandate of emergency response alongside development programming, where 64% of the target population lives in communities with layered interventions. However, even in South Sudan, only 21% of those living in layered communities are actually - on track through direct engagement, indicating substantial room for expanding programme penetration.

Mozambique (5.3% on-track), Rwanda (4.4%) and Angola (4.5%), demonstrate moderate on-track rates, though these reflect different underlying patterns. Rwanda's 4.4% needs to be interpreted considering

its deep integration within select communities - 95% of the target population lives in layered programming communities, but only 4.7% are reached as Unique Individuals at all, and thus only 4.4% are on -track. This reflects Rwanda's boutique model of comprehensive engagement in few locations. Angola and Mozambique show more balanced patterns with 31% and 23% respectively living in layered communities, suggesting broader geographic integration but modest programme penetration within these areas.

Uganda (3%), Ethiopia (3.5%) and South Africa (0.1%) show the lowest on-track rates, though for distinct reasons. Ethiopia despite having 20.3% of their populations in layered programming communities respectively, achieve low on-track rates due to new operation establishment phase. South Africa's minimal 0.1% on-track rate reflects its urban programming model of targeted interventions for specific vulnerable populations rather than comprehensive community-level programming, with only 11% living in layered communities and minimal programme penetration within these areas.

2.3 Programmatic area coverage by country

ForAfrika's programming spans multiple sectors organised around five core programmatic areas that align with the dimensional structure of the Sustainable Livelihoods Index: Natural Capital (land and natural resources), WASH-Health Nexus (water, sanitation, hygiene, health, and nutrition), Education-Productivity Nexus (education, skills development, and productive capacity), Financial Capital (economic empowerment and livelihoods), and Social Capital (community cohesion and disaster risk reduction). Understanding the distribution of programming across these areas by country provides insight into strategic emphasis and programming gaps that may affect household self-sufficiency outcomes.

Table 3 presents the distribution of Unique Individuals reached by programmatic pillar for each country in 2025, providing a detailed view of sectoral emphasis and programming balance across ForAfrika's operational footprint.

Table 3 Unique Individuals per programme sector reached in 2025

Country	Total UI	Education	WASH	FSL	Economy	H&N	Emergency
Angola	773,813	19,421	29,218	473	25	213,393	511,283
CAR	3,500	-	-	3,500	-	-	-
Ethiopia	16,997	-	1,760	14,037	1,200	-	-
Mozambique	553,496	9,079	97,482	14,147	1,712	2,709	428,367
Rwanda	6,236	2,230	343	2,578	1,085	-	-
South Africa	30,428	12,037	7,349	1,123	-	1,882	8,037
South Sudan	1,479,020	72,598	68,725	57,806	22,135	179,018	1,078,738
Uganda	121,693	3,716	77,680	10,636	3,058	6,755	19,848
Total	2,985,183	119,081	282,557	104,300	29,215	403,757	2,046,273

Note: Unique Individuals may be engaged in multiple programmatic pillars; totals by pillar may exceed total UI. Emergency column aggregates all emergency programming (Emergency Education, WASH, FSL, Health & Nutrition).

Angola demonstrates heavy emphasis on emergency programming, with 66.0% of Unique Individuals reached through emergency interventions (primarily Emergency Health & Nutrition and Emergency FSL). Development programming remains limited, with modest engagement in Education (19,421), WASH (29,218), and Health & Nutrition (213,393 development). This profile reflects Angola's transitional status from emergency response towards more sustainable development programming, with emergency needs continuing to dominate programming requirements in 2025.

Central African Republic (CAR), as a new operation, shows limited programming reach with 3,500 Unique Individuals engaged entirely through FSL interventions. This reflects initial establishment phase operations focused on immediate food security needs. As the operation matures, expansion into integrated development programming and broader sectoral coverage will be essential for building foundations for household self-sufficiency.

Ethiopia, as a new operation launched in 2025, focuses primarily on Food Security and Livelihoods (14,037 UI, 83.0% of programme participants) with complementary WASH programming (1,760 UI) and emerging Economic Empowerment initiatives (1,200 UI). This concentration reflects a deliberate entry strategy prioritising food security as a foundation for expanding into other programmatic areas. The absence

of emergency programming distinguishes Ethiopia from other contexts, suggesting operations in more stable communities where development-focused interventions are viable. As a new operation that completed baseline assessment in 2025, Ethiopia is included in the impact measurement exercise presented in subsequent chapters.

Mozambique Shows an intensive emergency footprint (428,367, 77% of programme participants) dominated by Emergency FSL and Emergency Health & Nutrition, reflecting ongoing humanitarian needs. However, substantial development programming persists, particularly in WASH (97,482 UI) and FSL development (14,147 UI), indicating efforts to balance immediate humanitarian response with foundational development investments. The modest engagement in Economic Empowerment (1,712 UI) and Education (9,079 UI) suggests opportunities for expanded livelihoods programming as emergency conditions stabilise.

Rwanda operates entirely through development programming with no emergency interventions, reflecting the country's stable context. Programming emphasises Food Security and Livelihoods (2,578 UI, 41.4% of programme participants) and Education (2,230 UI, 35.8%), with complementary Economic Empowerment (1,085 UI) and minimal WASH engagement (343 UI). This balanced multi-sector approach aligns with Rwanda's integrated development

model, though the low overall reach (6,236 UI, only 4.7% of target population) reflects the strategy of deep engagement in few communities rather than broad coverage.

South Africa concentrates on Education (12,0037 UI, 39.6% of programme participants) and WASH (7,349 UI, 24.2%), reflecting urban programming focused on access to basic services and educational opportunities for vulnerable populations. Emergency programming reaches 8,037 UI (26.4%), primarily through Emergency FSL and WASH interventions targeting acute needs in informal settlements. Economic Empowerment programming is absent, representing a notable gap given the critical importance of income generation for urban household self-sufficiency.

South Sudan demonstrates the largest absolute reach (1,268,272 UI, 64% of target population) with great emergency emphasis (1,078,738 UI, 72.9% of programme participants). Emergency WASH, FSL, and Health & Nutrition dominate the portfolio, reflecting the country's protracted humanitarian crisis. Development programming persists across all sectors - Education (72,598 UI), WASH (68,725 UI), FSL (57,806 UI), Economic Empowerment (22,135 UI), and Health & Nutrition (179,018 UI) - indicating ForAfrika's dual mandate of emergency response whilst building foundations for eventual recovery and development.

Uganda shows strong emphasis on WASH (77,680 UI, 63.8% of programme participants), positioning water and sanitation as the primary programmatic entry point. This is complemented by moderate engagement in FSL (10,636 UI), Health & Nutrition (6,755 UI), and Education (3,716 UI), with emerging Economic Empowerment programming (3,058 UI). Emergency interventions remain limited (19,848 UI, 16.3%), concentrated in WASH, reflecting Uganda's more stable development context. The WASH-centred approach provides a foundation for expanding integrated programming, though gaps in Education-Productivity Nexus programming may limit comprehensive household capacity building.

The programming coverage and integration analysis reveals three distinct operational models across

ForAfrika's portfolio, each reflecting appropriate responses to different contextual realities but with important implications for self-sufficiency outcomes.

The Emergency-Intensive Model (South Sudan, Mozambique, Angola) prioritises breadth of reach to address acute humanitarian needs. This model achieves extensive reach (40.7-99.2% of target population as UI) but variable integration (4.5-13.7% on-track), with emergency interventions dominating programming (66-77% of programme participants). Whilst appropriate for contexts of active conflict or recurrent crises, this model faces inherent limitations in supporting household progression towards self-sufficiency, as emergency programming addresses immediate survival needs rather than building comprehensive resilience. South Sudan's 1.5% self-sufficiency rate (2024 baseline) illustrates these constraints, though the recent improvement to 5.4% (2025, detailed in the next chapter) suggests that even in extreme fragility, sustained engagement can yield gradual improvements.

The Transitional-Balanced Model (Uganda, emerging in Mozambique and potentially Ethiopia) attempts to balance reach with increasing integration, maintaining moderate programme penetration (15-99% of target population as UI) whilst deliberately expanding layered programming. Uganda's 3% on-track population (23,232 people) represents progress in scaling integrated approaches beyond Rwanda's boutique model whilst avoiding the fragmentation of emergency-intensive contexts. This model's viability is demonstrated by Uganda's steady progress on self-sufficiency improvement from 34.0% (2024 baseline) to 35.4% (2025), suggesting that strategic expansion of integration - even to modest on-track levels around 4% - can yield significant household-level gains when programme quality and integration are prioritised. Ethiopia's development-focused programming from inception positions it for potential rapid integration expansion as operations mature, though with 3.5% on-track population in year one, this remains an aspirational trajectory.

2.4 Programming strategic implications

- The overall on-track rate of 5% represents a critical organisational challenge and opportunity. If ForAfrika's strategic goal of reaching 1,000,000 self-sufficient households by 2027 is to be achieved, substantial expansion of integrated programming is imperative. The evidence suggests that self-sufficiency rates remain constrained in contexts with minimal on-track populations, whilst increased rates appear achievable when programming quality and integration are prioritised.
- The gap between layered community coverage (32% of target population) and on-track population (5%) indicates a critical strategic choice point. ForAfrika operates integrated programming in communities comprising 2.52 million people, but only 16% of these individuals (403,750) are actually - on track through direct programme engagement. This suggests that expanding programme penetration within existing layered programming communities may yield greater self-sufficiency gains than necessarily expanding to new geographic areas. In parallel, developing an appropriate and systematic approach to map organisations implementing complementary programmes within ForAfrika communities would strengthen coordination mechanisms, maximise impact, and more clearly surface the extent of ForAfrika's contribution to self-sufficiency outcomes. The question is not only where to integrate programming, but how deeply to engage populations within integrated programming contexts.
- Third, the programmatic pillar analysis reveals systematic gaps that may constrain self-sufficiency outcomes even in relatively well-integrated contexts. Economic Empowerment programming remains notably weak across most countries - absent entirely in Angola, CAR, and South Africa, and reaching fewer than 21,000 Unique Individuals even in South Sudan's massive programme. Given that income generation represents one of the persistent indicator gaps across all countries (detailed in the next chapter), expanding Economic Empowerment programming alongside WASH, Education, and FSL interventions appears essential for advancing households towards comprehensive self-sufficiency.
- The emergency-development nexus requires strategic navigation. Countries operating in fragile contexts cannot simply abandon emergency response to pursue integration - humanitarian needs demand immediate attention regardless of long-term development objectives. However, the South Sudan and Mozambique examples suggest that simultaneous development programming within emergency contexts, whilst challenging, is both feasible and necessary. The question is not whether to provide emergency assistance, but rather how to strategically layer development programming even in humanitarian settings to begin building foundations for eventual self-sufficiency amongst those who can benefit from longer-term engagement.
- The establishment of new operations in Ethiopia presents opportunities for strategic learning. Ethiopia's development-focused entry strategy, prioritising FSL and WASH whilst incorporating Economic Empowerment from inception, positions the operation for potential rapid integration scaling as it matures. With 20.3% of the target population already living in layered programming communities in year one, and 3.5% on-track, Ethiopia demonstrates feasibility of establishing integrated programming from inception rather than layering gradually over time.
- The trajectory towards organisational goals requires assessment. With 6.31 million Activity Reach interventions and 2.78 million Unique Individuals directly engaged in 2025 across a target population of 7.91 million, ForAfrika has achieved meaningful progress towards its goal of impacting 20 million people by 2036. The organisation operates in communities comprising 42% of this target (7.91 of 20 million), and directly engages 32.4% of its target population as Unique Individuals. However, the 403,750 people - on track represents only 5% of the target population and 15% of direct programme beneficiaries. Strategic prioritisation of on-track population expansion - through both geographic integration scaling and programme penetration deepening in existing layered communities - appears essential for accelerating progress towards the 1,000,000 self-sufficient households goal by 2027.

3 OVERVIEW OF 2025 IMPACT RESULTS

This chapter synthesises the key findings from the 2025 impact monitoring exercise across all seven countries where ForAfrika implemented programming. It provides a cross-country perspective on self-sufficiency achievements, changes from the 2024 baseline, and performance across the five capital dimensions measured by the Sustainable Livelihood Index. The analysis positions Ethiopia as establishing its new baseline whilst examining how the other six countries have evolved over the past year.



3.1 Overall SLI performance in 2025

The 2025 monitoring exercise measured self-sufficiency across 2,858 households spanning the seven countries. Self-sufficiency rates, defined as the proportion of households scoring positively on $\geq 50\%$ SLI indicators, provide a critical metric for assessing community progress. The 2025 results demonstrate divergent trajectories across countries, with four nations showing improvements, two demonstrating apparent declines,

and Ethiopia establishing its new baseline reference point. Critically, the self-sufficiency percentages and population counts presented here use the 2024 population as the denominator for both years, ensuring like-for-like comparison of impact rather than coverage change effects. This methodological approach isolates household-level changes from programme expansion or contraction, providing a clear view of actual resilience improvements.

Table 4 Self-sufficiency headcount per country in 2025

Country	Sample 2025	% SS 2024	SS Pop 2024	% SS 2025	SS Pop 2025*	pp Change	Pop Change	2024 Pop Base
Angola	418	16.3%	191,974	4.5%	53,623	-11.7	-138,351	1,179,712
Ethiopia	397	,	0	2.8%	2,704	,	+2,704	0
Mozambique	407	12.1%	97,908	12.5%	101,654	+0.5	+3,746	811,238
Rwanda	426	40.8%	54,557	41.8%	55,825	+0.9	+1,268	133,603
South Africa	402	46.5%	1,330,468	38.8%	1,110,325	-7.7	-220,143	2,861,221
South Sudan	407	1.5%	34,207	5.4%	124,501	+3.9	+90,294	2,303,269
Uganda	401	34.0%	391,024	35.4%	407,257	+1.4	+16,233	1,150,072

***Note:** 2025 SS Population calculated using 2024 population as denominator to ensure like-for-like comparison of impact, isolating household-level changes from coverage expansion or contraction effects. This methodological approach ensures that changes in self-sufficient populations reflect genuine improvements in household resilience rather than simply reaching more or fewer communities.

Across the six countries with comparable 2024 and 2025 data (excluding Ethiopia), the total 2024 covered population stood at 8.4 million. Using the 2024 population base for both years ensures methodological consistency in assessing change. The aggregate self-sufficient population appears to decline from 2.1 million to 1.85 million, a net reduction of 244,250 people. However, this aggregate figure requires unpacking considering country-specific performances and challenges.

When disaggregating the changes, two distinct patterns emerge. The four countries demonstrating genuine improvements (South Sudan, Uganda, Rwanda, and Mozambique) together added 111,540 people to the self-sufficient population, demonstrating that appropriately designed and implemented programming generates measurable improvements in household resilience. In contrast, the apparent declines in Angola (-138,351 people) and South Africa (-220,143 people) seem to reflect measurement recalibration rather than genuine deterioration, as evidenced by the validation reports (chapter 8) documenting substantial improvements in 2025 data quality protocols.

The divergent trajectories underscore critical insights about the interplay of context, programme maturity, and data quality in shaping observed outcomes. Countries with sustained multi-year programming in relatively stable contexts (Uganda, Rwanda) demonstrate clear positive trajectories, though at different magnitudes. Fragile contexts receiving appropriately adapted programming (South Sudan, Mozambique) show encouraging gains despite acute vulnerability, suggesting that transformational change remains possible even in humanitarian settings when interventions are properly calibrated. Countries where measurement recalibration reveals more challenging baseline conditions (Angola, South Africa) require programme adjustments informed by more accurate understanding of household realities. This heterogeneity demands country-specific programming strategies rather than uniform approaches across ForAfrika's operational portfolio.

3.1.1 Countries demonstrating improvement

South Sudan demonstrates the most remarkable trajectory in relative terms, with self-sufficiency rates increasing from 1.5% to 5.4%, a 3.6-fold increase representing a 3.9 percentage point gain. This translates to 90,294 additional people reaching self-sufficiency thresholds within the 2024 population base of 2.3 million, bringing the total self-sufficient population to

124,501. Whilst absolute rates remain low, the trajectory direction is highly significant in a context characterised by recurring conflict, displacement, and climate shocks. The improvement suggests that appropriately designed and layered interventions can generate measurable resilience gains even in environments where vulnerability is nearly universal. This performance is particularly notable given that South Sudan operates in the most acute fragility context within ForAfrika's portfolio.

Uganda demonstrates meaningful consolidation of household resilience with self-sufficiency rates increasing from 34.0% to 35.4%, representing a 1.4 percentage point gain. This translates to 16,233 additional people reaching self-sufficiency thresholds within the 2024 population base of 1.15 million, bringing the total self-sufficient population to 407,257. This modest improvement occurs at already moderate baseline levels and represents sustained progress in consolidating household capacity where programming has achieved multi-year maturity.

Rwanda maintains its strong performance with a 1 percentage point increase from 40.8% to 41.8%, adding 1,268 people to the self-sufficient population (calculated using the 2024 base of 133,600), which now totals 55,825. This incremental gain at already high baseline levels suggests that Rwanda can be approaching a ceiling effect, where further improvements require increasingly intensive interventions to address the most persistent challenges facing the remaining vulnerable households. The pattern indicates that Rwanda has successfully graduated the majority of households capable of reaching self-sufficiency under current programming intensity, with the remaining vulnerable population likely requiring more specialised or intensive support.

Mozambique demonstrates marginal improvement with self-sufficiency rates increasing from 12.1% to 12.5%, representing a 0.5 percentage point gain. This translates to 3,746 additional people reaching self-sufficiency thresholds within the 2024 population base of 811,000, bringing the total self-sufficient population to 101,654. This modest improvement is noteworthy given the challenging context of chronic vulnerability and repeated climate shocks, though the limited magnitude suggests near-stagnation and indicates that more intensive or differently configured programming may be required to generate transformational change. The marginal gains raise questions about whether current programming approaches are sufficient to address the structural barriers constraining household resilience in this context.

3.1.2 Apparent declines and measurement recalibration

Both Angola and South Africa demonstrate substantial apparent declines in self-sufficiency rates. However, evidence from data quality assessments and validation processes strongly suggests these represent measurement recalibration rather than genuine household deterioration. Angola's self-sufficiency rate falls from 16.3% to 4.5%, an 11.7 percentage point decline, whilst South Africa drops from 46.5% to 38.8%, a 7.7 percentage point decline. In population terms (using the 2024 population base for both years), this translates to 138,351 fewer people classified as self-sufficient in Angola and 220,143 fewer in South Africa.

The validation reports for both countries document significant improvements in 2025 data collection protocols, including enhanced enumerator training, more rigorous supervision, and strengthened quality control mechanisms. The 2024 baseline data collection occurred during a period when these quality assurance systems were less robust, likely resulting in systematic overestimation of self-sufficiency levels. The 2025 measurements, benefiting from substantially improved data quality protocols, provide a more accurate assessment of actual household conditions. This interpretation is further supported by the absence of major external shocks or programme disruptions that would explain genuine widespread household deterioration.

The practical implication is that the 2025 values should be treated as revised baseline measures against which future progress will be assessed. Programming strategies in both countries require recalibration to address the more challenging baseline reality now accurately revealed. Whilst this represents a setback in terms of reported progress, it provides a more

solid foundation for evidence-based programme adjustments and realistic target-setting moving forward. The experience underscores the critical importance of investing in robust data quality systems from programme inception, as inadequate baseline measurements undermine not only reporting but programming effectiveness itself.

3.1.3 Ethiopia: Establishing the new baseline

Ethiopia enters the monitoring framework in 2025 with a self-sufficiency rate of 2.8%, representing 2,704 people within a total covered population of 97,587. This baseline level is comparable to Angola's 2025 rate (4.5%) and only slightly above South Sudan's 2024 baseline (1.5%), reflecting acute vulnerability driven by recent drought impacts and displacement patterns. The low baseline appropriately positions Ethiopia for tracking longer-term resilience-building trajectories as programming matures and household capacity gradually strengthens. The initial measurement provides essential reference data against which future monitoring exercises will assess programme effectiveness in this challenging context.

3.2 Capital dimension performance in 2025

The SLI framework disaggregates household capacity across five capital dimensions: Natural Capital (land, water, natural resources), WASH-Health Nexus (water, sanitation, hygiene, health access), Education-Productivity Nexus (education, skills, productive capacity), Financial Capital (income, savings, assets), and Social Capital (networks, community cohesion, institutional engagement). Analysis of dimensional performance reveals distinctive patterns that illuminate both programming strengths and persistent challenges across the country portfolio.



Table 5 Capital dimension performance in 2025

Country	Natural Capital	WASH-Health Nexus	Education-Productivity Nexus	Financial Capital	Social Capital
Angola	0.38	0.39	0.31	0.29	0.30
Ethiopia	0.61	0.36	0.25	0.25	0.55
Mozambique	0.71	0.42	0.29	0.34	0.51
Rwanda	0.54	0.58	0.34	0.45	0.51
South Africa	0.04	0.73	0.47	0.50	0.34
South Sudan	0.43	0.35	0.27	0.24	0.39
Uganda	0.67	0.47	0.36	0.46	0.59

Natural capital patterns

Natural Capital demonstrates substantial variation across operational contexts in 2025, with mean scores ranging from 0.04 in South Africa to 0.71 in Mozambique. The distribution reveals fundamental differences between rural and urban programming contexts. Mozambique (0.71) and Uganda (0.67) lead with strong land access and natural resource availability in predominantly rural programming areas. Ethiopia (0.61) and Rwanda (0.54) demonstrate moderate performance, whilst South Sudan (0.43) and Angola (0.38) face constraints related to conflict impacts, land quality, or environmental degradation. South Africa's extremely low score (0.04) reflects its predominantly urban programming focus where land-based livelihoods play minimal roles.

This dimension, comprising land access and sustainability of resource use, shows considerable variation that directly reflects programming contexts. In predominantly rural settings, land remains relatively accessible compared to other livelihood assets, providing a foundation for agricultural livelihoods. However, the strength in Natural Capital does not automatically translate into overall self-sufficiency. South Sudan demonstrates this paradox more clearly: despite moderate Natural Capital (0.43), its overall SLI (0.34) ranks lowest among all countries. This suggests that whilst land access provides a foundation, it must be complemented by investments in other dimensions, particularly financial capital, education, and basic services, to achieve meaningful household resilience.

The consistently moderate-to-strong Natural Capital performance in rural contexts suggests this dimension

may be a valuable entry point for programming but requires complementary investments in productive assets, technology, and market access to convert land into sustainable livelihoods. The moderate scores in several countries indicate that land access alone is insufficient without the means to make it productive. In urban and peri-urban contexts like South Africa, alternative livelihoods strategies that do not depend on land access become essential, requiring fundamentally different programming approaches focused on skills development, formal employment linkages, and informal economy support.

WASH-Health Nexus patterns

The WASH-Health Nexus demonstrates considerable variation across countries in 2025, with scores ranging from 0.35 in South Sudan to 0.73 in South Africa. This dimension consolidates the causal relationships between access to safe water, improved sanitation, health services, food security, and immunisation. The wide variation reflects differences in infrastructure development, service delivery effectiveness, and resource availability across operational contexts.

South Africa leads (0.73) due to urban infrastructure advantages and greater access to health facilities. Rwanda (0.58) and Uganda (0.47) achieve moderate performance through sustained government and donor investments in water access and health service strengthening. Mozambique (0.42), Angola (0.39), Ethiopia (0.36), and South Sudan (0.35) demonstrate acute challenges in water access, sanitation infrastructure, and health service availability. The consistently lower performance in fragile contexts highlights that WASH-Health improvements require not

only programme interventions but also functional public infrastructure and service systems that remain weak in humanitarian settings. This dimension represents a universal constraint that programming can partially address but cannot fully overcome without broader systems strengthening.

An important pattern emerges when disaggregating infrastructure from behaviour and access indicators. Countries may show relatively strong performance on sanitation and water infrastructure but weak health service access or immunisation coverage. For instance, Uganda shows 43% household achievement on sanitation, consistent with national statistics, yet faces significantly lower health access and immunisation rates. This suggests that whilst hardware (infrastructure) may be in place, software challenges - service delivery, community health systems, and behavioural factors - remain substantial.

School feeding emerges as a notable success across contexts. Uganda's validation identified 41% achievement, Rwanda shows consistent programming, and multiple countries report school feeding as a high-performing intervention. This suggests that integrated nutrition programming through schools represents an effective delivery mechanism that combines education, health, and food security objectives.

Immunisation presents persistent challenges across multiple countries. Uganda shows 36-41% coverage compared to 50-70% national averages¹, South Sudan faces severe gaps, and even relatively well-resourced contexts struggle to achieve universal coverage amongst target populations. These patterns point to systematic barriers in last-mile health service delivery that affect ForAfrika's operational areas disproportionately.

The evidence suggests that WASH and health programming produce better outcomes when integrated. Countries with relatively stronger WASH infrastructure (South Africa, Rwanda, Uganda) also show better health-related outcomes, whilst those with severe WASH deficits (South Sudan, Angola) face compounded challenges across all health indicators. This reinforces the documented pathways between water quality, sanitation, disease prevention, and nutrition absorption.

Education-Productivity Nexus patterns

The Education-Productivity Nexus reveals a persistent gap between education access and education quality

across all countries, with 2025 scores ranging from 0.25 in Ethiopia to 0.47 in South Africa. Whilst basic enrolment rates may be high, indicators measuring age-grade progression, technical skills development, productive assets, and enabling technology show substantially weaker performance. South Africa demonstrates the highest performance (0.47) reflecting better urban infrastructure, but even this represents moderate achievement with significant room for improvement in technical education and productive capacity.

Uganda (0.36), Rwanda (0.34), and Angola (0.31) achieve moderate levels where basic education infrastructure exists, but quality remains constrained. Mozambique (0.29), South Sudan (0.27), and Ethiopia (0.25) face severe challenges due to conflict-disrupted or under-resourced education systems and limited livelihood opportunities. This dimension proves highly sensitive to contextual factors largely beyond programme control, with household-level improvements requiring complementary investments in public education infrastructure and economic development.

Technology adoption presents universal challenges. Energy security and technology access show highly variable performance, with Uganda at 44% and 48.5% respectively for technology access, Rwanda showing moderate achievement, and most countries facing substantial gaps. This digital divide constrains both educational outcomes and economic productivity, limiting access to information, markets, and modern livelihood opportunities.

Productive tools distribution demonstrates consistently low achievement across contexts. Validation reports from multiple countries confirm that households lack essential tools for their primary livelihood activities, whether agricultural implements, artisanal equipment, or business assets. This fundamental deficit in physical capital constrains the translation of education and skills into productive economic activity.

Technical education emerges as the weakest component of this nexus universally. Uganda's validation noted that TVET participation remains low as it's viewed as 'Plan B' for those unable to afford university. Similar patterns appear across countries, indicating systematic barriers to skills development that align with market demands. This gap between basic education achievement and technical capacity-building represents a critical constraint on economic empowerment.

¹ Important to note that ForAfrika's SLI considers a positive score for a household on immunization if all members on vaccination age have taken all basic vaccines established by WHO and country health policies.

South Africa leads this dimension due to better urban infrastructure and education service access, though quality gaps persist. Rwanda demonstrates relatively balanced performance through investments in education quality. Uganda shows progress in basic education access but faces challenges in converting this into productive outcomes. The weakest performers - Ethiopia (0.25) and South Sudan (0.27) - face severe challenges across all components, requiring comprehensive interventions before meaningful progress becomes achievable.

Financial capital patterns

Financial Capital presents the most consistent challenge across all operational contexts in 2025, with scores ranging from 0.24 in South Sudan to 0.50 in South Africa. Even the highest-performing countries achieve only moderate scores, indicating that building economic resilience remains fundamentally difficult regardless of context. This dimension, comprising asset resilience, income generation, financial inclusion, and market access, shows the slowest rate of improvement and the most resistance to programming interventions.

Financial inclusion shows the most variable performance within this dimension. Uganda demonstrates relatively high achievement (81-87%) driven by mobile money penetration, Rwanda reaches 77%, and several countries show majority access to some form of financial services. However, this access does not automatically translate into income generation or asset accumulation. The gap between financial service availability and economic security reveals that inclusion alone is insufficient - households need income

opportunities and business development support to utilise financial services effectively.

Saving capacity shows universally low achievement. South Africa reports only 3.7% of households with ability to save for 3 months of expenses, Uganda faces similar challenges, and validation reports across countries confirm that income poverty and labour market exclusion represent fundamental constraints. This suggests that despite programming investments in livelihoods, creating enough surplus for savings remains extremely difficult in contexts characterised by limited economic opportunities, climate vulnerability, and structural barriers to market participation.

Asset resilience demonstrates similarly weak performance across contexts. Uganda showed a jump from 3% to 20% between measurement periods, but this still represents only a minority of households with meaningful shock-absorbing capacity. Most validation reports confirm that households lack savings buffers, maintain few productive assets, and resort to harmful coping mechanisms when facing shocks. This vulnerability undermines long-term development gains and perpetuates cycles of crisis and recovery.

Market access shows the most varied performance within Financial Capital. Uganda achieves 71% household access, South Africa reaches 94.8% (reflecting dense urban infrastructure), but this physical proximity to markets does not address deeper challenges of market participation - having products to sell, meeting quality standards, negotiating fair prices, and competing in value chains dominated by larger actors.



Why is Financial Capital so resistant to change?

Multiple factors compound to make economic empowerment the slowest-moving dimension. Structural barriers - limited job creation, climate vulnerability, market exclusion, gender inequality - constrain household economic advancement regardless of programming. Individual interventions in savings groups, skills training, or business development face systematic headwinds from macroeconomic conditions, policy environments, and power dynamics that programming cannot easily address. Additionally, building financial resilience requires sustained investment over extended periods, whilst households face frequent shocks that deplete nascent gains. The evidence suggests that achieving substantial progress in Financial Capital requires not only direct economic empowerment programming but also enabling conditions - stable governance, functioning markets, climate resilience, and social protection systems - that extend beyond programmatic scope.

Social capital patterns

Social Capital shows relatively consistent performance across countries in 2025, with scores ranging from 0.30 in Angola to 0.59 in Uganda. This narrower range compared to other dimensions suggests that community networks and social support structures maintain some stability even in challenging economic and infrastructural contexts. Uganda demonstrates the strongest Social Capital (0.59), indicating robust community structures and social cohesion. Ethiopia (0.55), Rwanda (0.51) and Mozambique (0.51) demonstrate relatively good social organisation despite economic challenges.

A dichotomy emerges between community participation and network formation. Representation and participation indicators often show high achievement - Uganda reports 87% household participation in community decision-making, and multiple countries demonstrate strong formal participation structures. However, social network indicators show weaker performance - Uganda reports only 17% achievement on social networks, suggesting that whilst formal participation mechanisms exist, deeper horizontal networks for mutual support and collective action may be less developed.

Disaster risk reduction shows variable performance across contexts, likely reflecting both exposure to hazards and investment in early warning systems. South Sudan achieved 64.3% household access to disaster risk information despite severe challenges in other dimensions, suggesting that risk communication systems can function even in fragile contexts when prioritised.

3.3 Cross-cutting insights and programming implications

Fragile contexts can generate significant improvements. South Sudan's 3.6-fold increase in self-sufficiency rates (1.5% to 5.4%), adding 90,294 people to the self-sufficient population, demonstrates that appropriately designed programming can generate transformational impact even in acute fragility contexts. The improvement occurred despite recurring conflict, displacement, and climate shocks, suggesting that context does not predetermine outcomes. Rather, programming that effectively adapts to fragile context realities, emphasising rapid-response capacity, conflict-sensitive approaches, and building on existing coping mechanisms, can generate measurable resilience gains. This finding challenges assumptions that transformational change requires stable contexts, instead suggesting that the quality and appropriateness of programming matters more than baseline conditions.

Modest percentage gains at high baselines represent meaningful progress. Uganda's 1.4 percentage point improvement and Rwanda's 0.9 percentage point gain, whilst numerically small, represent meaningful consolidation of household resilience at already moderate baseline levels. Uganda's absolute self-sufficient population of 407,257 demonstrates that sustained programming in stable contexts generates cumulative impacts over time. The pattern suggests that countries approaching ceiling effects require different programming strategies, shifting from broad-based interventions to more targeted support for remaining vulnerable households, potentially requiring more intensive or specialised approaches.



Stagnation signals need for programme recalibration.

Mozambique's marginal 0.5 percentage point improvement indicates near-stagnation despite sustained programming. Considering the active conflict area where most of Mozambique's programming occurs, this pattern suggests that current intervention approaches are sustaining positive gains but limited in terms of addressing the structural barriers constraining household resilience in this context. Stagnation in chronic vulnerability contexts may reflect inappropriate intervention timing, insufficient intensity, inadequate integration across dimensions, or increase in external negative factors – e.g. for example, conflict and displacement. The experience underscores the importance of regular programme review and willingness to fundamentally adjust strategies when progress plateaus.

Data quality is a programming foundation. The measurement recalibration in Angola (11.7pp decline) and South Africa (7.7pp decline) demonstrates that inadequate data quality undermines not only impact reporting but programming effectiveness itself. Inaccurate baseline measurements lead to inappropriate intervention designs and unrealistic targets. The experience reinforces that investing in robust data quality systems from programme inception proves essential for evidence-based programming. Quality protocols must encompass comprehensive enumerator training, rigorous supervision, real-time quality checks, and systematic validation processes. The 2025 improvements in both countries' data collection provide more accurate baselines for future programming, though at the cost of reported progress.

Integration generates synergies. Countries demonstrating strongest improvements implement programming that integrates across multiple dimensions rather than delivering siloed interventions. The analysis suggests that synergies across the five capital dimensions prove critical for transformational impact. Agricultural support combines with water access improvements, health service strengthening accompanies nutrition education, and financial inclusion links to market access development. This integration suggests that programming frameworks should deliberately design for cross-dimensional linkages rather than treating them as optional add-ons. These patterns suggest that programming should sequence interventions strategically: initial focus on more responsive dimensions (natural capital, WASH-Health) to generate momentum, whilst recognising that financial capital and education-productivity improvements demand longer-term sustained engagement. The most effective programming operates at the intersection of multiple dimensions, recognising that household resilience emerges from the interaction of capabilities rather than the sum of individual assets.

4 CROSS-CUTTING ANALYSIS

This chapter looks at common patterns, themes, and insights across ForAfrika's programming contexts, examining what binds these diverse experiences together and what differentiates them. These observations inform strategic programming decisions, resource allocation priorities, and methodological refinements that can strengthen ForAfrika's impact measurement and programme delivery across operational contexts.



4.1 Factors influencing self-sufficiency trajectories

The comparison between 2024 and 2025 data reveals three distinct trajectory patterns: improvement (South Sudan, Uganda), stability (Rwanda, Mozambique), and decline (Angola, South Africa). Understanding what differentiates these trajectories is essential for replicating success, addressing underperformance, and setting realistic expectations for programming outcomes across diverse contexts.

Baseline vulnerability levels

A country's starting position significantly affects both the difficulty of achieving progress and the interpretation of results. Countries beginning from very low baselines face greater absolute challenges but may show larger relative gains, whilst those starting from higher baselines face the challenge of sustaining and extending initial achievements.

Ethiopia illustrates the challenge of improvement from very low baselines. The 2025 baseline SLI (0.40) with 2.8% of households self-sufficient represents systematic deprivation across multiple dimensions. Immunisation at 17.9%, education access at 2.5%, income generation at 4.5% - the starting position requires foundational investments before higher-level outcomes become achievable. Similarly, Mozambique's 2025 results show modest progress, suggesting that moving from low baselines requires sustained multi-year investment before substantial improvements materialise.

Rwanda demonstrates the dynamics of maintaining gains from a higher baseline. With 41.8% self-sufficiency

in 2025 (amongst the highest), the challenge shifts from achieving initial progress to sustaining outcomes and addressing remaining gaps. The country shows stability rather than dramatic improvement, which may reflect both successful maintenance of gains and the difficulty of moving households from moderate to high self-sufficiency once foundational needs are addressed.

Threshold effects in programming impact: The evidence suggests non-linear relationships between programming inputs and self-sufficiency outcomes. Moving households from 0-3 indicators to 4-7 indicators achieved may require different interventions than moving from 8-10 to 11+ (self-sufficient threshold). Early gains may come from addressing acute deprivations (access to water, sanitation, school feeding), whilst later gains require addressing chronic challenges (income generation, technical education, financial resilience). This has implications for targeting, sequencing, and resource allocation across contexts at different stages of development.

Data quality and measurement factors

Apparent changes in self-sufficiency rates between 2024 and 2025 must be interpreted cautiously given data quality variations. The validation processes conducted in late 2025 identified several measurement challenges that affect the interpretation of trajectories.

Angola's validation report notes substantial methodological concerns. The decline in self-sufficient households appears sharp, but validation discussions raised questions about indicator thresholds, data collection quality, and comparability between rounds.

Specific indicators showed implausible values or inconsistencies with secondary data sources, suggesting measurement error may explain part of the observed decline rather than actual deterioration in household conditions.

South Africa's validation similarly identified data quality issues affecting interpretation. The country demonstrated relatively high performance on infrastructure-dependent indicators but showed surprising weakness in others. The validation team noted that some indicator definitions may not fully capture the urban context challenges, leading to under-reporting of actual household capabilities. The decline may partially reflect tightening of data quality controls rather than actual outcome deterioration.

Uganda's validation provides an example of productive triangulation. The team systematically compared survey results against national data sources, identifying areas of strong alignment (land access 69% vs 75-80% national, financial inclusion 81-87% vs national mobile money data) and areas requiring investigation (school feeding 41% felt high for most areas except Karamoja, vaccination 36-41% vs 50-70% national average). This careful validation strengthens confidence in the overall trajectory whilst highlighting specific indicators requiring refinement.

4.2 Programming-performance linkages

Understanding which programmatic approaches correlate with better outcomes is essential for evidence-based programming decisions. Whilst establishing

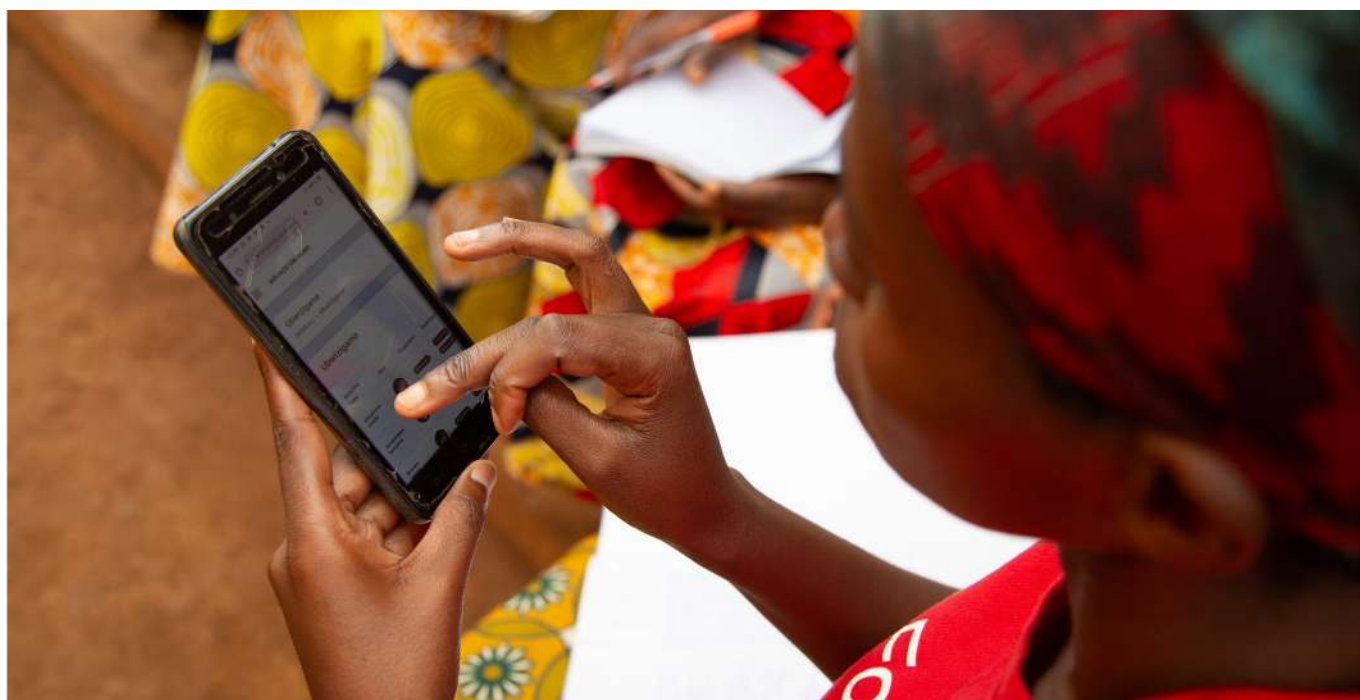
causality is methodologically challenging given the non-experimental nature of the data, examining patterns between programming intensity, sectoral focus, integration approaches, and measured outcomes offers valuable insights for strategic planning.

Most effective programmatic areas

School feeding programmes emerge as consistently effective across contexts. Multiple validation reports identify school feeding as a high-performing intervention. School feeding addresses multiple objectives simultaneously - nutrition, education attendance, household food security relief - making it a particularly efficient intervention.

Financial inclusion through mobile money shows strong performance in contexts with enabling infrastructure. Countries achieving more than 80% financial inclusion are driven largely by mobile money penetration, demonstrating how technology can accelerate access when infrastructure and regulatory frameworks support it. However, this access does not automatically translate into income generation, suggesting financial inclusion is necessary but insufficient for economic empowerment.

Disaster risk reduction systems show surprisingly strong performance even in challenging contexts. South Sudan achieved 64.3% household access to disaster risk information despite severe deficits in other dimensions. This suggests that risk communication and early warning systems can be established relatively cost-effectively and function even when other service delivery systems are weak.



WASH infrastructure investments show mixed returns. Countries with stronger WASH performance (South Africa 0.73, Rwanda 0.58, Uganda 0.47) also demonstrate better health outcomes, supporting the documented pathways between water, sanitation, and health. However, infrastructure alone is insufficient - behaviour change, maintenance systems, and integrated health service delivery are required to realise WASH's full impact.

Persistently challenging areas: Technical education, income generation, and asset resilience show weak performance across all contexts regardless of programming investment. This suggests these outcomes require either much longer timeframes, substantially different programming approaches, or enabling conditions beyond programmatic control. The universal difficulty in moving these indicators warrants strategic reflection on intervention models and realistic outcome expectations.

Sequencing considerations

The evidence suggests that certain interventions should precede others to maximise effectiveness, particularly in contexts starting from very low baselines.

Foundation-building phase: In fragile and severely deprived contexts (South Sudan, Ethiopia), early programming should address acute deprivations that enable participation in other interventions. This includes basic WASH (water access, sanitation), emergency health services (nutrition treatment, disease prevention), and immediate food security (school feeding, emergency assistance). Without these foundations, households cannot effectively engage in skills development or economic activities.

Capability-building phase: Once foundational needs are partially addressed, programming can emphasise education access, health service utilisation, and basic financial inclusion. Uganda's progression demonstrates this phasing - with basic WASH and health partially established, programming could effectively focus on financial inclusion expansion and livelihood diversification.

Economic empowerment phase: Only when households have basic stability can programming effectively tackle income generation, technical skills development, and asset accumulation. Rwanda's experience suggests this phase requires sustained investment over multiple years with strong linkages to market systems, private sector engagement, and enabling policy environments.

However, this sequencing should not be rigidly linear. Some economic interventions (savings groups, basic income-generating activities) can begin early to provide

households with resources to invest in other domains. The key insight is that expecting substantial progress in higher-level outcomes (income generation, technical education) without first addressing foundational deficits (WASH, basic health, food security) is likely to produce disappointing results.

4.3 Unexpected findings and areas for investigation

The synthesis reveals several patterns that challenge assumptions, defy expectations, or raise questions requiring further investigation. These unexpected findings are valuable because they highlight gaps in understanding, suggest new hypotheses, and identify areas where programming adjustments might improve effectiveness.

Counterintuitive patterns

Financial inclusion without economic empowerment:

Multiple countries achieve high financial inclusion (Uganda 81-87%, Rwanda 77%) but remain stuck at very low saving capacity (3-8% across contexts). This pattern suggests that access to financial services alone does not translate into economic advancement, raising questions about whether the services available (primarily savings groups and basic mobile money) match household economic development needs, or whether other barriers (market access, skills, capital) prevent utilisation.

Natural capital not guaranteeing livelihoods: South Sudan demonstrates moderate Natural Capital (0.43) with many households having land access, yet this produces low self-sufficiency (5.4%). The gap between land access and livelihood outcomes is more extreme than expected, suggesting that in contexts of extreme deprivation, land without complementary inputs (seeds, tools, knowledge, markets) provides negligible livelihood benefit.

Countries defying expectations

South Sudan improvement in crisis: The country achieved 267% increase in self-sufficient households (6 to 22) despite operating in active conflict with minimal service infrastructure. This defies the expectation that crisis contexts preclude development outcomes. Investigation is needed into what enabled this improvement - was it concentrated in specific geographic areas with temporary stability, did emergency programming create conditions for basic capability-building, or does the very low baseline mean small absolute improvements produce large relative gains?

Ethiopia baseline severity: Ethiopia's 2025 baseline reveals severe deprivation across multiple dimensions - water 31.5%, sanitation 24.2%, education 2.5%, immunisation 17.9%, income 4.5%. These indicators suggest ForAfrika's operational areas in Ethiopia represent particularly marginalised populations, with deprivation levels requiring investigation into whether contextual factors (drought, displacement) create unique challenges, or whether measurement captured an atypically difficult period.

5 IMPACT ACCELERATION

Impact acceleration represents a strategic approach to resource allocation that prioritises support for households positioned close to the self-sufficiency threshold. These households have already demonstrated substantial progress in building livelihood assets across multiple dimensions but require targeted interventions in a limited number of areas to achieve self-sufficiency. This approach recognises that households scoring positively on 8, 9, or 10 indicators when the self-sufficiency threshold stands at 11 indicators require less intensive support compared to households at earlier stages of development, potentially allowing for more efficient use of programme resources whilst generating measurable increases in self-sufficiency rates.

The strategic value of this approach rests on three fundamental principles. First, these households have already invested considerable effort in building their livelihood foundations and demonstrated the capacity to achieve positive outcomes across multiple domains. Second, the interventions required are more focused and specific, targeting the particular barriers preventing each household from crossing the threshold rather than addressing systemic deprivation across all dimensions. Third, the potential for relatively rapid progression to self-sufficiency means that programme resources invested in this group can generate tangible increases in self-sufficiency rates within shorter timeframes, contributing to ForAfrika's organisational targets whilst freeing resources for households at earlier stages of development.

This chapter examines the distribution of households within the impact acceleration zone across ForAfrika's seven operational countries, extrapolates these findings to estimate the population-level implications, and analyses the specific indicator patterns that

characterise these households. The analysis provides evidence for strategic programme planning and resource allocation decisions whilst identifying the precise intervention areas that would support households in crossing the self-sufficiency threshold.

5.1 Methodology

The impact acceleration analysis employs a three-part methodological approach. First, we identified all households scoring positively on exactly 8, 9, or 10 indicators from the 22 indicators comprising the Sustainable Livelihoods Index.

Second, we extrapolated household-level findings to population estimates using country-specific data on the total populations served by ForAfrika programmes in 2025. This extrapolation applies the proportion of households in the impact acceleration zone observed in each country's sample to the total population served, providing estimates of the number of people living in households that could potentially benefit from targeted acceleration support. Whilst these estimates carry the standard assumptions of representativeness inherent in sample-based surveys, they provide strategic planning figures for understanding the scale of the opportunity.

Third, we conducted a detailed analysis of indicator performance patterns within the impact acceleration group. For each of the 22 indicators, we calculated the percentage of impact acceleration households scoring positively, identifying both the areas where these households demonstrate strength and the specific gaps preventing them from crossing the self-sufficiency threshold. This indicator profiling reveals the intervention priorities that would most effectively support households in reaching self-sufficiency and highlights important variations in barrier patterns across different country contexts.

5.2 Impact acceleration potential by country

The distribution of households within the impact acceleration zone varies substantially across ForAfrika's operational contexts, reflecting differences in baseline development levels, programme maturity, and contextual factors. Table 6 presents the comprehensive analysis of impact acceleration potential across all seven countries, showing both household-level findings and population extrapolations.

Table 6 Impact acceleration potential - Household and population estimates

Country	Sample Size	IA Households	IA Rate (%)	Population 2025	IA Population	Self-Suff. Rate (%)
Angola	418	91	22.0	1,796,854	395,480	4.5
Ethiopia	397	128	32.5	97,587	31,710	2.8
Mozambique	407	191	47.2	549,620	259,280	12.5
Rwanda	426	156	36.9	133,603	49,239	41.8
South Africa	402	155	38.8	2,733,122	1,060,615	38.8
South Sudan	407	78	19.4	1,874,708	363,887	5.4
Uganda	401	176	44.1	782,084	345,209	35.4
TOTAL	2,858	975	34.1	7,967,578	2,505,419	20.5

Note: IA = Impact Acceleration (households with 8-10 positive indicators). Self-Suff. = Self-Sufficient (households with 11+ indicators).

The aggregate findings reveal that across all operational contexts, approximately 34.1% of surveyed households fall within the impact acceleration zone, representing an estimated 2.48 million people. This substantial concentration suggests that ForAfrika's programmes operate in a setting where a considerable proportion of households are within reach of self-sufficiency. The potential impact of supporting this group is significant: if all households in the impact acceleration zone crossed the threshold, the overall self-sufficiency rate would increase from 22% to 52%, representing a 30-percentage point improvement.

5.3 Strategic implications of the distribution

The country-specific patterns reveal important considerations for programme strategy. Contexts with high acceleration zone concentrations (Mozambique, Uganda, South Africa) present opportunities for substantial improvements in self-sufficiency rates through focused targeting, whilst contexts with lower concentrations (South Sudan, Angola) may require more balanced investment across the full spectrum of household development stages. The distribution also suggests varying levels of programme maturity, with countries showing higher proportions of self-sufficient households (Rwanda, South Africa, Uganda) potentially offering learning for contexts where fewer households have crossed the threshold despite reasonable acceleration zone populations.

5.4 Indicator performance profile

Understanding which specific indicators households in the impact acceleration zone are succeeding or struggling with provides crucial intelligence for intervention design. Rather than offering generic support packages, programmes can target the precise barriers preventing households from crossing the self-sufficiency threshold. This section analyses indicator performance patterns across all 22 indicators of the Sustainable Livelihoods Index, identifying consistent gaps that represent priority intervention areas.

Table 7 presents comprehensive indicator performance data for the impact acceleration group across all seven countries. The indicators are organised into three performance categories: critical gaps (indicators where fewer than 30% of acceleration zone households score positively), moderate performance (30-70% positive), and strengths (above 70% positive). This categorisation reveals both the areas where these households have established foundations and the specific barriers requiring attention.

Table 7 Indicator performance in impact acceleration Group

Percentage of impact acceleration households scoring positive on each indicator

Indicator	ANG	ETH	MOZ	RWA	RSA	SSD	UGA	Mean
Critical Gaps (<30% positive)								
Asset Resilience	1.1%	1.6%	2.1%	2.5%	0.6%	2.5%	9.6%	3.2%
Social Networks	0.0%	24.8%	6.3%	0.0%	0.0%	11.4%	13.6%	7.8%
Savings Capacity	9.8%	8.5%	3.1%	21.0%	1.9%	0.0%	13.6%	8.8%
Immunization	7.6%	19.4%	7.8%	17.2%	16.0%	24.1%	20.3%	15.7%
Technical Education	37.0%	33.3%	5.2%	6.4%	9.0%	16.5%	27.7%	17.6%
Productive Tools	18.5%	34.9%	4.2%	2.5%	10.9%	25.3%	39.0%	18.3%
Enabling Technology	51.1%	3.9%	15.6%	24.2%	40.4%	15.2%	4.5%	20.7%
Access Education	26.1%	4.7%	11.5%	38.2%	36.5%	3.8%	20.9%	21.3%
Food Security	33.7%	10.9%	16.1%	26.8%	52.6%	3.8%	4.0%	21.4%
Basic Education	35.9%	30.2%	40.1%	20.4%	37.2%	16.5%	16.4%	28.6%
Moderate Performance (30-70% positive)								
Access to Health	29.3%	20.2%	35.4%	28.7%	71.8%	12.7%	25.4%	33.9%
Energy Security	52.2%	18.6%	31.3%	29.3%	73.7%	67.1%	11.3%	37.3%
School Feeding	17.4%	55.0%	10.9%	60.5%	52.6%	58.2%	35.6%	40.1%
Disaster Risk Mechanism	39.1%	59.7%	78.6%	38.2%	22.4%	83.5%	60.5%	54.2%
Land Access	37.0%	88.4%	88.0%	64.3%	0.0%	67.1%	66.7%	60.0%
Financial Inclusion	54.3%	48.1%	52.6%	73.2%	68.6%	24.1%	76.8%	60.1%
Sanitation Availability	81.5%	38.8%	72.4%	91.7%	87.2%	30.4%	36.2%	64.4%
Sustainable Resources	44.6%	87.6%	94.8%	68.2%	1.3%	73.4%	79.7%	65.6%
Access Markets	83.7%	35.7%	76.0%	44.6%	94.2%	89.9%	63.3%	68.1%
Strengths (>70% positive)								
Representation/Participation	35.9%	96.1%	72.4%	89.8%	40.4%	67.1%	89.8%	72.5%
Water Availability	87.0%	44.2%	66.1%	75.8%	83.3%	73.4%	88.7%	74.1%
Perceived Health	100.0%	100.0%	99.0%	84.7%	98.1%	100.0%	98.9%	96.8%

Note: ANG=Angola, ETH=Ethiopia, MOZ=Mozambique, RWA=Rwanda, RSA=South Africa, SSD=South Sudan, UGA=Uganda.
Indicators grouped by performance level: red=critical gaps (<30%), orange=moderate (30-70%), green=strengths (>70%).

5.4.1 Critical gaps: Priority intervention areas

Nine indicators emerge as critical gaps where fewer than 30% of impact acceleration households score positively on average. These gaps represent the primary barriers preventing households from crossing the self-sufficiency threshold and therefore constitute priority targets for intervention.

Asset resilience stands out as the most severe constraint, with an average of only 3.2% of acceleration zone households meeting the threshold across countries. Performance remains consistently low across all contexts, ranging from 1.1% in Angola to 9.6% in Uganda. This indicator measures both the value of productive assets and households' strategies for protecting these assets during shocks. The uniformly low performance suggests systematic vulnerability to asset depletion, indicating that even households approaching self-sufficiency lack adequate buffers against economic shocks and have not developed effective protection mechanisms for the assets they have accumulated.

Social networks show similarly low engagement at 8.0% average performance, though with more variation across countries. Three countries (Angola, Rwanda, South Africa) show 0% performance amongst acceleration zone households, whilst Ethiopia reaches 24.8%. This pattern suggests that building livelihood assets in natural, physical, human, and financial capitals can occur without corresponding development of social capital through network participation. The implication is that households approaching self-sufficiency may lack the community-level support structures that could help them maintain that status once achieved.

Saving capacity demonstrates critical weakness at 8.8% average performance. This indicator measures liquid savings relative to monthly expenditure, with the threshold set at three months' coverage. The extremely low performance indicates that even households approaching self-sufficiency across multiple dimensions lack financial reserves to weather income disruptions. South Sudan shows 0% performance whilst Rwanda reaches 21%, suggesting some contextual variation but consistently inadequate savings buffers.

Technical education (17.6% average) represents an education-productivity nexus constraint that limits households' productive capacity and economic opportunities. Performance varies substantially across contexts, from 5.2% in Mozambique and 6.4% in Rwanda to 37.4% in Angola and 33.3% in Ethiopia. This variation may reflect both differences in programme emphasis on

skills development and varying labour market contexts that influence the return to technical training.

Food security (21.4% average), **enabling technology** (20.7%), and **productive tools** (18.3%) all show similarly low performance in the low 20% range. These indicators capture fundamental productive capacity constraints. Food security gaps persist even amongst households that have achieved positive outcomes in many other areas, suggesting that nutrition security remains vulnerable to disruption. The enabling technology and productive tools gaps indicate that households lack adequate access to productivity-enhancing equipment and digital connectivity that could strengthen their economic activities. Country variation is substantial across all three indicators, with South Africa showing notably better food security performance (52.6%) but struggling more with productive tools and enabling technology than some lower-income contexts.

Access to education (21.3%) and **immunisation** (15.7%) complete the list of critical gaps. Both indicators reveal important service access constraints that persist even amongst households that have progressed substantially in other dimensions. Notably, Ethiopia, Mozambique, and South Sudan all show education access below 12%, whilst South Africa and Rwanda perform considerably better (36% and 38% respectively). Immunisation gaps are particularly pronounced in Angola (7.6%) and Mozambique (7.8%), suggesting programmatic opportunities for strengthening linkages with health systems.

5.4.2 Moderate performance and established strengths

Ten indicators show moderate performance (30-70% positive), representing areas where many but not all acceleration zone households have achieved threshold standards. These include access to health services (33.9%), energy security (37.3%), school feeding (40%), disaster risk reduction (54%), financial inclusion (60%), land access (60%), and sanitation availability (64.4%), access to markets (68.1%). The variation across these indicators suggests they represent mixed barriers and strengths depending on country context.

Three indicators emerge as consistent strengths where most acceleration zone households score positively: representation and participation (72.5%), water availability (74.1%), and perceived health (96.8%). These high performances indicate that households approaching self-sufficiency have generally secured access to water resources, maintain healthy household members, and practice sustainable resource

management. The near-universal performance on sustainability of resources suggests that ForAfrika's programming emphasis on environmental stewardship has achieved broad uptake.

6 CONCLUSIONS

The 2025 impact monitoring exercise reveals a complex and heterogeneous landscape of household self-sufficiency across ForAfrika's seven operational contexts. Covering 2,858 households representing diverse vulnerability profiles, from stable development environments to acute humanitarian crises, the findings demonstrate both the scale of the challenge and the measurable progress achieved through strategic programming.

Substantial variation in self-sufficiency outcomes reflects contextual realities

Mean household resilience ranges dramatically from 0.33 in Angola to 0.51 in Uganda, representing a 55% difference in livelihood capacity across operational contexts. Self-sufficiency rates, measuring households achieving minimum thresholds across at least half of 22 indicators, vary even more starkly, from 2.8% in Ethiopia (establishing baseline) to 41.8% in Rwanda. This variation reflects not programming quality but the fundamental differences in baseline vulnerability, infrastructure availability, economic opportunities, and contextual stability across ForAfrika's portfolio. South Sudan, Angola, and Ethiopia face structural constraints that programming alone cannot overcome in the short term, whilst Rwanda, Uganda, and Mozambique demonstrate that sustained integrated programming in relatively more stable contexts can elevate substantial proportions of households towards self-sufficiency.

Progress demonstrated despite challenging contexts

Four countries showed improvements in self-sufficiency rates between 2024 and 2025, despite operating in difficult environments. South Sudan achieved the most improvement, increasing from 1.5% to 5.4% self-sufficiency (+3.9 percentage points), representing 90,294 additional people in self-sufficient households. Uganda (+1.4pp), Rwanda (+0.9pp), and Mozambique (+0.5pp) maintained or extended their gains, demonstrating that programming effects can compound over time when sustained. However, two countries experienced apparent declines, South Africa (-7.7pp) and Angola (-11.7pp), which validation exercises suggest may reflect methodological recalibration, sampling variations, or genuine contextual

deterioration requiring investigation. These divergent trajectories underscore that progress is neither linear nor guaranteed, and that maintaining gains requires ongoing programming attention even in relatively stable contexts.

Dimensional analysis reveals differential responsiveness to programming

The five capital dimensions demonstrate markedly different patterns of achievement and responsiveness. Natural Capital (0.04 to 0.71) shows the widest variation, driven primarily by rural versus urban programming contexts rather than intervention quality. WASH-Health Nexus (0.35 to 0.73) performs moderately but reveals that infrastructure gaps in fragile contexts create persistent bottlenecks that programming can only partially address. Education-Productivity Nexus (0.25 to 0.47) proves highly sensitive to national infrastructure and economic opportunities largely beyond programme control. Financial Capital (0.24 to 0.50) emerges as universally constrained and slow to change, with even the highest-performing countries achieving only moderate scores. Social Capital (0.34 to 0.52) demonstrates relative consistency, suggesting community networks remain robust even under stress. This pattern indicates that programming should sequence interventions strategically: establishing foundations in more responsive dimensions (Natural Capital, WASH-Health) whilst recognising that Financial Capital improvements demand sustained multi-year engagement.

Integration generates synergies but requires sufficient programme penetration

The analysis consistently demonstrates that countries implementing integrated, multi-sectoral programming achieve stronger outcomes than those delivering siloed interventions. However, the programme reach analysis reveals a critical gap: only 403,750 people (5% of the target population and 15% of direct beneficiaries) currently receive layered programming across multiple dimensions. This limited penetration of integrated programming constrains the organisation's ability to accelerate progress towards the 1,000,000 self-sufficient households goal by 2027. The evidence suggests two complementary pathways: deepening programme integration in existing communities (increasing the proportion of households receiving layered interventions) and expanding geographic coverage to reach new populations. Both strategies require strategic resource allocation decisions informed by cost-effectiveness analysis and programme maturity assessment.

The impact acceleration zone represents significant opportunity

Analysis of households scoring positively in 8, 9 or 10 indicator of the Sustainable Livelihoods Index, the impact acceleration zone, reveals substantial populations positioned just below the self-sufficiency threshold who could achieve resilience with targeted support. Across all seven countries, these near-threshold households represent between 19.4% (South Sudan) and 47.2% (Mozambique) of surveyed populations, translating to approximately 2.5 million people. Indicator-level profiling identifies specific gaps preventing these households from crossing the threshold, suggesting that precisely targeted interventions addressing bottleneck indicators could yield disproportionate impact. For instance, Mozambique's acceleration zone households show particular weaknesses in technical education (5.3%), productive tools (4.3%), and access to basic education (11%), whilst Uganda's acceleration zone struggles with enabling technology (4.5%) and food security (4%). This granular understanding enables evidence-based resource allocation focusing on the specific constraints that prevent near-threshold households from achieving self-sufficiency.

Contextual constraints require adapted programming models

The cross-cutting analysis reveals that contextual factors, conflict, climate impacts, governance capacity, economic structure, significantly shape outcomes independently of programming quality. The evidence suggests these contexts require adapted models: humanitarian-development linkages in South Sudan, economic development partnerships in Angola, and foundational systems strengthening in Mozambique. Conversely, Rwanda, Uganda, and Ethiopia demonstrate that in relatively stable contexts with functioning public systems, ForAfrika's integrated programming model can achieve transformational outcomes. This pattern argues

for differentiated programming strategies calibrated to contextual realities rather than uniform approaches applied across diverse environments.

Financial capital remains the most persistent challenge across all contexts

Perhaps the most sobering finding is the universally weak performance in Financial Capital, where even the highest-achieving countries reach only 0.50. Financial inclusion, whilst improving through mobile money penetration in Uganda (81-87%) and Rwanda (77%), does not automatically translate into income generation or asset accumulation. Income generation shows critically low achievement across contexts: South Africa reports only 3.7% of households with saving capacity, Uganda faces similar challenges, and validation reports confirm that structural barriers to market participation constrain economic advancement. This suggests that financial services access represents a necessary but insufficient condition for economic empowerment. Households require simultaneous investments in productive skills, market linkages, business development support, and asset-building opportunities to convert financial inclusion into genuine economic security. The slow responsiveness of this dimension indicates that achieving meaningful progress requires sustained multi-year programming that addresses not just household-level constraints but also market system failures and policy barriers.

Collectively, these findings demonstrate that ForAfrika's programming achieves measurable impact across diverse contexts, but that accelerating progress towards organisational goals requires strategic choices about programme depth versus breadth, integration intensity, sectoral prioritisation, and contextual adaptation. The recommendations that follow address these strategic imperatives whilst maintaining focus on evidence-based decision-making and realistic assessment of what programming can achieve within contextual constraints.



Part II Evidence Use



7 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations emerge directly from the 2025 impact monitoring findings and address three levels of strategic action: organisational priorities applicable across the portfolio, country-specific interventions responding to contextual realities, and sector-specific technical improvements enhancing programme quality. These recommendations are concrete, actionable, and grounded in evidence whilst acknowledging resource constraints and operational realities.

7.1 Organisational strategic recommendations

Accelerate on-track programming expansion through strategic layering intensification

With only 403,750 people (5% of target population) currently receiving integrated on-track programming, ForAfrika must strategically expand programme layering to reach the 1,000,000 self-sufficient households goal by 2027. Prioritise deepening programme penetration in existing high-performing contexts (Rwanda, Uganda, Mozambique, South Sudan) where infrastructure enables effective layering, whilst establishing foundational programming in emerging contexts (Ethiopia, Angola). Develop a phased layering roadmap that sequences interventions based

on dimensional responsiveness patterns: establish Natural Capital and WASH-Health foundations first (12-18 months), layer Education-Productivity interventions second (months 18-30), and introduce Financial Capital programming third (months 24-48). Create operational targets for on-track population expansion: aim for 800,000 people in layered programming by end-2026, with specific country-level quotas based on programme maturity and contextual readiness.

Implement targeted impact acceleration programming for near-threshold households

The 2.5 million people in the impact acceleration zone represent the most cost-effective pathway to increasing self-sufficiency rates. Develop specialised acceleration packages that address country-specific bottleneck indicators identified in the analysis. Mozambique, Uganda, South Africa and Rwanda present the best opportunities for acceleration. Implement a triage system identifying acceleration zone households through rapid assessment, delivering time-bound intensive support (6-12 months), and measuring graduation to self-sufficiency. Allocate

resources explicitly for acceleration programming as a complement to, not replacement for, foundational programming serving more vulnerable households. Establish acceleration targets: convert 30% of current acceleration zone households to self-sufficiency within 18 months.

Differentiate programming models based on contextual typologies

The substantial variation in outcomes across contexts demands abandoning one-size-fits-all approaches in favour of differentiated programming models. Develop and operationalise three distinct programme models: (i) Development Model for stable contexts (Rwanda, Uganda, South Africa) emphasising economic empowerment, skills development, and market systems strengthening; (ii) Humanitarian-Development Nexus Model for protracted crises (South Sudan, Mozambique) balancing immediate needs with resilience-building; (iii) Recovery-to-Development Model for emerging contexts (Ethiopia, Angola) sequencing humanitarian response through early recovery to transformational development. Each model should have distinct



result frameworks, resource allocation patterns, staffing profiles, and partnership strategies. Conduct contextual typology assessments annually to determine appropriate model application and trigger model transitions when contexts shift. This differentiation ensures programming remains contextually appropriate whilst maintaining organisational coherence around self-sufficiency objectives.

7.2 Country-specific recommendations

7.2.1 Angola

Investigate and address factors behind self-sufficiency decline

The substantial decline from 16.3% to 4.5% self-sufficiency (-11.7pp) represents either genuine deterioration or methodological issues requiring urgent investigation. Conduct comprehensive validation comparing 2024 and 2025 cohort characteristics, verify data collection protocols, analyse economic and climatic shocks affecting communities, and assess programme delivery consistency. If genuine decline is confirmed, implement emergency response programming addressing identified shock impacts whilst strengthening household coping mechanisms. If methodological issues are identified, recalibrate baseline measurement and adjust future monitoring protocols accordingly. This investigation should be completed within three months with findings informing immediate programming adjustments.

Intensify financial capital and economic empowerment programming

Angola shows the second-lowest Financial Capital score (0.29) with particularly weak savings capacity (estimated <5%) despite moderate Natural Capital (0.38). Establish market linkages connecting agricultural producers to urban markets, develop savings group programming with explicit linkages to income-generating activities, provide business skills training targeting youth and women entrepreneurs, and support productive asset acquisition through grant-loan combinations. Partner with private sector actors to create employment pathways and apprenticeship opportunities. Focus on value chain development in sectors where Angola demonstrates comparative advantage, ensuring interventions address both household capacity and market system constraints simultaneously.

7.2.2 Ethiopia

Establish comprehensive foundational programming simultaneously addressing multiple bottlenecks

With 2.8% self-sufficiency and severe constraints across Education-Productivity Nexus (0.25), Financial Capital (0.25), and WASH-Health Nexus (0.36), Ethiopia requires intensive foundational interventions before acceleration programming becomes viable. Implement integrated community development packages combining WASH infrastructure (targeting sanitation and water access), school infrastructure development, agricultural extension and inputs provision, and basic financial literacy programming.

Prioritise enabling technology access and basic infrastructure

Ethiopia's acceleration zone households show critically low enabling technology access (3.9%) and education access (5.2%), indicating infrastructure deficits constraining progress. Partner with government and telecommunications providers to expand mobile network coverage in programme areas, support community-level technology access points (charging stations, information kiosks), provide basic digital literacy training, and advocate for infrastructure investments in underserved areas. Simultaneously address education infrastructure gaps through school rehabilitation, teacher training support, and community engagement strengthening school management. These infrastructure investments create enabling conditions for higher-level programming to succeed.

7.2.3 Mozambique

Leverage high impact acceleration potential through targeted technical skills development

With 47.2% of households in the impact acceleration zone, the highest proportion across all countries, Mozambique presents exceptional opportunity for rapid self-sufficiency expansion. Focus acceleration programming on the three critical bottlenecks identified: technical education (5.3%), productive tools (4.3%), and basic education (14%). Establish mobile technical and vocational training units delivering market-relevant skills (carpentry, tailoring, agricultural mechanisation, small engine repair), provide productive asset grants or subsidised credit for tool acquisition, and strengthen community-based basic education catch-up programmes for youth and adults.



Strengthen climate resilience programming to protect gains

Mozambique's vulnerability to cyclones, floods, and climate shocks threatens to erode programming gains, as evidenced by validation reports noting climate impacts on food security. Integrate disaster risk reduction across all programming: establish early warning systems linked to community preparedness plans, support climate-smart agriculture adoption, strengthen household and community-level asset protection mechanisms, and establish emergency response protocols that maintain programming continuity during shocks. Develop climate-indexed insurance mechanisms protecting vulnerable households from catastrophic losses. This resilience focus ensures that households achieving self-sufficiency can maintain their gains despite recurring climate stresses.

7.2.4 Rwanda

Consolidate and sustain high self-sufficiency achievement through economic graduation programming

With 41.8% self-sufficiency, the highest rate alongside South Africa, Rwanda demonstrates that sustained integrated programming achieves transformational outcomes. Transition from foundational programming to economic graduation approaches emphasising entrepreneurship development, market linkages,

and sustainable livelihoods. Establish business incubation support for household enterprises, develop formal apprenticeship pathways connecting youth to employment, strengthen savings group linkages to productive investment opportunities, and support graduation from programme dependency to self-sustaining economic participation. This graduation focus ensures households maintain self-sufficiency after programme exit whilst freeing resources for expansion into new communities.

Address productive tools and social network gaps in acceleration zone

Rwanda's acceleration zone households show particularly low productive tools access (2.7%) and social networks participation (0%), suggesting that strengthening these dimensions could rapidly expand self-sufficiency. Implement productive asset transfer programmes providing essential livelihood tools through conditional grants, establish or strengthen village savings and loan associations emphasising social capital building alongside financial services, support cooperative formation and strengthening for collective marketing and input procurement, and facilitate community group registration and capacity development. These interventions leverage Rwanda's strong governance environment whilst addressing specific gaps preventing near-threshold households from achieving full resilience.

7.2.5 South Africa

Investigate causes of self-sufficiency decline and adapt urban-peri-urban programming model

The decline from 46.5% to 38.8% self-sufficiency (-7.7pp) in South Africa's urban-peri-urban context requires systematic investigation of contributing factors: economic shocks, labour market deterioration, methodology shifts, or contextual changes. Conduct validation analysis comparing cohort characteristics, assess external economic factors (unemployment trends, inflation impacts), review programme delivery consistency, and verify indicator measurement protocols. If genuine decline is confirmed, adapt programming to urban realities: strengthen informal economy support, develop formal employment linkages, address land access constraints through alternative livelihood pathways, and enhance household economic resilience against urban-specific shocks.

Intensify income generation programming addressing structural labour market barriers

Despite highest Financial Capital score (0.50) and strong WASH-Health Nexus (0.73), South Africa shows critically low savings capacity (3.7%), indicating structural labour market exclusion. Develop partnerships with private sector employers creating employment pathways, establish skills training programmes aligned with formal sector demand, support micro-enterprise development

in informal economy, facilitate job placement and matching services, and advocate for policy reforms reducing barriers to economic participation. Recognise that in South Africa's context, sustainable livelihoods require formal employment access or viable informal sector enterprises rather than agricultural pathways dominant in rural contexts.

7.2.6 South Sudan

Continue humanitarian-development nexus approach whilst celebrating progress achieved

South Sudan's improvement from 1.5% to 5.4% self-sufficiency (+3.9pp) demonstrates that contextually appropriate programming achieves impact even in protracted crisis. Maintain the adapted programming model balancing immediate humanitarian needs with foundational resilience-building: continue integrated WASH-health-nutrition-education service delivery, strengthen community-based protection mechanisms, support livelihood diversification within security constraints, and establish shock-responsive programming protocols. Set realistic expectations acknowledging that comprehensive transformation requires contextual stabilisation beyond programme control, whilst recognising that preventing deterioration and achieving incremental gains represent meaningful success in this environment.



Prioritise food security stabilisation and basic service delivery in acceleration zone

With 19.4% of households in the acceleration zone but facing systematic food insecurity (3.8%) and education access constraints (3.9%), South Sudan requires foundational service strengthening before higher-level programming becomes viable. Scale up school feeding programmes addressing both nutrition and education access, strengthen agricultural production support including seeds, tools, and extension services adapted to conflict context, expand emergency food assistance during seasonal gaps, and maintain basic health and WASH service delivery. These foundational interventions create minimum conditions enabling households to progress towards self-sufficiency when contextual stability permits.

7.2.7 Uganda

Leverage highest overall performance through acceleration zone programming

Uganda's 35.4% self-sufficiency rate and 44.1% acceleration zone concentration position it as a high-performing context where targeted interventions could rapidly expand self-sufficiency. Focus acceleration programming on the two critical bottlenecks: enabling technology access (4.5%) and food security (4.1%). Expand mobile money ecosystem participation through digital literacy training and agent network strengthening, support smartphone or basic phone access for communication and market information, address food security through climate-smart agriculture intensification and nutrition-sensitive approaches, and strengthen household food production and preservation capacity.

Strengthen asset resilience to prevent deterioration during shocks

Despite high Financial Capital score (0.46), Uganda shows weak asset resilience with only 20% of households demonstrating shock-absorbing capacity. Establish or strengthen index-based insurance mechanisms protecting productive assets against climate shocks, support productive asset accumulation through conditional savings incentives, develop emergency savings promotion within existing village savings and loan associations, and strengthen market-based coping mechanisms reducing reliance on harmful strategies. This resilience focus ensures households can maintain self-sufficiency during inevitable shocks rather than falling back into vulnerability.

7.3 Sector-specific technical recommendations

7.3.1 Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene (WASH)

Integrate WASH programming with health service delivery and nutrition interventions

The cross-cutting analysis confirms documented synergies between WASH infrastructure, health service utilisation, and nutrition outcomes. Develop integrated programming packages combining water point rehabilitation or construction with hygiene behaviour change programming, sanitation facility construction with community health worker training, and water quality improvement with nutrition education. Establish referral pathways ensuring households receiving WASH interventions also access health services and nutrition support. This integration approach recognises that WASH infrastructure alone proves insufficient without complementary health systems strengthening and behaviour change programming.

Strengthen community-based WASH management and sustainability mechanisms

Multiple validation reports note WASH infrastructure functionality challenges threatening sustainability. Establish or strengthen water management committees with clear governance structures and financial management capacity, develop community contribution mechanisms ensuring funds available for operation and maintenance, provide technical training for community-based maintenance providers, establish supply chains for spare parts and consumables, and link communities to government WASH support systems. Shift from hardware provision to systems strengthening ensuring WASH infrastructure continues functioning after programme exit. This approach recognises that technical sustainability requires institutional and financial sustainability mechanisms.

7.3.2 Education

Address critical gap between basic education access and technical skills development

The consistent pattern across countries shows moderate basic education access but critically low technical education (ranging from 1.2% in South Sudan to 11.4% in Rwanda), representing a fundamental constraint on economic empowerment. Establish mobile or community-based technical and vocational training targeting market-relevant skills, develop apprenticeship programmes linking youth to skilled practitioners, support teacher training in practical skills domains, establish equipment and materials funds

ensuring training quality, and create linkages between skills training and employment or entrepreneurship opportunities. Recognise that basic literacy without practical skills leaves households unable to convert education into income generation.

Scale school feeding programming as high-impact cross-sectoral intervention

School feeding consistently emerges as a successful intervention across contexts (54.5% average achievement), combining nutrition, education, and food security objectives. Expand school feeding coverage prioritising communities with lowest education access and highest food insecurity, source food locally from smallholder farmers creating market linkages and supporting agricultural livelihoods, strengthen community and parent engagement in school feeding management, integrate nutrition education components ensuring children develop healthy eating behaviours, and establish sustainability mechanisms transitioning from external support to government or community ownership. School feeding represents an efficient platform delivering multiple benefits simultaneously whilst incentivising education participation.

7.3.3 Food Security and Livelihoods (FSL)

Intensify climate-smart agriculture programming Simultaneously addressing production and resilience

Food security shows weak to moderate performance across contexts (35% to 69% achievement) with validation reports confirming climate impacts threaten agricultural livelihoods. Scale climate-smart agriculture approaches combining improved varieties tolerant to climate stresses, water management and conservation practices, integrated pest and disease management, agroforestry and diversification strategies, and soil health improvement techniques. Establish farmer field schools demonstrating practices and facilitating peer learning, provide agricultural extension support adapted to local contexts, and ensure climate information services reach farming communities. This approach recognises that agricultural productivity improvements require simultaneous attention to climate adaptation.

Develop market linkages and value chain strengthening beyond production support

The persistent gap between agricultural production (Natural Capital relatively strong) and income generation (Financial Capital universally weak) indicates



market access constraints require explicit programming attention. Establish aggregation mechanisms connecting smallholder farmers to buyers, support farmer organisation and cooperative development strengthening collective bargaining, provide market information services enabling price transparency, develop storage and post-harvest handling infrastructure reducing losses and enabling seasonal arbitrage, and facilitate contract farming arrangements guaranteeing market outlets. Recognise that production increases prove meaningless without market access enabling farmers to convert production into income.

7.3.4 Health and Nutrition (H&N)

Strengthen community-based health service delivery addressing last-mile gaps

Immunisation shows consistently weak performance (7.7% to 46.3%) whilst health service access shows moderate achievement, indicating last-mile service delivery gaps prevent vulnerable populations from accessing available health infrastructure. Establish or strengthen community health worker systems delivering preventive services, support outreach immunisation campaigns targeting underserved populations, develop community-based disease surveillance and referral mechanisms, strengthen supply chain management ensuring vaccine and medicine availability, and address cultural and informational barriers to health service utilisation. These community-based approaches complement facility-based care, extending health system reach to populations that infrastructure alone cannot serve.

Integrate nutrition-sensitive approaches across all programming

The documented linkages between WASH, health, food security, and nutrition outcomes demand that nutrition considerations inform all programming. Promote dietary diversification through agricultural programming emphasising nutrient-dense crops, integrate nutrition education within health service delivery and mother-child health platforms, establish infant and young child feeding counselling services, support community gardens and kitchen gardens enhancing household food diversity, strengthen nutrition screening and referral within existing service delivery platforms, and mainstream nutrition-sensitive behaviour change communication across sectors. This mainstreaming

approach recognises that nutrition outcomes emerge from multiple determinants requiring coordinated action rather than standalone nutrition programming.

7.3.5 Economic Empowerment

Develop comprehensive business development support beyond financial services access

The documented gap between financial inclusion (high in Uganda 81-87%, Rwanda 77%) and income generation (universally low) demonstrates that financial service access alone proves insufficient for economic empowerment. Establish business development services combining financial literacy with business planning and management skills, provide mentorship and coaching support for micro-entrepreneurs, facilitate market information access and business networking, support productive asset acquisition through grant-loan combinations, and establish linkages between microenterprises and formal sector buyers or employers. This comprehensive approach recognises that economic empowerment requires simultaneous investments in capabilities, assets, and market access rather than financial services alone.

Target women and youth economic empowerment through gender- and age-responsive programming

Given documented gender and age disparities in economic participation, economic empowerment programming must explicitly address barriers facing women and youth. Establish women-specific savings groups and business networks providing peer support alongside financial services, develop skills training addressing gender norms limiting women's economic participation, support youth entrepreneurship and employment pathways recognising their distinct constraints and opportunities, advocate for policy reforms reducing gender-based barriers to market participation, and ensure women's voice in household economic decision-making.

These recommendations, grounded in the empirical evidence from the 2025 impact monitoring exercise, provide a strategic framework for accelerating progress towards ForAfrika's organisational goal of enabling 20 million Africans to become self-sustaining by 2036. Implementation requires strategic resource allocation, operational adaptation, partnership development, and sustained management attention.

Overall programme reach in 2025



Countries: **8**

People reached: **2.78M**

Activity Reach: **6.31M**

Target community population: **7.97M**

Interventions per person: **2.3**

Phased layering roadmap



Programme models



Development Model for stable contexts

Countries: Rwanda, Uganda, South Africa

Focus: Economic empowerment, skills development, markets systems strengthening



Humanitarian-Development Nexus Model

Countries: South Sudan, Mozambique

Focus: Resilience-building



Recovery-to-Development Model for emerging contexts

Countries: Ethiopia, Angola

Focus: Transition to stability

Country performance snapshot

Angola



- Self-sufficiency: **16.3%** → **4.5%**
- → **-11.7** percentage points
- Financial Capital: **0.29** (2nd lowest)
- Savings capacity: **<5%**
- Natural Capital: **0.38**

Ethiopia



- Self-sufficiency: **2.8%**
- Education-Productivity Nexus: **0.25**
- Financial Capital: **0.25**
- WASH-Health Nexus: **0.36**
- Technology access: **3.9%**
- Education access: **5.2%**

Mozambique



- Acceleration zone: **47.2%** (highest)
- Technical education: **5.3%**
- Productive tools: **4.3%**
- Basic education: **14%**

Rwanda



- Self-sufficiency: **41.8%** (top performer)
- Productive tools access: **2.7%**
- Social network participation: **0%**

South Africa



- Self-sufficiency: **46.5%** → **38.8%**
- → **-7.7** percentage points
- Financial Capital: **0.50** (highest)
- WASH-Health: **0.73**
- Savings capacity: **3.7%**

South Sudan



- Self-sufficiency: **1.5%** → **5.4%**
- → **+3.9** percentage points
- Acceleration zone: **19.4%**
- Food security: **3.8%**
- Education access: **3.9%**

Uganda



- Self-sufficiency: **35.4%**
- Acceleration zone: **44.1%**
- Technology access: **4.5%**
- Food security: **4.1%**
- Financial Capital: **0.46**
- Asset resilience: **20%**



Part III Statistics



8 METHODOLOGY

8.1 Study design

The 2025 impact monitoring exercise employed a cross-sectional household survey design, applying the same measurement framework established during the 2024 baseline assessment. This consistency in methodology enables valid year-on-year comparison whilst maintaining the rigour and reliability demonstrated in the baseline study. The study focuses on measuring household-level outcomes across the five capital dimensions of the Sustainable Livelihoods Index (SLI), providing a comprehensive assessment of progress towards self-sufficiency.

For the six countries included in the 2024 baseline (Angola, Mozambique, Rwanda, South Africa, South Sudan, and Uganda), the 2025 monitoring represents a follow-up measurement enabling assessment of change over time. For Ethiopia, which established operations during 2024, the 2025 measurement represents the baseline assessment, bringing the total number of countries under systematic impact measurement to seven. The Ethiopian baseline followed identical protocols to ensure comparability with other countries whilst acknowledging the unique contextual factors of agro-pastoral communities facing recurrent drought and displacement.

8.2 Sample design and selection

The sampling strategy maintained the approach developed for the baseline study, designed to ensure representative data collection across ForAfrika's operational areas whilst achieving statistical significance at country level. The sampling methodology balances the need for rigorous statistical power with practical feasibility in diverse and sometimes challenging field contexts.

The sample size calculation followed the same formula employed in the baseline: $n = N \cdot X / (X + N - 1)$, where $X = Z_{\alpha/2}^2 \cdot p \cdot (1-p) / MOE^2$. This formula incorporates a 95% confidence level ($Z_{\alpha/2} = 1.96$), 5% margin of error, and conservative sample variance estimate ($p = 0.5$).

The 2025 monitoring covered seven countries, including the six countries from the 2024 baseline plus Ethiopia as a new baseline measurement. The sample comprised 2,858 households representing 16,078 individuals across the seven countries, distributed as follows: Angola (418 households, 2,425 individuals), Ethiopia (397 households, 2,643 individuals), Mozambique (407 households, 2,415 individuals), Rwanda (426 households, 1,851 individuals), South Africa (402 households, 1,639 individuals), South Sudan (407 households, 2,645 individuals), and Uganda (401 households, 2,460 individuals). This represents an increase from the 2,425

households surveyed in 2024, reflecting the addition of Ethiopia to the measurement framework.

For the six countries with baseline comparisons (Angola, Mozambique, Rwanda, South Africa, South Sudan, and Uganda), the sampling approach followed the same methodology as 2024 to enable valid comparison. In each country, the sample identification process began with the random selection of 20 communities within ForAfrika's programme areas, with selection probability proportional to population size. This probability-proportionate-to-size approach ensured that communities with larger populations had a proportionately higher chance of selection whilst maintaining randomisation principles.

Within each selected community, 20 households were randomly selected using a systematic random walk technique. This technique involved identifying major landmarks in each community including community centres, schools, places of worship, health facilities, markets, water points, and other recognisable features. From randomly selected starting points, enumerators followed predetermined paths, selecting every fifth household encountered along the route. In urban areas, household selection was restricted to the right side of the street to maintain systematic selection whilst accommodating higher housing density.



Ethiopia's 2025 measurement represents a new baseline rather than a follow-up study, as this was the first year of systematic impact measurement using the Sustainable Livelihoods Index framework in that country. The sampling methodology applied in Ethiopia followed the same protocols as the other countries, ensuring methodological consistency across ForAfrika's measurement system. The Ethiopian sample of 397 households was distributed across three zones (Konso, South Omo, and Borena), reflecting the geographical distribution of ForAfrika's programming in the country.

Consistent with the baseline approach, communities under emergency response were explicitly excluded from the sampling frame across all countries. This decision reflects the study's focus on measuring sustainable development outcomes rather than emergency intervention impacts, acknowledging that self-sufficiency measurement is most meaningful in contexts with minimum stability. Emergency contexts require different measurement approaches focused on immediate humanitarian needs rather than longer-term livelihood resilience.

The combined 2025 sample encompasses households representing approximately 8.4 million people living in communities where ForAfrika implements development programmes. This population figure represents the total people residing in the sampled communities, not just direct programme participants, enabling assessment of broader community-level effects beyond individual beneficiaries. The population-based approach recognises that ForAfrika's integrated programming aims to create enabling environments for self-sufficiency rather than solely targeting individual households.

8.3 Data collection tools and procedures

The primary data collection instrument remained the comprehensive household survey developed for the baseline study, implemented through KoboToolbox, a digital data collection platform selected for its robustness in field conditions and built-in quality control features. The survey instrument was designed with sophisticated skip logic, validation rules, and data consistency checks to ensure high-quality data capture during field implementation. The consistency in the survey instrument ensures that any observed changes between 2024 and 2025 reflect actual changes in household conditions rather than variations in measurement methodology.

The digital questionnaire included automated quality controls that minimised data entry errors, ensured

logical consistency across related questions, and flagged potential issues for immediate resolution by field supervisors. The platform's offline functionality enabled uninterrupted data collection in areas with limited connectivity, with automatic data synchronisation occurring when internet access became available.

The survey instrument was structured around the five capital dimensions of the Sustainable Livelihoods Index, with modules designed to gather detailed information across all 22 indicators. The questionnaire begins with a household roster section, documenting demographic data and individual member characteristics essential for calculating age-specific and household composition-dependent indicators. Subsequent modules systematically address each capital dimension, employing a combination of measurement approaches suited to the nature of each indicator.

Direct observation protocols enabled enumerators to verify physical conditions and assets, particularly important for indicators related to sanitation facilities, water access infrastructure, and productive tools. Standardised quantitative measures captured specific values for indicators such as education levels, household income, and asset inventories. Self-reported data gathered household perceptions and experiences for indicators including perceived health status, food security experiences, and participation in social networks. Economic activity assessments documented household livelihood strategies, income sources, and financial management practices.

8.4 Field implementation

Field implementation in 2025 followed rigorous protocols to ensure data quality and consistency across all study locations, maintaining the same high standards established during the 2024 baseline. The process began with comprehensive enumerator training sessions conducted in each country by experienced monitoring and evaluation specialists. Training covered the conceptual framework of the Sustainable Livelihoods Index, detailed questionnaire administration protocols, proper use of the digital data collection platform, systematic random walk techniques for household selection, and ethical considerations in household survey research.

Field teams comprised trained enumerators supervised by experienced DMEAL officers from each country office. Supervision protocols included daily debriefing sessions, spot-checks on data quality, verification of household selection procedures, and immediate

feedback to enumerators on any identified issues. This intensive supervision approach maintained data quality whilst enabling adaptive problem-solving when field teams encountered unexpected challenges.

Quality assurance protocols implemented during field implementation included several layers of verification. GPS coordinates were automatically captured for each household interview, enabling verification of geographical coverage and detection of any systematic gaps in sampling. Random repeat interviews on a subsample of households assessed inter-enumerator reliability and identified any systematic biases requiring correction.

8.5 Data processing and analysis

Data processing followed standardised protocols established for the baseline study, with systematic application of data quality checks and cleaning procedures. All data processing was conducted using R statistical software, with a unified script applied across all countries to ensure methodological consistency. Only households with approved validation status and informed consent were included in the analysis, ensuring ethical compliance and data quality.

The data cleaning process addressed several categories of data quality issues through systematic protocols. Survey responses coded as 'don't know' (98) or 'didn't answer' (99) were systematically converted to missing values (NA) across all indicators, ensuring that calculations reflected only valid responses. This approach maintained data integrity whilst acknowledging the reality of incomplete information in household surveys.

8.5.1 Universal data quality protocols

Several data quality protocols were applied universally across all countries and indicators. Missing value treatment followed a consistent approach where survey sentinels (98, 99) were converted to system missing values prior to indicator calculation. This ensured that indicator scores reflected only valid data whilst maintaining transparency about data availability. For indicators calculated from multiple components, missing values were handled using available valid responses rather than excluding entire cases, maximising sample utilisation whilst maintaining measurement validity.

Outlier detection employed statistical techniques including examination of distributions, identification of extreme values through descriptive statistics, and assessment of values against contextual plausibility. Outliers were not automatically excluded but rather subjected to careful case-by-case evaluation to distinguish between data entry errors, measurement errors, and valid extreme values. Treatment decisions prioritised maintaining valid information whilst correcting clear errors.

8.5.2 Indicator-specific data cleaning procedures

Several indicators required specialised cleaning procedures to address measurement challenges specific to their domains. These procedures were applied systematically but adapted to country-specific data quality issues where necessary.



Land access standardisation

Land measurement units required extensive standardisation across countries due to variations in local terminology and spelling. Responses coded as 'other' (97) were systematically recoded to 'other' category, and open-text descriptions of land units were standardised using pattern matching. In Mozambique, Angola, and Rwanda, various spellings of 'hectare' (including ectares, ektares, equitar, equitares, hactares) were harmonised to 'Ha'. Rwanda and South Sudan additionally standardised 'feddan' and its variants (feddns, feddens, fedans) to 'Feddans'. This standardisation enabled consistent calculation of land access indicators whilst respecting local measurement practices.

Energy security

Energy security data required country-specific cleaning protocols due to variations in data entry errors and measurement units. A universal rule converted all negative values to absolute values, addressing cases where enumerators may have entered negative numbers inadvertently. Beyond this universal treatment, country-specific protocols addressed contextual patterns. In Angola and Uganda, values exceeding 100 days were subjected to zero-stripping algorithms that removed extra zeros from data entry errors (e.g., 300 became 30, 1800 became 180). In Rwanda and South Africa, values exceeding 30 days per month were set to missing values, as these represent logical impossibilities; values of exactly 31 days were recoded to 30 to reflect maximum month length. Mozambique and South Sudan applied only the universal negative-to-absolute conversion, as data quality assessment revealed fewer extreme values in these contexts.

Market access

Market access required the most extensive outlier treatment of any indicator, reflecting the challenges of accurately measuring travel time in diverse contexts. The cleaning protocol differed between South Africa and other countries. For Angola, Ethiopia, Mozambique, Rwanda, South Sudan, and Uganda, extreme values indicating data entry errors were systematically addressed. Values clearly representing extra zeros (1800 recoded to 180, 3000 to 30, 5000 to 50, 15000 to 17) were corrected based on patterns in surrounding responses. Values judged implausible for any context (1400, 1440, 2800, 13000, 20000, 50000 minutes) were set to missing. Missing values resulting from these corrections were imputed using location means at the admin4 (community) level, ensuring replacement

values reflected local market access patterns. South Africa employed a different protocol reflecting its urban context, setting values exceeding 300 minutes or originating from a problematic data collection area (ward_95_johannesburg) to missing, with imputation using admin1 (province) medians rather than means to reduce sensitivity to remaining outliers.

Savings indicator

Savings indicator calculation incorporated safeguards against implausible ratios resulting from very small reported expenditures. Cases where monthly expenditure totalled less than 50 currency units combined with savings-to-expenditure ratios exceeding 50 were set to missing values, as these patterns likely reflect measurement error or misunderstanding of the questions rather than valid household economic conditions. This threshold-based approach maintained data from households with genuinely low expenditures whilst excluding cases with ratios suggesting data quality issues.

8.5.3 Imputation strategies

Missing values resulting from data cleaning procedures were imputed using location-based measures to ensure replacement values reflected local conditions. For most indicators and countries, mean values at the most granular administrative level (typically admin4, representing communities or wards) were used for imputation. This approach ensured imputed values reflected the specific market conditions, infrastructure availability, or other contextual factors relevant to the household's location. South Africa employed median imputation at the admin1 (province) level for market access indicators, recognising the urban context where extreme values might legitimately exist and medians provide more robust central tendency measures.

8.6 Analysis methods

Following data cleaning, analysis employed both descriptive and comparative statistical methods. Descriptive statistics provided insights into the distribution and central tendencies of indicators, including means, medians, standard deviations, and frequency distributions. These descriptive analyses were conducted at multiple levels including individual indicators, capital dimensions, and the overall SLI, as well as across different household and geographic characteristics.

Comparative analysis between 2024 and 2025 data employed statistical methods appropriate for comparing independent samples, recognising the cross-sectional design. Differences in means were assessed using t-tests for continuous measures and chi-square tests for categorical outcomes. Effect sizes were calculated to contextualise the practical significance of observed changes beyond statistical significance.

All analysis outputs, including cleaned datasets, indicator calculations, and summary statistics, were exported systematically for each country. These outputs enabled both country-specific analysis and cross-country synthesis whilst maintaining full transparency about data processing decisions. The standardised analytical workflow ensured comparability across countries whilst allowing appropriate adaptation to context-specific data quality issues.

8.7 Data validation and quality assurance

Comprehensive validation processes were conducted for all country datasets to verify data quality and assess the plausibility of findings through triangulation with secondary data sources. These validation exercises, documented in detailed country-specific validation reports, compared ForAfrika's primary data collection results against benchmarks from government statistics,

UN agencies, Demographic and Health Surveys, World Bank development indicators, and reports from other development partners operating in the same contexts.

Quality assurance protocols implemented throughout the data collection, processing, and analysis workflow ensured reliability of the final dataset. These protocols included pre-testing of instruments, standardised enumerator training with assessment components, daily supervisor review of completed surveys during fieldwork, automated data validation during collection, systematic data cleaning following documented procedures, independent review of analysis scripts, and validation of key findings through secondary data triangulation. This multi-layered quality assurance approach provides confidence in the reliability of the reported findings whilst maintaining appropriate transparency about limitations and areas of uncertainty.

8.8 Measurement system insights

The implementation of the Sustainable Livelihoods Index across seven countries over two measurement periods, combined with rigorous validation processes in 2025, provides valuable learning about the measurement system itself. This section reflects on which indicators perform well, which prove problematic, and what refinements might strengthen the measurement framework.



Dimensional structure assessment

The five-dimensional structure of the SLI generally performs well, with each dimension capturing conceptually distinct aspects of household self-sufficiency. The dimensions show appropriate variation - some households score high on Natural Capital but low on Financial Capital, others show strong Social Capital despite weak WASH-Health performance - confirming they measure different phenomena rather than collapsing into a single underlying construct.

However, the lumping of indicators into nexus dimensions (WASH-Health, Education-Productivity) creates some analytical challenges. These composite dimensions combine infrastructure (water, sanitation), services (health access), behaviours (health-seeking), and outcomes (food security, immunisation) into single scores that may obscure important variations. For instance, a household may have good water access but poor health service utilisation, producing a moderate nexus score that hides this critical gap.

The validation exercises suggest that whilst the nexus approach is theoretically sound and captures important causal relationships, programming and analysis benefit from disaggregating dimensions to identify specific gaps. The composite scores usefully summarise overall performance, but intervention design requires indicator-level detail.

Self-sufficiency threshold appropriateness

The current threshold defining self-sufficiency as achieving 11 or more of 22 indicators (50%) represents a deliberate choice to set a meaningful but achievable standard. The cross-country 2025 data suggest this threshold is appropriate but merits continued reflection.

The threshold successfully differentiates contexts: South Sudan at 5.4%, Mozambique at 12.5%, Uganda at 35.4%, and South Africa at 38.8% show a meaningful gradient of self-sufficiency achievement. This variation confirms the threshold is neither too easy (where everyone would meet it) nor too difficult (where no one could achieve it).

However, the threshold may be easier to achieve in some dimensions than others. Households scoring high on Natural Capital and Social Capital but low on Financial Capital can reach 11 indicators without achieving economic security. This suggests the threshold successfully captures multi-dimensional wellbeing but may need supplementary analysis of which combinations of 11 indicators represent genuine self-sufficiency versus partial achievement concentrated in easier dimensions.

An alternative threshold - requiring minimum achievement across all five dimensions rather than simple indicator count - might better ensure holistic self-sufficiency. For instance, requiring at least 2 indicators in each dimension would prevent households from meeting the threshold whilst remaining severely deprived in Financial Capital. However, this approach would likely substantially reduce self-sufficiency rates and might set an unrealistically high bar given the systematic difficulties achieving Financial Capital observed across all contexts.

Country-to-country comparability

A fundamental question is whether self-sufficiency rates are fairly comparable across vastly different contexts. Is a self-sufficient household in South Sudan meaningfully similar to one in South Africa?

The validation exercises reveal both strengths and limitations of cross-country comparison. The SLI successfully identifies universal human needs - water, sanitation, health, education, income - that apply across contexts. The indicators define minimum thresholds (improved sanitation, basic education, adequate income) that are context-appropriate whilst maintaining consistent standards.

However, some indicators inherently reflect context. Urban South African households face different challenges (land access, informal settlements, labour market exclusion) than rural Ugandan households (agricultural productivity, distance to services, climate vulnerability). The same indicator threshold may represent greater achievement in one context than another - achieving financial inclusion through mobile money in Uganda requires different preconditions than in Rwanda.

The validation reports suggest three approaches to managing comparability concerns:

Accept that some variation in meaning is inevitable, but the core concept of meeting basic needs remains valid across contexts

Focus primary analysis on within-country change over time rather than cross-country comparisons of absolute levels

Use validation triangulation to interpret results in context-specific ways whilst maintaining consistent measurement

9 COUNTRY-LEVEL VALIDATION

9.1 Angola

Survey sample: N = 418 households

Validation summary: 5 Strong Alignment, 10 Minor Deviation, 4 Major Deviation, 0 Partial Validation, 3 Cannot Be Validated

Indicator	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Land access	0.39	0.42	0.00	1.00
Sustainability of resources	0.72	0.23	0.00	1.00
Sanitation availability	0.54	0.21	0.27	0.90
Water quality	0.62	0.32	0.20	1.00
Access to education	0.48	0.33	0.00	1.00
Access to health	0.18	0.38	0.00	1.00
Energy security	0.60	0.25	0.00	1.00
Enabling technology	0.10	0.17	0.00	0.80
Productive tools	0.10	0.21	0.00	1.00
Basic education	0.49	0.38	0.00	1.00
Technical education	0.09	0.23	0.00	1.00
Perceived health	0.86	0.15	0.33	1.00
Immunization	0.10	0.27	0.00	1.00
Food security	0.15	0.35	0.00	1.00
School feeding	0.08	0.21	0.00	1.00
Asset resilience	0.33	0.10	0.07	0.63
Income	0.03	0.14	0.00	1.00
Financial inclusion	0.26	0.44	0.00	1.00
Access to markets	0.48	0.26	0.00	1.00
Social networks	0.16	0.13	0.00	0.58
Representation and participation	0.43	0.34	0.00	1.00
Disaster Risk Reduction	0.31	0.20	0.00	1.00

Strong Alignment (5 indicators): Land access; Water quality; Enabling technology; Access to markets; Representation and participation

Minor deviations (10 indicators)

- **Sustainability of resources:** Exceptionally high (96.8%) given drought conditions. Measures household practices (soil conservation, tree planting) rather than environmental conditions. Aligns with programme emphasis on climate-smart agriculture.
- **Sanitation availability:** Result of 50.9% modestly exceeds regional benchmarks. Reflects WASH programming in operational areas whilst representing challenging infrastructure context.
- **Access to health:** Low 18.0% reflects stringent threshold requiring fully functional Community Health Unit. Post-conflict Angola continues rebuilding with severe rural shortages.
- **Perceived health:** Exceptionally high 97.9% despite objective health challenges. May reflect cultural self-reporting factors or genuine programme improvements.
- **Food security:** Low 14.9% uses rigorous FIES methodology. Aligns with FAO/WFP assessments showing widespread insecurity in drought-affected southern regions.
- **School feeding:** Low 14.9% reflects limited coverage. National programmes exist but vary significantly in implementation and geographic reach.
- **Income:** Very low 5.1% aligns with high extreme poverty rates. Threshold requiring three months expenditure savings represents high bar.
- **Financial inclusion:** Result of 26.1% consistent with limited financial access, particularly rural. Mobile money growing but infrastructure constrained.
- **Social networks:** Extremely low 0.2% suggests stringent threshold may not capture informal community engagement. Warrants threshold review.
- **Disaster Risk Reduction:** Modest 27.7% reflects incomplete early warning system coverage in rural areas.

Major deviations (4 indicators)

- **Access to education:** Very low 12.6% due to threshold requiring comprehensive school infrastructure. Most rural schools lack one or more elements.
- **Basic education:** Result of 26.8% significantly below national enrollment due to threshold requiring all children on-track. High age-grade distortion causes household failures.

- **Immunization:** Extremely low 7.1% versus 30–60% national coverage. Threshold requires 100% coverage of all vaccines for all household members.
- **Asset resilience:** Near-zero 2.9% reflects severe vulnerability to shocks with minimal coping mechanisms.

Cannot be validated (3 indicators)

- **Technical education:** No comprehensive national TVET participation data available.
- **Energy security:** Comprehensive household energy security data unavailable at required granularity.
- **Productive tools:** No comprehensive national data on household productive asset ownership exists.

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9.2 Ethiopia

Survey sample: N = 397 households

Validation summary: 13 Strong Alignment, 6 Minor Deviation, 2 Major Deviation, 1 Partial Validation, 0 Cannot Be Validated

Indicator	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Land access	0.64	0.35	0.00	1.00
Sustainability of resources	0.70	0.24	0.00	1.00
Sanitation availability	0.38	0.13	0.17	0.90
Water quality	0.40	0.28	0.20	1.00
Access to education	0.33	0.28	0.00	1.00
Access to health	0.12	0.33	0.00	1.00
Energy security	0.43	0.22	0.00	1.00
Enabling technology	0.01	0.04	0.00	0.40
Productive tools	0.10	0.20	0.00	0.50
Basic education	0.53	0.43	0.00	1.00
Technical education	0.13	0.29	0.00	1.00
Perceived health	0.95	0.09	0.44	1.00
Immunization	0.25	0.39	0.00	1.00
Food security	0.07	0.25	0.00	1.00
School feeding	0.32	0.34	0.00	1.00
Asset resilience	0.33	0.11	0.04	0.57

Indicator	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Income	0.03	0.14	0.00	1.00
Financial inclusion	0.30	0.46	0.00	1.00
Access to markets	0.35	0.19	0.00	1.00
Social networks	0.32	0.19	0.00	0.75
Representation and participation	0.84	0.26	0.00	1.00
Disaster Risk Reduction	0.48	0.38	0.00	1.00

Strong alignment (13 indicators): Land access; Sanitation availability; Water quality ; Access to health; Food security; School feeding; Technical education; Enabling technology; Energy security; Asset resilience; Income; Access to markets; Representation and participation

Minor deviations (6 indicators)

- **Sustainability of resources:** High 89.7% despite drought. Measures household practices (terracing, soil conservation) rather than environmental conditions.
- **Perceived health:** Very high 99.2% reflects cultural norms where illness acknowledged only when severe.
- **Basic education:** Result of 37.5% lower than national norms but consistent with remote districts and pastoral household mobility.
- **Productive tools:** Low 20.7% reflects drought-related losses in agro-pastoral communities.
- **Financial inclusion:** Result of 29.7% reflects limited formal banking in pastoral areas. Community savings groups more common.
- **Disaster Risk Reduction:** Moderate 48.4% reflects recurring drought exposure strengthening preparedness.

Major deviations (2 indicators)

- **Access to education:** Extremely low 2.5% versus national enrollment over 60%. Reasons include pastoral mobility, long distances, and stringent attendance threshold.
- **Immunization:** Low 17.9% versus ~37% national rural full vaccination. May reflect missing vaccination cards and disrupted outreach.

Partial validation (1 indicators)

- **Social networks:** Result of 21.2% shows strong informal support systems (iddir, iqqub, debo), but threshold may emphasize formal structures.

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9.3 Mozambique

Survey sample: N = 407 households

Validation summary: 4 Strong Alignment, 8 Minor Deviation, 0 Major Deviation, 3 Partial Validation, 0 Cannot Be Validated

Indicator	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Land access	0.75	0.34	0.00	1.00
Sustainability of resources	0.75	0.21	0.50	1.00
Sanitation availability	0.52	0.18	0.27	0.90
Water quality	0.63	0.30	0.20	1.00
Access to education	0.55	0.30	0.00	1.00
Access to health	0.31	0.46	0.00	1.00
Energy security	0.58	0.21	0.00	1.00
Enabling technology	0.04	0.10	0.00	0.60
Productive tools	0.02	0.10	0.00	0.50
Basic education	0.66	0.39	0.00	1.00
Technical education	0.03	0.14	0.00	1.00
Perceived health	0.89	0.13	0.00	1.00
Immunization	0.18	0.35	0.00	1.00
Food security	0.15	0.36	0.00	1.00
School feeding	0.04	0.14	0.00	1.00
Asset resilience	0.31	0.10	0.05	0.54
Income	0.02	0.11	0.00	1.00
Financial inclusion	0.49	0.50	0.00	1.00
Access to markets	0.52	0.28	0.00	1.00
Social networks	0.24	0.19	0.00	0.83
Representation and participation	0.65	0.33	0.00	1.00
Disaster Risk Reduction	0.63	0.36	0.00	1.00

Strong alignment (4 indicators): School feeding; Basic education; Technical education; Financial inclusion

Minor deviations (8 indicators)

- **Sanitation availability:** Result aligns with regional WASH challenges.
- **Access to health:** Result of 31.0% lower than national estimates reflecting sample targeting.
- **Immunisation:** Result of 13.1% below national DTP3 coverage (70-80%). Reflects household-level threshold versus individual vaccination rates.
- **Food security:** Result of 15.0% (85% insecure) aligns with FAO data showing 89.3% cannot afford healthy diet.
- **Access to education:** Result of 14.2% below national 92-96% reflects rural versus urban disparities.
- **Energy security:** Result of 26.3% reflects rural/remote sample or different security definition.
- **Enabling technology:** Result of 13.5% reflects rural sample or stricter access definition.
- **Income:** Result of 3.2% consistent with poverty rates.

Partial validation (3 indicators)

- **Perceived health:** Subjective measure with limited comparable data.

- **Productive tools:** Result of 3.8% below FAO estimates. Methodological differences in rural versus urban patterns.
- **Asset resilience:** Result of 1.8% aligns with FinScope data (<4% with adequate savings).

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9.4 Rwanda

Survey sample: N = 426 households

Validation summary: 7 Strong Alignment, 6 Minor Deviation, 4 Major Deviation, 5 Partial Validation

Indicator	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Land access	0.52	0.40	0.00	1.00
Sustainability of resources	0.85	0.18	0.50	1.00
Sanitation availability	0.70	0.17	0.37	0.90
Water quality	0.70	0.26	0.20	1.00
Access to education	0.92	0.15	0.00	1.00
Access to health	0.34	0.47	0.00	1.00
Energy security	0.64	0.26	0.00	1.00
Enabling technology	0.12	0.20	0.00	1.00
Productive tools	0.02	0.09	0.00	0.50
Basic education	0.64	0.42	0.00	1.00
Technical education	0.04	0.17	0.00	1.00
Perceived health	0.67	0.18	0.00	1.00
Immunization	0.52	0.47	0.00	1.00
Food security	0.39	0.49	0.00	1.00
School feeding	0.75	0.29	0.00	1.00
Asset resilience	0.35	0.10	0.04	0.62
Income	0.17	0.31	0.00	1.00
Financial inclusion	0.73	0.45	0.00	1.00
Access to markets	0.49	0.24	0.00	1.00
Social networks	0.19	0.15	0.00	0.58
Representation and participation	0.86	0.25	0.00	1.00
Disaster Risk Reduction	0.48	0.34	0.00	1.00

Strong alignment (6 indicators): Sustainability of resources; Access to health; Basic education; Technical education; Financial inclusion; Representation and participation, School Feeding

Minor deviations (6 indicators)

- **Land access:** Result of 88.2% higher than SDG Indicator (~53%). May reflect measurement differences.
- **Sanitation availability:** Result of 49.4% lower than national basic sanitation (64%) but includes handwashing component.
- **Water quality :** Result of 82.8% exceeds national safe water estimates (57%). May reflect WASH programming targeting.
- **Access to education:** Result of 78.6% below national NAR (92.8%). Reflects quality focus versus enrollment.
- **Enabling technology:** Result of 58.4% exceeds computer literacy but reflects broader technology definition.
- **Income:** Result of 28.3% consistent with poverty patterns.

Major deviations (4 indicators)

- **Immunization:** Result of 20.0% below national >90% FIC. Household-level threshold versus individual statistics.
- **Food security:** Result of 47.3% below national 83%. Reflects multi-dimensional threshold.
- **Energy security:** Result of 36.7% below national 94-97%. Focuses on quality and reliability.
- **Social networks:** Result of 0% versus 73-77% membership. Requires active participation versus basic membership.

Partial validation (5 indicators)

- **Perceived health:** Subjective measure with limited comparable data.
- **Productive tools:** Result of 43.5% somewhat aligns with improved seeds data.
- **Asset resilience:** Result of 13.5% reflects low savings capacity.
- **Access to markets:** Limited data on combined physical and economic access.
- **Disaster Risk Reduction:** Result of 41.3% reflects moderate coverage.

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9.5 South Africa

Survey sample: N = 402 households

Validation summary: 5 Strong Alignment, 10 Minor Deviation, 4 Major Deviation, 3 Partial Validation, 0 Cannot Be Validated

Indicator	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Land access	0.03	0.17	0.00	1.00
Sustainability of resources	0.91	0.15	0.50	1.00
Sanitation availability	0.71	0.19	0.17	0.90
Water quality	0.84	0.28	0.20	1.00
Access to education	0.91	0.16	0.00	1.00
Access to health	0.73	0.44	0.00	1.00
Energy security	0.87	0.20	0.00	1.00
Enabling technology	0.23	0.26	0.00	1.00
Productive tools	0.13	0.26	0.00	1.00
Basic education	0.84	0.31	0.00	1.00
Technical education	0.09	0.24	0.00	1.00
Perceived health	0.91	0.15	0.33	1.00
Immunization	0.57	0.47	0.00	1.00
Food security	0.55	0.50	0.00	1.00
School feeding	0.62	0.32	0.00	1.00
Asset resilience	0.31	0.11	0.01	0.60
Income	0.02	0.11	0.00	1.00

Indicator	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Financial inclusion	0.71	0.45	0.00	1.00
Access to markets	0.80	0.23	0.25	1.00
Social networks	0.11	0.13	0.00	0.50
Representation and participation	0.52	0.32	0.00	1.00
Disaster Risk Reduction	0.39	0.28	0.00	1.00

Strong alignment (5 indicators): Water quality; Financial inclusion; Access to markets; Representation and participation; Disaster Risk Reduction

Minor deviations (10 indicators)

- **Land access:** Low 3.7% aligns with 4% Black agricultural land ownership. Highlights systemic barriers.
- **Sanitation availability:** Infrastructure versus service quality distinction in urban informal settlements.
- **Access to health:** Reflects distance, cost, and quality barriers in vulnerable urban communities.
- **Perceived health:** Subjective measure in high-inequality context.
- **Food security:** Reflects urban poverty and affordability constraints.
- **Basic education:** Quality versus enrollment focus.
- **Enabling technology:** Result of 48.5% reflects digital divide.
- **Asset resilience:** Very low 4.1% aligns with extreme vulnerability of urban poor.
- **Income:** Extremely low 3.7% consistent with unemployment trends (32%+).
- **Social networks:** Reflects active participation versus membership measurement.

Major deviations (4 indicators)

- **Immunisation:** Household-level threshold versus individual coverage. Urban informal settlement challenges.

- **Access to education:** Quality versus enrollment measurement.
- **School feeding:** Programme reach challenges in targeted communities.
- **Energy security:** Reliability and affordability focus. Load-shedding affects perceived security.

Partial validation (3 indicators)

- **Sustainability of resources:** Universal results on small sample (N=17) require verification.
- **Technical education:** Definition ambiguity in urban contexts.
- **Productive tools:** Definition ambiguity in urban livelihood context.

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9.6 South Sudan

Survey sample: N = 407 households

Validation summary: 8 Strong Alignment, 10 Minor Deviation, 2 Major Deviation, 0 Partial Validation, 2 Cannot Be Validated

Indicator	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Land access	0.46	0.42	0.00	1.00
Sustainability of resources	0.69	0.19	0.00	1.00
Sanitation availability	0.36	0.14	0.27	0.90
Water quality	0.64	0.32	0.20	1.00
Access to education	0.41	0.27	0.00	1.00
Access to health	0.09	0.29	0.00	1.00
Energy security	0.69	0.31	0.00	1.00
Enabling technology	0.03	0.09	0.00	1.00
Productive tools	0.07	0.18	0.00	0.50
Basic education	0.31	0.40	0.00	1.00
Technical education	0.05	0.17	0.00	1.00
Perceived health	0.88	0.11	0.43	1.00
Immunization	0.25	0.41	0.00	1.00
Food security	0.01	0.11	0.00	1.00
School feeding	0.17	0.23	0.00	0.67
Asset resilience	0.31	0.10	0.02	0.54
Income	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Financial inclusion	0.15	0.36	0.00	1.00
Access to markets	0.48	0.22	0.00	1.00
Social networks	0.15	0.17	0.00	0.75
Representation and participation	0.47	0.39	0.00	1.00
Disaster Risk Reduction	0.55	0.38	0.00	1.00

Strong alignment (8 indicators): Land access; Sanitation availability; Water quality ; School feeding; Technical education; Energy security; Asset resilience; Income

Minor deviations (10 indicators)

- **Sustainability of resources:** Consistent with traditional pastoral resource management.
- **Access to health:** Aligns with health system collapse in conflict-affected areas.
- **Perceived health:** High self-reported health reflects cultural norms.
- **Immunization:** Reflects disrupted cold chain and conflict-affected service delivery.
- **Food security:** Consistent with chronic insecurity and climate shocks.
- **Basic education:** Reflects conflict disruption and infrastructure destruction.
- **Productive tools:** Reflects conflict-related asset loss.
- **Financial inclusion:** Limited formal banking with increasing mobile money.
- **Access to markets:** Reflects conflict-disrupted trade routes.
- **Disaster Risk Reduction:** Limited early warning systems in conflict context.

Major deviations (2 indicators)

- **Access to education:** Extremely low due to conflict disruption and quality threshold.

- **Enabling technology:** Very low device ownership versus network coverage.

Cannot be validated (2 indicators)

- **Social networks:** No comparable data on formal participation.
- **Representation and participation:** Political transition makes validation difficult.

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9.7 Uganda

Survey sample: N = 401 households

Validation summary: 12 Strong Alignment, 8 Minor Deviation, 2 Major Deviation, 0 Partial Validation, 0 Cannot Be Validated

Indicator	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Land access	0.67	0.36	0.00	1.00
Sustainability of resources	0.76	0.21	0.00	1.00
Sanitation availability	0.49	0.16	0.27	0.90
Water quality	0.78	0.18	0.20	1.00
Access to education	0.78	0.21	0.00	1.00
Access to health	0.34	0.47	0.00	1.00
Energy security	0.55	0.18	0.16	1.00
Enabling technology	0.05	0.13	0.00	0.80
Productive tools	0.22	0.28	0.00	1.00
Basic education	0.47	0.38	0.00	1.00
Technical education	0.16	0.30	0.00	1.00
Perceived health	0.83	0.15	0.33	1.00
Immunization	0.43	0.46	0.00	1.00
Food security	0.08	0.27	0.00	1.00
School feeding	0.28	0.38	0.00	1.00
Asset resilience	0.38	0.11	0.01	0.62
Income	0.10	0.24	0.00	1.00
Financial inclusion	0.75	0.44	0.00	1.00
Access to markets	0.60	0.29	0.00	1.00
Social networks	0.35	0.18	0.00	0.92
Representation and participation	0.84	0.25	0.00	1.00
Disaster Risk Reduction	0.58	0.35	0.00	1.00

Strong alignment (12 indicators): Land access; Sustainability of resources; Sanitation availability; Water quality; School feeding; Energy security; Enabling technology; Productive tools; Financial inclusion; Access to markets; Representation and participation; Disaster Risk Reduction

Minor deviations (8 indicators)

- **Access to health:** Lower than national figures reflects functional access versus facility presence.
- **Perceived health:** Subjective measure shows generally positive perceptions.
- **Food security:** Critically low 8% reflects climate-related agricultural disruptions.
- **Access to education:** Below national enrollment reflects quality focus.
- **Basic education:** Reflects on-track measurement versus simple enrollment.
- **Technical education:** Reflects limited TVET access in rural areas.
- **Income:** Low result consistent with smallholder farming vulnerability.
- **Social networks:** Active participation versus membership measurement.

Major deviations (2 indicators)

- **Immunization:** Result below national coverage reflects recall bias and household-level threshold.

- **Asset resilience:** Climate shocks and limited financial buffers constrain capacity.

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