

MONITORING AND EVALAUTION PRACTICES AND CHALLENGES OF GABORONE BASED LOCAL NGOS IMPLEMENTING HIWAIDS PROJECTS IN BOTSWANA

Ву

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Approval Page

This research has been examined and is approved as meeting the required standards of	f
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Statement of Originality

This work contained in this Dissertation was carried out by the author at the University of Botswana between August 2006 and October 2007. It is original work except where due reference is made and neither has been nor will be submitted for the award of a degree by any other university.

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Abstract

Botswana is facing one of its greatest development challenges at the moment. It is facing an HIV/AIDS pandemic of immense proportions. It is among the countries in the world that have been hard hit by this scourge. A lot of stakeholders including government, private companies, international donor agencies, and civil society have come up with interventions to respond to challenge of fighting this pandemic.

Among the key players in this fight against HIV/AIDS are civil society organizations, commonly known as NGOs. These organizations play a crucial role of bringing HIV/AIDS services to the communities where the other players may not reach or may not be effective. The services the NGOs offer to communities are normally delivered as projects. Effective monitoring and evaluation of projects is usually one of the ingredients of good project performance and provides means of accountability, demonstrating transparency to the stakeholders and facilitates organizational learning for benefit of future projects.

This study sought to determine how effectively the HIV/AIDS projects implemented by Gaborone based local NGOs are monitored and evaluated. The study investigated the monitoring and evaluation practices of the NGOs and compared them with the best practices. It also sought to identify the challenges the NGOs faced in carrying out this function.

Data for the study was collected using the descriptive survey method where a questionnaire was administered to project managers and monitoring and evaluation officials of the NGOs.

The results of the study show that most of the NGOs (66.7%) were implementing Behavioral Change Communication projects. The study also determined that the monitoring and evaluation practices of the local NGOs fell short of the best practices. Most of the best practices were inconsistently done and others were not done at all. Planning for monitoring and evaluation was inadequately done and inconsistently by respondents. Implementing the monitoring and evaluation process was not effectively done by the respondents.

The study also identified quite a number of challenges the NGOs faced in carrying out monitoring and evaluation of the projects they faced. These challenges made it hard for the NGOs to effectively monitor and evaluate the projects they implemented. The most significant ones included; inadequate finances, lack of expertise, stringent and multi-donor reporting requirements, lack of baseline data. The study made some recommendations in order to mitigate the challenges faced by the NGOs.

The study found out that, all in all the projects implemented by the local NGOs were not effectively monitored and evaluated.

List of abbreviations

ACHAP African Comprehensive HIV/AIDS Partnership

APM Association for Project Management

APMBOK Association for Project Management Body of Knowledge

ARVs Anti Retro Virals

AusAID Australian Government Overseas AID programme

BCC Behavioral Change Communication

BONASO Botswana Network of AIDS Service Organizations

BOPA Botswana Press Agency
CBO Community Based Organization

CBO Community Based Organization CHBC Community Health Based Care

DFID Department of Foreign International Development

EVM Earned Value Management FBO Faith Based Organizations FHI Family Health International GDP Gross Domestic Product

GFATM Global Fund to Fight AIDS Tuberculosis and Malaria

HDN Health Development Network

HIV/AIDS Human Immune Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

IEC Information Education Communication
IFAD International Fund for Agricultural Fund
IFRC International Federation of Red Cross

LFA Logical Framework Approach
M&E Monitoring and Evaluation
MSM Men who have Sex with Men
NAC National AIDS Council

NACA National AIDS Coordinating Agency NGO Non Governmental organizations

NORAD Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation

OECD Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

OVCs Orphans and other Vulnerable Children
P Pula (Botswana currency; 1US\$=P6.2)

PASSIA Palestine Academic Society for Society for International Affairs

PEPFAR The President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief

PLWHA People Living With HIV/AIDS

PMBOK Project Management Body of Knowledge

PMI Project Management Institute

PMTC Prevention of Mother to Child Infection SPSS Statistical Package for Social Sciences

UNAIDS The Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS

UNDP United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA United Nations Fund for Population Activity

US\$ United States Dollars

USAID United States Agency for International Development

WHO World Health Organization

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the background to the research problem. It then situates and articulates the research problem. It then highlights the research objectives and questions. The chapter also defines the scope of the study, benefits and some of the key terms used. It then presents summary of the other chapters that make up the dissertation report.

1.2 Background

Botswana is at the moment facing one of its greatest development challenges. It is among the countries in the world hardest hit by the Human Immune Virus / Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) pandemic. The level of the problem has reached severe epidemic proportions, with an estimated 270,000 people out the total country population of 1.8 million people infected with the Human Immune Virus (HIV) that causes AIDS (UNAIDS, 2006). With an adult (15-49 yrs) prevalence of 24.1 %, Botswana has the second highest prevalence rate in the world (UNAIDS, 2006). There are an estimated 120,000 orphans as a result of this scourge, bearing huge pressure on the social welfare sector (WHO, 2006). The pandemic has affected all economical and social sectors of the country.

Several stakeholders in the country have instituted a number of interventions to fight this scourge and respond to the challenges presented by this scourge. The stakeholders in this fight include the government of Botswana, international development partners through their agencies like United States Agency for International Development (USAID), Department For International Development (DFID), the United Nations Joint Program on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) and other United Nations (UN) family agencies like United Nations Programme for Development (UNDP).

The other key player in the fight against HIV/AIDS is the civil society through Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs). NGOs particularly the local ones are playing a crucial role in taking HIV/AIDS services closer to the people in the community where other players may not be able to cover or may not be as effective as the local NGOs. Their role supplements the role played by all the other stakeholders in the fight against this scourge. The NGOs solicit for resources from donors to carry out their activities through projects they implement. Figure 1.1 shows the conceptual illustration of the research problem. A discussion of the key conceptual issues follows next

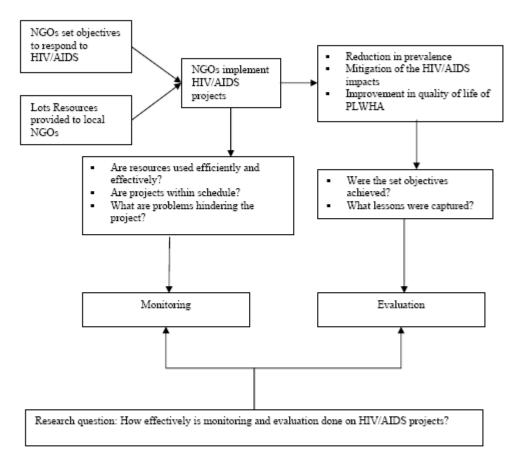


Figure 1.1: Conceptual definition of the research problem Source: Own

Resources and objectives to respond to HIV/AIDS

A lot of resources have been provided to the Local NGOs to implement HIV/AIDS related projects and the donors and other stakeholders expect transparency proper accountability and good project performance from them. For example up to US\$18 million was approved and provided by the Global Fund to fight AIDS Tuberculosis and Malaria (GFATM) to be spent

by Botswana in its fight against the scourge. A big portion of these GFATM funds was provided to NGOs to implement projects to fight HIV/AIDS (BONASO, 2006). The resources were provided with set objectives of adequately responding to the challenges posed by HIV/AIDS.

NGOs

NGOs carry out projects with the resources provided in order achieve objectives such as reduction in HIV prevalence rates in the areas, improvement in quality of life for People Living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA) and mitigation of the impacts of HIV/AIDS.

Need for project monitoring

There is need to determine whether the resources provided by the donors are being used efficiently and effectively, whether the projects are within schedule and to determine any problems that may be hampering the implementation. Determination of efficient management of resources is a factor of project monitoring.

Need for evaluation

There is also need to determine whether the set objectives were achieved and extent of achievement of the same plus capture any lessons learned from the implementation of the projects to aid future projects. This is a function of project evaluation.

Research question

The research question of the study was whether monitoring and evaluation were done effectively on the projects implemented by local NGOs.

The subsequent sub sections expound on the research dilemma, objectives of the research and the contextual definition of terms used in this study.

1.3 Problem Statement:

A lot of donor and government resources are provided to local NGOs in Botswana to implement HIV/AIDS projects. Not only does best practice require that projects are monitored for control but also project stakeholders require transparency, accountability for resource use and impact, good project performance and organizational learning (to benefit future projects).

There have been reports in the media decrying the inadequate monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects implemented in Botswana (BOPA, 2006; and Motlaloso, 2006).

The auditor general's report of 2005 as quoted by Motlaloso, (2006) decries the serious lack of control of funds that were disbursed by NACA to NGOs to implement HIV/AIDS activities. The report highlights the lack of accountability for the disbursed funds and absence of any evidence of the attainment of the objectives for which the funds were disbursed to the NGOs.

Global fund withheld US\$9 million of US\$18 million allotted to the country because of the failure by the National AIDS Coordinating Agency (NACA) to submit reports detailing expenditure and impact of the previous batch of funds (US\$10 million) that had been disbursed. The agency had dispersed these funds to implementing agencies (grantees) inclusive of mainly of local NGOs and blamed the poor monitoring and evaluation by the grantees for their failure to timeously compile a nationwide report of expenditure and impact (Serite, 2006: and BOPA, 2006). In addition the African Comprehensive HIV/AIDS Partnership (ACHAP) is providing local NGOs with funding for their activities through the Small Grant Programme. Government allocated P650 million (US\$104 million) in 2006-2007 budget year to HIV/AIDS projects, a portion of which can be accessed by these civil society organizations (Gaolathe, 2006).

Despite the huge amount of resources provided to the local NGOs to implement HIV/AIDS projects and despite the fact that these projects play a big role in the fight against HIV/AIDS in the community it is not clear how effectively the monitoring and evaluation is done on these projects implemented by local NGOs.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

- To identify the best practices in monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects from literature.
- To determine the extent of resourcing provided to the Gaborone based local NGOs implementing HIV/AIDS projects.
- To identify the nature of activities carried out on the HIV/AIDS projects implemented by these local NGOs.
- Determine how monitoring and evaluation practices of the local NGOs implementing HIV/AIDS projects compare with the best practices.
- (v). Identify the challenges faced by the NGOs in the monitoring and evaluation of the HIV/AIDS projects.
- (vi). To make recommendations in order to mitigate challenges faced in monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects.

1.5 Research Questions

- (i). How effectively are the monitoring and evaluation processes done on HIV/AIDS projects implemented by local Gaborone based NGOs?
- (ii). What are the challenges faced in the monitoring and the evaluation of the projects these NGOs implement?

1.6 Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

The research was limited to HIV/AIDS projects implemented by local NGOs based in Botswana's capital city Gaborone and its surrounding environs within a radius of 100 kilometres to include the areas of Gabane, Tolkweng, and Mogoditshane, Ramostwa, Mochudi, Otse and Molepole.

The local NGOs covered were those affiliated to Botswana Network of AIDS Service Organizations (BONASO) the umbrella organization because it is the formalized voice of NGOs (civil society) in the national strategic framework to combat HIV/AIDS and is the interface between the NGOs and the donors. The GFATM, ACHAP, NACA and other donors channel their funding to local NGOs through BONASO or require membership as pre-requisite to access funding (BONASO, 2006; ACHAP, 2006).

1.7 Benefits of the Project

- i) Findings of the research will be provided to BONASO the umbrella organization for the local NGOs to assist them in understanding the monitoring and evaluation aspect of project management of HIV/AIDS projects implemented by their member organizations.
- These findings would assist them design interventions to help them improve their monitoring and evaluation. The findings will also help BONASO share best practices within its member organizations which is one their objectives (BONASO, 2006).
- iii) The findings will also provided to the individual Local NGOs to improve the monitoring and evaluation of their projects they implement hopefully with the benefit of improving the performance of the projects and their accountability to the stakeholders in terms of resource use and impact of the projects they implement.

1.8 Definitions of Terms Used

This section presents the definition the key terms used in the study. The terms are defined within the context of the research study.

Local NGOs

Organizations founded and run by members of civil society within communities outside government to undertake social services, community development, assist communities fight pressing community problems like HIV/AIDS but are not motivated by profit. Local in this context implies that they have their headquarters and operations in the country as opposed to the international NGOs whose policies and systems are from their headquarters based outside

the country. Local NGOs included national NGOs operating on national scale or more than one district, Community Based Organizations (CBOs) operating in only one district and Faith Based Organizations (FBOs) that were founded on religion and are attached to the founding religious body.

Monitoring

Monitoring is the routine continuous tracking of the key elements of project implementation performance that is: inputs (resources, equipment etc) activities and outputs, through record-keeping and regular reporting (McCoy et al., 2005). Tracking the planned implementation against the actual implementation, in order to able to report on how the project is progressing and if there is need for corrective action and to facilitate decision making by the project manager during implementation (McCoy et al., 2005).

Evaluation

Evaluation is the episodic (not continuous as the case with monitoring usually mid term and at end of the project) assessment of an ongoing or completed project to determine its actual impact against the planned impact (strategic goal or objectives for which it was implemented) efficiency, sustainability, effectiveness (McCoy et al., 2005).

Projects

Project in the context of this research is defined as temporary endeavour to achieve an objective (PMI, 2004). Temporary means the project has a time frame within which it should have achieved its set objectives within a fixed budget, usually funded by a donor. In the context of this research the objectives of the NGO projects is to respond to challenges of HIV/AIDS. Programme and project are used in interchangeably to mean the same thing in this research.

Effective monitoring and evaluation

Assessment of how effectively monitoring and evaluation of a project is carried out in the context of this research is the measure of how the monitoring and evaluation practices compare with the best practices that are defined in the literature review as justified by practice and research.

After defining the key terms, the next section presents the way the rest of the dissertation report is structured and a summary of the other chapters constituting the rest of the report.

1.9 Summary of the Other Chapters

The rest of the dissertation report is presented arranged under the following chapters:

- a) Chapter 2: Literature review
- b) Chapter 3: Research methodology
- c) Chapter 4: Data analysis and discussion of findings
- d) Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations

A summary of each of the chapters is highlighted next:

Chapter 2 Literature review

This chapter presents the related literature to the study. It describes the impact of HIV/AIDS on Botswana and the role of NGOs in the fight against HIV/AIDS through projects. It then reviews the related literature on monitoring and evaluation of projects, describing the different monitoring and evaluation techniques employed on projects. The chapter also describes a framework of classifying the different HIV/AIDS project activities implemented by the NGOs in Botswana. It then highlights the best practices in the monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects. Finally the chapter reviews the different challenges in the monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects

Chapter 3: Research methodology

This chapter presents the research methodology of the study. It describes and justifies the methods and processes that were employed to collect data that was used in answering the research questions. The chapters starts by defining what research methodology is, it then reviews the different types of research with the view of classifying the research study and

hence choice of appropriate research method. The different research methods are then reviewed and the appropriate one is chosen and the justification for the choice is made. The chosen descriptive survey research method is then operationalized by describing how the population was sampled, questionnaire designed and administered.

Chapter 4:Data analysis and discussion of findings

This chapter presents the findings of the study. It describes the response profile of the research study by highlighting the response rate of the survey, and the nature and number of the respondents that completed and returned the questionnaire. It then highlights and discusses the findings of the surveys presented under each of the four investigative questions. Prior to the presentation of findings of each investigative question the criterion for data analysis and interpretation is set.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations

This chapter presents the conclusions of the research study presented under the themes of each of the objectives of the research. It also presents the recommendations on how to mitigate the challenges faced by the NGOs in carrying out this function of monitoring and evaluation of the projects they implement. The chapter concludes by making recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1: Introduction

This chapter presents the related literature on the study. The chapter is presented under the following sections: impact of HIV/AIDS, response of NGOs to HIV/AIDS, monitoring and evaluation, monitoring and evaluation techniques, types of HIV/AIDS projects, best practices in monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects and challenges of monitoring and evaluation. Each of the sections is presented next:

2.2 The Impact of HIV/AIDS

The exact origin of the HIV virus that causes AIDS is highly contentious (Hooper, 2003: and Martin, 1993). The first reported and clearly defined case of an individual with HIV/AIDS was in United States in 1981 (Hooper, 2000). With benefit of modern research an earlier sample of blood stored in 1959 was found to have contained the virus when it was tested in 1998. This case of a Congolese man is the earliest documented case of an individual carrying the virus (Sharp, 2000). Botswana's first HIV/AIDS case was reported in 1985 and since then the more and more cases have been reported (ACHAP, 2006). The virus that causes AIDS was first isolated by a researcher Luc Montagnier at the Pasteur institute of research in France in 1983 and the same virus was also isolated independently by Doctor Robert Gallo in United States a year later and given its current name by a panel of scientists the same year (Cantwell, 2005).

Controversial as the origins of the HIV/AIDS may be, the number of cases of HIV/AIDS globally and Botswana in particular have tremendously grown reaching pandemic levels. Statistics show that an estimated 38.6 million people were living with HIV/AIDS worldwide as of the end 2005 (UNAIDS, 2006). The statistics further show that an estimated four million new infections were registered in 2005 while another 2.8 million lost there lives in the same year worldwide. Of the 38.6 million people living with HIV/AIDS world wide, Sub-Saharan Africa accounted for about 24.5 million people which is about 63% of the world

AIDS/HIV population yet it has only about ten percent of the total world population (UNAIDS, 2006). It is clear from the statistics that the region is very hard hit by the pandemic. Botswana is one of the worst hit countries in the Sub-Saharan Africa, with about 270,000 people both young and adults infected out of a population of about 1.8 million people. The adult (15-49 years) prevalence of about 24.1% is the second highest in the region and the world, only surpassed by Swaziland (UNAIDS 2006).

The HIV/AIDS scourge has had a huge impact on the economical and social landscape of Botswana. Life expectancy has fallen from 65 years as of 1995 to less than 40 years in 2005 (Avert.Org, 2006). Botswana's economic growth, as measured by GDP, is estimated to slow down by 1.5% annually, several health indicators such as infant mortality rate have also been affected negatively. There is a huge pressure on the health sector as the more hospital beds are occupied by HIV/AIDS patients. All sectors of the economy have been affected (Mogae, 2004).

2.2.1 Response to HIV/AIDS

As a result of the devastating impact of HIV/AIDS the president of Botswana declared HIV/AIDS a national emergency in 2000 (Mogae, 2004). The government instituted a strategy, the Botswana National Strategic Framework for HIV/AIDS (2003–2009) to respond to the deadly scourge through several activities and projects. Figure 2.1 illustrates the different players involved in the fight against HIV/AIDS and the coordinating structure in implementing the strategic framework. Their different roles are highlighted thereafter:

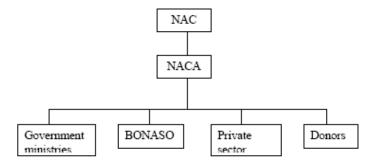


Figure 2.1: Organogramme showing the partners in the strategic fight against HIV/AIDS Source: Mogomosti 2004

National AIDS Council (NAC)

This highest policy making body in the strategic framework and is chaired by the state president (NACA, 2004).

NACA

NACA is the secretariat of NAC. It is tasked with responsibility of coordinating the implementation of the strategic framework. The key roles of NACA includes among others to:

- a). identify key strategic priorities in the war against HIV/AIDS,
- b). develop and support programs and policies that can deliver on these priorities, and
- c). develop tools and mechanisms to monitor and evaluate progress in the war on HIV/AIDS.

(NACA, 2004)

Government ministries

Different government ministries and departments carry out different AIDS related activities but generally current government interventions involve prevention of HIV/AIDS infections through

- a) Behavioural Change Communication (BCC) programmes
- b) Prevention of Mother to Child Infection (PMTCI) infections
- Provision of Anti-Retroral Virals (ARVs) treatment through a programme called Massa (Setswana word to mean "the dawn"),

- d) Care of orphans who have lost their parents to HIV/AIDS
- e) Mitigating the impact of HIV/AIDS, managing the legal and ethical environment concerning HIV/AIDS.

Donors

The donors include international development agencies for example USAID, DFID and UNAID plus the other UN related organizations like UNDP through their own interventions programs or through partnership with government to implement or fund some government interventions.

Private sector

Private entities such as pharmaceuticals companies like Pfizer, Merck and Bristol Myers-Squib are also involved in the interventions through provision of subsidized drugs, funding research into the efficacy of the drugs used in the treatment of the disease, and funding other interventions. Different private sector companies such as banks, mining companies, and telecommunication companies also have their own HIV/AIDS policies to try and manage this scourge in the work place.

BONASO (NGOs)

Despite the concerted efforts by all the players in the fight against the scourge, there is still a gap in the provision of the HIV/AIDS related services. Local NGOs have come in to augment the efforts of all the stakeholders and fill in the gap in the intervention to fight HIV/AIDS.

Most of the local HIV/AIDS NGOs in Botswana are affiliated to an umbrella organization called Botswana Network of Aids Service Organizations (BONASO) whose roles include to (BONASO, 2006):

 a) Coordinate the civil society response to HIV/AIDS and facilitate an enabling environment for their activities.

- b) Mobilise resources for its members, strengthen the capacity of NGOs and serve as a mouthpiece for its entire member.
- Facilitate sharing of information, experiences and best practices within their member organizations.

The membership to BONASO has been growing from an initial 38 members in 2001, 65 members in 2003(Mogomosti, 2004) and currently (2007) the fully paid up members are 97 (BONASO, 2007).

Affiliation to an umbrella organization just like BONASO is very advantageous to all the stakeholders as illustrated below:

- a) It provides a common forum to articulate their views in a coordinated way.
- b) Make the interests of members of the umbrella organization known to the stakeholders that matter.
- c) It also provides a peer review mechanisms within civil society and makes tracing and communication to and between members much easier.

The local NGOs in Botswana are carrying out activities including, Behavioural Change Communication (BCC), Care and Support of the Sick (CSS), Socio-Economic impact Mitigation (SEM) through care of the widows, orphans and other vulnerable children and Advocacy for Human Rights (HRA) of people living with HIV/AIDS and those affected by the pandemic (refer to appendices 1, 2, 3, and 4).

The local NGOs play a huge role by bringing the much needed services to the communities in which they operate (Hans, 2003). Helen *et al.*, (2005) identify the various strengths of the local NGOs to include the following:

a) They understand better the needs of the community and how HIV/AIDS is perceived and can appropriately talk about it and initiate interventions understood within the context of the community. This is very important due to cultural differences and the associated privacy and stigma attached to the HIV/AIDS condition.

- b) The local NGOs because of their size, operating structure and closeness to the community are more flexible as opposed to government bureaucrats to respond to community needs and priorities. In the initial phases of ACHAP activities in Botswana, they faced a lot frustration from government bureaucrats and red tape and they choose to engage local NGOs to facilitate quick implementation of their projects (Ramiah and Reich, 2006).
- c) The local NGOs are also better mobilizers of the community to respond to the challenges community maybe facing such as HIV/AIDS and are usually cost effective in delivery of services as opposed to government departments. The quick response is as a result of the fact that they work in community and with the community.

The activities of these organizations are normally funded by donors who include among others international development agencies such as UNDP, USAID, philanthropy bodies such as the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, the private companies such as, pharmaceutical companies. The NGOs solicit for funding from donors through proposals detailing the project plan: the donors require that the activities are carried out in specified duration based on the budget they provide to achieve the specified objectives so as to contribute to overall goals of fighting the AIDS scourge.

At the strategic level BONASO partners with NACA as the voice of the civil society in the fight against the scourge. NACA channels any funds or assistance to the civil society organizations at the community through BONASO.

2.2.2 Extent of funding in the HIV/AIDS fight

A lot of funds and other resources have been committed in the fight against HIV/AIDS globally (Halmashaw and Hawkins, 2004). According to UNAIDS (2006) an estimated

US\$6.1 billion was spent on HIV/AIDS related programmes globally in 2005, an estimated US\$15 billion was required to adequately respond to the challenges of the scourge in 2006 of which only about US\$8.2 billion had been committed. Most of these funds have been committed by developed nations and philanthropic bodies to initiatives such as the Global Fund to fight AIDS Tuberculosis and Malaria (GFATM) (Avert, 2005). Botswana was allocated US\$18.5 million by the GFATM, a big portion of which was channelled to the civil society organizations through BONASO by NACA who was the fund manager.

The president of United States of America in 2003 announced The President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) in which he committed up to US\$15billion for 5years (Myra, 2005). The 15 focus countries eligible for the PEPFAR initiative includes Botswana among other the 12 sub-Saharan countries and other hard hit countries (Myra, 2005). A lot of funds have been spent and more are being committed for the fight against the scourge in Botswana in particular by the different stakeholders in the fight. The projected total cost of implementing the Botswana National Strategic Framework for HIV/AIDS (2003–2009) is BWP12 billion (about US\$2 billion) over the 5 years (NACA, 2003). The government of Botswana contributes resources to the implementation of this framework and receives funding from its development partners including the European Union, Norway, Sweden, United Kingdom, and Japan, to supplement. The government budget allocation to HIV/AIDS has significantly increased from BWP68.9 million (US\$10 million) in 2001 to BWP605 million (US\$93.1 million) in 2006 (Gaolathe, 2003: and Gaolathe, 2006).

Another initiative in which resources in the fight against the scourge in Botswana have been committed is the African Comprehensive Partnership on HIV/AIDS (ACHAP). This is a partnership between the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation and Merck Pharmaceutical Foundation. Each of the partners committed US\$50 million over five years from 2000 to 2004 but as of 2005 only US\$54 million of the committed total US\$100 million had been

spent because of capacity problems. In 2005 the partners chose to extend the partnership over another 5years up to 2009 (Gates foundation, 2006). ACHAP has worked with civil society organizations through BONASO through the Small Grant Programme where they have funded over 100 community-based projects ranging from US\$75 to US\$7500 (ACHAP, 2005). BONASO also works with NACA to access funding for its member organizations from NACA through its civil society partnership. NACA channelled GFATM funds to Local NGOs through BONASO (NACA, 2005).

It is evident that a significant amount of funds have been committed in this fight against HIV/AIDS globally and Botswana. Specifically the different NGOs have different sources of funding, therefore it is quite difficult to document the actual amount of funds that NGOs in Botswana have accessed over the period of time they have been involved in the fight against HIV/AIDS. Nevertheless it is evident that a significant amount of resources have been provided to the NGOs. As a result there is need for these funds to be effective in achieving the objective for which they are disbursed or else they just go down the drain. There is need to demonstrate that the funds actually did achieve what they were disbursed for. It is not prudent in the fight against HIV/AIDS to commit more and more funds without value for money in terms of impact. It is even highlighted that total funds committed are not sufficient to adequately respond to the scourge. The expenditure of these funds is at expense of other priorities in the country the further reason why they should be impact of their use.

2.3 NGO Projects

The activities of NGOs to respond to HIV/AIDS are usually done as projects, with a set and defined time framework, budget and objectives to achieve. The projects the local NGOs implement have a large number of stakeholders that include: donors, beneficiaries of the project activities (e.g. people living with HIV/AIDS, orphans), the community in which the project is implemented and government. The stakeholders require accountability in terms of resource use and impact of the project, transparency and good project performance.

Hulme and Edward (1995) as quoted by Crawford and Bryce (2003) define accountability in the context of NGOs as the means by which individuals or organizations report to recognized authority and are held responsible for their actions. They further discuss that accountability entails transparency in decision making and honest reporting of how and what resources have been used and what has been achieved by the project. It is important that there is accountability of the resources so that donors are motivated to commit more funds. Other stakeholders also "own" the project if it is accountable to them and is not seen as a money making venture for a few individuals. Avina (1993) distinguishes between short-term functional accountability i.e. accounting for resource use and immediate impacts and strategic accountability: accounting for the impacts that NGOs actions have on the actions of other organizations and the wider environment.

UNAIDS (2004) argues that accountability in the aid context has got two dimensions to it, the horizontal and vertical. The vertical has got the upward accountability to the donors in terms of resource use and results of the projects and the downward accountability to the beneficiaries, those directly or indirectly affected by the disease. The horizontal dimension to accountability entails accountability within and across partnerships donor to donor, public/private sector.

There is unanimity among the different authors that the NGOs should be accountable to all the stakeholders of the projects they implement inclusive of the beneficiaries who are normally looked at by the implementers as people who are fortunate that the project was conceived hence they should not ask questions.

Project performance in the context of this research is defined as the extent to which the project is been able to carry out its scope, meet its set schedule within budget and attain its set objectives (PMI,2004). Good project performance entails that the project covers its scope within schedule and budget and attaining its set objectives.

Effective monitoring and evaluation of projects is usually one of the ingredients of good project performance. It provides means of accountability, demonstrating transparency to the stakeholders and facilitates organizational learning through documenting lessons learned in the implementation of the project and incorporating the same in the subsequent project planning and implementation or through sharing experiences with other implementers. The next section discusses in detail what monitoring and evaluation entails.

2.4 Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring and evaluation are intimately linked project management functions and as a result there is a lot of confusion in trying to make them work on projects (Crawford and Bryce, 2003). Monitoring and evaluation are distinct but complementary (PASSIA, 2004). Casley and Kumar (1986) as quoted by Crawford and Bryce (2003) disprove the use the acronym M&E (monitoring and evaluation) as it suggests that we are looking at a single function without making a clear distinction between the two. For the purposes of making a clear distinction between the two they are described separately below:

2.4.1 Monitoring

Different authors have defined monitoring differently there is some overlap and disagreement between the operational definition stated in the background of this research and the definitions of the different authors as highlighted below.

McCoy et al. (2005) definition is adopted and modified as the operational definition in the context of this research and it defines monitoring as the routine tracking of the key elements of project implementation performance, usually inputs, activities and outputs, through record-keeping, regular reporting and surveillance. It seeks to determine if the inputs, activities and outputs (immediate deliverables) are proceeding according to plan. Inputs to be tracked include financial resources, human resources, equipment used on the project and any other input that goes into project implementation. The financial resources are tracked with a budget

and performance is analyzed by comparing planned expenditure against actual expenditure.

Activities or processes are tracked using a schedule, which is planned schedule against actual schedule of the activities i.e. what activities have been done versus what should have been done according to the planned schedule.

Crawford and Bryce (2003) argue that monitoring is an ongoing process of data capture and analysis for primarily project control with an internally driven emphasis on efficiency of project. The authors define efficiency in this context as doing the right thing that is: efficient conversion of inputs to outputs within budget and schedule and wise use of human, financial and natural capital. This definition emphasizes the fact that monitoring is geared mainly to project control. This is in agreement with the operational definition that looks at project control as taking corrective action and making decisions pertaining to the project by the project manager during implementation.

Uitto (2004) defines monitoring briefly as a continuous function that aims primarily to provide management and stakeholders with early indicators of project performance of a project and progress (or lack thereof) in achievement of the results. Monitoring is seen as a continuous function as highlighted in the contextual definition of this research but it does not highlight what is tracked against what so as to be able to indicate performance. Nevertheless it emphasizes the fact that monitoring is very important in that it provides information to the management and stakeholders about performance. It also highlights the fact that monitoring is results oriented.

UNFPA (2004) defines monitoring as a process that continuously tracks performance against planned by collecting and analyzing data indicators established for monitoring and evaluation purposes. Monitoring is seen as in the contextual definition as providing continuous information on whether progress is being made toward achieving results through record keeping and regular reporting systems. Monitoring looks at the project processes that

transform inputs into outputs, it also identifies project strength and weaknesses. The performance information from monitoring enhances learning and decision making during implementation.

It is important as highlighted by all the authors above that there is dissemination of the monitoring information to the stakeholders.

The purpose of monitoring in summary is to:

- a) ensure that implementation is moving according to plans and if not the project manager takes corrective action, the control function of project management. The monitoring enhances project management decision making during the implementation thereby increasing the chances of good project performance (Crawford and Bryce, 2003: and Gyorkos, 2003). This function also aids early identification of problems before they get out of hand since it is continuous. This is very important in management of projects as it lessens the chances of crisis management since there is constant feel of the "project temperature".
- b) facilitate transparency and accountability of the resources to the stakeholders including donors, project beneficiaries and the wider community in which the project is implemented. Monitoring tracks and documents resource use throughout the implementation of the project (PASSIA, 2004: Crawford and Bryce, 2003: and Uitto, 2004). This enhances accountability in that it facilitates the demonstration of the resource use throughout the implementation of the project.
- c) facilitate evaluation of the project. In a well-designed monitoring and evaluation system, monitoring contributes greatly towards evaluation. Information from monitoring feeds into the evaluation process.

2.4.2 Evaluation

As with monitoring, evaluation is also defined differently by different authors. Evaluation is defined contextually in this research as the episodic (not continuous, usually mid term and at end of the project) assessment of an ongoing or completed project to determine mainly its actual impact against the planned impact (strategic goal or objectives for which it was implemented), sustainability, effectiveness and efficiency.

Uitto (2004) argues that evaluations are systematic and independent. They are an assessment of an ongoing or completed project including its design, implementation and results. He further agues that evaluations assess the relevance, efficiency of implementation, effectiveness, impact and sustainability of the project.

Assessing relevance of a continuing project is important to justify continued investment of resources into the project, if found that the project is no longer relevant then funding can be stopped and funds channelled else where.

Effectiveness is defined as the extent to which the set project objectives were achieved and efficiency as how economically resources (inputs) were converted into outputs for completed or partially completed projects.

Efficiency looks at how the project faired in terms meeting the set schedule and allocated budget.

Sustainability is defined as the continuation of the project to bear benefits to the beneficiaries long after the project has ended or the donors have withdrawn funding. It looks at probability of long-term benefits of project long after the project close (Jody and Ray, 2004). Sustainability is very important in that it is not prudent to have a lot of resources invested in a project whose benefits will be short lived. The design and implementation can be altered in order to increase the chance of sustainability. Sustainability has gained a lot of currency in

the recent times, because the donors want to determine whether the project benefits will continue to accrue after they cease financing the project (PASSIA, 2004).

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2002) definition as cited by Jody and Ray (2004) is in agreement with the above definition but adds that an evaluation should provide information that is credible and is useful and can be incorporated into decision making by both the implementers of the project and the donors who financed the project.

IFAD (2004) states that evaluations should be as objective as possible so that the information provided is as credible as possible and is not questionable. Objectivity could be achieved by bringing in external consultants that were not involved in the project implementation but who should work in partnership with the project implementation officials.

McCoy et al. (2005) are in agreement with other authors and the contextual definitional that evaluation assess the projects effectiveness in achieving its goals and in determining the relevance and sustainability of an ongoing project.

Shapiro (2004) emphasizes the fact that evaluation compares the project impact with what was set to be achieved in the project plan and further argues that evaluation examines how the project impacts were achieved and what went wrong or right for the benefit of organizational learning. The emphasis of this approach to evaluation is on impact of the project after implementation. It does not recognize the midterm evaluations that tend to look at the continued relevance and sustainability of the project and the impacts that the project has had even before completion.

Evaluations can be divided into two types depending on when they take place: formative and summative each is described below in detail.

Formative evaluations

Formative evaluations take place during the implementation of the project. They are mainly implementation process oriented, reviewing the overall performance of the project in terms of input use, schedule of project and outputs. They also look at strengths, weakness, and challenges of the project and whether the continued project plan will be able to deliver the project objectives or it needs redesigning (PASSIA, 2004). This type of evaluation may also look at the continued relevance of the project and its sustainability. The aim is to improve the performance of the project during implementation (Shapiro, 2004). Formative evaluations are sometimes called interim or midterm evaluations.

Summative evaluations

Summative evaluations are carried out at the end of the project with objective of determining how the project progressed, what went right and wrong and capture any lessons learned. Summative evaluations may also be able to determine the overall impact of the project and the extent to which the project achieved its objectives (Shapiro, 2004).

Wellings and Macdowall (2000) identify two types of summative evaluations: processes evaluation and outcome evaluation. A discussion of each follows:

Process evaluations

Process evaluation is geared towards guiding future projects by facilitating organizational learning. It is not enough to capture whether a project succeeded or not but it is important to understand and document why it succeeded or why it failed so that the mistakes are not repeated and good practices are shared across the stakeholders. Process evaluation also assess how the project faired in terms of efficiency i.e. whether the targeted project outputs were achieved within budget and schedule and if not what the reasons hampered that.

Outcome evaluations

Outcome evaluation is concerned with the extent to which the set objectives were achieved and how we can attribute the role of project to the outcomes. It is quite hard to clearly attribute that the observed outcomes are solely the result of the project without any other exogenous factor and it is even harder to determine the actual contribution of the project to the observed outcomes.

In order to effectively evaluate a project it is important that both the formative and summative evaluations are carried out and with summative evaluation both process and outcome evaluations should be done fully optimize the benefits of evaluation.

2.4.3 The link between monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring and evaluation though usually taken as common functions are distinct. Figure 2.2 illustrates the demarcation between monitoring and evaluation. The distinction is described thereafter:

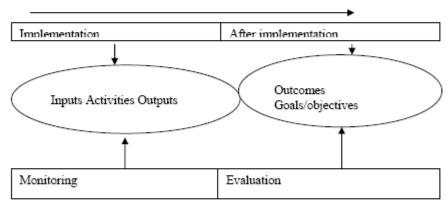


Figure 2.2: Demarcation between monitoring and evaluation in the project lifecycle Source: Own

Monitoring as illustrated in Figure 2.2 usually happens during the implementation phase of the project and involves tracking the inputs, activities and the outputs. On the other hand evaluation usually happens after implementation, after project closeout and involves determing whether the outcomes and goals were achieved.

The figure is simplistic and does not highlight the full link between the two for example:

- a) it does not highlight the fact that an evaluation (mid term) can take place before the end of the project to assess what the project has achieved so far and whether in its current state it will achieve its target and whether there is continued relevance:
- b) evaluations also retrospectively look at how the inputs were used and whether the activities were done according to schedule and how the outputs were produced:
- c) it assumes a linear relation of conversions of inputs, to outputs through activities and then outputs results into outcomes which result into attainment of the goal. In reality it may not be the case but never the less the figure helps in figuratively demarcating between the two in the project lifecycle.

Despite the fact that we have attempted to delineate monitoring and evaluation in the earlier discussions, the two are complementary and in most organizations are taken as a single function. Each supports the other although they seek to ask different questions as illustrated in the earlier discussions. Jody and Ray (2004) identify the complementary roles of the two functions to include the following:

- a). information from monitoring feeds into evaluation in order to understand how project proceeded and capture any lessons at the end of the implementation, it is important to capture what went right and what went wrong for learning purposes:
- b). in case where the projects is performing very badly as demonstrated by the monitoring function, an evaluation may be scheduled to understand why there is a problem. The evaluation may recommend a redesign of the project:
- c). a mid term evaluation may determine that the monitoring function may need redesigning to be able to capture more data to give a better understanding of the project performance.

There is need to locate and embed monitoring and evaluation in the project management lifecycle. The link highlighting monitoring and evaluation as processes of project management is explored in next subsection.

2.4.4 Monitoring and evaluation as project management processes

In order to locate and embed monitoring and evaluation as project management processes, two authoritative project management bodies of knowledge have been reviewed and their views on monitoring and evaluation are highlighted. The two project management bodies of knowledge are the Project Management Institute (PMI) body of knowledge (PMBOK) and the Association of Project management (APM) body of knowledge (APMBOK).

The Project Management Institute (PMI) body of knowledge(PMBOK) divides project lifecycle into five major stages namely initiation, planning, implementation, control and project close out (PMI, 2004). Table 2.1 illustrates the timing of monitoring and evaluation in the project lifecycle.

Table 2.1: Timing of monitoring and evaluation in the project lifecycle

PMI project lifecycle stages	Timing of monitoring and evaluation	
Project initiation		
Project planning		
Implementation		
Project control	Monitoring	
Project close out	Evaluation	

Source: Own

In terms of the PMBOK monitoring is a function that happens during the implementation stage of the project life cycle. Information from monitoring facilitates the control function of the project (PMI 2004). It is important that the monitoring happens continuously and effectively thought out the project implementation process to enable the project manager to adequately control the project. This is very important if the project manager is to quickly diagnosis problems that may hinder project success and hence seek remedy.

The PMI (2004) also asserts that evaluations occur at the end of the project during the lifecycle, where it assess how the project performed and capture any lessons from it. Monitoring information is very helpful in determining how the project progressed in terms of schedule, cost and any hindering problems encountered during implementation. As highlighted earlier when assessing how the project progressed during evaluation, information from monitoring is very relevant and useful (Shapiro, 2004) hence there should be safekeeping of monitoring data.

The PMI (2004) life cycle is inadequate in looking at projects with along term impact after end of implementation and project closeout. HIV/AIDS projects usually have long-term impact such as sustained longtime behavioral change. Some impacts of HIV/AIDS projects like reduced HIV/AIDS prevalence can only be ascertained long after the project was closed down. In that regard evaluation for long term impact cannot be illustrated on the 5 stage project life cycle advocated by PMI.

The APMBOK identifies measurement of project success as a very vital factor in the management of projects (APM 2006). And it defines project success as the satisfaction of stakeholders needs and is measured by success criteria set at the beginning of the project (APM, 2006). This implies that at the end of the project there is need to evaluate how successful the project has been in relationship with the earlier set criterion by the stakeholders. Different stakeholders have different interest, the project manager may be interested in minimum scope change, the management may be interested in achieving the project within budget and schedule and fully scope this implies all the interests of the different stakeholders should be incorporated and agreed upon as a basis to measure project

success. The success of the project according to APM (2006) is determined at project close out and handover.

The APM (2006) also identifies benefits as impact of the project deliverables on the stakeholders. These are measured after the project has ended and would include for example increased market share, staff and customer care, reduced prevalence, and increased condom use. This implies that there is need to schedule an impact assessment to determine to what extent the project achieved the benefits that it had intended it to achieve

Both the APM (2006) and PMI (2004) also identify a project monitoring control technique called Earned Value Management (EVM), which integrates both schedule and cost management. It is a tool that has been widely used in engineering and construction projects. It is a very powerful tool but not much is known of how it can be applied in these HIV/AIDS projects.

The APM (2006) and PMI (2004) orientation is skewed towards commercial projects. In order to use them on monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects there is need to go into deeper interpretation. Both APM (2006) and PMI (2004) techniques do not appreciate much of human development projects like HIV/AIDS projects and the techniques may not be easily transferred to management of these projects without significant alterations.

After embedding and locating monitoring and evaluation in the project management process, it is important to explore the link between the two with project planning. The subsequent section explores the link

2.4.5 The link between monitoring, evaluation and project planning

PASSIA (2004) argues that monitoring and evaluation should be integral components of the project management cycle including project planning and design. Thinking in terms of monitoring and evaluation at the design stage facilitates the project stakeholders to think in terms of performance measurement even before implementation starts with a clear picture of expectations of what a successful project would look like.

PASSIA (2004) further argues that poorly designed projects are hard to monitor or evaluate. The project plan defines the project budget and schedule of activities and outputs which act as baselines against which implementation performance is assessed periodically during the project monitoring process. The project plan also defines the project's expected outcomes and goals and facilitates the evaluation to determine the extent to which the objectives were achieved. Monitoring and evaluation can only be as good as the project plan, if the project plan is flawed and unrealistic then monitoring and evaluation will not be of any significant value to the project stakeholders.

Gyorkos (2003) notes that project planners should include a clearly delineated monitoring and evaluation plan as an integral part of the overall project plan. The monitoring and evaluation plan he argues, should have the following components:

- a) monitoring and evaluation activities
- b) persons to carry out the activities
- c) frequency of activities
- d) sufficient budget for activities
- e) specification of the use of monitoring and evaluation findings

Having a clearly delineated monitoring and evaluation plan ensures that monitoring and evaluation activities are given the due attention they require and are not treated as a peripheral function on the project.

Next the techniques of monitoring and evaluation are explored

2.5 Monitoring and Evaluation Techniques

Monitoring and evaluation techniques can be divided into approaches, frameworks and data collecting methods as shown by Figure 2.3. The different approaches to monitoring and evaluation include participatory and traditional/conventional. No matter which approach is used, there are two frameworks that can be employed in monitoring and evaluation i.e. logical framework or theory based. With either frameworks there are different data collecting methods for the purposes of monitoring and evaluation but they can be divided into qualitative and quantitative. Each of the techniques is described next,

Approaches

- Traditional /conventional
- Participatory

Frameworks

- Logical framework
- Theory based

Data collecting Methods

- Qualitative
 - Focus group discussions
 - Interviews
 - Direct observations
- Quantitative
 - Attendance registers
 - Surveys using questionnaires
 - Distribution logs

Figure 2.3: Monitoring and evaluation approaches, frameworks and data collecting methods. Source: Own

2.5.1 Approaches

There are two types of approaches to monitoring and evaluation, the conventional/traditional and the newer one, the participatory approach, each is explained hereafter:

Conventional/traditional approach

The traditional approach to monitoring and evaluation is very prevalent in which donors dictate how monitoring and evaluation will be done. The donors provide a preset monitoring and evaluation reporting format that the implementing agency has to adhere to. All that the implementing staff has to do is collect data that goes into filling this report for passing over to

the donor (World Bank, 2004). The most emphasis is on the monitoring and evaluation needs of the donor as opposed to other stakeholders. Evaluations are usually done by an external individual at the end of the project.

Participatory

The World Bank (2004) defines participatory monitoring and evaluation as the approach that involves stakeholders such as the project beneficiaries, staff, and donors and community in the design and implementation of the project monitoring and evaluation as opposed to the conventional approach. Ideally all the stakeholders in the participatory monitoring and evaluation are involved in identifying the project, the objectives and goals and identification of the indicators that will be used in monitoring and evaluation. The stakeholders are also involved in collection and analysis of the data and capturing the lessons. The role of the managers of the project is to facilitate the monitoring and evaluation process.

2.5.2 Frameworks

With either approach to monitoring and evaluation there are two frameworks: theory based and logical framework, a discussion of each follows in the next sub-section.

Theory-based evaluation

Theory-based evaluation allows an in-depth understanding of the workings of a program or project. In particular, it need not assume simple linear cause-and effect relationships (Davidson, 2000). It applies a systems approach where the success of an intervention is affected by other factors in the environment which should be identified and how they might interact, it can then be decided which steps should be monitored as the program develops, to see how well they are in fact borne out. This allows the critical success factors to be identified. And where the data show these factors have not been achieved, a reasonable

conclusion is that the program is less likely to be successful in achieving its objectives (Uitto, 2004).

Rogers et al., as cited by Uitto (2000) identifies advantages of the theory based framework to monitoring and evaluation to include the following:

- a) being able to attribute project outcomes to specific projects or activities:
- b) being able to identify unanticipated and undesired programme or project consequences.

Theory based evaluations enable the evaluator to tell why and how the programme is working (Weiss, 2003: and Birkmayer and Weiss, 2000). However Theory based evaluations are not widely used by local NGOs.

Logical framework:

The logical framework approach (LFA) has come to play a central role in the planning and management of development and aid interventions over the last twenty years of which HIV/AIDS projects are. This is the most widely used approach. Its origins lie in a planning approach for the United States military, which was then adapted by the National Space Agency (NASA) before being adopted by USAID for development projects over thirty years ago. It was adopted by European development organizations in the 1980s and by the end of the 1990s the LFA (or an adapted form of it) had become the standard approach required by many donors for grant applications (Aune, 2000: Reidar, 2003: and Kaplan and Garent, 2005).

Most NGOs implementing HIV/ADS projects use the logical framework approach in planning designing and aiding monitoring and evaluation of their projects. Despite the wide use and wide requirement by donors for adoption of LFA to aid planning, management and the monitoring and evaluation amongst NGOs, it is not clear how skilled the NGOs are in the use of this approach. The inability to effectively be able to use this tool means that the NGOs cannot optimally benefit from it.

The result of the logical framework approach is a 5X4 matrix that shows the relationship of inputs, processes, outputs, outcomes and goals of the project plus underlying assumptions (Crawford and Bryce, 2003). Table 2.2 illustrates components of a logical framework matrix (log frame).

Table 2.2: Logical frame work matrix (log frame)

Goals /	Objectively verifiable	Mean of verifying the	Assumptions
	indicators	indicators	
Goals /impact	Impact		
Outcomes	Outcome indicators	Surveys	Goal-outcome
Outputs	Output indicators	Surveys	Output-outcome
Activities/processes	Activity/process	Project reports	Activity-output assumptions
Inputs e.g.	Input indicators	Project reports	Input-activity assumptions

Source: Adapted from AusAID, 2000

Table 2.2 illustrates components logical framework matrix, a description of each component in the matrix using a Behavioural Change Communication (BCC) project as a reference project (Appendix 1) follows:

Inputs

Inputs are the resources that go into the project to produce outputs. The resources would include

- a) financial resources,
- b) human resources e.g. trainers,
- c) equipment audio visual equipment, HIV testing equipment

Process/activities

The process/activities are the tasks carried out to implement the project and deliver the identified outputs. The activities of BCC project would include for example

- a) Developing of Information Education Communication (IEC) materials
- Selecting of communities and schools to be involved in project
- Formation of peer groups
- d) Recruitment of peer educators
- e) Training of peer educators
- f) Staging of the workshops, drama competitions
- g) Distribution of condoms
- h) Distribution of IEC material

Outputs

Outputs are information, products, or results produced by undertaking projects activities highlighted above. Outputs relate to completion of activities and are the type of results over which managers have a high degree of influence. Outputs reflect what you hoped to produce from a particular input (or set of inputs). Outputs usually reflect a result achieved in a relatively short time period (0–2 years) (McCoy et al, 2005). Examples of outputs would include

- a) Trained peer educators
- b) Formed and active peer groups
- c) Community members trained
- d) IEC materials distributed
- e) Condoms distributed

Outcomes

Outcomes are immediate impact of the out puts of the projects on the community. McCoy et al. (2005) defined outcomes of HIV/AIDS project as the broad changes in development conditions. Outcomes help us answer the "so what?" question, for example we trained 100 people in behaviour change and increased their knowledge but did they change their

behaviour? Outcomes often reflect behaviour or economic change. Outcomes usually reflect a result achieved over a short or intermediate time period, 2–5 years (McCoy et al., 2005: and Rugg and Heitgerd, 2000). Examples of outcomes from a BCC project include:

- a) More accurately informed community on HIV/AIDS issues (transmission, prevention)
- More skilled and assertive people on HIV/AIDS e.g. girls saying no or negotiating for safer sex
- c) Increased condom use
- d) Delayed sex debut
- e) Less stigma in community
- f) More use of health services
- g) Increased number of people in community testing for their HIV status.

Goals or impact

Goals or impact are the long term outcomes of the project .McCoy et al. (2005) define impact as the overall and long-term effects of an intervention/project. Impacts are the ultimate result attributable to a project intervention over an extended period. Impacts usually reflect a result achieved over a longer time period (5–10+ years). For example in this case the goal is to reduce HIV/AIDS prevalence.

Goals are usually general desirable conditions the project should bring about: the goal may be divided into smaller objectives. These objectives should be Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, Achievable and Time bound (SMART) (Reijer, 2002). For example the goal is to reduce overall HIV/AIDS prevalence, one of the objectives would be to reduce HIV/AIDS prevalence by half among 15-25 years age group within five years. This eases the process of performance measurement, which monitoring and evaluation actually do on the project.

The logical framework approach provides a structure for logical thinking in project design, implementation and monitoring and evaluation. It makes the project logic explicit, provides the means for a thorough analysis of the needs of project beneficiaries and links project objectives, strategies, inputs, and activities outputs and outcomes to the specified needs (NORAD, 1995). The logical framework approach also helps to clarify objectives of any project, program, or policy. It aids in the identification of the expected causal link in the following results chain: inputs, processes, outputs outcomes, and impact. It leads to the identification of performance indicators at each stage in this chain, as well as risks which might impede the attainment of the objectives. The approach is also a vehicle for engaging partners in clarifying objectives and designing activities. During implementation the Log Frame that results from the logical framework approach serves as a useful tool to review progress and take corrective action.

They have been numerous adoptions to the logical framework buts its fundamental structure and functionality has remained the same. The vertical axis presents a logical hierarchy of objectives and assumptions based on cause and effect logic known as "vertical logic" of the project. The horizontal axis of the matrix can be verified at each level in the vertical logic and is known as the "horizontal logic" of the project (Crawford and Bryce, 2003).

The vertical logic of the log frame is tested by starting at the bottom of the log frame in the manner below: as illustrated in Figure 2.5 If the inputs are provided and the input activity assumptions hold then the activities can be undertaken effectively. An example of an input activity assumption of a BCC project is the community being receptive and taking part in the activities of the project actively.

If the activities are undertaken and the activity output assumptions hold, then desired project outputs will be produced. An example of an activity output assumption of a BCC project is that the Information Communication Materials (IEC) and trainings are well designed and convey the accurate information on behavioural change and are well understood by the target population.

If the project outputs are produced and the output outcome assumptions hold, then the outcomes should be realized. If the outcomes are realized and the outcome goal assumptions hold then the goal is likely to be attained. The outcome goal assumptions for a BCC project in this case is that environment should be able to sustain and motivate behavioural change to avoid HIV/AIDS. Environments of extreme hunger, wars, unregulated alcohol abuse cannot motivate behavioural change.

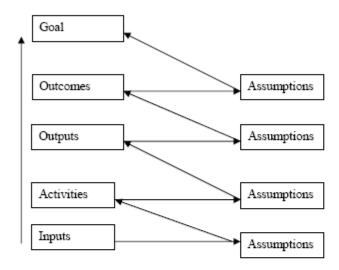


Figure 2.4: Relationships that underpin the vertical logic Source: Adapted from AusAID, 2000

The middle two columns of the log frame matrix that is objectively verifiable indicators and means of verifying the objectives (see Table 2.2) comprise the horizontal logical. The second column requires the identification of measurable indicators for assessment of progress towards the goal for example: the indicator for the goal of the project is the incidence of HIV in the youth. The third column identifies means of verifying the indicator for example the indicator that tracks the means of verifying the goal would be through a survey of HIV prevalence.

Indicators enable managers to track progress, demonstrate results, and take corrective action to improve project performance (World Bank, 2004). Uitto (2004) defines indicators as quantitative or qualitative measures that can be used describe situations and changes in them

over a period time. Indicators in the simplest terms tell us about the situation, they signal the status of a situation. They are used to measures progress in inputs activities, outputs, outcomes and impacts for development projects, programs or intervention. Indicators can be used to track achievement of targets against baseline that the project intends to improve upon. Indicators can help alert management against the management to deviations or problems that need correcting. For the indicators for the different HIV/AIDS projects refer to Appendix 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Using the log frame for monitoring

According to the framework adapted from International Federation of Red Cross (IFRC), different monitoring questions are asked at different levels of the project log frame (IFRC, 2001). Figure 2.6 illustrates the different questions at each level of the log frame. The different monitoring questions are highlighted next:

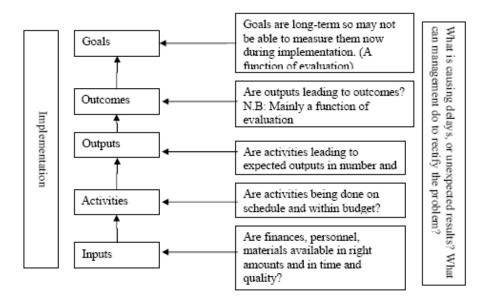


Figure 2.5 Monitoring using elements of log frame Source: adapted from IFRC, 2001

Inputs

The interest at this level is whether the finances, human resources, materials and equipment are available at right time in right amounts and quality.

Activities

The question of interest is whether the activities are being done on schedule and within budget.

Outputs

The question of interest is whether the project activities are leading to expected outputs in number and quality.

Outcome and goal

Tracking these is mainly a function of evaluation.

Monitoring the project using the logical framework entails using "input indicators" such as a budget to monitor resource use throughout the implementation of the project. It also entails tracking the human resource deployment on project activities i.e. who is doing what and where. The use of equipment on project should also be monitored. The activity schedule is used to monitor the project progress in terms of what activities have been done in relation what should have been done. The output indicators are monitored at different milestones to determine the progress of the project in attaining the set outputs in the project plan. Refer to Appendices 1, 2, 3 and 4 for the input, activity and output indicators for HIV/AIDS projects.

Using the log frame for evaluation

The IFRC framework (IFRC, 2001) for monitoring highlighted above also further discusses different project evaluation questions at the different levels of the log frame. Figure 2.7 shows the different questions of evaluation and the discussion follows:

Impact: What changes did project have on community? Were there unintended changes the project brought about?

Sustainability: Will the benefits of the project continue to accrue after end of the project after the end of financing?

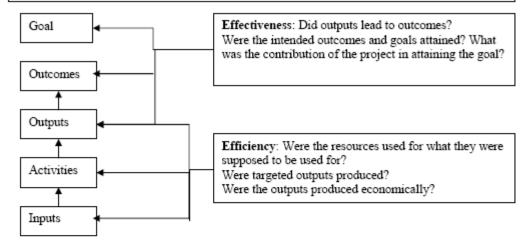


Figure 2.6: Evaluation using log frame elements Source: adapted from IFRC (2001)

Inputs and activities

Evaluation is interested in determining the efficiency of resource use and results of the activities that were carried out on the project and following questions are normally posed:

- a) Were the resources used for what they were supposed to be used for?
- b) Were targeted outputs produced?
- c) Were the outputs produced economically?
- d) Were activities done within schedule and budget?

Outputs, outcomes and goals

Evaluation is interested in determing the effectiveness of the project and it poses questions such as:

- a) Did outputs lead to outcomes?
- b) Were the intended outcomes and goals attained?
- c) What was the contribution of the project in attaining the goal?

Other than the effectiveness and efficiency at the different levels of project log frame, the IFRC (2001) also highlights other important attributes that evaluation seeks to determine, that is sustainability and impact.

Sustainability

Evaluation seeks to determine whether the benefits of the project will continue to accrue long after the project has ended.

Impact

Evaluation seeks to determine what changes project had on community and whether there were any unintended changes the project brought about.

Despite the wide use of the logical framework approach in the design, planning, monitoring and evaluation of projects it has got some shortcomings as discussed below:

- a) it lacks a time dimension to implementation and scheduling of the monitoring and evaluation activities. For the approach to be effective in managing the project there is need to have an extension of a schedule of project activities inclusive of the monitoring and evaluation activities, such as data collection, analysis dissemination.
- b) the logical framework approach is obsessed with measurable indicators that are SMART. There is a bias towards quantitative data which may not be sufficient in describing the whole picture of what the project has achieved or attained for example, one of the indicators for an HIV/AIDS projects output would be number of people exposed to behavioural change messages. This does not tell us anything about the effectiveness of the exposure. There is need to incorporate qualitative data alongside the mainly quantitative indicators that are used with the logical framework approach.

2.5.3 Methods of data collection

There are various methods and tools used in gathering data that goes into tracking the indicators for the monitoring and evaluation function of the project. Walden *et al.* (1999) states that data collection has been traditionally divided into quantitative and qualitative.

Quantitative methods are involved with counts and numbers, e.g. number of people trained, number of PLWHA reached. The data from quantitative methods is analyzed numerically whereas qualitative methods look at an in-depth understanding of the issues, describing perceptions, feelings opinions about the intervention etc. The qualitative method looks at the how and why questions (Webb and Elliot, 2002).

Quantitative data collection

Quantitative data collecting methods include distribution log books, attendance registers, service recording, and surveys with aid of questionnaires while qualitative data collecting methods include among others focus group discussions, in depth interviews, participatory observations. Each of the methods is described next:

Distribution log books

These are records of materials that were distributed during implementation of the project (FHI, 2004). The materials distributed may include IEC materials, condoms, and supplies such as food stuffs to the sick, gloves to care givers. Analysis of this information requires periodic aggregation to determine how many materials were distributed and this is compared with what was planned and decision is made.

This method is applicable in the project monitoring process in order to track the deployment and distribution of material inputs such as condoms, posters, and gloves. This information can also be of value during an evaluation to determine how inputs (materials) were distributed.

Service recording

This entails recording attendance of participants in project activities such as the number of people that have attended a behavioural change communication workshop. It may also involve keeping a record or count of people that are using a particular service of the project such as people that have been counselled and tested for HIV, youth that are active in peer activities, number of peer clubs set up and number of PLWHA served. This helps in determining how many people have been reached by the project. This data can be aggregated at a monthly interval and compared with what is in the work plan in order to determine how the implementation of project is proceeding in respect to the project plan.

This method is of use in collecting data for monitoring outputs of the project in terms of people actually reached by the project, for example the number of people trained in a BCC workshop, number of people counselled and tested for HIV/AIDS.

Surveys using questionnaire

A survey entails targeting a sample of respondents and seeking their views, perceptions, knowledge and attitudes about an intervention for which the project was designed. Shao (1997) defines a questionnaire as a formal set of questions or statements designed to gather information from respondents.

This method is very handy in determing the perceptions of the project stakeholders about the implementation and can be used in evaluating the impact of the project. It can be of use in a BCC project to determine baseline knowledge and perceptions about HIV/AIDS prior to commencement of the project (Walden et al., 1999: and Dnonogue, 2002) and also a comparison can be done at the end to determine the impact of the project in terms of changing perceptions, attitudes and behaviour of the community. Analysis of the questionnaire can be aided by computer software either Microsoft Excel or Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Qualitative data collection

Focus group discussions

Focus group discussion is a qualitative data collecting method that uses interaction between small groups of participants between eight and twelve to generate data that would inform on how the implementation of the project is proceeding or how the project faired after end (Branigan and Mitchel, 2002: and World Bank, 2004). A focus group discussion is aided by a facilitator using a focus group discussion guide (FHI, 2004) in order to elicit the discussions on the areas of interest and not veer off.

Branigan and Mitchel (2000) state that during monitoring of the project focus group discussions method can help in collecting data about project activities and outputs during implementation in order to determine the following aspects highlighted:

- a) acceptability of the project among the target population :
- explore reasons for participation or lack of it among target community in the project activities:
- identify challenges or obstacle to project implementation

Branigan and Mitchel (2000) also identify instances of applying the focus group discussions method to collect data to aid project evaluation in order to determine the following:

- a) changes in attitudes as a result from the project: this is of value in determining the extent to which the outcome of the project was attained if one of the intended outcome was attitude change as the case is with BCC and human rights and advocacy projects:
- b) evaluate perceived effectiveness of an intervention and suggestions for improvement:

In depth interviews

One qualitative method of data collection is by conducting in depth interviews with individual respondents. In such interviews the interviewer gently probes the respondents in order to facilitate them to have a conversation in which ideas flow freely (Casley and Kumar, 1988). The interview method may be applied also in instances identified above where the focus group discussion is applied.

Participant observation

Another qualitative data collecting method is the participant observation which involves direct extensive observation of an activity behaviour or relationship (Casley and Kumar, 1988) aided by an observation guide (FHI, 2004) to be able to pick up some salient features of the implementation process. For example observing how participants are interacting with the facilitators.

This method of data collection is applicable during monitoring of activities on the projects and outputs. It is not enough to know that the project output was 100 youth trained: participant observation can give you information on how the training transpired and the level interaction and feedback during the training.

As highlighted from the discussion on qualitative methods of data collection, the in depth clear understanding of the project dynamics cannot be unravelled by numerical data from quantitative methods, but from descriptions in the words of the project stakeholders including beneficiaries and project staff implementing the project activities.

After discussing the different monitoring and evaluation techniques the next subsection explores the different types of activities implemented as HIV/AIDS projects that would need to be monitored and evaluated.

2.6 Nature of Activities Implemented as HIV/AIDS Projects in Botswana

There are various activities carried out in the fight against HIV/AIDS in Botswana by local NGOs and for the convenience of the research they are classified into four categories. The framework of categorization is an adaptation and modification of the one used by BONASO to classify the activities that were funded by the Global Fund for which they were intermediaries in selecting grantees. The categories of projects include: Behavioural Change

Communication (BCC), Support, care and treatment of the sick, Socio-economic impact mitigation and HIV/AIDS advocacy and human rights (BONASO, 2006). The nature of activities done in each category is discussed next.

2.6.1 Behavioural Change Communication (BCC)

Behavioural change communication through IEC can be defined as the process through which tailored HIV/AIDS messages are provided through a variety of communication channels to communities in order to ensure positive and sustained behaviours. This is done so that members of the community can protect themselves from HIV/AIDS infection through less risky actions, offer more support and care to the infected and the affected and reduce discrimination and stigma of the infected and affected in the community (FHI, 2004). Under BCC projects several activities can be scheduled by the NGO such as video shows, drama shows with HIV/AIDS messages, radio messages and drama, dissemination of information through peer groups, talks on HIV/AIDS to the communities, distribution of IEC materials such as posters, flyers, caps, t-shirts and setting up of billboards, voluntary counselling and testing for HIV/AIDS.

Through information communication and education activities FHI (2004) other authors argue that effective BCC projects can play a big role in fight against HIV/AIDS as illustrated below:

a) Increase knowledge by ensuring that people are given basic facts about HIV/AIDS in a language or visual medium or any other medium they can understand or relate to. The media could be radio, drama, songs television, dances, and art. Empowering the communities with basic facts about HIV/AIDS is very important: there are a lot of misconceptions and falsehoods about HIV/AIDS. The communities need to know what HIV/AIDS is, how it is spread, and how it is prevented so that they can adopt positive lifestyles.

- b) Effective BCC can stimulate community dialogue by encouraging community discussions on the basic facts of HIV/AIDS and the underlying factors that contribute to the epidemic, such as risk behaviours and risk settings such bars coupled with alcohol abuse. The community can come up with by laws or even lobby government to regulate the risk activities and environments in their communities. They could for example lobby for a regulation of alcohol business in their communities.
- c) Reduce stigma and discrimination through accurate information communication and education about HIV/AIDS that addresses stigma and discrimination and attempts to influence perceptions and behaviours towards those infected and affected by the scourge. Stigma and discrimination of those affected and infected by HIV/AIDS is mostly as result of lack of accurate information about the disease (Kalichani and Simbayi 2003: and Valdiserri, 2002). Stigma helps to drive the epidemic underground because people fear to test for their status and even when they test they cannot come out openly about their status if they find they are infected because of fear of discrimination (Kalichani and Simbayi 2003). Bond et al. (2002) argues that stigma negatively affects all aspects of HIV/AIDS prevention, diagnosis (testing), treatment and care. It is imperative that if we are to have a substantial headway in the fight against the epidemic we need to defeat stigma and discrimination and its subsequent effects by arming communities with accurate information on HIV/AIDS and attempt to change their perceptions and behaviours about HIV/AIDS.
- d) BCC can motivate individuals and communities to demand more information on HIV/AIDS and appropriate services. Such services would include counselling and testing services from governments or donors, care and treatment for the sick and those infected with other sexually transmitted infections, demand for more condoms. Effective BCC is known to result in more people seeking to voluntary know their HIV status which is very

important tool in the fight against HIV/AIDS. Effective BCC is also associated with increased use of mainstream services in health such as treatment of STIs, screening for tuberculosis (Keating et al., 2006).

e) BCC also empowers communities with life saving skills such as negotiating for safer sex and delay in sexual activities, skills of proper and consistent condom use to prevent infections (Keating et al., 2006).

2.6.2 Support care and treatment of the sick

The second categorization of activities done by the local NGOs is the community based support, care and treatment of the sick. Under this categorization of project activities NGOs usually provide community based home care. Community based home care is defined by the Health and Development Network (HDN) as care given to an individual in their own natural environment by their family and supported by skilled social welfare officers and communities to meet not only the physical and health needs, but also the spiritual, material, and psychosocial needs (HDN, 2001). The NGOs provide care and support through facilitating the provision of basic physical care to the sick, palliative care, nutritional support, and psychosocial support and counselling to the infected people and their families and care givers, support to the sick through provision of income generating skills to the sick. The NGOs usually work with hospitals and clinics to ensure that the sick are enrolled for anti retro-viral treatment and that they seek treatment for any opportunistic infection that may afflict them.

The NGOs work with the communities to identify the PLWHA and their families who need support care and treatment in the communities. Depending on their work plans they may recruit volunteers and care givers for the PLWHA and offer them training on care and counselling of the sick. They usually provide requirements like gloves, basins, disinfectant, nutritional supplements that facilitate the care givers. The NGOs also facilitate the

establishment of support care groups for PLWHA through which they come together for mutual support and to share experiences of coping with the disease. The NGOs also offer counselling services for the sick, care givers and the affected families so as to able to cope with the situation. They may also partner with faith based organizations to offer spiritual counselling to the sick and prayers.

HDN (2001) argued that the benefits of community based home care (CHBC) to include among others:

- a) Helping to decrease the congestion in hospitals. This is very important since HIV/AIDS has reached very high levels resulting in a big number of hospital beds being occupied by people with HIV/AIDS related ailments.
- b) Working directly with affected families creates many opportunities for family members to assess their own risk of infection, which could promote behaviour change and HIV prevention.
- c) Many patients prefer CHBC to hospitalization and their needs and desires should always be considered first and foremost. Hospitals have that detachment from the community and there is still a lot stigma associated with hospitalization. In research by Bond et al. (2002), the most extreme cases of stigmatization were reported in health care settings such as clinics and hospitals. This would explain the preference for community care by the sick.

2.6.3 Socio-economic impact mitigation activities

The NGOs carrying out these activities attempt to mitigate the impact of HIV/AIDS through support and care of orphans and other vulnerable children (OVCs) and widows. An orphan is defined as a child below the age of 18 who has lost at least one parent in this context as a result of HIV/AIDS. AIDS orphans are one category of vulnerable children: the others may include children who are in a homestead where one or two parents or guardian are terminally ill with HIV/AIDS. In such a homestead the children are affected long before the parents

succumb to the diseases because incomes plummet and most of the available resources go into looking after the ill parent and little or none into providing basic care for the children.

Other vulnerable children are those in poor households that have taken in HIV/AIDS orphans and those who are discriminated against because their parents are HIV infected or they themselves are infected (Gail et al., 2006). The vulnerability is because in these circumstances the children have problems associated with accessing material provisions such as food, clothing, healthcare, shelter and education. The children also have emotional problems as result of lack of care, love, support, space to grieve and containment of emotions. The children also have social problems resulting from lack of supporting peer groups, role models to follow and parental figures for guidance in risky environmental and difficult situations children encounter as they grow up (Skinner et al., 2004). Because of the vulnerability of the these children, they are at a risk of abuse: physical, emotional and sexual and exploitation through child labour that puts them at higher risks of contracting HIV/AIDS.

Depending on the work plan, the NGO usually identifies the OVCs that need care in the community. The OVCs are usually in child headed and grandparent headed homes others are with extended families. The needs of the OVCs are identified. The needs may include health care, shelter, education, food, parentage.

The NGOs may run orphanages where they take care of the children and make provision for the education, health care, food and other basic needs. But we are seeing another approach where the OVCs are supported within the extended families and by other caregivers that are willing to take them in. Usually these people may not have capacity due to the prevailing poverty. The NGOs play a role where they mobilize resources and make them available to these families to be able to provide food, educational, emotional and other basic needs to the OVCs. This approach is more cost effective than the orphanages making it possible to take care of more children (Sutherland et al., 2005).

The NGOs may also assist these homesteads to fight poverty by providing them with training in skills and micro credit so as run small business in order to get income to look after the OVCs. The widows may also be supported under this intervention to start income generating projects for their own survival and survival of the orphans they could be taking care of. These activities are met to mitigate the economic hardships that may be faced by the OVCs and the widows (Sutherland et al., 2005).

As the OVCs get older depending on their level of education some NGOs are providing vocational training in areas such as carpentry, bricklaying to them and assisting them to start a new life as adults by facilitating them to start small business or acquire employment.

2.6.4 HIV/AIDS advocacy and human rights

The fourth categorization of projects is concerned with advocacy on HIV/AIDS issues and human rights. Safe guarding human right is very vital in the fight against HIV/AIDS pandemic at personal, community and national levels. The rights of some people that are very vital in the fight against pandemic are violated (UNAIDS, 2006). This only serves to drive the epidemic up and underground. UNAIDS (2006) identifies four categories of people whose human rights are violated and yet they are very vital in the fight against the pandemic because of the high prevalence of HIV/AIDS amongst them and their contact and link with wider society. The groups include sex workers, men who have sex with men, prisoners and drug users. Their vulnerability is discussed next:

Sex workers

Sex work is criminalized in most countries including Botswana and they get arrested by the police. Society stigmatizes them for what they do: in most countries the interventions to fight the pandemic are not adequate given the magnitude of the HIV/AIDS prevalence amongst the sex workers. Because of criminalizing of their work, they face lot occupational hazards.

Some of the hazards they face include violence from their clients, refusal to pay, rape and the refusal by their clients to use condoms, hence putting them at risk of contracting HIV/AIDS.

Men who have Sex with Men(MSM)

These are also people whose rights in society are violated through discrimination and stigmatization because of their sexual orientation. In Botswana homosexuality is criminalized in the penal code 164, because of this, there are no specific tailored government interventions to assist MSM (Ravasi et al., 2006).

Prisoners

These are at the risk of rape in prison from fellow inmates and prison warders and hence risk infection. Their rights to protection from physical and sexual violence are not protected. For the wiling partners there are no condoms provided to them in prison and this violates their right to protection from HIV infection.

Drug users.

These are also another category which is very vulnerable yet no adequate interventions have been designed for them.

The NGOs carry out advocacy to ensure that the rights of these people and other vulnerable people are protected through appropriate legislation, policies and service provision. The other role of the organizations is to fight for rights of PLWHA, such as the right to confidentiality when they go for HIV testing, the right to informed consent before an HIV test is carried, the right not to be discriminated against when they seek treatment and at the work place. The issue of informed consent has become very pertinent with the government of Botswana's adoption of routine testing for HIV in all the government healthcare settings.

Some health officials are known to deny PLWHA patients treatment with the premise that after all they are going to die (Valdiserri, 2002). In a research by Bond et al. (2002) findings were that HIV/AIDS patients were often not given the service as other patients because the

doctors said they were going to die anyway and confidentiality of patients HIV/AIDS status were breached. This is a blatant illustration violation of the human rights of the patients.

Some organizations under this categorization of activities also provide free legal assistance to widows, orphans in succession disputes to be able to secure their property in case the relatives want to grab it and succession planning through writing wills for PLWHA.

The NGOs may schedule training workshops for key stakeholders such as policemen, prison warders, leaders, policy makers, doctors, nurses and train them on the Human rights issues concerning HIV/AIDS. They also carry out lobbying of government to have HIV/AIDS friendly legislation, policies and services for all categories of people including the four categories highlighted above.

In a nutshell this categorization of project activities is not mutually exclusive, NGOs projects may be a combination of activities, e.g. an NGO doing Human rights and advocacy may also be involved in BCC campaigns and some of these interventions are complementary in an integrated programme e.g. a Human rights and Advocacy NGO may use a BCC project to change the attitudes of the stakeholders so that they respect the rights of their subordinates better if they realize there is a lot of ignorance about the disease amongst the stakeholders.

After describing the different categories of HIV/AIDS projects, the next subsection highlights the best practices in monitoring and evaluation of these projects.

2.7 Best Practices in Monitoring and Evaluation of HIV/AIDS Projects

The contextual use of the term "Best practices" in monitoring and evaluation is meant to refer to those practices that have been found to be effective and hence recommended by authorities in this field of monitoring and evaluation. Through research and practice these practices have come be known as effective in achieving monitoring and evaluation objectives. Webb and Elliot (2000) argue that the term best practices should not be taken literally: it should be taken as theoretical concept. Best practices are more about sharing effective practices. The best practices associated with monitoring and evaluations are described below:

Baseline study

A baseline study should be undertaken before the project commences so that the condition prior to the implementation of the project is determined. This aids the evaluation function in order to determine whether the designed project did have an impact (Webb and Elliot, 2002: and Gyorkos, 2003). Hughes-d'Aeth (2002) argues that a baseline study helps asses the state of the community in terms of what the project intends to achieve. This is important for evaluating the project for it provides a point of reference to determine how far the community moved in terms of the achieving the project objectives. With reference to a BCC project, a baseline may determine the levels of HIV/AIDS knowledge in the community before the project, to be compared with levels of knowledge at the end of the project to determine how successful the project was on that aspect.

Monitoring and evaluation plan

The project should have a monitoring and evaluation plan. The plan should be prepared as an integral part of project plan and design (PASSIA, 2004: and McCoy et al., 2005). The integration is for clear identification of project objectives for which performance can be measured.

Coherent framework

Monitoring and evaluation should be aided by a coherent structured conceptual framework. The framework aids in identifying the logic behind project elements and performance measurement, how they are elated and the underlying assumptions. One of the best practices that has been adopted because of its structured approach is the use of the LFA as a tool to aid both the planning and the monitoring and evaluation functions during implementation (Aune, 2000: and FHI, 2004). Vannopen (1994) as quoted by Aune (2000) argues that the LFA makes the planner's of the project from the onset to think in terms of measuring performance

by identifying the measures and criteria for success during the planning stage. This gives it great leverage in that from the beginning the project design hence implementation are integrated with performance measurement through identification of indicators that will demonstrate how the project is performing during implementation.

Monitoring and evaluation budget

The project budget should provide a clear and adequate provision for monitoring and evaluation activities. A monitoring and evaluation budget can be clearly delineated within the overall project budget to give the monitoring and evaluation function the due recognition it plays in project management (Gyorkos, 2003: and McCoy et al., 2005). Some authors argue for a monitoring and evaluation budget to be about 5 to 10 percent of the total budget (Kelly and Magongo, 2004: IFRC, 2001: and AIDS alliance, 2006). The intention with this practice is not to be prescriptive of the percentage that is adequate, but to come up with sufficient funds to facilitate the monitoring and evaluation activities. Provision of a budget for monitoring and evaluation ensures that the monitoring and evaluation activities take place when they are due. It also ensures that monitoring and evaluation are not treated as peripheral function.

Schedule of monitoring and evaluation activities

The monitoring and evaluation activities of the project should also be included in the project schedule so that they are given the due importance they require, not only done at the whims of the project manager (IFRC, 2001: AUSAID, 2006: and McCoy et al., 2005).

Personnel assigned for monitoring and evaluation activities

There should also be an individual who is directly in charge of the monitoring and evaluation as a main function (Kelly and Magongo, 2004) and an identification of different personnel for the different activities of the monitoring and evaluation such as data collection, analysis, report writing, dissemination of the monitoring and evaluation findings (AUSAID, 2006: Gyorkos, 2003: and McCoy et al., 2005). Having staff clearly designated with monitoring

and evaluation roles ensures that when the monitoring and evaluation is due some body is available to do it, and staff appreciate that the project managers value monitoring and evaluation not as a compliance to the funding agency but as a tool for project management, learning and improving on the performance of the project.

Specification of the frequency of data collection

There should be a clear specification of how often monitoring and evaluation data is to be collected and from whom. There should also be a specification of a schedule for monitoring and evaluation reports to be written (Gyorkos, 2003). The monitoring should be done regularly in order to be able to track the project and identify problems early enough before they go out of hand. The regularity of monitoring could be a function of the size of the project, but a monthly frequency would be adequate, monitoring every 3 months would still be acceptable (AUSAID, 2006: and FHI, 2004). The monitoring would entail collecting data, analysis and witting a report at the specified frequency.

Stakeholder involvement

Involvement of all stakeholders (beneficiaries, implementation staff, donors, wider communities) in the monitoring and evaluation process of the project is very important. Participatory approach to monitoring and evaluation is viewed as an empowerment tool for the beneficiaries and other stakeholders of project who in most cases are not consulted in this function. It is also demonstration of downward accountability i.e. accountability to the beneficiaries. There is a lot of emphasis on upward accountability i.e. the donor without as much regard to beneficiaries and the communities in this case the HIV/AIDS affected and infected (Aune, 2000). This obsession with upward accountability creates a barrier between the project and other stakeholders in terms of monitoring and evaluation, this result in the process being geared towards satisfying the demands of the donor at the expense of the other stakeholders. Involvement of the beneficiaries in monitoring and evaluation gives them a sense of ownership and contributes to long term sustainability long after the project donor has

ceased financing the project and also increases the chances of more beneficiaries to take up the services of the project.

Other key neglected stakeholders are the field staff involved in implementing the project. They usually play a passive role of collecting monitoring data and passing it on to the higher offices without an active role in the monitoring and evaluation. CORE (2006) argues that the beneficiaries do not stand to benefit optimally from the monitoring and evaluation since monitoring and evaluation information is not shared with them hence they reduce the chances of learning and improving the project implementation techniques. He further argues that when the monitoring plan and indicators are determined at the highest level e.g. monitoring and evaluation officers and the project manager or externally it is not easy for beneficiaries and implementing staff to tap that information for their benefit of learning.

There are various levels of participation in monitoring and evaluation:

a) The ideal way is the involvement of all stakeholders including the donors, community, beneficiaries, and people involved in the planning and implementation of project in all stages monitoring and evaluation throughout the duration of the project. In consultation and collaboration with all these, they determine what is to be monitored and evaluated, how monitoring and evaluation is to take place including identification of indicators, they do the analysis of the data and asses the performance of the project and be able to generate guidance on how to proceed with the project (CORE 2006: and Bradley et al., 2002). This participatory monitoring and evaluation should be part of a participatory project design and planning to fully optimize its benefits outlined above. Communities would be engaged in this participatory approach through village meetings and assistance from of a facilitator.

b) Other approaches would entail having community and field staff representatives on the team that is planning and executing the monitoring and evaluation with care to involve all the otherwise usually marginalized categories like the youth, women and elderly.

In reality having a fully participatory monitoring and evaluation requires a lot time and skill in getting a consensus from all the parties on what is to be monitored and evaluated and how, but nevertheless there should be some level of participation in this process to obtain some benefits it accrues to the project.

For tracking of the specific elements as described by the logical framework matrix of the project the best practices include among others:

Inputs

The different inputs of the project need to be monitored effectively to ensure that they are used optimally on project the activities in order to produce the desired outputs. The recommended practices for monitoring each of the inputs as identified by the log frame approach include the following:

Financial resources

Financial resources should be tracked with a project budget with the project activities having cost attached to them, with comparison of what has been spent on project activities with what should have been spent as per planed expenditure in the budget (Crawford and Bryce, 2003). This information of expenditure is obtained from the individual in charge of project accounts. This comparison of actual expenditure versus planned expenditure should be done regularly to determine if the project is not going over budget.

Human resources

Human resources on the project should be given clear job allocation and designation befitting their expertise, if they are inadequate then training for the requisite skills should be arranged. For projects with staff that are sent out in the field to carry out project activities on their own

there is need for constant and intensive on site support to the out field staff (Ramesh, 2002: and Reijer et al., 2002) e.g. in a BCC project where a number of peer educators are recruited and deployed on their own in the different parts of the implementation area, there is need to constantly check on them and help solve any challenges they may be encountering such as running out of materials, supplies, encountering hostile communities.

Activities

Project schedule

Processes or activities to be done on the project are tracked with aid of a project schedule or project timeline. At regular intervals actual schedule of activities done is compared with the planned schedule to determine whether the project is within schedule or over schedule (Crawford and Bryce, 2003).

Outputs

For monitoring outputs of the project, it is important to use a mix of both qualitative and quantitative indicators.

Quantitative indicators

Quantitative indicators look at outputs in terms of numbers, such as number of people reached, number of trainings carried out, number of IEC materials distributed (Hughes-d'Aeth, 2002). Quantitative information such as attendances, people served, is best captured by a standardized form then information is aggregated at regular intervals (Gyorkos, 2003). Materials distributed can be captured by a standard distribution log. The standardization facilitates the implementation staff and allows for comparability across implementation areas and also facilitates data entry of the information. These actual outputs at specified periods such as monthly are then compared with planned or targeted outputs as illustrated in the project plan.

Qualitative indicators

Qualitative indicators describe situations and give an in-depth understanding of issues of the outputs. For example we imparted 100 people with HIV/AIDS human rights information, qualitative monitoring would require us to determine, what the perception was of the training, in terms of quality, adequacy and delivery. Methods such as focus groups discussions, observation, interviews are used with qualitative methods of monitoring. For evaluation of both the outcomes and goals, both qualitative and quantitative methods are recommended in order to get clear in-depth understanding into the success of the project (Hughes-d'Aeth, 2002: FHI, 2004: and Rakotononahary et al., 2002).

Outcomes and goals

Outcomes and goals are best evaluated with both qualitative and quantitative data. Data from project records is very vital and should be kept securely up to end the end of the project and even longer. This helps in getting the whole picture of the project and is cost effective.

Other best practices associated with monitoring evaluation other than those tied to the elements of the log frame identified above include the following:

Use of computers

Computers can be of immense value in monitoring and evaluation process. The analysis of data should be aided by computers where applicable, for example if a questionnaire was distributed as a tool in the monitoring and evaluation, software like Microsoft Excel, SSPS, can be used to analyse the responses. Numerical data like counts of people served, attendances of activities, number of IEC materials distributed can be aggregated and information stored over the lifelong of the project more efficiently and reduce on paper work and its associated disadvantages (Kelly and Magongo, 2004). This is a very good practice because it makes the task of managing monitoring and evaluation information more effective and efficient. Other applications of computers are in word processing and in report writing.

Midterm and end of project evaluations

For evaluation usually there is midterm and another at end of project implementation, an impact assessment should be scheduled after the project has ended to determine what the impact of the project was and what the contribution of the project was to the attainment of the goal (Gyorkos, 2003). The midterm evaluation and the one at the end of the project implementation can review the implementation process (process evaluation) to determine how project faired in terms of input use, carrying out the scheduled activities and in terms of how the project faired in terms of level of out puts in relation with the targeted output (Gilliam et al., 2003). The short term outcomes can also be evaluated at this point.

Capture and documentation of lessons learned

Lessons learned from the implementation should be captured and documented for incorporation into the subsequent projects and sharing with other stakeholders. The lessons would include what went right in implementation and what went wrong and why so that the mistakes are not repeated in the subsequent projects (PASSIA, 2004: Uitto, 2004: and Reijer et al., 2002). Theses lessons should be shared with the implementing staff. Sustainability of the project should be determined. It is not easy to determine sustainability, but the level of the communities' involvement can give an indication of the continuation of the project activities even at the end of funding period.

Objectivity by an external facilitator

Objectivity in evaluations is enhanced by an outside facilitator that would come in to aid the evaluation. This is in contrast to the fully participatory advocating authors who argue that objectivity is not that important, but empowering the stakeholders to learn from the evaluation, so evaluations should be subjective and done by the stakeholders (Bradley et al., 2002: and Aune, 2000). A compromise position is recommended, whereby an external facilitator comes in for objectivity and an outward opinion but the stakeholders are actively involved in the process for learning and empowerment.

Dissemination of monitoring and evaluation findings

There should be a monitoring and evaluation findings dissemination plan. Monitoring and evaluation findings should be disseminated to the stakeholders by way of a report to the donor depending on his requirement, communication or report to the community and beneficiaries and to the implementing staff to improve on their implementation practices and strategies (Gyorkos, 2003: and McCoy et al., 2005).

2.8 Challenges of Monitoring and Evaluation of HIV/AIDS Projects

Local NGOs implementing HIV/AIDS projects in communities have their own challenges peculiar to them. A lot of scholars have highlighted the fact that NGOs have a number of challenges in this aspect of monitoring and evaluation of the projects they implement (Hughes d'ach, 2002: Reijer et al., 2002: Ramesh, 2002: and Rakotononahary et al., 2002). The challenges unless mitigated mean that the monitoring and evaluation is not effectively done, translating into inability of projects to optimally benefit from this monitoring and evaluation aspect. Below is an attempt to review the different challenges identified in the literature:

Lack of monitoring and evaluation expertise

Lack of adequate monitoring and evaluation expertise or capacity among the local NGOs is one area that has been highlighted by several scholars (Hughes d'ach, 2002: and Gibbs et al., 2002). Monitoring and evaluation requires specific skills and expertise such as monitoring and evaluation design skills particularly log frame design, indicator setting: both qualitative and quantitative, design of data collecting instruments including questionnaires, focus discussion guides. Other necessary skills include data collection skills such as conducting interviews, conducting focus group discussion, data analysis and report writing skills (Hughes d'Aeth, 2002: and Gibbs et al., 2002). Kelly and Magongo (2004) note that some of the highlighted skills may be available in the NGOs but not all of it and in their research they noted that skills such as advanced data analysis, conducting of focus groups discussions,

qualitative indicator setting are very scarce amongst the local NGOs in Swaziland. The local NGOs may not be in position to procure them implying that these areas that require these skills are not done and hence monitoring and evaluation is not effectively done. Gillian et al. (2003) argues that this translates into shortage of quality data which makes decision making on the project to be based on intuition not solid data.

Inadequate financial resources

Lack of adequate financial resources to carry out monitoring and evaluation is another challenge faced by these local NGOs. A good number of NGOs lack adequate funding for their activities: this means that the little resources available are channelled to actual implementation of project activities: monitoring and evaluation are looked at as an expense that they cannot afford. If any is done them it is done superficially, just recording a few activities and irregularly (Gibbs et al., 2002: and Gilliam et al., 2003). Lack of funds means that NGOs may not be in position to bring in external evaluators: they may not be able to adequately collect all the necessary data. It may also mean that they may not be able to afford computers and any other technology to aid the monitoring and evaluation function.

Multiple donor requirements

NGOs also face a challenge of multiple monitoring and evaluation requirements in the case of those NGOs with more than one donor or with one that has very stringent requirements (Gilliam et al., 2003). This translates into excessive burden to the NGOs to conform to these requirements, this exerbates the problem of stretched capacity on the project in terms of manpower. These stringent donor funding requirements also perpetuate the practice of emphasis on upward accountability to the donor with minimum or no accountability to other stakeholders including the beneficiaries. Disregard to the beneficiaries and other stakeholders are counter productive because it results in lack of ownership of the project hence lack of sustainability of the project when the donors withdraw the funding.

Difficulty in demonstrating the long term impact of projects

It is not easy for the NGOs to demonstrate attainment of the long term objectives. It may take a long time to demonstrate that the project archived its objectives and even then it is hard to demonstrate that the particular project undertaken by the NGO in the community is responsible for the observed impact in the community and not any other activity or concurrent intervention taking place. For example for a BCC project, it is not easy to evaluate that the project managed to result in changed behaviour and as a result, a reduction in infection rates, and even if we demonstrated that, it becomes difficult to attribute the observed change in the community to the particular project.

Stigma attached to HIV/AIDS

Collecting monitoring and evaluation data for example by way of questionnaire and interview from PLWHA and other people affected by HIV/AIDS is not easy. PLWHA look at the data collection from them as an intrusion into their lives with minimum benefit. The situation may be made worse if other organizations are carrying out the same activities amongst the same communities (Health link, 2006). The effects of HIV/AIDS to the PLWHA and the affected families are already a burden to them: coupled with the stigma and discrimination in the community, it is important that any data collection should be done sensitively and as much as possible a participatory approach to the project involving PLWHAs should be taken. This will empower them and increase their participation and hence when it comes to data collection it becomes easier.

After identifying from the literature and discussing the theory and practice of monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects spelling out the best practices and the challenges the next chapter discusses the research strategy and methodology that aided the researcher to collect and analyse data to solve the research dilemma articulated in chapter one. The dilemma of this research is whether the monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects implemented by the local NGOs is done effectively.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology of the study. It describes and justifies the methods and processes that were used in order to collect data that was used in answering the research questions. The chapter is presented under the following sections namely: definition of research methodology, review of different research methods, operationalization of the descriptive method. Each of them is presented next.

3.2 Research Methodology

Kothari (2003) defines research as the pursuit of truth with help of study, observation, comparison and experiment i.e. systematic method of finding solutions to a research problem identified. Kothari (2003) further argues that the process of research is a systematic method that includes the following in logical sequence:

- a) Enunciating or defining the research problem.
- Formulating the hypothesis/research questions from the research problem.
- Designing the appropriate research process.
- d) Collecting facts or data to help answer the research questions
- e) Analyzing the data
- f) Reaching certain conclusions from the analyzed data hence answering research questions.

Processes (c), (d) and (e) constitute what is termed as research method for it enables the researcher to get the data necessary to answer the research questions and hence solve the research problem.

Research methodology on the other hand is inclusive of the research methods and encompasses the overall approach to the research process from definition to selection of the appropriate research method and analysis of data and drawing conclusions from the analysis hence would entail all the above steps from (a) to (f). It is important that the research questions for the study are briefly reiterated to the focus the research and there after, a discussion of the different research methods, selection of an appropriate method and the justification for the selection is made.

3.2.1 Research questions

The research questions for the study were derived from the following research problem:

Despite the huge amount of resources provided to the local NGOs to implement HIV/AIDS

projects and despite the fact that these projects play a big role in the fight against HIV/AIDS

in the community it is not clear how effectively the monitoring and evaluation is done on the

projects implemented by local NGOs.

The research questions were:

- (i). How effectively is the monitoring and evaluation done on HIV/AIDS projects implemented by local Gaborone based NGOs?
- (ii). What are the challenges faced in the monitoring and the evaluation of the projects they implement?

After reiterating the research questions that guided the research, it is imperative that an appropriate research method that would be appropriate to collect necessary data to adequately answer the questions is identified. In order to optimally chose the ideal method a review of the different research methods was necessary outlining the salient features, the pros and cons of each method in relation to the identified research questions. The following section is a review of the various research methods.

3.2.2 Classification of the research

In order to categorize and review the different research methods, a discussion of the different types of research may be sufficient: this is because different research problems require different research methods. Research can be categorized into four categories that are relevant in this research. The categorization is adapted and merged with the framework used by Davis (1997) and Shao (1999). The classification is based on approach the research takes. The categorization aids in locating the particular research being carried out and hence facilitates the choosing of the appropriate research method. The categories are shown below and the different types of research under the respective categories are highlighted in the figure 3.1 and described thereafter:

- a) Purpose of research
- b) Process of research
- c) Frequency of research
- d) Research logic

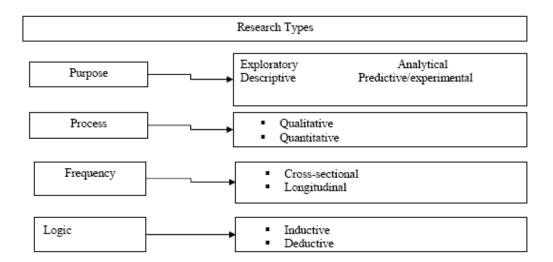


Fig. 3.1: Classification of the different research types Source: adapted from Davis (1997), and Shao (1999)

Process

Research can be classified according to the process it takes and the categories would include qualitative and quantitative and each is explained below:

Qualitative

Qualitative research is concerned with describing phenomena in words to gain an understanding of the issues being researched within the context of the researcher (Kothari, 2003). This type of research is concerned with subjective assessment of attitudes, opinions

and behaviours and the data generated are not subjected to rigorous quantitative analysis.

Data collecting techniques would include in depth interviews, focus group discussions, and participant observation. A hypothesis is not tested but the analyzed data helps in answering research questions that were pre-set.

Ouantitative

Quantitative research is concerned with measuring of quantity or amount and involving statistical manipulation, or hypothesis testing. It deals with numbers and their manipulation in order to gain insight in that which is being studied (Davis, 1997). Kothari 2003 defines quantitative research as that which involves generation of data in quantitative form, which is then subjected to rigorous quantitative analysis in a formal and rigid way. Data collecting techniques would include questionnaires, and actual physical measurements of the phenomena such as weight, height, ages, and duration of projects

Research may not be purely quantitative or qualitative but it lies along the continuum of the extremes. The research undertaken was mainly quantitative but with a qualitative aspect.

Purpose of research

Research can also be classified on the basis of purpose for which it is carried out and the categories would include exploratory, descriptive, analytical and predictive. A description of each type is given below:

Exploratory

Exploratory research is designed in order to gain insight into a situation of which little is known about or if the interest is in developing a hypothesis that would be probably tested in another research (Diem, 2002). The research we are undertaking is beyond the stage of exploration in this vain we cannot classify it as exploratory.

Descriptive

Descriptive research is designed to clearly describe a situation or behaviours obtaining at a particular time (Diem, 2002). The descriptive research may usually follow the exploratory research in order to describe the phenomena at hand. The main aim is not to manipulate or control the variables or the phenomena. Descriptive research usually uses quantitative research to describe situations. This research requires us to describe the monitoring and evaluation aspect including practices at hand amongst the local NGOs and challenges they face with the view of determing how effectively monitoring and evaluation is done. The research at hand falls into the descriptive research category. The research methods that can be used would include descriptive survey method, case study, and observational research. Each of these is described in detail in the research methods section that follows.

Analytical

Analytical research is concerned with analysis of existing data or facts and makes a critical review of the same with a view of understanding the situation (Kothari, 2003). For example in our case analytical research would entail looking at monitoring and evaluation reports submitted by local NGOs in order to try understand how they do the monitoring and evaluation. The drawback is that you make your conclusions only on the data or records that are made available to you and it may not give a full insight of the actual practices on the project and not all the organizations keep records. It also requires a lot of convincing for the organizations to surrender their documents, associated with this is the increased length it takes to scrutinize them.

Predictive /experimental

The purpose of this research is to be able to determine the cause effect of some variables and in this case you can try to predict what will happen (Diem, 2002). It involves postulating a hypothesis and testing it statistically. In keeping with our research above, an example of predictive research hypothesis would be: "The more trained the staff an NGO has, the more

effectively monitoring and evaluation is carried on the project". The goal is to try and predict what the effect of level of education is on the monitoring and evaluation practices. The research method that would be appropriate would be experimental research method. A description follows in the section of research methods.

Frequency of the research

Research can be classified on basis of how often the data is collected from the population. On the basis of that, research can be cross-sectional or longitudinal. Each of them is described below.

Cross-sectional

It is the most common type of research. It looks at what is happening at a moment in time and is comparable to taking a snapshot at a particular time and is representative of what is happening at the time when the research is carried out (Shao, 1999). Shao (1999) identifies some advantages of cross-sectional research to include among others the following:

- a) It can generate a realistic picture of what was going on at a particular point in time.
- b) It may be performed at a relatively low cost
- c) It may not take much of the respondents' time.
- Data may be gathered in relatively short period of time.

Shao (1999) also identifies some disadvantages of cross-sectional research to include among others:

- a) The data collected may soon be outdated as it may be overtaken by events.
- b) It may draw an artificial picture of what is going on at a particular point in time.

Longitudinal research

This type of research is continuous whereby the same respondents are questioned over a predetermined time intervals over a span of time. Instead of a snap shot as in the crosssectional research, it can be thought of as a videotape recording since it is a series of pictures taken at different time periods (Shao, 1999). An example in the context of this research is if the interviews or questionnaires are administered to the same group of project managers every six months over a period of time of 5years. Shao (1999) identifies some advantages and disadvantages of this research to include the following:

The advantages include among others:

- (a.) The information obtained overtime will usually be more reliable than that gathered.
- (b.) It takes changes related to time into consideration.

The disadvantages include among others:

- a) It is relatively expensive to carryout since several studies are done overtime.
- b) The information takes considerable time to collect.
- c) It calls for a lot of cooperation from respondents to collect the data over an extended period of time.

Because of the limitation of resources and time a cross-sectional study was undertaken.

Logic of research

Research can also be classified into deductive or inductive on the basis of logic behind the reasoning of the research. Each is discussed next:

Inductive research

In this kind of research the researchers make careful observations, conduct experiments, rigorously analyse the data obtained, and produce new discoveries or theories to explain what is happening. Personal opinions are excluded from this process in order to arrive at what is believed to be objective knowledge (Ragin, 1994). Specific observations are made through data collection on specific events, behaviour and generalization can be made (Neuman 2006). In the context of this research data is collected about monitoring and evaluation practices of local NGOs and theories to explain the reasons behind the practices can be generated and generalized. The research at hand can be classified as inductive.

Deductive research

In deductive inquiry specific expectations of hypothesis are developed on the basis of general principles data is collected to prove or disprove the hypothesis (Neuman 2006). This research starts from premises usually from theories to a conclusion based on data that is collected to refute or accept the premise (Ragin, 1994). In the context of research at hand an example of deductive research would start from the premise that local organizations in Botswana have capacity and performance problems as a result they do not adequately control their projects and activities. Research would then seek to collect data on local NGOs implementing HIV/AIDS projects in terms of how adequately they control their projects. With this information the researcher can accept or refute the initial premise applying to local NGOs in Botswana. One of the many criticisms of deductive research is the origin and context of the premise that is disproved or accepted.

In a nutshell the research that was undertaken could be classified as mainly quantitative with some qualitative aspects in process, descriptive in purpose, cross-sectional in frequency and inductive in logic. For the different types of research there are appropriate research methods and hence data collecting techniques or instruments. Below is an attempt to review the different research methods and identification and justification of the appropriate method for the research that was undertaken.

3.2.3 Review of the different research methods

The different research methods are identified and discussed next

Ethnography

This method is geared at understanding cultures of people by interacting with them.

Observation is the key method of collecting data. It is mainly interested and applied in cultural studies of a particular community of people.

Historical research

The historical method seeks to understand the happenings of the past and put meaning to them within the context they happened (Leedy, 2005). It uses artefacts, historical documents to gain insight in the happenings at the particular time of the study. This method is not appropriate, for the study was looking at contemporary practices of monitoring and evaluation.

Case study method

Case study research method can be defined as the in-depth study of one or a few events or cases in order to understand the phenomenon being investigated. Rather than study a large sample and study a limited number of variables, we are limited to one or two cases and an in depth study longitudinally is done (Flyvbjerg, 2006). In reference to the research at hand, we could have study one local NGO extensively in order to have an in depth understanding of its monitoring and evaluation practices and challenge.

One of the disadvantages of this method which makes it in appropriate for the research at hand is that the findings are not generalisable about other local NGOs in the study area of interest. The findings cannot be used to conclude about the practices of all local NGOs in Gaborone. There are several data collection techniques associated with case study research method, they include: in depth interviews, review of records and documents, focus group discussions.

Action research

With this kind of methodology the researcher is actively involved with the practitioners of that which is being studied and is mainly involved in study of organization change (Avison et al., 2001). For example in this research context of monitoring and evaluation practices the researcher would have to be actively involved in the monitoring and evaluation process with the monitoring and evaluation practitioners in order to be able describe the practices. Baskerville and Harper (1996): and Lau (1997) as quoted by Avison et al. (2001) highlight a

disadvantage associated with this method of double handling, where the researcher is involved in both the practice and the also researching on the practice. This method requires a lot of time to be actively immersed in that which is being studied and is mostly suited for researchers that are involving organizational change for which this particular research is not.

Experimental method

The experimental research method involves a deliberate manipulation of one variable in order to determine what the effect will be on the other. The method is used to study cause and effect and is usually appropriate in testing hypothesis and eliminating alternative hypothesis (Davis, 1997).

Leedy (2005) states that in its simplest form the experimental method seek to control the entire research situation except for a certain input variable that then becomes suspect as cause of whatever change that has taken place within investigative design. The true experimental method under study involves two groups of study subjects: the experimental one which is manipulated and the control one that is not manipulated for the variable whose effect is being studied.

The investigation of interest in this research was not geared at determing any cause effect in variables concerned with monitoring and evaluation practices, on the hand it was trying to describe monitoring and evaluation practices of the local NGOs. The experimental method is not appropriate for this nature of research.

Descriptive survey method

Descriptive survey research methods seek to describe that which exists. The method is used to obtain information concerning the current status of the phenomena to describe "what exists" in a population (Key, 1997). Shao (1999) describes it as a method used to describe behaviour or practices of a particular population of study, they could be consumers, doctors, monitoring and evaluation practitioners in local NGOs. In the context of this research, the

researcher sought to describe the existing practices of monitoring and evaluation in local NGOs implementing HIV/AIDS projects and the associated challenges faced by the practitioners.

The descriptive survey method was chosen by the researcher as the appropriate method for the research at hand for the following reasons:

- a) It is the most appropriate in collecting data about the characteristics of a large population in terms of being cost effective and within the constraints of time available, moreover the questionnaire is employed as the main tool for data collection (Harrison and Clock, 2004, and Kelley et al., 2002). This is important because the researcher has set short finite deadline for his research.
- b) Another advantage of this method cited by Kelley et al. (2002) is the fact that the survey method produces data based on real world observation which makes the data empirical. This is an advantage in that if the survey is done meticulously then the data and hence findings are scientific.
- c) It allows for a large coverage of population as opposed say to case study which may look at only one or a few cases and its findings may be generalisable if a representative sample is taken (Kelley et al., 2002) as the monitoring and evaluation practices and challenges of local NGOs implementing projects in Gaborone.

In order for the descriptive survey method to be operational the following about the research should be clearly defined:

- a). A Population and its sample
- b). Data collecting instruments

Each of the above is described and defined within the context of the research in the subsequent section.

3.3 Operationalizing the Descriptive Survey Method

In order to operationalize the survey method described above the following about the research was defined.

3.3.1 The population and its sample

A population can be defined as the complete set of subjects that can be studied: people, objects, animals, plants, organizations from which a sample may be obtained (Shao, 1999). Researchers usually cannot make direct observations of every individual in the population they are studying. Instead, they collect data from a subset of individuals (a sample) and use those observations to make inferences about the entire population (Zickmund 1991).

The total population of NGOs (Appendix 5) in Botswana was extracted from BONASO member's directory of 2004 and an updated register. A purposeful convenient sample of NGOs was selected from Gaborone based NGOs within a radius of 100kms to include included Tolkweng Gabane Mogoditshane Lobaste, Otse, Molopolole, Mochudi and Ramostwa.

A purposeful sample was extracted from the Gaborone and its surrounding environs within a radius of 100kms. There were 65 NGOs in this study area out of a total of 98 NGOs affiliated to BONASO. The study area that constituted the sample was chosen for the following reasons:

- a) Convenience to the researcher because the area of study was reachable in order to facilitate the delivery of the questionnaires and adequate follow up in order to increase the response rate for the questionnaire.
- b) Gaborone being the capital city of Botswana has the largest concentration of organizations and activities. Out of the total population of 97 NGOs that are members of BONASO, the study area that was chosen had 65, a percentage of 66.3. This sample of

the total population can be argued to be to some extent generalizable of the total population of NGOs in Botswana.

Local NGOs that are members of BONASO were targeted for two reasons below,

- a) BONASO is the recognized voice for civil society organizations (NGOs) in the national strategic framework against HIV/AIDS in the country and most donors require membership to BONASO if the organization is to access funding for their projects (BONASO, 2006: NACA, 2004). It was most likely that the BONASO members had funding for their activities
- b) membership to BONASO requires the organization to have a physical address and designate a contact person for the organization, which made it convenient for the researcher to trace the organizations and collect data from it:

This information came from NGO officials in charge of monitoring and evaluation to include monitoring and evaluation officials and project managers of the projects implemented by the local NGOs.

3.3.2 Data collection

Data can be collected from the population using the following data collecting techniques or instruments questionnaire or interview, each is described below:

Questionnaire

A series of questions that are easy and convenient to answer but can describe the intended practices or behaviours were formulated into a questionnaire. Shao (1999) defines a questionnaire as a formal set of questions or statements designed to gather information from respondents that accomplish research objectives. In this respect the questionnaire when answered by the monitoring and evaluation practitioner of a local NGO would be able tells as about the practices of that particular organization the way they monitor and evaluate their HIV/AIDS projects.

The questionnaire may have either structured, semi structured or unstructured questions. The structured questions are convenient easy and take less time to answers because options are available to the respondents from which they tick options that best describe their practices, opinions or attitudes. The disadvantage is that they restrict the respondent in choice. The available options from which they have to select may not be exhaustive to describe the situation of the respondent. The unstructured questions are not restrictive to the respondents. The questions are open and elicit answers from the respondent without limiting them to predetermined options and they may best describe the situation at hand. The disadvantage is that they take a lot more time from the respondent to fill and they require the respondent to recall certain information without the benefit of the predetermined options.

The questionnaire may be disseminated to the respondents in different ways as shown below:

- a) Mailed to the respondents for them to respond and mail back to researcher.
- b) Delivered and dropped and picked up after respondents have responded
- It may be administered face to face.

Mailing and dropping the questionnaire has advantages of convenience to the researcher and also it ensures maximum coverage as opposed to the face to face administered questionnaire that is time consuming with the constraint of time and cost the researcher has to work in and may limit coverage. But associated with the advantage convenience and coverage is the disadvantage of low response rate. The researcher mitigated this by constantly checking on the respondents through physical visits, telephone calls and incentives such as promises of provision of research findings as prescribed by Shao (1999).

Interviews

Interview as opposed to questionnaire requires more in depth answers and takes longer and more resources to carry out. It requires setting up appointments at the convenience of both the researcher and the respondents and it takes a longer period of time to get as much information as you could get from a questionnaire (Shao, 1999). The questions of the interview as with the questionnaire may either be structured, semi structured or unstructured, the interview may either be face to face or a telephone interview.

The researcher's choice of data collecting instrument was the questionnaire which was mailed with a self addressed return stamp and in some instances was dropped and picked from the respondents' addresses. The questionnaire mainly had structured and a few semi structured questions to maximize the advantages of both types of questions and minimize their disadvantages.

3.3.3 Mitigating the shortcomings of the Descriptive survey method

Using the questionnaire to collect data has got some shortcomings that that have impacts on validity of the findings. The researcher mitigated them as shown:

Descriptive surveys with questionnaires that are mailed to respondents have a disadvantage of a low response rate (Neuman, 2006). The researcher mitigated this by writing a cover letter to the respondents that explained the purpose of the research and politely requested the recipients to fill in the questionnaire. The respondents were further motivated to participate in the study by promising to provide them with the findings. A self addressed stamped envelope was included together with the questionnaire to enable the respondents to return the completed questionnaire. Other measures included constantly checking on the respondents through physical visits, telephone calls as prescribed by Shao (1999).

The other shortcoming of the questionnaires that mailed to the respondents is the challenge of the respondents misunderstanding the question put forward and failing to provide the required answer. This has effect of lowering the validity of the measuring instrument and in effect the findings of the research are not a true reflection of the reality the researcher seeks to study (Neumann, 2006). The researcher mitigated this by devoting a great deal of time in designing

the questionnaire, trying as much as possible to use simple language. The researcher also piloted the questionnaire to a group of monitoring and evaluation officials of NGOs in order to identify any ambiguities. Their contributions were then incorporated in the questionnaire.

Questionnaires also have challenge of limiting the options the respondents have to choose from. This has effect of the findings of the research not capturing the reality obtaining. As much as possible the researcher provided additional space for the respondents to provide their own options that best described their situation in case they were not captured by the researcher.

3.3.4 Designing the questionnaire

A questionnaire was designed in order to collect data that was used in answering the investigative questions. At this point it is important to describe the relationship between the research questions, investigative questions and the questions that constitute the questionnaire (measuring questions). Figure 3.2 illustrates the hierarchy of the questions and brief description of each follows

Research questions Research Question 1: How effectively are projects monitored and evaluated? Research Question 2: What are the challenges faced in the monitoring and evaluation

Investigative questions

Research Question 1

- i. What are the different activities carried out on the HIV/AIDS projects in Gaborone?
- ii. What is the extent re-sourcing provided to local NGOs implementing HIV/AIDS projects in Gaborone?
- iii. What are the best practices in monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects?
- iv. How do the monitoring and evaluation practices of local NGOs implementing HIV/AIDS projects compare with the best practices

Research Question: 2

- i. What are the challenges faced by local NGOs in carrying monitoring and evaluation of their projects?
- ii. What recommendations are appropriate to mitigate the challenges identified?

Measuring questions		
Investigative question (i)	Investigative question (ii)	Investigative question (iii)
Measuring question (a)	Measuring question (e)	Measuring question (h)
Measuring question (b)	Measuring question (f)	Measuring question (i)
Measuring question (c)	Measuring question (g)	
Measuring question (d)		
Investigative question (iv)	Investigative question (v)	Investigative question (vi)
Measuring question (j)	Measuring question (1)	Measuring question (h)
Measuring question (k)	Measuring question (m)	Measuring question (i)

Figure 3.2: Hierarchy of research, investigative and measuring questions Source: Ssegawa and Rwelamila, 2006

Research questions

These are the main questions that guided the research and were derived from the research problem. If the research questions are answered the research problem is solved.

Investigative questions

These are sub questions derived from the research questions. Each of the research questions was divided into smaller manageable questions. For example from figure 3.2 research question 1 was divided into investigative questions (i) to (iv). If the smaller investigative questions are answered the research question from which they are derived is answered.

Measuring questions

These are the questions that constituted the questionnaire. Each of the investigative question was sub divided into questions which if all are answered the investigative question is answered. For example from figure 3.2 investigative questions (i) is subdivided into measuring questions (a) to (d) and so on.

It is important to distinguish between the operational investigative questions for which data was sought from the field through a questionnaire and those questions for which answers were sought from the literature (Ssegawa and Rwelamila, 2006). The interest of this methodology section was those questions for which answers were collected from the field through a questionnaire i.e. questions (i), (ii), (iv) and (v), question (iii) was answered in the literature review (section 2).

Question (vi) is a recommendation question after collecting data, analyzing and synthesizing it and was answered in the last chapter of the final report.

The questionnaire was dived into the following three sections to collect data for answering the different investigative questions i.e.: nature of the projects carried out by the NGOs, monitoring and evaluation practices and monitoring and evaluation challenges. Each of the sections is illustrated below:

Nature of the projects carried out by the NGOs (questions 1.1 to 1.10)

This section sought to classify the respondent organizations depending on the catchment area of operation and nature of founding body. This part also sought to determine the kind of activities the NGO were carrying out in their areas of operation. The activities were classified based on the criteria identified in the literature review section and appendix 1 as shown below:

(i). Behavioural Change Communication (BCC) activities:

- (ii). Support, care and treatment of the sick activities:
- Socio-economic impact mitigation activities:
- (iv). HIV/AIDS advocacy and human rights activities

This section also sought to determine the resources at the disposal of the NGOs, in terms of finances, human resources, equipment and the sources of funding. This section answered the investigative question (i) and (ii).

Monitoring and evaluation practices (question 2.1 to 3.9)

This section probed for the monitoring and evaluation practices of the NGOs and was divided into two subsections, monitoring and evaluation plan and implementation the monitoring and evaluation process: each is briefly explained below:

a) Monitoring and evaluation plans

This sub section sought to determine whether NGOs drew up monitoring and evaluation plans for their projects. It also sought to determine what constituted the monitoring and evaluation plans that and how the plans were used.

b) Monitoring and evaluation during the implementation

This sub section sought to determine the monitoring and evaluation practices when the projects were in the implementation stage.

Monitoring and evaluation environment (questions 4.1 to 4.7)

This section probed for the environment within which monitoring and evaluation is carried out with the view of identifying the challenges faced by NGOs

After the design of the questionnaire, it was piloted with a small group of practitioners and then readjustments and refinements were made. The questionnaire was then mailed to all the 65 NGOs in the study area addressed to the project coordinators (managers) or monitoring and evaluation officials. After mailing the questionnaires the researcher took two and half months waiting for response from the respondents, calling and prompting them to respond and return the questionnaires. This time was considered adequate because no more responses were forthcoming from the respondents. In some instances the researcher physically visited the respondent's offices to pick up the questionnaires when he was called and also to prompt them to respond.

Figure 3.4 is a summary of the research methodology highlighting the relationship between the different research aspects that is, research problem, objectives, research questions and the subsequent investigative questions showing the source of data for each investigative question and means of analysis. TITLE: Monitoring and Evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects implemented by Gaborone based local NGOs.

OBJECTIVES (S):

- To identify the nature of activities carried out on HIV/AIDS projects implemented by Gaborone based local NGOs.
- To identify the best practices in monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects.
 To determine the how the monitoring and evaluation practices of local NGOs implementing HIV/AIDS projects compare with the best practices.
- Identify the challenges faced in the monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects
- To make recommendations in order to mitigate challenges faced in monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects by the NGOs.

RESERCH PROBLEM:

A lot of donor resources are provided to local NGOs to implement HIV/AIDS related projects. The need for accountability, good project performance and organizational learning requires that projects are effectively monitored and evaluated. However its not clear how effectively these projects are monitored and evaluated

RESEARCH QUESTION (S):

- 1. How effectively are the monitoring and evaluation processes carried out on HIV/AIDS projects implemented by local NGOs based in Gaborone?
- 2. What are the challenges faced in the monitoring and the evaluation of the projects?

	METHODOLOGY						
Inves	tigative questions	Type of data required	Source of data	Location of Data	Data Collecting Instrument	Data Analysis	
(i).	What are the different activities carried out on the HIV/AIDS projects implemented by the local NGOs?	Responses	Responses	 Responses from project managers 	 Questionnaire 	Descriptive statistics Percentages and rankings	
(ii).	What is the extent re- sourcing provided to local NGOs implementing the projects?	Responses	 Responses 	Responses from project managers and monitoring and evaluation officials	Questionnaire	Descriptive statistics	

Invest	tigative questions	Type of data required	Source of data	Location of Data	Data Collecting Instrument
(iii).	What are the best practices in monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS projects?	 Monitoring and evaluation best practices 	Literature	 Journals, books internet 	Pen and pad
(iv).	How do the monitoring and evaluation practices of local NGOs implementing HIV/AIDS projects compare with the best practices?	 Description of local practices 	Responses	 Responses from project managers and or monitoring and evaluation officials 	Questionnaire
(v).	What are the challenges faced by local NGOs in carrying monitoring and evaluation of their projects?	■ Responses	 Response 	 Project mangers and monitoring and evaluation officials. 	Questionnaire
(vi).	What recommendations are appropriate to mitigate the challenges identified?	Recommendations	Literature	 Journals, books and internet 	Pen and paper

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the data analysis and discussions of the findings of the research study. The findings are presented under the following themes namely: response profile and on each of the investigative questions that the survey sought to answer. It is imperative that the investigative questions whose findings this chapter presents are reiterated:

- i). What are the activities carried out on HIV/AIDS projects implemented by the Gaborone based local NGOs?
- ii). What is the extent of resources employed by the NGOs to carry out their projects?
- iii). How do the monitoring and evaluation practices of the Gaborone based local NGOs compare with the best practices?
- iv). What are the challenges faced by the NGOs in carrying monitoring and evaluation of the projects they implement?

4.2 Response Profile

The response profile of the study is presented under two themes namely, response rate and the profile of the individual respondents. Each is described next

4.1.1 Response rate

Questionnaires were mailed to 65 organizations whose addresses were obtained from the BONASO directory combined with an updated member's list. Five of the organizations that were initially targeted in the sample were found to be no longer implementing any HIV/AIDS projects by the time the survey was conducted. This was due to reasons mainly related to lack of funding. As a result the sample size reduced from 65 to 60.

After allowing for the mail to reach the respondents, phone calls and visits were made to the organizations in order to persuade them to participate in the survey. This was necessary in order to increase the response rate to an acceptable level. Different authors define and prescribe acceptable response rates for mail surveys. Baruch (2004) analyzed 175 surveys as reported in academic journals and found an average response rate of 36.1% with a standard deviation of 13.1%. Haycock, (1992) and Henig et al. (1995) as cited by Hager et al. (2003) found acceptable response rates for not-for-profit organizations to average below 50%. Figure 4.1 shows the response rate of the survey.

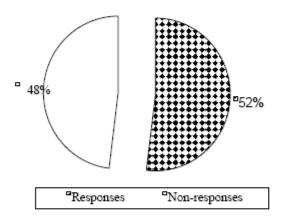


Figure 4.1: Response rate of the survey Source: Own

Of the 60 organisations that were targeted in the study 31 completed and returned the questionnaires. Figure: 4.1 shows that the response rate of the survey was approximately 52%. This response rate is higher than the average rate of academic surveys done among organizations (Baruch, 2004). A number of authors find the obtained response rate

adequate and acceptable for organizational mail surveys of which this survey was (Babbie, 1990: Baldauf et al., 1999: and Tomaskovic et al., 1994).

4.2.2 Profile of the respondents

The respondents were profiled using three different criteria that included catchments area of operation, nature of founding body and the duration for which they have been carrying out HIV/AIDS projects.

Tables 4.1 and Figure 4.2 illustrate the profile of the respondents in the survey according the highlighted criteria. Table 4.2 shows the profile of the respondents in terms of the area of operation and nature of founding body. Organizations that were covering only one district were classified as community based organizations (CBOs) and those in more than district as national NGOs. Those that were founded by religious bodies were classified as Faith Based Organizations (FBOs) and the others, as non FBOs

Table 4.1: Profile of respondents

Area of operation	n Nature of founding body		
	FBO	Non FBO	Tota1
One district (CBOs)	19.4%	38.7%	58.1%
More than a district (National NGOs)	12.9%	29.0%	41.9%
			100

Source: own

Table 4.1 shows that 58.1 % of the respondents were CBOs: the other 41.9 % of the respondents were national NGOs. The table shows that 19% of the respondents were CBOs that were Faith based (FBOs), the other 38.7% were not. The table further shows

that 12.9% of the respondents were national NGOs that were Faith based: the other 29% were not.

It is evident that majority of the NGOs operated in only one district as opposed to more than one district. This could be explained by lack of resources to increase their catchment area. The fact that majority of the respondents were CBOs highlights the big role they are playing in the communities. It is also evident that there are a significant number of organizations that were founded by religious bodies. This also highlights the increased role of religious bodies in providing services to communities more especially in the era of the HIV/AIDS pandemic.

The respondents were also profiled in terms of the duration for which they have been carrying out these projects. Figure 4.2 shows the profile.

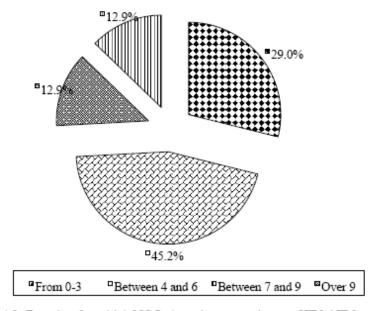


Figure 4.2: Duration for which NGOs have been carrying out HIV/AIDS projects Source: Own

Figure 4.2 shows that majority of the respondents, 71.2% (45.2%+29.0%), have been implementing HIV/AIDS projects for six years or less. There was significant increase in the numbers of organizations carrying out these activities over time. This can be attributed to the increasing community needs as the HIV/AIDS pandemic grew over time. There is also an increased number of NGOs at the time when the global fund provided funds to the NGOs; the increase can be attributed to desire by the civil society to tap into this money. Findings of the study corroborate this argument; activities of some NGOs were suspended or scaled back when the global cut off its funding.

After examining the profiles of the respondents, the subsequent sections highlight and discuss the findings of the research presented under the various themes of the investigative questions.

4.3 Nature of Projects Implemented by the NGOs

Data for this question was analyzed using frequencies and cross tabulations. The findings are shown next.

The organizations were asked which of the identified HIV/AIDS projects activities they carried out. Table 4.4 shows the response to this question.

Table 4.2 Projects implemented by the NGOs

Type of projects implemented	N(31)	
Behavioural Change Communication (BCC)	20	66.7%
Care and Support of Sick (CSS)	17	56.7%
Socio-economic mitigation (SEC)	16	53.3%
Human Rights and Advocacy (HRA)	9	30.0%

Source: Own

Table 4.2 shows that most of NGOs were implementing more than one type of project. The table illustrates that Behavioural Change Communication projects are the most frequent. These projects were identified by 66.7% of the respondents as the projects they were involved in. This can be explained by a number of factors. First the government strategy in the fight against HIV/AIDS puts a lot of emphasis on prevention of new infections as the most sustainable way of defeating the disease (NACA, 2003). Other stakeholders hold the same view (UNAIDS, 2006). It is therefore not surprising that a lot of NGOs are involved in activities that are aimed at reducing the spared of HIV/AIDS. Secondly BCC activities do not need a lot of resources in terms of manpower and finances and they can cover a large out reach as opposed to say CSS of the sick which require a lot of resources to have a big reach in terms of coverage.

The least implemented projects were Human Rights and Advocacy projects with only 30% of the organizations implementing them. This can be attributed to the fact that the human rights based approach to HIV/AIDS is a relatively new concept (Ilako et al., 2004) and that it requires expertise that is lacking within the NGOs as illustrated by the level of permanent employees. The other responses are shown.

A cross tabulation analysis between the type of NGO and the nature of projects carried out was done. The analysis is shown in Table 4.3

Table 4.3: Cross tabulation of the type of NGO and activities done

Type of NGO	Type of Project Activities			So	
	BCC	CSS	SEC	HRA	— Ot
CBOs N(18)	44.4%	72.2%	55.6%	16.7%	Tal
National NGOs N(13)	92.3%	30.8%	46.2%	46.2%	

le 4.3 shows that the different type of NGOs implemented more than one type of project activities. The table shows that the most frequently implemented project activities by the national NGOs were Behavioural Change Communication projects. These were implemented by 92.3% of the national NGOs. The least frequently implemented project activities by national NGOs were Care and Support of the Sick. These were implemented by only 30.8% of the national NGOs. The table also shows that the most frequently implemented activities by the CBOs were Care and Support of the Sick. These activities were carried out by 72.2% of the CBOs. The least done activities by the CBOs were Human Rights and Advocacy, which were implemented by only 16.7% of the CBOs. The others are shown.

It is evident that CSS activities were the mostly frequently implemented activities by the CBOs. This can be explained by the fact that the most immediate community of the sick normally organize themselves to take care of the sick members of the community.

4.4 Extent of Resources Employed by the NGOs

This investigative question sought to determine the level of resources at the disposal of the NGOs when implementing their project activities. The resources were categorized into budget, human resources, assets and equipment. A number of questions were asked that sought to investigate this resource issue and the findings are discussed next.

4.4.1 Budget

The findings related to NGO budgets are discussed under the subsections, size of budget, source of donor funds and extent of the donor contribution to the NGO budget.

Size of budget

Figure 4.3 illustrates the response to the question that sought to determine the size of the budget in Pula that was spent on HIV/AIDS projects in the previous year by the NGOs.

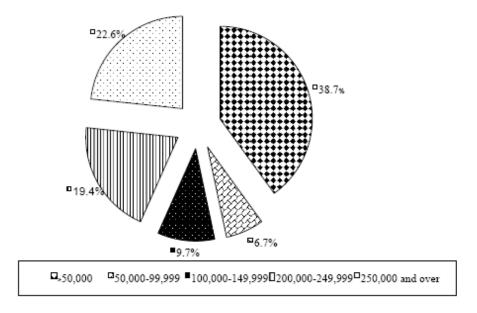


Figure 4.3: Size of the NGO budgets in Pula (1US\$=P6.2) Source: Own

Figure 4.3 shows that 45.4% (38.7%+6.7%) of the respondents had an annual budget of less than P100, 000. Only 22.6% of the respondents had budgets of P250, 000 and over. It is evident that majority of the NGOs had small budgets to spend on HIV/AIDS activities: this can be attributed to lack of funding from donors or the recent suspension of funding from the global fund that was one of the largest donors to these organizations (BOPA, 2006: and Motlaloso, 2006).

Donor source of funding

Table 4.4 illustrates responses to the question that sought to determine the donor source of funding to the NGOs.

Table 4.4: Sources of Donor funding to the NGOs

Sources of funding	Frequency N(31)	
International Donor Agencies	21	67.8%
Government bodies	18	58.1%
Corporate companies	10	32.3%
Private Donors	13	42.0%
Others	2	6.5%
No funding	3	9.7

Source: Own

Table 4.4 shows that organizations had more than one source of donor funding for their project activities. Of which 6.5% indicated that they did not have any donor funding for their projects. Another 67.8% of the respondents cited international donor agencies as one of sources of funding for their activities. This was the most frequent source of donor funds. The least frequent source was from corporate companies with a percentage of 32.3%. The other sources of funding are shown.

Extent of donor contribution

The respondents were probed for the extent of contribution by donors to the budget they spent on HIV/AIDS projects in the previous year. The responses are shown in figure 4.2

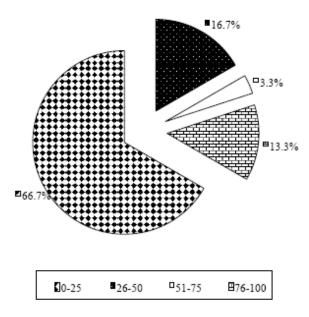


Figure 4.4: Extent of donor contribution to NGO budgets Source: Own

Figure 4.4 shows that 66.7% of the respondents received between 76-100 percent of their budget from donors. Only 20% (16.7% + 3.3%) had a donor contribution of less than 50% to their budgets.

It is evident that most of the NGOs are heavily reliant on donors to fund their HIV/AIDS activities. This is highly disadvantageous in that in case the donors withdraw their funding as was the case with the global fund, the activities of the NGO would stall (BOPA, 2006; and Motlaloso, 2006).

4.4.2 Human resources

The organizations were probed for the numbers of human resources they had on HIV/AIDS projects they were implementing. The human resources were categorized into permanent staff and volunteer staff. The findings to the question are shown in table 4.5

Table 4.5: Human resources on projects

Number of Staff	Permanent N(30)		Volunteer N(27)	
Less than 7	18	60.0%	9	33.3%
7-12	8	26.7%	8	29.6%
13-18	3	10.0%	2	7.4%
Over 18	1	3.2%	8	29.6%
		100%	-	100%

Source: Own

Table 4.5 shows that that 86.7% (60%+26.7%) of the respondents had less than 12 permanent staff. Only 3.2% of the respondents had more than 18 permanent staff. The table further shows that up 37% (7.4%+29.6) of the respondents had more 13 volunteer staff.

It is evident that in terms of the human resources the NGOs did not have adequate numbers of personnel at their disposal for the projects they implemented. They relied more on volunteer staff as opposed to permanent staff. This is explained by the fact they could not attract a lot of permanent staff since they could not be able to adequately remunerate them as illustrated by the findings of the research which showed that a significant percentage (45.4%) of the NGOs had budgets of P100, 000 and below.

Despite the fact that the human resources the NGOs had were limited, it is imperative that their deployment on project activities is managed and controlled effectively if the projects were to have chance of achieving their objectives. The fact that NGOs did not have a lot of resources is even more reason that the few are adequately managed on the project activities they are implementing. This is one of the main functions of effective monitoring and control of projects.

4.4.3 Assets and equipment

The organizations were probed for the assets and equipment they used on the projects they implemented. Table 4.6 shows the findings to the question.

Table 4.6: Assets and equipment used by the NGOs on their projects

Equipment and assets	N(31)	
Computers	25	80.6%
Video Equipment	22	70.9%
Public Address System	8	25.8%
Cars	20	64.5%
Motorcycles	2	6.5%
HIV/AIDS testing equipment	1	3.2%
Agricultural Land	2	6.5%
Still Camera	1	3.2%
Movable stage	3	9.7%
Sewing machines	1	3.2%
Porta cabin	3	9.7%
Musical instrument	1	3.2%

Source: Own

Table 4.6 shows that majority of the respondents had multiple assets and equipment they used on the projects they implemented. The table shows that 80.6% of the respondents had a computer. The table also shows that 6.5% of the respondents reported having agricultural land. Only one organization had HIV/AIDS testing equipment. The use of other equipment and assets on projects is shown.

It is evident that the organizations had a significant level of equipment and assets that they used on their projects. This necessitated they are kept in good custody which is a function of effective project monitoring and control.

The NGOs had a significant amount of resources at their disposal which necessitated that their use (resources) was managed adequately through effective monitoring and control of the projects on to which they were deployed. This would increase the chance of the projects the NGOs were implementing to achieve their objectives and also demonstrate accountability of the resource use to the project stakeholders.

4.5 Comparison of the NGO practices with Best Practices

The monitoring and evaluation practices of the NGOs were compared against the best practices using means and standard deviations) and some of the questions were analysed using frequencies.

The choice of appropriate data analysis mode for ordinal data such as likert scales is a source of big debate in the academia that has ranged on for almost half a century (Villeman and Wilkinson, 1993). Some authors find the data typology developed by the Harvard psychologist S. S. Stevens of nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio data with the "appropriate and permissible" statistical procedures to be misleading, not appropriate for all the different data types and too restrictive for real world data (Villeman and Wilkinson, 1993: Lord, 1946: Baker et al., 1966: Borgatta and Bohrnstedt, 1980).

Scholars have argued that likert scale data like the one that was used in this survey for some of the questions can be assumed and analyzed like interval data with means and standard deviations (Tukey, 1977: Baker et al., 1966: Hand and Keynes, 1993). The next section presents the criterion that was used to analyze the data:

4.5.1 Criteria for analysis

It is imperative to state the criteria for analysis of the data that was used to answer this investigative question. For each best practice identified the respondents were required to identify how often they carried it out on the projects they implemented. Table 4.11 shows the scoring criteria for frequency of use the practices.

4.7: Scores for frequency of practice

Score	Interpretation
1	Practice done on all projects
2	Practice done on some projects
3	Practice done on a few projects
4	Practice never done

Source: Own

The table shows that if the respondent ticked that a particular practice was done on all projects, a score of 1 was given and if the practice was never done then a score of 4 was given. The scores for other scenarios are shown in Table 4.7. The scores for each question for all respondents were analyzed for the mean and standard deviation. Table 4.8 shows the criterion used to interprete the mean scores.

Table 4.8: Interpretation of the mean scores

Mean Score	Interpretation
------------	----------------

Consistent use of practice
Inconsistent use of practice
Practice not used

Source: Own

The table shows that if the score of the mean for a particular practice was below 2, the interpretation is that this practice was consistently done by the NGOs. The interpretations for other mean scores are shown in Table 4.8. After defining the criteria for analysis of this question: the findings are shown below under the following sections:

- a) monitoring and evaluation plans:
- b) implementing the monitoring and evaluation process:

Each is presented next in subsequent sections:

4.5.2 Monitoring and evaluation plans

This section shows findings to the questions that sought to determine the nature and process of development of monitoring and evaluation plans of projects implemented by the respondents. This section is divided into three sub sections i.e.: design of the plans, stakeholder involvement and content of the plans. Findings to each of them are discussed next:

Design of monitoring and evaluation plans

The respondents were asked a number of questions that sought to determine the practices related to the design of Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) plans for the projects they implemented. The findings are shown in the table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Mean scores for questions on design of M&E plans

Question	Mean scores	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
2.1	2.19	1.11	Inconsistently done
2.2	2.63	1.16	Inconsistently done
2.8	1.87	0.86	Consistently done
2.9	2.10	1.17	Inconsistently done

Source: Own

Baseline studies

Question 2.1 sought to determine how often the NGOs conducted studies to establish the baseline data or condition of the communities before they implemented their HIV/AIDS projects. With a mean score of 2.19 it is evident that this practice was inconsistently done by the respondents. The standard deviation of 1.11 is interpreted to mean a wide variation amongst the respondents. Whereas some of the respondents conducted baseline surveys consistently, others never conducted any on the projects they implemented.

The inconsistence in carrying out baseline studies by the NGOs means that the projects they implement cannot be adequately evaluated. This finding is consistent with the studies by Mansfield, (1996): Riddell et al. (1997) as cited by Rick, (2001) who found failure to obtain baseline data to be very prevalent amongst NGOs. The baseline study facilitates determination of the condition of the community prior to the implementation of the project in order to compare with condition after implementation (Webb and Elliot, 2002: and Gyorkos, 2003). This can help asses the impact of the project in achieving the set objectives. In absence of data about of the baseline condition of the community, the NGOs would find it very hard to measure the impact of their projects (Hughes-d'Aeth 2002).

Monitoring and evaluation plan

Question 2.2 sought to determine whether the respondents had a plan that guided monitoring and evaluation of the projects they were implementing. With a mean score of 2.63, this practice was inconsistently done by the respondents. The standard deviation of 1.16 implies a wide variation between the respondents. Whereas some NGOs consistently had plans guiding monitoring and evaluation, the others never had any plans.

For those organizations that never had any monitoring and evaluation plan or rarely had any, the following reasons were highlighted to explain the scenario:

- a) The findings showed that 83% percent of them highlighted the fact they did not know how to design a monitoring and evaluation plan.
- b) The others (17%) highlighted the fact that the projects were too small: they did not necessitate having one.

The inconsistence in having monitoring and evaluation plans implies that not all the projects implemented by the respondents are effectively monitored and evaluated. Projects without monitoring and evaluation plans are not effectively monitored and evaluated (PASSIA, 2004: and McCoy et al., 2005). This is because monitoring and evaluation will only be done at the whims and discretion of the project manager without any prior laid out procedure and plan.

Logical framework approach

Question 2.8 sought to determine how often the respondents used the logical framework approach (log frame) in aiding the monitoring and evaluation of projects. With a mean score of 1.87 this practice was consistently done on the projects implemented by the respondents. The standard deviation of 0.86 implies that a minimum variation amongst

the respondents meaning that majority consistently used the logical framework approach in aiding monitoring and evaluation.

Using the logical framework approach (LFA) aids in identifying the logic behind project elements and performance measurement, how they are related and the underlying assumptions. Use of the LFA makes the planner's of the project to think from the onset in terms of measuring performance i.e. monitoring and evaluation, by identifying the measures and criteria for success during the planning stage (Vannopen, 1994: as cited by Aune, 2000). This finding can be explained by the fact that majority of the donors insist that the NGOs use the LFA to design their projects as condition to funding (Aune, 2000: Reidar, 2003: and Kaplan and Garent, 2005).

Project schedule

Question 2.9 sought to determine whether monitoring and evaluation activities were part of the project schedule. With a mean score of 2.10, it is evident that this practice was inconsistently done by the respondents. A standard deviation of 1.17 implies a wide variation between the respondents. Whereas some respondents consistently included monitoring and evaluation activities in the project schedules, others did not.

Inconsistence in the practice of scheduling monitoring and evaluation activities may have an implication of having the activities missed out. This is because the activities are done at the discretion of the project manager. This would result in ineffective and inadequate monitoring and evaluation of projects.

Stakeholder involvement

The respondents were asked which stakeholders were involved in the design of the monitoring and evaluation plans for the projects they implemented and how often they were involved. Table 4.10 shows the findings

Table 4.10: Mean scores for the involvement of stakeholders.

Stakeholder	Mean scores	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
Donors	1.55	0.81	Consistently involved
Staff	2.81	0.98	Inconsistently involved
Community	3.22	0.96	Inconsistently involved
Beneficiaries	2.58	1.31	Inconsistently involved

Source: Own

Donors

Table 4.10 shows that the involvement of the donors in the design of the monitoring and evaluation had a mean score of 1.55. This means that donors were consistently involved on all projects in this process and with a standard deviation of 0.81 implies a small variation within the respondents. This can be explained by the fact that since donors finance the project activities of these NGOs to a large extent then they always dictate how the projects should be monitored and evaluated. This is as a way of tracking the use of their resources.

Project staff

The table shows that the involvement of project staff in the design of the monitoring and evaluation had a mean score of 2.81 which implies that their involvement was inconsistent on the projects implemented by the respondents. With a standard deviation of 0.98 there was a small variation between the respondents. The implication of this is that staffs do not have adequate input into this process. All that they do is implement the

project activities and collect monitoring and evaluation data as passive participants. The opportunity to incorporate the perspective of the staff that is at the forefront in implementing project activities is not fully optimized.

Community

The involvement of the community in the design of monitoring and evaluation had a mean score of 3.23 implying that this practice was never done and with a standard deviation of 0.97 means that there was a minimum variation between the respondents implying that majority of the NGOs did not involve the community in the design of their projects.

Beneficiaries

The involvement of beneficiaries in design of monitoring and evaluation plans had a mean score of 2.58 implying that it was inconsistently done on the projects done by the respondents. The standard deviation of 1.31 implies a wide variation between the respondents. The implication of this is that the beneficiaries were mostly only a source of monitoring and evaluation data, without any meaningful input. Their inconsistent involvement in the design of monitoring and evaluation meant that the projects did not fully demonstrate downward accountability to the beneficiaries (Aune, 2000).

It is evident that most of the stakeholders were not consistently involved in the design of monitoring and evaluation plans with the exception of the donors. Non involvement of the other stakeholders meant that the project implementers lost an opportunity of fully demonstrating downward accountability to all the other stakeholders most especially the community and the beneficiaries (CORE 2006: and Bradley et al., 2002) The project staff did not optimally benefit through learning since in the majority of the projects they were

not actively involved in planning the monitoring and evaluation and the input from the staff was also missed.

Content of the plans

The respondents were asked what aspects constituted their monitoring and evaluation plans and how often they were specified in the plans. Table 4.11 shows the findings to this question and the discussions follow next.

Table 4.11: Mean scores for the aspects that constitute monitoring and evaluation plans

Aspect	Mean	SD	Interpretation
Data to be collected	1.83	1.23	Consistently specified
An in charge of M&E	1.87	1.23	Consistently specified
Frequency of data collection	2.84	1.32	Inconsistently specified
Schedule of M&E activities	2.10	1.35	Inconsistently specified
Dissemination of findings plan	3.03	1.29	Not specified
Individuals for M&E activities	2.30	1.29	Inconsistently specified

Source: Own

Data to be collected

Table 4.11 shows that the specification of the data to be collected had a mean score of 1.83, meaning that this aspect was consistently specified in monitoring and evaluation plans of the projects implemented by the respondents. However a standard deviation of 1.23 implies a wide variation in practice by the respondents. It is imperative that the monitoring and evaluation data to be collected is specified in the plan before the project commences. This will ensure that project officials make prior provision to access the data when it is due, for example attendance forms can be printed and distributed before hand, focus group discussion groups can be arranged, effective questionnaires can be designed and tested.

Individual in charge of monitoring and evaluation

Specification of an individual in charge of monitoring and evaluation had a mean score of 1.87 implying that this practice was consistently done by the respondents. However the standard deviation of 1.23 implies a wide variation between respondents meaning that whereas some respondents identified an individual in charge of monitoring and evaluation others did not. Specifying an individual in charge of monitoring and evaluation ensures that when the monitoring and evaluation activities are due some one ensures that they are done.

Frequency of data collection

The table also shows that the aspect of frequency of data to be collected had a mean score of 2.84 implying that this aspect was inconsistently specified in the monitoring and evaluation plans of the projects. The standard deviation of 1.32 implies a wide variation between the respondents: whereas some of the projects had this aspect specified others did not. Inconsistence in the specification of the frequency of data collection implies that the collection of monitoring and evaluation data was not consistently done: this meant that some vital data could have been missed and hence ineffective monitoring and evaluation of the projects.

Individuals for monitoring and evaluation activities

The specification of individuals for monitoring and evaluation activities had a mean score of 2.30 implying that this aspect was inconsistently specified in the plans. With a standard deviation of 1.29, there was a wide variation among the respondents, with some specifying it and others not specifying it. Inconsistence in this practice had the implication that when monitoring and evaluation activities were due there may not have been anybody available to carry them out hence they may have been missed out.

Schedule for monitoring evaluation activities

The specification of a schedule for monitoring and evaluation activities had a mean of 2.10, implying that it was inconsistently done. The standard deviation of 1.35 implies there was a wide variation amongst the respondents. Failure to schedule these activities would increase the chances of missing some of them. It would also imply that monitoring and evaluation activities would be done at the impulse of the project manager which predisposes the projects to inadequate and ineffective monitoring and evaluation.

Budget for monitoring and evaluation

The respondents were probed for whether monitoring and evaluation activities had a separate budget with a special vote within the project budget. Figure 4.3 shows the findings to the question.

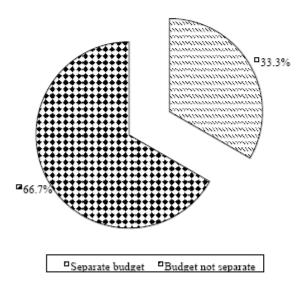


Figure 4.5: Monitoring and evaluation budgets Source: Own

Figure 4.5 shows that 66.7% of the respondents did not have a separate budget with a special vote arrangement for monitoring and evaluation activities. This means that the

majority of the NGOs did not have a clear and separate financial provision for monitoring and evaluation activities. The implication of this is that monitoring and evaluation activities were not given the due recognition they disserved (Gyorkos, 2003: and McCoy et al., 2005) and were only done at the whims of the project managers, this would result in some activities not being done at all. This would result in ineffective and inadequate monitoring and evaluation of the projects.

Constitution of monitoring evaluation budget

The respondents were probed for the percentage constitution of the monitoring and evaluation budget to the overall project budget. The findings to this question are shown in Figure 4.6:

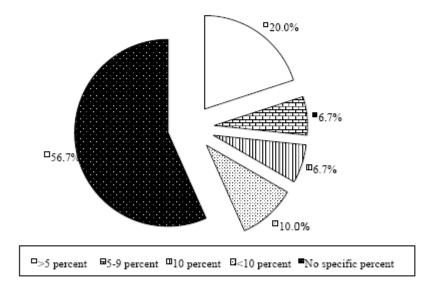


Figure 4.6: Monitoring and evaluation budget constitution to total budget Source: Own

Figure 4.6 shows that 56.7% of the respondents did not have a specific percentage of budgetary allocation to monitoring and evaluation of their projects. This was the majority of the respondents. 20% of the respondents had budgetary allocations of less than 5% assigned to monitoring and evaluation. Only 13.4% (6.7% +6.7%) had the recommended budgetary allocations range of 5% to 10% (Kelly and Magongo, 2004: IFRC, 2001: and AIDS alliance, 2006).

It is evident that majority of the respondents did not allocate the optimum budget to monitoring and evaluation. This had the effect that monitoring and evaluation activities suffered a risk of being missed since majority of the respondents did not have any specific allocation to them.

Planning for monitoring and evaluation was found to be inadequate among the respondents. Majority of the projects did not have adequately designed plans: neither did they consistently involve all the stakeholders in the design of these plans. The contents of the plans were also found wanting, with most of the vital aspects not consistently specified in all the projects they implemented. The implication is that the projects were not adequately and effectively monitored and evaluated with this low quality of planning for monitoring and evaluation.

4.5.2 Implementing the monitoring and evaluation process

This section presents findings to questions that sought to determine the respondents' practices related to how they implemented the monitoring and evaluation process of the projects.

Monitoring project finances

Figure 4.7 shows findings to the question that sought to determine how often the respondents monitored the finances on the projects they implemented. It sought to determine how often they compared the actual expenditure on the project against the planned budget.

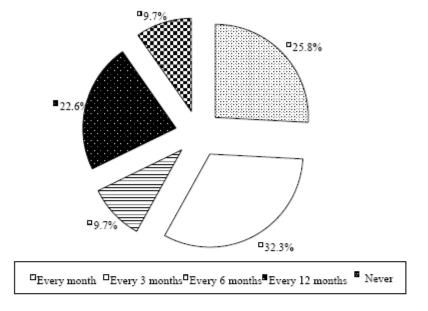


Figure 4.7: Comparison of planned budget against actual budget Source: Own

Figure 4.7 shows that 25.8% of the respondents compared their actual expenditure against planned expenditure at least every month. The figure also shows that 74.3% (9.7%+32.3%+9.7%+22.6%) of the respondents never monitored the project finances or monitored them every 3 months and less frequently.

Comparing the actual expenditure against the planned alerts the project manager to the performance of the project in terms of cost i.e. whether the project is within budget or over budget. This enables the project manager to take corrective action. That the majority of the respondents did not regularly carry out this practice meant the projects were at risk of going over budget without the knowledge of the project manager and hence inability to have any timely remedy action.

Monitoring activities of field staff

The respondents were probed for how often they monitored the activities of their field staff. 77.4% of the respondents had field staff. Figure 4.8 shows the findings of those respondents that had field staff.

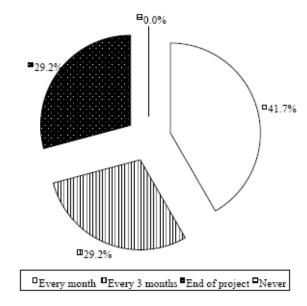


Figure 4.8: Monitoring activities of peer educators Source: Own

Figure 4.8 shows that 41.7% of the respondents that had field staff received reports from them on a monthly basis. The findings also indicate that 58.4% (29.2% +29.2%) of the respondents with field staff either received the reports ever three months or at the end of the projects. It is clear that majority of the respondents did not receive reports from their field staff regularly. Failure to receive field staff reports regularly means that project managers were not up update with implementation of the project activities. In case of poor project implementation the project managers would not be in position to detect the problem timely for remedy action.

Monitoring the project schedule

Question 3.3 sought to determine how often the respondents managed their project activity schedules on the projects they implemented. The mean score for the question 3.3 was 2.36, implying that this practice was inconsistently used on the projects implemented by the respondents. However a standard deviation of 1.14 implies a wide variation in practice on the projects, whereas on some projects this practice was used on others it was not.

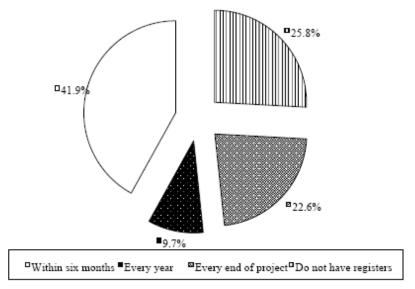


Figure 4.9: Control of project assets and equipment

Source: Own

Figure 4.9 shows that 41.9% of the respondents did not have any assets registers. Only 25.8% of the respondents updated their asset registers within six months. The other 32.3% (9.7% + 22%) updated their registers either every year or at the end of the project. This was bad practice in that in absence of a regular up date of project assets registers, custody of project equipment and assets in good condition cannot be ensured. This was assumed that the projects exceeded a year.

Data collecting methods

The respondents were probed for the data collecting methods they used to collect monitoring and evaluation data and how often they used them. Table 4.12 shows the findings to this question.

Table 4.12: Data collecting methods

Method	Mean	SD	Interpretation
Attendance forms	1.65	1.11	Consistently used
Participant observation	2.23	1.31	Inconsistently used
In-depth interviews	2.77	1.23	Inconsistently used
Material distribution registers	2.42	1.43	Inconsistently used
Questionnaires	3.03	1.14	Not used
Focus Group Discussions(FGD)	3.07	0.99	Not used

Source: Own

Attendance forms

Table 4.12 shows that the mean score for the use of attendance forms on projects to collect monitoring and evaluation data was 1.65, implying consistent use of this method by the respondents. Use of attendance forms consistently enables the project managers to determine the reach of the project activities in terms of the numbers of people accessing the project services (FHI, 2004). This information is very vital in evaluating the project at end to determine the total number of people reached by the project services. Since this method was used consistently on projects, the project managers were in position to determine coverage of their services in terms of numbers of people reached. However with a standard deviation of 1.11, there was a wide variation in practice by the respondents.

Participant observation

The score for the use of participant observation as a method collecting monitoring and evaluation data was 2.23. This implied that this method was inconsistently used on the projects. A standard deviation of 1.31 implies a wide variation in response by the respondents. Inconsistent use of this method means that the full picture on how the project activities transpired was not fully captured on the projects. Just recording the attendance does not give the full information how the project activity such as training transpired.

In-depth interviews

The mean score for the use of in depth interviews as a method for data collection was 2.77 implying this method was inconsistently used on the projects implemented by the respondents. However a standard deviation of 1.23 denotes a wide variation amongst the respondents. Inconsistent use of this method means that the full picture of how the project activities transpired was not fully captured on the projects. The in-depth interviewing of project beneficiaries, wider community, and staff would have given the project managers the fuller picture and in depth understanding of the project implementation. Inconsistent use of this method means that the project managers missed this opportunity.

Material distribution registers

The mean score for the use of material distribution registers was 2.42 implying that method was not consistently used as a data collecting method by the respondents. This method is very vital in collecting data of materials distributed during the implementation of project activities such as IEC materials, condoms, supplies and gloves. Inconsistent use of this method means that the respondents did not adequately keep a record of the

materials they deployed on the projects. The standard deviation of the 1.43 implies a wide variation in response among the respondents.

Questionnaire

The table also shows that the questionnaire method of collecting monitoring and evaluation data had a mean score of 3.03 implying that this method was not used on projects implemented by the respondents. However a standard deviation of 1.14 denotes a wide variation among the respondents with some not using it on any projects and others using it on some projects. The questionnaire method can be very handy in determining the views, perceptions and knowledge of a representative sample of the beneficiaries and the wider community about the project activities (Shao, 1997). That the respondents did not use this method, statistically generalizable knowledge, views and perceptions of the wider community about the project activities were not readily available to the project managers. This meant that this information could not be made use by the project managers in order to improve performance of the projects.

Focus group discussions

The use of focus discussion groups as a monitoring and evaluation data collecting method had a mean score of 3.07 interpreted to mean that this method was not used by the respondents. Focus group discussion method is a qualitative data collecting method that enables the project managers to have an in-depth understanding of the issues pertaining to the implementation of their projects (Branigan and Mitchel, 2002: and World Bank, 2004). That the respondents did not use this method on all the projects they implemented implies a gap in monitoring and evaluation. The project managers did not get the full picture of the implementation of their projects from the perspectives of the different

stakeholders. The standard deviation of 0.99 implies a small variation among the respondents meaning that majority of them did not use this method of collecting monitoring and evaluation data.

It is evident that quantitative data collecting methods were more frequently used by the respondents. The quantitative methods frequently used by the respondents were attendance forms, that were consistently used, material distribution registers that were inconsistently used. However the qualitative data collecting methods were no frequently used by the respondents, with FGD not used, participant observation, in-depth interviews were in-consistently used. This can be explained by the obsession with numerical data such as numbers of people, amount of materials distributed. The implication of this is that the full picture of project implementation was not fully unravelled. For example a Behavioural Change Communication (BCC) projects that reached 100 people, without a benefit of any qualitative data collecting method would not be able tell the project manager on the quality of the training, level of interaction which would be essential in monitoring the quality of implementation of project activities.

Use of computers

The respondents were probed for whether they used computers to aid monitoring and evaluation of the projects they implemented and what they used the computers for. The findings of the study showed that 87% of the respondents used computers for monitoring and evaluation. Table 4.13 shows the responses to what monitoring and evaluation function they used computers for.

Table 4.13: Use of computers for monitoring and evaluation

	N (27)	
Report writing	27	100.0%
Data storage	24	88.9%
Emailing of findings	21	77.8%
Analysis of Data	19	70.4%
Collection of Data	7	25.9%

Source: Own

Table 4.13 shows that 100% of the respondents that used computers for monitoring and evaluation used them for report writing. The least used function by the respondents was collection of monitoring and evaluation data. Only 25.9% of the respondents used computers for this function.

It is evident that majority of the respondents used computers for monitoring and evaluation of their projects. Computers can be of immense value in monitoring and evaluation process. Computers make the task of managing monitoring and evaluation data and information more effective and efficient (Kelly and Magongo, 2004).

Table 4.14 shows response to questions related to how evaluation of projects was carried on the projects implemented by the respondents.

Table 4.14: Practices related to evaluation of projects

	Mean	SD	Interpretation
3.7 (a)	3.07	0.93	Not done
3.7 (b)	1.94	1.24	Consistently done
3.8	2.52	1.29	Inconsistently done
3.9	2.32	1.19	Inconsistently done

Source: Own

Midterm evaluations

Question 3.7 (a) sought to determine how often the respondents carried out midterm (interim evaluations) of the projects they implemented. This question had a mean of 3.07, implying that this practice was not done by the respondents. The standard deviation of 0.93 implies that there was a minimum variation amongst the respondents with majority of them not carrying out these evaluations.

Mid term evaluations enable the project manager to asses the performance of the project mid stream before its completion. It may seek to determine whether the project will achieve its objectives, the continued relevance. Failure to carry out mid term evaluations means that the projects were not assessed mid way before completion to enable the project managers to determine issues such as continued relevance, probability of achieving project objectives, performance with a view of rectifying any problems that cold have arisen.

Summation evaluations

Question 3.7 (b) sought to determine how often the respondents carried out summation (end of project evaluations). The mean score for this question was 1.94, implying that this type evaluation was done consistently on the projects implemented by the respondents. Summative evaluations are carried out at the end of the project with objective of determining how the project progressed, what went right and what went wrong, capture any lessons learned and also determine the impact and success in achieving the objectives of the project. The respondents consistently carried out these evaluations on their projects giving them an opportunity to capture any lessons learned to benefit future projects. A standard deviation of 1.29 implies a wide variation amongst respondents.

External facilitators

Question 3.8 sought to determine how often they involved external facilitators during evaluation of the projects they implemented. With a mean of 2.52, it implied a practice that was inconsistently done by the respondents. The involvement of an external facilitator would benefit the project in that it will introduce an objective perspective to the evaluation and hence identify issues that may not be captured by the other stakeholders. Inconsistence in this practice means that some of the project evaluations lacked the objective perspective that could be provided by an external facilitator.

The findings also showed that 38.7% respondents involved external facilitators during evaluation of their projects. These were then further probed for the reasons why they did so. The responses were analysed and categorized around the key recurring themes. Table 4.15 shows the findings to the probing.

Table 4.15: Reasons for involvement of external facilitators

Reason	N(12)
Objectivity	66.7%
Donor requirement	16.7%
Tap into expertise	33.3%

Source: Own

Table 4.15 shows that objectivity was identified by 66.7% of the respondents that answered this question: tapping into the expertise of the facilitator was another reason which was identified by 33.3% respondents. Donor requirement was the least frequently identified by the respondents with only 16.7% of them. It is evident that reasons why most the respondents involved an external facilitator was because the sought to have an objective, external and independent opinion on their projects.

Documentation of lessons learned

Table 4.14 shows the findings to question 3.9. This question sought to determine how often the respondents documented lessons learned on their projects. It had a mean score of 2.32 implying that this practice was not consistently done by the respondents. The standard deviation of 1.19 implies a wide variation amongst the respondents.

Capturing and documenting the lessons learned on the projects enables the project manager and project staff to learn from the project and incorporate the same into subsequent projects. Inconsistence in this practice means that the project stakeholders did not optimally learn from the previous projects they implemented and this could have resulted in repeating the same mistakes.

The findings show that 45.2% of the respondents indicated that they documented the lessons learned on the projects they implemented. These were further probed for the motivation behind this practice. The responses were analysed and categorized around the key recurring themes. Table 4.16 shows the findings:

Table 4.16: Motivation for documenting lessons learned on projects

Reason	N(14)
Share experiences with others	45.2%
Improve future performance	45.2%
Learning purposes	28.6%
Review strength and weaknesses	14.3%

Source: Own

Table 4.16 shows that 45.2% respondents each identified sharing experiences and improving future performances as the motivation behind documenting lessons learned on the projects. Learning purposes was identified by 28.6% respondents. It is evident that documenting lessons is mainly motivated by the desire to learn from the previous projects, which could be used to improve future implementation by using it as a record of reference or sharing these lessons with others.

The evaluation of the projects implemented by the respondents was not effectively done. Other than the end of project evaluations that were consistently done by the respondents, the midterm evaluations were generally not carried out on the projects implemented by the respondents. Some of the ingredients of effective evaluation such as an external facilitator, documentation of lessons learned were not consistently done on the evaluations.

Question 2.10 probed respondents for the modes they used to disseminate monitoring and evaluation findings of the projects to stakeholders. Table 4.17 shows the findings:

Table 4.17: Dissemination modes for monitoring and evaluation findings

Dissemination mode	n	
Report to donors	24	82.8%
Report to field staff	18	62.1%
Community meetings	16	55.2%
Report to beneficiaries	13	44.8%
News letter	2	6.9%
Notice boards	1	3.4%

Source: Own

Table 4.17 shows that respondents had more than one mode of disseminating their findings. The table shows that majority of the respondents disseminated the findings by way of a report to the donor. The findings of the study further show that 82.8% of the respondents used this mode. Report to field staff was used by 62.1% of the respondents. The least frequently used mode of dissemination was the notice board with only 3.4% of the respondents using this mode of dissemination.

It is evident from the modes that majority of the respondents disseminated monitoring and evaluation findings to stakeholders. It is however evident that a lot of emphasis was to the donors at the expense of other beneficiaries. The emphasis with the donor could be explained by the fact that it was a donor requirement as a condition to funding to the NGOs. Disseminating the findings to all stakeholders facilitates ownership for the projects, and is a learning opportunity for the stockholder's strategies (Gyorkos, 2003: and McCoy et al., 2005). Since not all the beneficiaries received monitoring and evaluation findings, the projects missed the full befits of such a practice.

All in all the implementation of the monitoring and evaluation process was not effectively done by the respondents. There wasn't consistent use of all the best practices on all the projects they implemented.

4.6 Challenges Faced By NGOs during M&E

The respondents were asked questions related to the environment under which they carried out monitoring and evaluation of the projects they implemented. The probing was done by way of statements that the respondents had to complete to describe a specific monitoring and environmental issue that best described their situation. The probing for the environment using statements was done in order to identify the challenges they faced

without biasing the respondents. Different environmental issues were highlighted. The responses were analysed using means and standard deviations. The findings are shown in Table 4.18 and the discussions follow next.

Table 4.18: Findings to the monitoring and evaluation environmental issues

	Mean	SD	Interpretation
Question 4.1	3.03	1.20	Finances not adequate
Question 4.2	1.29	0.46	Strong agreement on reporting
Question 4.3	1.32	0.48	Very strict donor requirements
Question 4.4	2.32	0.83	Mixed opinions
Question 4.5	1.90	0.89	Very demanding
Question 4.6	3.10	1.17	Expertise not available

Source: Own

Availability of adequate funds

Question 4.1 sought to determine the availability of finances amongst the respondents to carry out monitoring and evaluation activities. Table 4.18 shows that the mean score was 3.03 interpreted to mean that the NGOs faced a challenge of inadequate finances to carry out monitoring and evaluation activities on the projects they implemented. These findings were consistent with the findings of Gibbs *et al.*, 2002: and Gilliam *et al.*, 2003. However a standard deviation of 1.20 implied a wide variation in responses with some reporting that they had adequate finances and others to the contrary.

Without adequate finances the NGOs would be forced to scale back on some of the monitoring and evaluation activities they were supposed to carry out. This would have an implication of inadequate and ineffective monitoring and evaluation of the projects the respondents implemented.

Monitoring and evaluation reporting requirements

Question 4.2 sought to determine the opinion of the respondents on the monitoring and evaluation reporting requirements of different donors. The table shows that the mean score was 1.29 interpreted to mean that there was strong agreement that different donors had different reporting requirements. The standard deviation of 0.46 implies a small variation amongst the respondents with majority of them strongly agreeing.

Multiple donor requirements would translate into excessive burden to the NGOs to conform to these different requirements, this exerbates the problem of stretched capacity on the project in terms of manpower. This would result in monitoring and evaluation being looked at as a burden, not as an opportunity to learn.

Question 4.3 was related to 4.2, it sought to determine how strict the donor reporting requirements were. The table shows that the mean score for this question was 1.32 interpreted to mean that the respondents agreed that monitoring and evaluation reporting requirements were very strict. A standard deviation of 0.48 denotes a small variation amongst the respondents with majority of them agreeing that the requirements were very strict.

This issue is related to the previous one of multiple reporting requirements. Very strict reporting requirements exerbates the problem of stretched capacity on the project in terms of manpower. This is as a result of the NGOs having to invest a lot of resources and time in order to meet the donor reporting requirements. This would be at the detriment of other project activities (Gilliam et al., 2003). These stringent donor funding requirements also perpetuate the practice of emphasis on upward accountability to the donor with minimum or no accountability to other stakeholders including the beneficiaries. This would result in

lack of ownership of the project which is a very critical factor in project sustainability (Ramesh, 2002). Stringent reporting requirements also make monitoring and evaluation to be looked as a burden, not an opportunity for learning by the stakeholders.

Demonstrating long term impact of projects

Question 4.4 sought to determine from the respondents the ease of demonstrating the long-term impact of the projects they implement. The table shows that the mean score for this issue was 2.32 interpreted to mean a mixed opinion amongst the respondents. There is no clear opinion on whether they considered it straightforward to demonstrate long-term impact of the projects they implemented or not. A standard deviation of 0.83 implies a minimum variation amongst the respondents. The findings are inconsistent with those of Riddell et al., (1997) as cited by Rick, (2001). He found that NGOs had a big challenge of demonstrating impact of projects for which they sought funding.

Failure to demonstrate impact of projects, more especially long term, has implications that the NGOs find it hard to source more funding from the donors who may be of the view that the projects were not effective. The community and other stakeholders may also look at the project as a money wasting venture that was conceived in their names without any long term impact. This would exerbates the problems of lack of ownership and lack of sustainability for the project.

Collecting data from people affected by HIV/AIDS

Question 4.5 sought to determine the ease of collecting monitoring and evaluation data from people affected by HIV/AIDS. The table shows that the mean score was 1.90 interpreted to mean that it was very demanding to collect this data. The standard deviation of 0.89 implies a small variation among the respondents.

It is evident that collecting monitoring and evaluation data from People Living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA) and other people affected by HIV/AIDS is not easy. They look at the data collection from them as an intrusion into their lives with minimum benefit: the situation may be made worse if other organizations are carrying out the same activities amongst the same communities (Health link, 2006). This issue is made worse by the high stigma associated with HIV/AIDS.

Availability of expertise

Question 4.6 sought to determine opinion of respondents on the level of availability of monitoring and evaluation expertise amongst the NGOs. The table shows that the mean score for this question was 3.10 interpreted to mean that the expertise was not available amongst the NGOs. However a standard deviation of 1.17 implies a wide variation amongst the respondents.

Lack of adequate monitoring and evaluation expertise or capacity among the local NGOs is one area that has been highlighted by several scholars (Hughes d'ach, 2002: Gibbs et al., 2002: and Kelly and Magongo 2004). Monitoring and evaluation requires specific skills and expertise such as monitoring and evaluation design skills particularly log frame design, indicator setting: both qualitative and quantitative, design of data collecting instruments including questionnaires, focus discussion guides (Hughes d'Aeth, 2002 and Gibbs et al., 2002).

Kelly and Magongo (2004) noted that skills such as advanced data analysis, conducting of focus groups, qualitative indicator setting are very scarce amongst local NGOs in Swaziland. The local NGOs may not be in position to procure them implying that these areas that require these skills are not done and hence monitoring and evaluation are not

effectively done. Gillian *et al.* (2003) argues that this translates into shortage of quality data which makes decision making on the project to be based on intuition not solid data.

The respondents were further probed for any other issues that could be of interest about the environment in which they were conducting monitoring evaluation of the projects. This was an open ended question. Some of the issues highlighted earlier were repeated, but were omitted during the analysis. The issues were analysed and coded over the main recurring themes. Table 4.19 shows the findings

Table 4.19: Other monitoring and evaluation issues

Identified issue	n
Loss of trained personnel due to high staff turnover	1
Need for training, it is a new concept	4
Much emphasis is on implementation not M&E	1
M&E is time consuming and labour intensive	3
PLWHA not actively involved just used as statistics	2
PLWHA are over researched and are fatigued	1
Baseline data from government not accurate	1
Donors don't offer much support in this area	3

Source: Own

Need for training in monitoring and evaluation

The table shows that the most frequently cited issue was that monitoring and evaluation was a new concept amongst the NGOs, as a result they needed some training in order to be able to carry it out. Some of the respondents observed that they lacked understanding in the use of the tools that the donors prescribed. The findings show that four respondents identified this issue.

Time consuming and labour intensive

The other issue identified was that monitoring and evaluation was a time consuming and labour intensive function. One of the respondents went further to describe it as "necessary evil that had to be done". The labour intensiveness is seen in light of the fact that the NGOs were not well resourced in terms of personnel. This issue was identified by three respondents.

Lack of active involvement of PLWHA

The other issue was that PLWHA were not actively involved in monitoring and evaluation. They are just used as a statistics. This was identified by three respondents. Associated with this but contradictory was the issue raised by one of the respondents that the PLWHA are an over researched community and as a result are fatigued. This is related and made worse by the high levels of stigma associated with HIV/AIDS in the communities.

Donor support

Donors do not offer much support in this area to the NGOs, yet they have strict requirements. This issue was identified by three respondents. Some of the respondents suggested that the donors should attach monitoring and evaluation officials with the NGOs to assist them in this area.

Loss of trained personnel

Associated with the earlier issue of lack of monitoring and evaluation expertise within the NGOs is one of loss of trained personnel due to high staff turn over. This could be associated with lack of financial resources to adequately remunerate the staffs who opt for greener pastures. This issue was identified by one of the respondents.

Inaccurate baseline data

Inaccurate baseline data that the NGOs use to design their projects was another issue raised. This was raised by one of the respondents. Designing a project using inaccurate baseline data would make the project defective and hence monitoring and evaluation sub optimal.

It is evident that the local NGOs had some challenges in the monitoring and evaluation of the projects they implemented. The challenges identified by the respondents affected the way they monitored and evaluated the projects they implemented. The adequacy and effectiveness of monitoring and evaluation of the projects implemented was severely hampered by the challenges identified by the respondents.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMEDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the recommendations and conclusions of the study and then makes recommendations for further study.

5.2 Recommendations of the study

It is imperative that findings of the study are briefly reiterated before recommendations are made. The following were the research findings.

The NGOs were heavily reliant on donors in terms of financing the projects they implemented The mostly frequently implemented projects were Behavioural Change Communication projects and Care and Support of the Sick. The Human Rights and Advocacy projects are least frequently implemented projects although ensuring the basic

human rights the HIV/AIDS vulnerable groups is very critical in fight against the pandemic. The monitoring and evaluation practices of the NGOs were found wanting in comparison with the recommended best practices. Most of the best practices were inconsistently done on the projects. Some of the best practices such as use of qualitative indicators were generally not used by majority of the NGOs. This can be explained by the fact that they lacked expertise in monitoring and evaluation as highlighted by the findings. Other challenges faced by the NGOs included among others stringent requirements from donors, lack of involvement of PLWHA in the process of M&E. The adequacy and effectiveness of monitoring and evaluation of the projects implemented was severely hampered by the challenges identified by the respondents. The researcher makes the following recommendations to address some of the key findings of the study.

Generation of own income

It is imperative that the NGOs start or involve themselves more in income generating activities in order to reduce their over reliance on the donors for funding their activities as means of ensuring sustainability of their activities in event that the donors cease funding The findings of the research also highlight the fact that there is not much involvement of PLWHA in the activities of the NGOs particularly M&E. As a means of fostering sustainability the PLWHA should be more involved in activities of the NGOs, particularly setting the agenda.

More funding to NGOs

Much as there are a lot of funds being invested in the fight against HIV/AIDS, very little is trickling down to the grass root NGOs that are at the forefront of combating HIV/AIDS. There is need for the donors to provide more resources to the NGOs, so that

their activities can have impact. With insufficient funds, monitoring and evaluation is looked at as a luxury and hence the projects do not benefit from it. With more funds the NGOs can train and retain the critical skills that they are lacking especially in monitoring and evaluation.

Training

The findings found a critical lack of expertise in monitoring and evaluation of projects implemented by the NGOs. There is need for training in this aspect of monitoring and evaluation. Donors in conjunction with government should institute programmes to impart HIV/AIDS projects monitoring and evaluation skills amongst the local NGOs. It is imperative that the implementers of these projects have skills in monitoring and evaluating them.

Relax the reporting requirements

Donors need to relax the reporting requirements. Most the donors have stringent, time consuming and laborious reporting requirements. There is need for donors to identify simpler and friendlier reporting formats for the recipients of their funds without compromising their interests but at the same time not overburdening the NGOs.

Need for a more participatory approach

There is need for the NGOs to involve all the stakeholders in the design of the HIV/AIDS projects. The beneficiaries should not be passive recipients of the services the project is offering. An active involvement of the beneficiaries such as PLWHA will mitigate the challenges of collecting monitoring and evaluation data from them. It has got an added advantage of demonstrating accountability to them and also ensuring sustainability of the project when the donors withdraw funding.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Studies

The research study was limited to comparing the monitoring and evaluation practices of local NGOs with the best practices in order to determine how effectively the HIV/AIDS projects were monitored and evaluated. It also determined the challenges the NGOs faced in monitoring and evaluating the projects they implement.

Further research would be required to determine empirically the actual impact on the performance of the projects and hence the fight against HIV/AIDS by the inadequacies identified in the monitoring and evaluation practices of the NGOs.

Since monitoring and controlling projects and evaluating them should be an integrated with project planning and design. Further research should try investigating the project design and planning practices of the NGOs.

5.5 Conclusions

The study investigated the monitoring and evaluation practices and challenges faced by the NGOs implementing HIV/AIDS projects in Botswana. The study findings showed that the project implemented by the NGO were not effectively monitored and evaluated. The study also unearthed the lack of funding faced by the NGOs in this area of HIV/AIDS. This was mainly as a result of lack of expertise in this area. Recommendations were made in order to improve the monitoring and evaluation of projects implemented by the NGOs.

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 ${\bf Appendix\ 1:\ Logical\ framework\ for\ Behavioural\ change\ communication\ projects\ showing\ monitoring\ and\ evaluation\ indicators}$

Behavioral change communication project		Indicators for monitoring and evaluation		
INPUTS	Funds Visual equipment Trainers(resource persons Testing facilities	Budget (actual expenditure against planned expenditure) Human resource plans		
ACTIVITIES	Developing of IEC materials Selecting of communities and schools Formation of peer groups Recruitment of peer educators Training of peer educators Staging of the workshops, drama competitions Distribution of condoms Distribution of IEC material Household visits	Schedule (actual schedule against planned schedule)		
OUTPUTS	Trained peer educators Formed peer groups Community members trained IEC materials distributed Condoms distributed More accurately informed community on HIV/AIDS issues (transmission, prevention etc) More skilled and assertive people on HIV/AIDS e.g. girls saying no or negotiating for safer sex	Number of IEC material distributed Number of peer trainers trained Number of peer groups started Number of condoms distributed Number of BCC workshops and talk shows held Number of people reached with BCC information		

OUTCOMES	Less risky behaviours More condom use Delayed sex debut Less stigma in community More use of health services More people testing for HIV/AIDS status Reduced sexual partners Fewer STDs	Number of people seeking health services such as STI treatment. Demand of condoms. Number of people self reporting use of condom at last sexual act Number of zero discrimination behaviour liking willingness to share a meal with a PLWA. Percentage of people reporting to delaying sexual debut
GOAL/OBJECTIVE	 Reduction in HIV/AIDS prevalence in the area. 	Prevalence of HIV/AIDS in the area Prevalence of STI infections.

Appendix 2: Logical framework for Community home based care projects for people living with HIV/AIDS showing monitoring and evaluation indicators

Community H (PLWA) proje	ome based care for people living with AIDS cts	Indicators for monitoring and evaluation
 Community H 	Iome based care for people living with AIDS (PLWA	
INPUTS	Funds Resource persons (care givers counselors and trainers)	Budget (actual expenditure against planned expenditure) Human resource plans
ACTIVITIES	Recruitment of volunteers or staff Identification of PLWA that need support and care. Identification of PLWA care and support needs. Identification of training needs Training of the volunteers with cares and counseling skills Establishment of support groups Nutritional partmerships established Establishment of spiritual links with FBOs to offer spiritual support. Conducting vocational training for PLWHA.	Schedule (actual schedule against planned schedule)
OUTPUTS	PLWHA taken care of Physically, spiritually and counselled House holds of PLWHA supported PLWHA support groups established PLWHA offered with vocational skills. Support to start small income generating businesses. Improved health for PLWHA. Better support for the affected and the infected. PLWHA vocational skills put to resulting in more	Number of volunteers recruited and trained in PLWHA care Number of family members trained in the care of PLWHA Number of households served Number of PLWHA support groups started Number of PLWHA provided with care
OUTCOMES	income for them Batended life span of PLWHA	Percentage of PLWHA regaining health and living longer
GOAL/OBJEC TIVE	Better quality of life for PLWHA	

 ${\bf Appendix~3: Logical~framework~for~Socio-economic~impact~mitigation~projects~showing~monitoring~and~evaluation~indicators}$

1	spact mitigation projects ns and vulnerable children (OVCs) ,child headed s	Indicators for monitoring and evaluation
INPUTS	Funds Resource persons (care givers counsellors and trainers) Equipment	Budget (actual expenditure against planned expenditure) Human resource plans
ACTIVITIES	Identification of OVCs, and grand parents and widows who need support Identification of trainers. Training OVCs care givers. Setting up shelter for the OVCs. Training of OVCs in vocational skills. Support and mentoring of older OVCs to start income generating activities Identification of foster parents if possible Scheduling of the OVCs to get essential services like education etc.	Schedule (actual schedule against planned schedule)
OUTPUTS	A number of OVCs supported Child headed homes supported Trained OVCs care givers and vocational trainers. Shelter for OVCs set up OVCs placed with foster parents. OVCs accessing school and others services	Number of OVCs provided with basic facilitation. Number of widows assisted Number of OVCs enrolled in school. Number of OVCs given vocational training
OUTCOMES	Wellbeing of the OVCs. Education capacity of OVCs Economic capacity of the OVCs and the there care givers Protection OVCs from exploitation	Number of OVCs that are receiving education Percentage of child headed homes Number of OVCs that are healthy with (use of health indicators) Number of OVCs households Number of street children in the area that are financially reliant
GOAL/OBJECTIVE	Improved quality of life for AIDS orphans	 Percentage of OVCs fully integrated within family structures and have received education

 ${\bf Appendix\ 4:\ Logical\ framework\ for\ HIV/AIDS\ advocacy\ and\ human\ rights\ projects\ showing\ monitoring\ and\ evaluation\ indicators}$

HIV/AIDS advocacy and human rights projects		Indicators for monitoring and evaluation		
INPUTS	Funds Resource persons Visual audio Equipment	Budget (actual expenditure against planned expenditure) Human resource plans		
ACTIVITIES	Selection of stakeholders to be trained on HIV/AIDS human rights Preparation of training materials Conducting the trainings. Engaging media with HIV/AIDS human rights Legal clinics set up for PLWA and OVCs Lobbying activities for government to come up with HIV/AIDS policy and legislation Stakeholders and policy makers equipped with knowledge on HIV/AIDS human rights	Schedule (actual schedule against planned schedule) Number of trainings done Number of people trained Advocacy activities done		
OUTPUTS	PLWAs supported with legal aid Population reached with information on HIV/AIDS human rights	Media adverts placed Manuals and tools developed to aid HIV/AIDS human rights amongst stakeholders.		
OUTCOMES	Human rights of PLWA protected in research, at work, confidentiality attesting etc More HIV/AIDS friendly policies enacted More funding of HIV/AIDS and government held accountable for its programmes on HIV/AIDS	Number of Human rights custodians that can appreciate importance of protecting human rights Number and quality of HIV/AIDS policies enacted Level of government involvement and responsibility in the HIVA/AIDS struggle.		
GOAL/OBJECTIVE	Friendlier environment in terms of human rights and legislation for PLWHA. Reduction in stigma and discrimination of PLWA.	Number of human rights—violation complaints related to HIV/AIDS Number of HIV/AIDS friendly policies ,laws and practices		

Appendix 5: Population of study: List of NGOs

Name of NGO	LOCATION
Molepolole home based care	Molepolole
House of men theatre group	Molepolole
Bakgatla Bolokang Matshelo	Mochudi
Flying mission	Broadhurst
Gae la Tidimalo burial society	Gabane
6. Ghetto artists	Gaborone
7. Hope World Wide Botswana	Gaborone
8. Kamogelo Association of Botswana	Gaborone
Kentswana Youth Centre	Gaborone
10. Kgothatso AIDS prevention Care and Programme	Gaborone
11. Centre for Youth of Hope	Gaborone
12. Child to Child Network of Botswana	Gaborone
13. COCEPWA	Gaborone
14. Ditswanelo	Gaborone
15. Holy Cross Hospice	Gaborone
16. Ngwana yo o Saleleng AIDS Counseling	Gaborone
17. Nurses Association of Botswana	Gaborone
18. YWCA	Gaborone
19. Olorato Orphanage Centre	Kanye
20. HIV/AIDS Orphans and Vulnerable Children	Mogoditshane
21. Botswana Council of Women and AIDS project	Gaborone
22. Botswana Family Welfare Association	Gaborone
23. Botswana Federation of Trade Unions	Gaborone
24. Health Promotions International	Gaborone
25. Kagisano Society	Gaborone
26. Lifeline Botswana	Gaborone
27. Society of women against AIDS	Gaborone
28. Women and The Law in Southern Africa*	Gaborone
29. Humana people to people*	Gaborone

30. Emang Basadi	Gaborone
31. Tsholofelo Trust	Gaborone (Kweneng)
32. Bona Lesedi Community Based project	Kanye
33. Kanye seventh day Adventist hospital	Kanye
 Kweneng rural development association trust 	Molepolole
35. Family children caring centre	Moshupa
36. Otse Home Based Care	Otse
37. Shelter for the Hopeful Community	Ramostwa
38. Ramotswa Hospice	Ramostwa
39. Emmanuel Counseling Centre	Ramostwa
40. BAPR	Thema
41. Botswana Retired Nurses Society	Tolkweng
42. Siga Community Home based Care	Ramostwa
43. Bopanganag Theatre Group	Lobaste
44. Kopong Home Based Care	Kopong
45. Family Orphan AIDS Caring centre	Moshupa
46. Compassionate Foundation Centre	Mogoditshane
47. Moedi Care Centre	Gaborone
48. Nkaikela Youth Group	Tolkweng
49. Kgatleng Brigade	Mochudi
50. YOHO	Gaborone
51. Botswana Scout Association	Gaborone
52. AISEC	Gaborone
53. Tirisanyo Catholic Commission	Gaborone
54. Society for Women Against AIDS	Gaborone
55. CEYOHO	Gaborone
56. Baikamogedi Support Group	Moshupa
57. Kokgotleng	Gaborone
58. Botswana Christian Council	Gaborone
59. Lobaste Christian AIDS centre	Lobaste
60. Salvation Army Psychological Support Initiative	Gaborone
61. Evangelical Fellowship of Botswana	Gaborone

62. Love Botswana Outreach Mission	Maun
63. World Divine World Wide Ministries	Moshupa
64. Associations of Medical Missions of Botswana	Gaborone
65. Associations of Teachers Against AIDS	Gaborone
66. Eagle African HIV/AIDS Trust	Gaborone
67. Jesus Harvesters Ministries	Gaborone
68. Mabongo Dinku	Gaborone
69. Luzwe Development Trust	Dutlwe
70. Love Botswana Outreach Mission	Maun
71. Agape Youth Centre	Tutume
72. Emanang borolong	Goodhope
73. Women Against Rape	Maun
74. Long life Support Group	Mahalapye
75. Kgalagadi Desert Support Group	Kang
76. Bobirwa Home Based Care	Bobonong
77. Christian Intervention Community	Serowe
78. Bana Ba Lestsatsi	Maun
79. Fair Lady Care Centre	Kasane
80. True love waits	Ghanzi
81. Perrmaculture trust of Botswana –Ghanzi	Serowe
82. Lephephe Home Based Care	Lephephe
83. Boatlaname Home Based Care	Boatlaname
84. Cresta Marang	Francistown
85. Art amazing (pty)	Francistown
86. Botshelo Project	Serowe
87. Botswana Child Minding Associations	SelibwePikwe
88. Children of Soil	Sebina
89. House of Hope Trust	Palapye

90. Monana Iteke Resource Education	Francistown
91. Mothers Union	Mahalapye
92. Mowana Safari Lodge	Kasane
93. Parwe Counseling Centre	Mahalapye
94. Siga Community Home based Care	Ramostwa
95. Galabagwe Counseling Centre	Masunga
96. Maitegwe Home Based Care	Maitegwe
97. Mmadinare Community Based Care	Mmadinare

Appendix 6: QUESTIONNNAIRE

An assessment of monitoring and evaluation practices of local NGOs implementing ${\bf HIV/AIDS}$ projects in Botswana

1.0	Activities and resources				
	at is coverage of your service tick more than area if your ar		than one)		
Kwenen; Central I	ast District		Kgatleng District Ghanzi District Kgalagandi District North West District		
1.2 Is yo	ur organization founded or a	ssociated to any religious	body?	YES	NO
1.3 If th	e answer to 1.2 is YES pleas	e state the religious body	·		
2002	n was your organization regi 2 2003	stered with BONASO? 2004 2005	2006	2007	
(Please	th type of HIV/AIDS project tick more than one option if y Behavioural communication of Care and support of the sick Social-economic mitigation (Human rights and advocacy	you implement more than change projects	n one project)		
	now long (in years) has your o	organization been carryin	ng out these projects		
1.7 What	t was the total budget in Pula	that you spent on HIV/A	AIDS projects last year	?	
	Less than 50,000 150,000-199,999	50,000-99,999 200,000-249,999	100,000-149, 250,000 and o		
	organizations that fund your l tick more than one if you hav		de the following:		
	International Donor agencies Government bodies (e.g. NA Corporate companies Private individuals We don't receive any donor	CA, parliamentary, AID			
	nention any other source if no do not receive any donor fund			estion 1.9)	

1.9 What was the contribution in percentage of donors to the total budget you spent on HIV/AIDS projects						
1ast year? 0%-25% 26%-50%	6	56%-75%	76	5%-100%		
1.9 Which of the following equipment/assets do you own for implementing your projects? Computers Video equipment Public address system Cars Motor-cycles HIV testing equipment Agricultural land						
Please mention any other assets or ed	quipment if not is	ncluded				
1.10 What is the total number of the s	taff that your or	ganization has?				
Less tha <u>n</u> 7	7-12	13-18		Over 18		
Permanent staff Volunteer staff	\vdash					
· Crimical Smill	ш	ш		ш		
2.0 Monitoring and evaluation	plan					
2.1 Before embarking on an HIV/AII data or condition of the community of		ormally conduct a	study to establ	lish baseline		
All projects Some projects		Very few projects		Never		
2.2 You normally have a plan that g HIV/AIDS projects that you carry out		and evaluation w	hen implemen	ting the		
All projects For some projects		Very few projects		Never		
(If your response is never go to ques	tion 2.3 otherwis	e continue to que	stion 2.3)			
2.3 If your response above is never w	hat is the reason	that prompts not	to have the pla	n		
Projects are too small	_					
We do not know how to design one						
Please mention any other reason if no	t included					
2.4 Normally the following stakehold projects	ers are involved	in planning the m	onitoring and	evaluation of the	e	
	For all	For some project	cts Forfe	w projects	Never	
Donors	projects	Г	П			
Project implementation staff	 	 	+	\vdash		
Community			1			
Project beneficiaries e.g. orphans	□		\Box			
We do not involve any stakeholders						

2.5 The following aspects are normally specified in the plan that guides monitoring and evaluation (M&E)

Data to be collected Frequency of data collection An individual in charge of M&E Schedule of M &E activities Plan for dissemination of findings Individuals for specific M&E activitie	For all projects	For some projects	For few projects	Never
2.6 Monitoring and evaluation activit A separate budget with a special vote No special vote arrangement	—			
2.7 Monitoring and evaluation activit budget. This is in the region of: Less than 5-9% 5-9%		located a percenta ore than 10%	ge of the total proje No specific %	
2.8 (a) We normally use the logical factorization of projects we carry out For all projects For some		h (log frame) in a Very few proj		g and Never
2.8 (b) If you do not use the log fram	e please mention a	ny other framewor	ık you use	
2.9 Monitoring and evaluation activit For all projects For some projects		project schedule: For a few projects	Never	
2.10 How do you disseminate monito more than one way of dissemination) No dissemination On the notice board Report to field staff	ring and evaluation Report to donor Newsletter	Communit	e tick more than on y meetings beneficiaries	e if you have
3.0 Project monitoring and evalua	tion process imple	ementation		
3.1 The project finances are normally expenditure	monitored by com	paring the planne	d budgeted expendi	ture against actual
Every month Every 3 months	Every month		rery 12 Neve months Neve	er
3.2 We normally monitor and control Every week Every mon We don't have field staff		e field staff (e.g. p months	eer educators) Project end	Never
3.3 How often do you compare plann determine project schedule po		s schedule against	actual schedule in	order to

For all projects For some projects For a few projects Never
3.4 We normally monitor the use the organizations' equipment employed on the project For all projects For some projects For a few projects Never
3.5 We normally use the following methods in collecting monitoring and evaluation data on for: All projects Some projects Very few projects Never
Attendance forms Questionnaires Participant observation In-depth interviews Material distribution registers Focus group interviews
Please mention any other data collecting methods you use that is not mentioned
3.6 We use computers for monitoring and evaluation activities in the following ways We do not use computers in monitoring and evaluation Report writing Analysis of data Storage of monitoring and evaluation data Communication of findings through email Collection of data
Please mention any other uses if not included
3.7 Which type of evaluations do you normally carry out on the projects you implement For all For some projects For a few Never projects projects a) Mid term (interim) evaluations
b) Summation evaluations (end of project)
3.8 (a) If you carry out evaluations of your projects, how often do involve an external facilitator? For all projects For some projects For a few projects Never (b) If you involve an external facilitator briefly explain why
3.9 How often do you document lessons learned on the project implementation? For all projects For some projects For a few projects Never
(b) If you document the lessons learned on the projects briefly explain why
4.0 The monitoring and evaluation environment of HIV/AIDS projects
4.1 The finances to carry out monitoring and evaluation activities are
Always adequate Rarely adequate Never adequate

4.2 Different donors have different reporting requirements
Strongly agree Disagree Strongly disagree
4.3 Monitoring and evaluation reporting requirements from donors are
Very strict Strict Lenient Very lenient
4.4 Demonstrating the long term impact of the projects to donors is
Very straightforward Straightforward Rarely straightforward Never straightforward
4.5 Collecting monitoring and evaluation data from people affected by HIV/AIDS is not easy due to stigma attached to the disease
Strongly agree Disagree Strongly disagree
4.6 There is lack of monitoring and evaluation expertise within NGOs
Strongly agree Disagree Strongly disagree
4.7 Please mention any other monitoring and evaluation issues that may not have been covered above
Additional issue 1
Additional issue 2
Additional issue 3
A376 14 4
Additional issue 4

5.0 Please indicate below if you would be interested in the receiving a copy of the findings of this

research in August when I complete the report. YES NO NO
After completing the questionnaire please put it in the self-addressed stamped envelope and posts it to the researcher, please can call 71744148 to pick it from your office.
THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION