

Thematic Evaluation of Bistandnemnda's Integrated Projects

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Annexes:

1. Invitation for the Thematic Evaluation
2. Description of the Thematic Evaluation
3. List of integrated projects

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|--------|---|
| AIEC | Asociacion de Indigenas Evangelicos de Cañar |
| BN | Norwegian Missions in Development (Bistandsnemnda) |
| CBHC | Community based health care |
| CELPA | Pentecostal church in Africa, based in D.R.Congo (La Communauté des Eglises Libres de Pentecôte en Afrique) |
| DELF | The Evangelical Lutheran Free Church of Norway (Den Evangelisk Lutherske Frikirke) |
| DRC | Democratic Republic of Congo |
| EECMY | Ethiopian Evangelical Church Mekane Yesus |
| ELCK | Evangelical Lutheran Church in Kenya |
| FGM | Female genital mutilation |
| FLM | Fiangonana Loterana Malagasy (The Lutheran Church in Madagascar) |
| IECEL | Iglesia Cristiana Evangelica Luterana |
| IEL | Iglesia Evangelica Luterana |
| IP | Integrated Project |
| MELM | Lutheran Evangelical Mission of Mali (Mission Evanglique Lutherenne du Mali) |
| NGO | Non-Governmental Organization |
| NLM | Norwegian Lutheran Mission (Norsk Luthersk Missjonssamband) |
| NMA | Norwegian Mission Alliance (Misjonsalliansen) |
| NMS | Norwegian Missionary Society (Det Norske Misjonsselskap) |
| PDIHK | Project de Développement Intégré Hairé et Konna (NMS' project in Mali) |
| PIP | Pokot Integrated Project |
| PRA | Participatory Rural Appraisal |
| PYM | The Pentecostal Foreign Mission of Norway (De norske pinsemenigheters ytremisjon) |
| SOFABA | Integrated Village Development Program Bara (NMS project in Madagascar) |
| VDA | Village Development Agent |
| VDC | Village Development Committee |

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This thematic evaluation addresses integrated development projects. The evaluation's mandate was to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the BN supported integrated projects in order to find out: (i) whether this is a relevant and effective way of conducting development work and (ii) whether the way the BN member organizations (MO) – with the support of BN – is managing such projects is good.

In 2004, BN supported 25 integrated projects with a total value of about 43 million NOK. Out of the 25, the evaluation reviewed the 17 projects that are located in Africa and Latin America. The MOs that manage these projects are DELF, NLM, NMA, NMS, Normisjon and PYM.

MAIN FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This review shows that BN's integrated projects, their objectives, approaches, sectors and activities are generally very relevant for and most benefit the MOs' target population. The main shortcoming and challenge for the MOs is the role of the local partner. For the majority of the projects the partner is a church. Most of these churches do not have the capacity to manage such complex projects adequately. This raises serious questions about the institutional strength of these churches and the sustainability of the projects' activities and achievements.

It seems that MOs may choose between three strategic alternatives. The first alternative may be to support the development of an evangelic NGO to become a professional local development agent capable of planning, managing and sustaining complex multisectorial integrated projects. The second alternative may be to focus the support on the partner church and to finance only those projects where the church has been actively involved in identifying and planning the project and will be in charge of the management of the project. The overall scope of such a project must be within the institutional and administrative capacity and capability of the church. This would be smaller projects limited to one or two sectors with few components. The third alternative would be to launch a multisectorial integrated project with heavy involvement of the church with the objective to develop the church's technical and administrative skills for such complex projects.

Most of the six MOs have strategy documents related to their development work. Although the majority of them give high priority to integrated projects, *very few MOs have developed a specific and coherent strategy for such projects.*

The MOs generally define integrated projects as local community development projects that: (i) are based on the essential needs of the community members; (ii) cover not only one but several sectors at the same time; and (iii) rotate geographically and/or change the composition of sectors over time.

Most of the projects have the improvement of living conditions for the target population as the overall goal. Specific project objectives comprise improvement of social services and increased incomes, most often based on agricultural production. All the projects address at least two sectors, and most between two and four. The main sectors are agriculture, health and education. Most often the projects are located in remote and resource poor rural areas with minimal infrastructure. Usually they are in the poorest regions of their country. The projects generally target ethnic minorities

or other marginalized groups. The main categories of project beneficiaries comprise individuals, local groups or organizations and rural communities.

Generally the projects involve the beneficiaries in the implementation of project activities. Most projects have yet to involve them in all stages of the project cycle, in particular in the planning and design and overall decision making and management of integrated projects. Most MOs and projects should also put more efforts into targeting and involving local women in project activities, especially in the agricultural sector and in decision making bodies of beneficiary organizations.

Most partner churches' involvement in and ownership to the project are limited and they have few follow-up mechanisms to sustain project activities and achievements. Most MOs have chosen their partner church in the specific country as the project's local partner. This in order to integrate diaconal activities within the church and to use the church as a decentralized arm for development activities. Many of the local churches are inexperienced and organizational weak. Very few projects address the church's need for organizational development.

The majority of the projects report to cooperate with the local authorities but many lack binding agreements with these for involvement, follow-up or take over of project activities. Generally projects in Latin America have higher confidence in local authorities whose responsibilities to ensure sustainability have been included in formal agreements. Many of the projects in Africa had minimal contact with the local authorities in its initial phases as the target areas had been chronically neglected by their governments.

The MOs' are often strongly involved in project planning, implementation and decision-making. This can create more dependency and further weaken the partner church. The findings demonstrate that when the project's partner is weak, the project cooperates more directly with the MO in the country or in Norway. This suggests that the MOs should carefully consider their role and involvement in the different stages of the project cycle.

Almost all projects apply different techniques and methodologies related to stakeholder participation and training methodologies and techniques. There is great room to improve and strengthen the skills of many projects, partners and MOs. Most MOs and projects should be conscious of the considerable time and efforts required to develop viable rural organizations in poor and remote areas with high illiteracy levels.

Geographical and sectorial rotation is an important part for many of the integrated projects. Many of the projects that are either in the testing stage or that have not yet considered rotating should learn from the experiences of the projects that have developed sound rotational approaches.

Most projects have strategies for ensuring sustainability of project achievements and activities. But the sustainability aspects are challenging for integrated projects, in particular for those in Africa. Here only two projects report that the beneficiaries are capable to ensure sustainability of project achievements. Most projects in Africa report that their partner church has no funds or ownership to ensure sustainability. The findings demonstrate that sustainability and phasing out strategies should be identified and elaborated together with concerned stakeholders and should be an important part of the initial project plans. These strategies should be included in the project document and in the written agreement between MO, local partner and/or local authorities.

Following the evaluation's main findings, BN should consider assisting its MOs, the projects and partners in: (i) developing a practical guideline for planning and implementing integrated projects; (ii) organize various fora in Norway and in relevant countries to exchange experiences and disseminate best case studies; (iii) develop and disseminate best practice case studies to projects, partners and MOs; (iv) encourage exchange visits between relevant project and promote visits to relevant projects of other development actors and (v) continue supporting and promoting organizational development of the MOs' partner churches.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background, Terms of Reference and structure of report

The Norwegian Missions in Development (BN) is an umbrella organization uniting 16 Norwegian missionary organizations. BN provides support and ensures the quality of the member organizations' (MO) diaconal development projects which are funded by public development assistance.

In 2004, BN supported 25 Integrated Projects (IP). This is 16 % of BN's total project portfolio with a total value of about 43 million NOK, which is 30 % of the annual BN budget.

In May 2004 BN sent out an invitation for a thematic evaluation of integrated projects. In the invitation from BN the objective of the evaluation is stated as follows:

The evaluation should identify strengths and weaknesses of integrated projects and through this conclude whether this is a relevant and effective way of conducting development work. This should also include whether the way the BN member organizations – with the support of BN – is good.

The evaluation should address these questions both at the organizational level and the project level.

The Terms of Reference for the evaluation is expressed in the following two documents from BN: (i) Invitation for the Thematic Evaluation and (ii) Description of the Thematic Evaluation which are in Annexes 1 and 2.

It was decided that this evaluation should include 17 integrated projects, 11 in Africa and six in Latin America financed by six BN member organizations as shown in Annex 3.

This report has the following structure: Chapter 2 gives an overview of the member organizations' strategies for development cooperation and their integrated projects. Chapter 3 provides the main characteristics of the 17 integrated projects, including main project objectives and sectors, target areas and population and organizational set up. Chapter 4, 5 and 6 comprise the findings of the evaluation. The projects' organizations and cooperation with stakeholders are reviewed in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 focuses on project approaches and methodologies. Chapter 6 addresses in particular the issue of sustainability of the projects' activities and achievements. Chapter 7, which is the last, sums up the evaluation's conclusions and recommendations.

1.2. Evaluation methodology

The methodology for the evaluation has included the following elements:

- (i) Review of member organizations' strategy documents, project documents, reports and evaluations;
- (ii) Interviews of BN and the six member organizations;
- (iii) Questionnaires by e-mail to member organizations' satellites (country offices) and partners as well as project directors; and
- (iv) Field visits for one week to each of the following four projects: NMA's Integrated Development, Interandean Valleys and NLM's Integrated Rural Development Program of Tinguipaya (Prodecit) , both projects are in Bolivia; NMS' Integrated Village Development program Bara (SOFABA) in Madagascar and NLM's Pokot Integrated Program in Kenya.
The selection of projects was based on the need for both including projects of each of the three major organizations (NMA; NLM and NMS) and that the selected projects together cover the various project phases.

Methodological constraints. The use of questionnaires without follow-up interviews gives much room for self evaluation at project level which implies some limitations with regard to objectivity. The questions have to a certain extent been open questions in order to get as many ideas as possible. This limits the answers' validity as well as the consistency when comparing answers. Some of the projects were already closed some time ago, consequently the answers' reliability and validity can be questionable.

In addition to the above, it is important to stress that this is a thematic evaluation. Consequently the intention is not an in-depth evaluation of individual projects, which would have allowed the evaluation to make more explicit best case studies and more comprehensive reviews of individual project approaches and methodologies.

2. OVERVIEW AND MAIN CHARACTERISTICS OF MEMBER ORGANIZATIONS' INTEGRATED PROJECTS

This chapter gives an overview of the MO's strategies for development cooperation and the main characteristics of their integrated projects.

Annex 3 lists the 17 integrated projects included in the evaluation.

2.1. DELF and its work in Ethiopia

The Evangelical Lutheran Free Church of Norway (DELF) has a Strategy Document for diaconate aid and development assistance. The main objective of DELF's development cooperation is to assist and strengthen local communities in their efforts towards sustainable development. The objectives of DELF's development projects include the improvement of people's living conditions and to promote the identity, equal status and human rights of minority groups. Priority areas for development comprise organizational development and capacity building, primary health services, literacy and primary education and humanitarian work/emergency relief. DELF's target population is individuals and local communities, primarily vulnerable groups, such as poor, marginalized and disabled, in particular women and children.

Currently DELF works in Ethiopia, Mali and Burundi and is also involved in a regional program in West Africa. In the cooperating countries DELF's local partners are generally national or local churches.

An integrated project is defined by DELF as a project that aims to meet the most essential needs of a local community. Consequently the project will have to cover several sectors at the same time, often social sectors as well as rural development activities. An essential part of an integrated project is the participatory aspect of all project phases, in particular at the local community level.

DELF's integrated project in Ethiopia, *the Balo Jiganfoi and Didessa Valley Integrated Development project* was initiated in 1996 in the remote Blue Nile valley region. The project covered mainly health and rural development activities and targeted mainly the Gumuz population, a minority group. The project's local partner was the Central Synod of the Ethiopia Evangelical Church (EECMY). As DELF does not have any representation in Ethiopia, NMS' satellite¹ in Addis Ababa provided some administrative services. The project was closed during its second phase in 2004 due to mismanagement and conflicts over project investments because of new borders.

In Mali DELF is the co-partner with NMS in the PDIHK project (see section 2.4). NMS is however the organization in charge of the follow-up of the project.

¹ See section 4.1. for definition of satellite

2.2. NLM and its work in Bolivia, Ethiopia, Kenya and Peru

The Norwegian Lutheran Mission (NLM) has a Strategy Document for Development Cooperation, which presents the basis and objectives for development cooperation, the criteria for this and the areas for cooperation, which are integrated development (referred to as community development), institutional development and capacity building, diaconate and emergency aid. NLM works in Africa, Asia and South-America.

In its Strategy Document NLM states that integrated projects is their first priority. These are projects where the local population itself defines issues and solutions, decides priorities and is in charge of the project implementation. Such activities aim at mobilizing local resources for a defined period and include plans for phasing out and adapting activities to a sustainable level. Integrated projects may include sectors such as health, education, agriculture, environment and natural resources management, technology and infrastructure.

NLM has two integrated projects in Latin America and two in Africa. Three of these are ongoing.

NLM has one integrated project in **Bolivia** which is the *Rural Development Program of Tinguipaya (Prodecit)*. The project will be phased out by the end of 2006. Although NLM has a partner in Bolivia, which is the Iglecia Cristiana Envangelica Luterana (IECEL), the execution of the project has been through NLM's satellite, which will also be in charge of the phasing out of the project.

NLM's integrated project in **Peru**, *Rural Development Program, Moho*, which was closed in 2002, is also included in this evaluation.

NLM has no intention of initiating new development projects in Bolivia and Peru. In the future, their strategy for work in these two countries will be cooperation with the local churches they have worked with and support to these for possible church initiated and administered projects.

In **Kenya**, NLM's integrated project is the *ELCK Pokot Integrated Program*, which was initiated in 1990. The Pokot project is now in its outphasing phase and will be closed in 2008. The project's local partner is NML's local partner, the Evangelical Lutheran Church in Kenya (ELCK) Pokot North West Diocese. The project administration was recently integrated into the church administration. This was partly a result of NLM's 2000 strategy for Kenya, which includes: "the need to build a church organization which fully integrates the social concerns into the administrative and congregational set-up, thereby enabling the church's full vision of serving the people both spiritually and socially". NLM's country strategy also includes plans for phasing out its development work in the Pokot region of the country. However, NLM in Kenya foresees a possible need for NLM to follow-up ELCK Pokot's future development activities by providing an advisory safety net. NLM's new projects in other regions of Kenya are more likely to be urban than rural development projects.

In **Ethiopia**, NLM's *Raytu Community Development Project in the Raytu* district in East Bale was launched in 2003. The district has for the last five years been affected by drought and has become dependent on emergency assistance. The Raytu's local partner is the Ethiopia Evangelical Church Mekane Yesus (EECMY) South East Area Work (SEAW). NLM Ethiopia's main goals for cooperating with the local partner is to assist EECMY in "carrying out her Christian responsibility among the most needy in Ethiopia, especially in geographical areas without Christian social and development work". Partly due to the low capacities of EECMY's local development branches, NLM recently established a development office in the south of Ethiopia that will assist these local church units.

2.3. NMA and its work in Bolivia and Ecuador

The Norwegian Mission Alliance (NMA) has a document called "Strategy for Development Cooperation", which presents different aspects of NMA. This includes NMA identity, its values, vision, mission statement and diaconal identity; NMA development cooperation, including roles and development principles, target groups and paramount goals; strategies including conditions for cooperation, geographic concentration, work in new areas/countries, partners and relationships, the recipients' responsibility and the church as a channel of aid; and areas of activity.

NMA has five areas of activity (urban development, education, micro-credit, health and rural development). Regarding rural development, NMA concentrates its agricultural work in integrated programs, which will improve the basis of existence and make the local community attractive both for family living and for industry.

NMA works in Latin America and Asia.

In **Bolivia** and **Ecuador** NMA works through its local sister organizations. In **Bolivia** this is La Mision Alianza de Noruega en Bolivia, which since 1997 is a national, autonomous organization with a Bolivian board and management. In **Ecuador** the local sister organization is la Mision Alianza de Noruega en Ecuador, which is subject to the Norwegian Mission Alliance in Norway. It is the intention of NMA that the organization in Ecuador shall attain the same level of autonomy as the one in Bolivia.

Three NMA projects are included in this evaluation, in Bolivia *Integrated Development Interandean Valleys* and *Regional Development Alcoche* and *Slum Project in Guayaquil* in Ecuador. These are all ongoing projects. The Slum project in Ecuador is a NORAD supported framework agreement project and is the largest of all the reviewed projects (about 8 million NOK),

2.4. NMS and its work in Ethiopia, Madagascar and Mali

The Norwegian Missionary Society (NMS) is the most important development actor of all the MOs, both in terms of number of projects and total budget for development

activities. NMS is also responsible for six of the 17 projects covered by this evaluation. All six are in Africa.

NMS' mission is two fold: "To express God's grace in Jesus Christ through both words and deeds." This includes "working together with vulnerable and marginalized groups, without regard to nationality, gender, politics or religion". To realize this mission NMS supports various development and diaconal activities run by partner churches and partner organizations. Evangelism targets areas where knowledge of the gospel is either marginal or non-existent. Its development activities focus on local capacity, local participation and local sustainability. However, NMS stresses that its evangelization efforts are funded by other sources than project funds.

NMS does not have specific strategies for different types of development interventions such as for integrated projects.

According to NMS, an integrated project is a project that focuses on the needs of local communities and consequently covers more than one sector at the same time ("they do more than one thing"). An integrated project is a so called "village development model" that "builds up work that are integrated, small scale, and that are based on the local population's felt needs and cultural prerequisites. Social work, health and agricultural activities are areas supported by NMS' integrated projects. Project planning, implementation and monitoring and evaluation should be carried out in close collaboration with the local communities and authorities². In addition, there should be a linkage between evangelism and development. However NMS stresses that its evangelization efforts are funded by other sources than project funds.

NMS' focus on integrated projects, NMS first IP was launched in Mali, resulted partly from lessons learned from its experiences with its "institutional-model" from Cameroon. The "institutional model" tended to tie up a lot of resources both economic (huge buildings, such as hospitals) and human (staff) resources and were often weak in terms of local participation and capacity building and in ensuring ownership and sustainability at local level. Moreover, NMS wanted to avoid competing with the work that the local authorities, such as in Mali, already carried out in the health, education and agricultural sectors.

Currently, NMS has one integrated project in Mali, two in Madagascar, and three Ethiopia.

Mali was the country where NMS launched its first integrated project. The Integrated Development Project Hairé and Konna (PDIHK: *Projet de Développement Intégré Hairé et Konna*) was initiated in 1992 and is now in its third phase (2004-8). PDI's current areas of interventions comprise water supply, vaccination and the work of traditional birth attendants, HIV/AIDS, literacy, support to women credit groups and village development committees. Its target population is semi-sedentary communities (villages and camps of Fulanis, Dogons and Bozos) in the Mopti region in central Mali. PDHIK's local partner is the Lutheran Evangelical Mission of Mali (MELM),

² T. Jørgensen (ed), 1992: *I tro og tjeneste*, Det Norske Misjonsselskap 1842 – 1992 (bind II), Misjonshøyskolen, Stavanger.

which is a relative new organization comprising representatives from NMS, DELF and the Danish Sudan Mission that all work in the Mopti region.

In **Madagascar** NMS has two integrated projects, the Integrated Village Development Program Bara (SOFABA) and the Integrated Development Program Manakara. The SOFABA project was launched in 1998 and targets the ethnic group Bara in two church synods in central and south Madagascar. Areas of intervention comprise health, education and agricultural extension and support to women groups. The Manakara project is an offspring of a previous NMS agricultural extension project in south-eastern Madagascar (that started in 1979). The project, which was initiated as an integrated project in 2004, continues to a large extent its previous activities in providing agricultural extension to sedentary farmers. Both projects have Fiangonana Loterana Malagasy (FLM) as the local partner. FLM is the Lutheran Church in Madagascar and NMS' national partner. NMS is currently planning a new integrated project in western Madagascar.

In **Ethiopia** NMS has three integrated projects, of which two was initiated in 2004. All the three projects target specific geographical areas and minority groups, mainly the Gumuz population, in the remote Blue Nile valley. The Agallo Meti-Sirba community development project started in 1997 and is now in its second phase (2002-6). Areas of intervention include capacity building, health, education, water supply and agricultural activities. The Nonno Integrated Rural Development project started in 2004 and supports activities related to agriculture, environment, water supply and infrastructure (building of bridges and road maintenance). The Begi-Gidami Integrated Rural Development Project (2004-2008) had not yet started when this evaluation was carried out. Similar to the Nonno project, it plans to provide services related to health, water supply and agricultural extension. It has also a gender component. The local partners of all the three projects are specific local branches of NMS national partner EECMY.

2.5. Normisjon and its work in Mali and Ecuador

Normisjon has a Strategy Document for its development cooperation work (2001) that covers mainly Bangladesh, Bhutan, Ecuador, Mali and Azerbaijan. The strategy states that diaconal and development work are integral parts of Normisjon's mission. Its development projects aim to improve people's living conditions and to support and promote marginalized and minority groups' identity, equality and human rights. The projects' design should ensure local participation and ownership and that project activities can be transferred to the target groups after the projects phase out. Normisjon also focuses on the need that its collaborating partners (local churches, organizations, communities and authorities) become independent vis-à-vis the MO and other development actors.

Normisjon has adopted BN's definition for integrated projects. Normisjon has one integrated project in Ecuador and one in Mali.

Normisjion has two cooperating churches in **Ecuador**, the Iglesia Evangelica Luterana Indigenas del Ecuador (IELIE), which is a quichua Indian church, and the Iglesia Evangelica Luterana de Ecuador (IELE), which is a Spanish speaking national church. The main target group for Normisjion is the indigenous population in Cañar province in the Andean southern region. The development cooperation with the churches has the following objectives:

- a) institutional strengthening of the church
- b) support the church's diaconal work
- c) support awareness of culture and language and support minority groups in their struggle for rights and democracy
- d) support income generating efforts

Normisjion's development work with the quichua indians include two organizations of community and cultural importance, the radio station "La Voz de Ingapirca" and the Quechua Institute.

From 1986 to 1999 Normisjion implemented the *Rural Development Project* in Cañar. Normisjion has two other NORAD-supported projects in Ecuador, one elementary school project and one health-clinic project.

In **Mali**, Normisjion's *Rural Development Program in Goundara* ("Programme de sensibilisation Goundara") was started in 1994 and closed in 2003. The project targeted the rural Kasonké population in the Goundara municipality in the remote south west Mali. Project interventions areas were mainly health (including the eradication of the guinea worm), literacy and building and maintenance of rural roads. The project's local partner was the municipality of Goundara.

2.6. PYM and its work in Congo

The Pentecostal Foreign Mission of Norway (PYM) has a Strategy Document for its development cooperation. PYM's development objectives comprise: education (from literacy to higher education), gender equality, good childhood environment, organizational development, small business development, community development, health services and peace, reconciliation and democracy development. Its strategy is based on local ownership, capacity building and organizational development, support to educational institutions, a holistic approach, the promotion of women's voice in development and network building and sustainability.

PYM's *Integrated Program CELPA* (Pentecostal church in Africa, DRC) in Eastern part of the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) is PYM's only integrated project. The CELPA program is a NORAD funded framework agreement project and is the second largest of the reviewed projects (about 5 million NOK). The program was initiated in 1992 as a pure organizational development project targeting the central administration of CELPA in Bukavu. In 1993, the project integrated different development activities: education services (including the building of primary and secondary schools), health work, women's work and village development schemes. The program is under the church administration of CELPA, which is also the program's and PYM's partner in DRC.

3. MAIN CHARACTERISTICS OF THE INTEGRATED PROJECTS

This chapter provides an overview of the main characteristics of the 17 integrated projects. The overview includes main project objectives and sectors, target areas and target population, project periods and phases, budgets and costs categories and organizational set-up.

3.1. Project objectives and sectors

Most of the projects have the improvement of living conditions for the target population as the overall goal. This is often followed up by specific objectives on improvement of social services and increased incomes, most often based on agricultural production. One project, the *Rural Development Project, Cañar, Ecuador* has a totally different goal, which is empowerment of poor and marginalized groups. Several projects include objectives on strengthening of local organizations.

Table 3.1 shows that all IPs address at least two sectors, and most IPs cover between two and four sectors. Only one IP addresses as many as six sectors. Table 3.2 demonstrates the dominance of the agricultural (12), health (11) and education (10) sectors. Other important sectors are water supply, infrastructure and natural resources /environment. Few projects include handicraft, sanitation and social care.

Table 3.1 Number of sectors addressed by each project

| Number of sectors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Projects addressing this number of sectors | - | 3 | 7 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Table 3.2 Sectoral coverage by projects

| | Number of projects addressing sector |
|-------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Agriculture | 12 |
| Health | 11 |
| Education | 10 |
| Water supply | 6 |
| Infrastructure | 5 |
| Natural resources | 5 |
| Handicraft | 1 |
| Sanitation | 1 |
| Social Care | 1 |

Table 3.3 shows that the earliest projects covered less sectors than the more recent projects. There is also a slight tendency that the projects in Africa tend to cover a wider range of sectors than those in Latin America, as may be observed in table 3.4.

Table 3.3. Number of sectors and starting years

| Number of sectors: | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Project start | | | | | |
| Before 1990 | 1 | 2 | | | |
| 1990 – 1995 | 2 | 3 | | | |
| 1996 – 2000 | | 2 | | 2 | 1 |
| After 2001 | | | 3 | | |

Table 3.4. Number of sectors and regional

| Number of sectors: | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Africa | 1 | 4 | 3 | 2 | - |
| Latin America | 2 | 3 | - | - | 1 |

3.2. Target areas and target population

For 16 of the 17 projects the target area is rural. The only urban project is the slum project in Guayaquil in Ecuador.

10 projects, of which nine in Africa, are located in remote and marginal areas with also large distances within the project areas. E.g. for the five projects in Ethiopia, the distances from the project area to the capital (Addis Ababa) vary between 280 (Nonno) to 750 (Begi-Gidami) kilometres.

12 projects are in areas defined as being among the poorest regions in their countries. Of these, seven projects are in Africa and five in Latin America. Most of the project areas in both Africa and Latin America can be characterized by poor or minimal infrastructure, such as schools and health facilities, roads and bridges, and public post or telecommunications. Consequently, many rural communities in these areas have very limited access to health and schools services and have sometimes few or no road connections, and, consequently, often limited access to markets.

The target population of the 11 projects in Africa all have high levels of illiteracy – five between 50 – 80 % and five above 50 %. Most often these high levels of illiteracy are higher for women than for men. Some target populations, who are often ethnic minorities in the respective country, have very few members with higher education, such as among the Gumuz population in Ethiopia (Balo Jiganfoi project), the Pokot in Kenya and the local populations targeted by the two projects in Mali. In 2002 in the

Raytu area in Ethiopia only two persons had completed 12th grade. Moreover, in such marginal areas there are generally few existing local rural organizations. These have often limited experiences and weak organizational capacities.

Development activities in resource poor and remote areas are generally highly justifiable and relevant. However, development efforts in marginal areas often imply various important challenges to project organization and implementation, to the building of technical and organizational capacities of local stakeholders and to the sustainability of project activities and achievements. These challenges are discussed in chapters 4, 5 and 6.

3.3. Project period and phases

Table 3.5 shows that 10 projects are ongoing; of these four are in their phasing out phase. Four projects are in the start up phase (three in Ethiopia and one in Madagascar) as illustrated in Table 3.5 and three projects have finished. Table 3.6 shows the year when projects started. As illustrated in Table 3.7, which shows the life time of the projects, most projects have between 10 and 15 years (5) or more than 15 years (4) of implementation experience.

Table 3.5 Project phases

| | Number of projects |
|--|--------------------|
| a) Starting – new project | 4 |
| b) On- going (but not yet phasing out) | 7 |
| c) On-going and phasing out | 3 |
| d) Finished | 3 |

Table 3.6 Project start

| | Number of projects |
|-------------|--------------------|
| Before 1990 | 2 |
| 1990 – 1995 | 5 |
| 1996 – 2000 | 6 |
| 2001 - | 4 |

Table 3.7 Project life time

| | Number of projects |
|---------------|--------------------|
| > 15 years | 4 |
| 10 – 15 years | 5 |
| 5 – 10 years | 3 |
| < 5 year | 5 |

3.4. Budgets and cost categories

The annual budgets of the projects vary between less than 1 million to around 10 million NOK as shown in table 3.8. Most of the budgets are between 1-2 million (6), less than 1 million (5) and between 3-6 million (4) NOK.

Table 3.8 Annual budget 2004 and last budget for finished projects

| | Number of projects in: | | |
|-----------------|------------------------|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| < 1 mill NOK | 3 | 2 | 5 |
| 1 – 2 mill NOK | 5 | 1 | 6 |
| 2 – 3 mill NOK | 1 | - | 1 |
| 3 – 6 mill NOK | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| 9 – 10 mill NOK | - | 1 | 1 |
| Total | 11 | 6 | 17 |

As illustrated in Table 3.9 only three projects do not make investments, which mean that 100 % of the budget is for operating costs.

Table 3.9 Percentages of investments of total budgets

| | Number of projects in | | |
|-----------|-----------------------|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| 0 % | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 10 – 20 % | 2 | - | 2 |
| 20 – 30 % | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| 30 – 40 % | 3 | - | 3 |
| 40 – 50 % | 3 | 5 | 5 |
| 50 – 60 % | 1 | 1 | 2 |

Of the 17 projects only three projects in Africa pay salaries for service providers. Finally, of the 17 projects, six projects in Africa and three in Latin America own physical assets such as buildings, land etc.

3.5. Organizational set-up

3.5.1. Internal organization

There are important variations in the number of staff working for the projects as illustrated in table 3.10. Most projects have a project administration of either between 5-10 staff (8 projects) or between 10-15 staff (5 projects). There is a tendency to have smaller project administration in Latin America than in Africa. Table 3.11 shows the number of staff and the starting year of the projects. This table shows no clear tendency.

Table 3.10 Number of staff working in projects

| Number of staff | Number of projects in | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| < 5 | - | 2 | 2 |
| 5 – 10 | 6 | 2 | 8 |
| 10 – 15 | 3 | 2 | 5 |
| > 15 | 1 | - | 1 |
| Not known | 1 | - | 1 |

Table 3.11 Number of staff working in projects and starting year

| Starting: | Number of projects with categories of staff | | | |
|-------------|---|--------|---------|------|
| | < 5 | 5 – 10 | 10 – 15 | > 15 |
| Before 1990 | 1 | 1 | | |
| 1990 – 1995 | | 1 | 3 | 1 |
| 1996 – 2000 | 1 | 4 | | |
| 2001 - | | 3 | 1 | |
| Not known 1 | | | | |

Table 3.12 shows that there are Norwegian project staff in 12 out of the 17 projects, but of these 12 only two are project directors and 10 are advisors. Of the five projects with no Norwegian staff four are in Africa. The two projects with Norwegian project directors are both quite old, one starting in 1989 and the other in 1994. Of the three most recent projects starting in 2004, two of the projects have no Norwegian staff.

Table 3.12 Norwegian project staff

| Position of Norwegian staff | Number of projects: |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|
| Project director | 2 |
| Advisor | 10 |
| No Norwegian staff | 5 |

3.5.2. Local partner

Most often the projects' local partner is a local church (12), as illustrated in Table 3.13. The local church is generally the local branch of the national church the respective MO collaborates with at national level. For three projects in Latin America the partner is an NGO, which is the way NMA operates in Latin America. In Mali, where the local churches of the MOs are new and weak, the local partner for Normisjon's project is the municipality (commune). In Latin America Normisjon first had a local church as the local partner and then shifted to a national research institute, which was not successful.

Table 3.13 Types of local partners

| | Number of projects in | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------|---------------|-----------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| a) Church | 9 | 3 | 12 |
| b) NGO | - | 3 | 3 |
| c) Local authority | 1 | - | 1 |
| d) Satellite type organization | 1* | - | 1 |
| Total | 11 | 6 | 17 |

*) The local partner of NMS' project in Mali is the Lutheran Evangelical Mission of Mali (MELM) but which is more of NMS and other MOs' satellite organization in the Mopti region than a local Malian church as sometimes described.

4. PROJECT ORGANIZATION AND COOPERATION WITH STAKEHOLDERS

This chapter reviews the projects' organizational set-up and cooperation with the different stakeholders, including the beneficiaries, local partner, local and national authorities and the MOs (in the country and in Norway).

4.1. Organizational set-up

There are significant variations in the projects' organizational set-up between the 17 projects. However, in general the three to four organizational levels that apply comprise:

- the project administration,
- the local partner, with which the MO cooperates
- the satellite, which is the extended organization of the MO in the respective country, which may also be referred to as the MOs representative or country office, and
- the MO's headquarter in Norway

12 projects reported on the project organization. Of these, six projects reported that the organization contributed to high level of local participation in the project and four stated that the organization was efficient and effective. Only two projects reported that the organizational set-up was difficult.

The link between the project administration and the partner varies. In Africa nine of the projects are not administered directly by the local partner. In Latin America it is the other way around. Of the four on-going projects three projects are administered by the local partner

In Africa, only PYM's CELPA program in Congo and NLM's project in Pokot in Kenya have project units that are under the administration of the local partner which in both cases is the local church. In Latin America NMA's sister organizations in Bolivia and Ecuador manage the projects. In the cases of NLM, on the contrary, it has been NLM which manages the projects through its satellites in Bolivia and Peru.

The various projects' relationships and collaboration with partner and with its MOs vary as is further discussed in sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.4, respectively. Table 4.1 shows that 11 of the projects report to be either heavily dependent on the satellite or the member organization in Norway, and only five projects claim to be dependent on the partner.

Table 4.1 Projects' relations to other levels

| | Number of projects in | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| Project mainly dependent on | | | |
| a) Partner | 3 | 2 | 5 |
| b) Satellite | 3 | 4 | 7 |
| c) MO | 4 | - | 4 |
| d) Not known | 1 | - | 1 |
| Total | 11 | 6 | 17 |

4.1.1. Project administration – internal organization

In section 3.5.1 some of the main characteristics of the project administration are presented.

Size of project unit/administration. There are important variations in the number of staff working for the projects. Most projects have a project administration of either between 5-10 staff (8 projects) or between 10-15 staff (5 projects). There is a tendency to have smaller project administration in Latin America than in Africa.

Norwegian staff /expatriates. Table 4.2 shows that in five projects there are no Norwegian staff. The table also shows the percentage of total salaries which goes to Norwegian staff. For six projects this is more than 50 %. Table 4.3 shows that there are Norwegian project staff in 12 out of the 17 projects, but of these 12 only two are project directors and 10 are advisors. Of the five projects with no Norwegian staff four are in Africa. The two projects with Norwegian projects directors are both quite old, one starting in 1989 and the other in 1994. Of the three most recent projects starting in 2004, two of the projects have no Norwegian staff.

Table 4.2. Percentage of total salaries for expatriate staff

| Percentage of total salaries for expatriate staff | Number of projects |
|---|--------------------|
| 0 % | 5 |
| 10 – 20 % | 3 |
| 20 – 50 % | 3 |
| 50 – 60 % | 4 |
| 60 – 80 % | 2 |

Table 4.3. Norwegian project staff

| Position of Norwegian staff | Number of projects: |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|
| Project director | 2 |
| Advisor | 10 |
| No Norwegian staff | 5 |

According to the MOs and BN, there is generally less use of expatriate personnel and external input in these integrated projects, also those in marginal areas, than in other more sectorial projects, which often require specialized skills. However, the use of external inputs would sometimes depend on local partner's organizational strength.

In interviews it has also been expressed that expatriates often launch activities that are too large or complex for a given project area and for a local partner. This can lead to dependency on expatriates, in particular during the initial phases. However, the concern that projects become too much linked to and dependent on expatriates seemed to be a common feature not only for integrated but also for other projects. Also, the Norwegian expatriates were reported to often have little initial knowledge and experience in the fields of development in addition to a minimal knowledge of the local language or the local socio-economic context. Consequently, there would often be a "learning by doing" approach.

The relative short duration (generally two or three years) that the expatriates worked with the project was also reported as a problem. One project claimed that the high and frequent turn over of expatriates created "turbulence".

Use of local versus national staff. This assessment does not have any data on the projects' ratio of local staff coming from the project area versus staff coming from other areas of the country. However, some projects and MOs raised the challenge for projects in very marginal, remote areas to find and recruit competent local staff. This was often due to high illiteracy levels of the local population and a consequent lack of people with higher education and adequate skills and experiences. Sometimes the projects, such as NLM's Pokot project have responded by launching scholarships for locals and try recruiting them afterwards

Some projects and satellites reported on potentials for top-down approaches and attitude towards the local target population, even conflicts, when recruiting staff that are not from the project area or the target population. E.g. some of the projects in Ethiopia have had experiences with national staff that come from "cultures that perceive the local culture in project area as inferior" and sometimes adopt a top-down attitude to the target population. At least one project in Ethiopia experienced serious conflicts due to the project leader was from another ethnic group and hired staff from his group.

Moreover, some projects, e.g. all the five projects in Ethiopia, have had difficulties in finding national staff, in particular national specialists, as remote project areas are perceived by nationals to have primitive living conditions. In Kenya, the ELCK Pokot project was very conscious in hiring staff coming from or with personal ties to the area, and providing those with need with more skills or education during the course of the project. Projects in Latin America have also been conscious about hiring staff who speak the local dialects.

Service delivery as part of project. Of the 17 projects only three pay salaries for service providers. They are all in Africa. According to the MOs, the extent of service delivery is less for integrated projects than for other projects. The MOs' sectorial projects e.g. in health and education sectors are often mainly related to service delivery (hospitals, schools etc.).

Ownership of fixed assets. Finally, of the 17 projects, nine projects own physical assets such as buildings, land etc. Of these six are in Africa. In most cases the local

partner, the church will take over these assets when the projects close. For a few projects, the local authorities will take over. In some cases, such as the NLM project in Bolivia, which is being phased out, the local church will only be able to take over parts of the physical assets. In the case of the Normisjon project in Ecuador, which was closed in 1999, the issue of to whom the physical assets may be handed over to, is still unsolved. Ethiopia has a law that controls the NGOs' ownership to fixed assets.

Organizational changes. The projects reported on whether there had been important changes in the organization, as shown in table 4.4. There is no systematic difference between Africa and Latin America. As could be expected, all projects where changes and improvements have taken place are older projects. The projects where no important changes have taken place are a mixed group, of which three projects are old projects.

Table 4.4 Changes in the project administration

| | Number of project |
|---|-------------------|
| Changes and improvements have taken place | 8 |
| No important changes | 6 |
| Not answered | 3 |

4.2. Cooperation with stakeholders

Table 4.6 lists the types of stakeholders. These include target groups as well as cooperating organizations.

14 projects report on cooperation with stakeholders. For one project there are conflicts. The other nine projects state that they have generally good relations, four have local authorities as members of decision making bodies and four have also formal agreements on cooperation.

The number of stakeholder groups varies greatly between the projects as illustrated in Table 4.5 with a range between one and seven stakeholder groups.

Table 4.5. Number of stakeholder groups being addressed by projects

| Number of stakeholder groups | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Projects addressing this number of target groups | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 |

The projects have reported on their stakeholders, as shown in Table 4.6. Three types of stakeholders stand out as those which most projects address: local communities (11 projects), sectorial administration (often technical public services) at municipal level (11 projects) and beneficiary groups and organizations (such as school committees etc.) (11 projects). The table also shows interesting differences between

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Africa and Latin America. There is a slight tendency that projects in Latin America have more stakeholders than projects in Africa. Projects in Africa have different beneficiary groups more often as stakeholders and projects in Africa have more often local communities as stakeholders.

Table 4.6 Number of projects including mentioned stakeholders

| | Number of projects including mentioned target group | | |
|---|---|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| Local communities | 6 | 5 | 11 |
| Sectorial administration at municipal level | 7 | 4 | 11 |
| Beneficiary groups or organizations | 8 | 2 | 10 |
| Municipalities | 4 | 3 | 7 |
| Church organizations | 2 | 3 | 5 |
| NGOs | 1 | 3 | 4 |
| Central Government | - | 2 | 2 |
| Other projects, research projects etc | 2 | - | 2 |

Table 4.7 shows that of the 14 projects which reported on this, seven projects had experienced an improvement in their cooperation with other organizations. With the exception of one, these are all older projects. There are no systematic differences in this regard between projects in Africa and Latin America.

Table 4.7 Cooperation with other institutions and organizations

| | Number of project |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|
| Changes and strengthening | 7 |
| No changes | 5 |
| Minor changes and no impact | 2 |

4.2.1. Beneficiaries

As mentioned in section 3.2 the projects' main target group is a rural population, often ethnic minority groups in remote and resource poor areas. The main categories of beneficiaries comprise:

- individuals, e.g. women and men farmers, boys and girls (for school enrollment);
- local groups or organizations, e.g. women groups, school or health committees; and
- rural communities

Beneficiary participation should be an important part of IPs. Beneficiary mobilization, involvement and ownership to the project and to project activities are important aspects of integrated projects and inherent parts of the definition of integrated projects. Consequently, the participatory methodology and the degree of beneficiaries' involvement can be a yardstick for the projects' strengths and weaknesses. According to many MOs, it is generally easier to mobilize the beneficiaries of an integrated project than in other projects. The main reasons reported by the MOs comprise:

- The IPs have a holistic approach
- The IPs focus on the grassroots/community level and with often a geographic concentration
- IPs works more on the beneficiaries' terms and focus on their needs
- Many activities are responses to the beneficiaries' demand
- The participatory aspect is generally considered more in IPs and is often a condition to achieve results: Beneficiaries can participate more and are not only end receivers as in some other projects
- Larger impacts because of synergies and added values beyond isolated components

Beneficiaries' actual involvement in the project cycle. 14 projects reported on how the stakeholders, including the beneficiaries have been involved at the different stages of the project cycle. As illustrated in table 4.9, the local beneficiaries are first and foremost involved in planning of specific project activities at field level (12 projects) and in the implementation of these activities (11 projects) and to a much lesser extent in the preparation and design of the actual integrated project (7 projects). It is only in three projects that the beneficiaries are involved in management and decision-making through the preparation of annual plans and budgets. Of these, two projects are in Latin America, two of the projects are from 1994 and 1995 and one from 2004. Otherwise, there are no clear differences between Africa and Latin America.

Table 4.9 Beneficiaries' involvement in the project cycle

| | Number of projects where beneficiaries are involved at different stages |
|---|---|
| Project preparation and design | 7 |
| Preparation of annual plans and budgets | 3 |
| Planning of activities at field level | 12 |
| Implementation of activities | 11 |
| Not involved | 1 |

The projects have also reported on the organizational involvement and development of beneficiaries. In no projects are beneficiaries involved in the overall decision-making and management of the project. But for 13 projects it is reported that for 10 projects, organizations of beneficiaries have been created, while for three projects the beneficiaries are only involved in specific activities.

Gender - do the IPs target mainly men or women, or both? Of the 17 projects, 10 projects confirm that they have a gender strategy, including only six of the 11 projects in Africa.

Many MOs claim that it is easier with a gender balance in IPs because of their community level focus and a general mobilization of the beneficiaries at all levels. However, the literature review, different questionnaire responses and field visits indicate that the IPs can still greatly improve the involvement and targeting of women, in particular in the agricultural sector. E.g. it appears that for many projects in Africa the agricultural activities have been targeted more towards men than women and this in spite of women's crucial role in agricultural production in rural Africa. In most of the projects in Latin America there is a notorious lack of women in decision-making bodies at the community level. These shortcomings might be due to often a mixture of reasons, including:

- Project prepared by people with little knowledge or attention to gender issues and the different roles and responsibilities of men and women in the actual project area
- Women activities are often perceived as being in the health and – because of increased donor focus on girls' education now also in the education sector, and there is less focus on women in the agricultural sector
- The classical approach of initiating “women only activities” such as handicrafts, gardening activities, micro-credit etc. These activities often start up late in the project cycle (sometimes as a result of a project evaluation) when budgets and staff availability are limited.
- The challenges of establishing and building strong rural women groups, including women credit groups, in a socio-economic context often characterized by an extremely high illiteracy level and – because of the project sites' remoteness - with often very few market outlets for the women groups' products (e.g. handicrafts or produce from gardening activities).
- Project staff working in the agricultural sector are often men, e.g. male agricultural extension agents - who tend to target male farmers, often because of existing socio-cultural barriers in targeting local women.
- Lack of consulting rural women on when – and where - they are available for training activities etc.
- A focus on only specific and often women only agricultural activities for women farmers, such as e.g. involving them in gardening activities and not in e.g. irrigation activities that they also traditionally carry out.
- Cultural context and customs where women do not have positions in decision-making bodies.

The above findings and the Table 4.9 illustrate that many IPs have not yet been able to involve the beneficiaries, women and men, in all the stages of the project cycles, and in particular when it comes to the planning and design and the overall decision-making and management of an integrated project. Some of the main limitations for these weaknesses as reported by MOs, projects or BN or found during the literature review include:

- Project planning and preparation is sometimes weak and not always done at community level.
- The MOs have a tendency of not using their best people for project preparation

- Projects are sometimes offsprings from previous sector projects, and/or are often initiated or prepared by Norwegian missionaries or staff of the national church and the local communities are not always – or not adequately – involved or consulted, in particular local women.
- The project's steering committees do not always have representatives from the beneficiaries. Even if they are represented, it can be difficult for them to have a voice and decision making power in such a setting
- Some projects do not have a steering committee with stakeholder representation

The actual methodologies and approaches for involving the beneficiaries and the required competencies – at different levels - for achieving this are reviewed in Chapter 5.

4.2.2. Local Partner

As mentioned in chapter 3.5.2 most often the projects' local partner is a local church: 12 projects, ten in Africa and three in Latin America. In three projects (all in Latin America,) an NGO is the partner. The local municipality of Goundara was the partner of Normisjon's project in Mali.

Cooperation with the local partner is a crucial aspect of integrated projects. Partner involvement is important for many reasons, including to provide a decentralized structure - or a development arm - for the projects' activities, to strengthen the local ownership to project approaches activities and achievements and to ensure improved sustainability of project activities and achievements.

This review found that the actual cooperation with the local partner and the partners' involvement in the various stages of the project cycle are mixed. Also only five projects reported to be very dependent on their partner. Moreover, in Africa, the project administration is only under the local partner's administration in two projects, the CELPA project and the Pokot project. In Latin America the project administration is under the partner in the NMA projects.

For NMS' two projects in Madagascar, Sofaba and Manakara, FLM's synods in each respective project area are generally only involved with the approval of project budgets and programs as members of the projects' steering committees. Their involvement in other project stages is very limited. In the Steering Committee of the Sofaba project there are more representatives from the church, FLM, at national level than at synod level because the project that covers two synods is defined as a national project. It was reported that this set-up has hampered the project implementation and has in particular limited the two synods' involvement in and ownership to the project. The two synods are also relatively newly established and with very limited development know how and experiences. The current sustainability issues related to the transfer of the management of some of the project's schools to FLM are partly related to this lack of adequately involving representatives from the two local synods. Moreover, FLM at national level was until recently administratively very weak with very few staff. The church's national leadership changed recently, its administration are being strengthened and NMS, through BN supports some organizational development activities and the elaboration of a strategy for its development work.

The five projects in Ethiopia (3 financed by NMS, 1 by NLM and 1 by DELF) have all a local synod of the Ethiopia Evangelical Church Mekane Yesus (EECMY) as the local partner, in particular their development divisions (DASSC). Generally these synods are newly established³ and consequently often weak and inexperienced. They are also all in very remote areas of Ethiopia. Although three of the five projects are relatively new, it seems that the involvement of the local synods for all the five projects have so far been mainly limited to a partly involvement in the preparation of the project documents (which are often well written), sometimes jointly with EECMY staff from Addis and the participation in the projects' steering committees to: "approve and forward the project plans and projects to the partners". EECMY at national level, which has a much greater organizational capacity and a DASSC with many qualified people, has not been much involved in the various stages of the five different projects. Sometimes EECMY in Addis is involved in preparation of project documents and in preparing and signing the project agreement between NMS and EECMY. Their lack of involvement in project monitoring was reported to be partly due to lack of budgets and available staff (for field visits to these remote and distant areas). Moreover, priority is given to emergency aid rather than development assistance (where often funds and overheads are more generous and the procedures and follow-up requirements are less demanding).

Partly due to the organizational weaknesses of EECMY's local branches, NLM is currently involved through BN, in an organizational development project. In addition NLM has opened a development office in southern Ethiopia that will assist the local church units and arrange workshops on different development issues.

In *Mali*, *Normisjon's project* has chosen the local municipality (commune) as its partner. This choice is mainly due to the very new, small and inexperienced national churches in Mali. In the Goundara project, the technical services of the municipality have been involved in planning and monitoring some of the field activities. The local partner of *NMS' PDIHK project* in the Mopti region is MELM which is more of a satellite organization for missionary organizations than a local church. It appears that the project cooperates more closely with the municipalities of the project sites than with MELM (see chapter 4.2.3 below).

For *the Pokot project in Kenya*, which is in its out-phasing phase, the project administration is under the local branch (diocese) of the Evangelical Lutheran Church of Kenya (ELCK). The project staff is not yet within the church's salary range. The project is recognized as the development arm of ELCK Pokot. The church administration is involved in several of the project stages. E.g. it is involved in the selection of beneficiary communities⁴ and has a steering committee to oversee planning and implementation of all program activities, including the approval of plans and budgets. ELCK Pokot has also one representative, an evangelist (not financed under the project) in each of the project's two outreach teams. ELCK reported to be actively involved overseeing activities and in mobilizing the communities. In addition, local representatives of the church, generally local priests are also often members of the various school and health committees that have been set up and

³ The split up are sometimes because of a split up of old synods due to conflicts within the church or due to new borders in the country

⁴ Actually, ELCK Pokot receives the demands for project support from the various communities, conveys this to the project administration and take the final decisions concerning the selection of beneficiary communities after having received technical advice from PIP

supported by the project. The schools have gradually been transferred to the local government, but the membership of the steering committees are still the same.

The CELPA program in D.R.Congo, is under the church administration which is also in charge of the project, including planning and implementation. The actual work and activities are coordinated by CELPA's executive committee and a coordinating body. Each sector has a committee and coordinating unit. CELPA has reportedly achieved this organizational level due to three main factors: (i) the absence of Norwegian expatriates/missionaries from 1992 and the subsequent need for "organizational self-reliance". The expatriates had to leave the country because of the insecurity and conflict situation in Eastern DRC; (ii) a long terms focus and attention from PYM to the need for organizational development of CELPA; and (iii) a committed task manager at PYM in Oslo, with extensive experiences in the fields of development, including organizational development, in DRC.

NMA's two projects in Bolivia are managed by NMA-Bolivia (NMA-B), which is a national, autonomous organization with a Bolivian board and management. It has developed from an NMA satellite into a national NGO with several projects in the central part of the country, of which three are integrated projects. It is practically fully financed by NMA and Norad funding of projects. NMA-B is fully in charge of the planning and implementation of the projects. The role of NMA-Norway for the ongoing projects is to approve annual plans and budgets, undertake supervision missions and provide advice through the three NMA advisors stationed at NMA-B.

In Ecuador NMA-Ecuador (NMA-E) is still formally a satellite, which NMA wishes to see develop into a national autonomous NGO like in Bolivia. But for all practical purposes NMA-E functions as a partner under which the project is administered.

The partners for the two NLM projects (Bolivia and Peru) are local churches, which are not directly involved in the administration of the projects.

In Bolivia the local partner is La Iglesia Cristiana Evangelica Luterana (ICEL), who has representatives in the project's steering committee both from the national level and the district level. However, ICEL is not a strong partner and has very limited development and management capacity. In practice ICEL is not involved in the administration of the project and has very little influence on the running of this. The project will be phased out by 2006 and it is not likely that any of the project activities will be continued by ICEL. The question remains what to do with the project buildings.

In Peru the partner was the national Iglesia Evangelica Luterana (IEL-Peru), but the project was administered by the NLM-Satellite, with a national director and a Norwegian advisor. The project is now closed.

The partner for Normisjon's project in Ecuador was initially the Asociacion de Indigenas Evangelicos de Cañar (AIEC). For some time AIEC administered the project, but not successfully. In an effort to nationalize the project and its assets Normisjon changed the partner to the Instituto Nacional Autonomo de Investigaciones Agropecuarias, which is a research institute. This did not work out and the project was taken back to be administered by Normisjon's satellite until it was ended in 1999.

The findings above reveal that some projects, in particular the NMA projects in Bolivia and Ecuador, the Pokot project in Kenya and in particular PYM's CELPA program have achieved a lot in involving and cooperating with the local partner. The NMA approach of building up a national, autonomous, strong NGO and not to work

through weak local churches with little development and management capacity, is a particularly successful example in this regard.

Nevertheless, most projects have still a long way to go in adequately involving and in equipping their local church, NGO or municipality so that they become full fledged professional and responsible partners in the fields of rural community development. Some of the main reasons for these above mentioned shortcomings comprise:

- IPs have often become too complex (many sectors and often a multitude of activities) and big for local partners with a consequently lack of ownership.
- High need for competencies and organizational development at partner level, and for follow-up. These needs are not often fully addressed by project or by the respective MO
- Often difficult to transfer the professionalism (and competencies) of project staff to local partner
- Salary issue, salaries of project staff are generally higher than for staff in the local churches. This appears to be a challenge for most of the projects in Africa.
- Difficult to implement the IP-model with focus on partner's ownership in very marginal areas with a high illiteracy levels and with weak local partners (churches)
- Sometimes the local partners prefer schools or hospitals - more visible projects, and are consequently lack of interest in and ownership to IPs.
- The lack of adequately addressing the important need for organizational development (and all the efforts and time it takes to achieve this) at the various levels (project, partner, MO, consultants) involved in project preparation, implementation and (even) evaluation. Often this is being addressed too late in the project period, as e.g. for the Pokot project only in the project's out-phasing period.

4.2.3. Local and national authorities (including local/regional technical services)

The establishment of strong partnerships with local authorities, including the local technical services, are important in creating synergies, to strengthen project activities and for cross fertilization and on-going technical assistance and exchange of experiences. It is also important in order to ensure follow-up and sustainability of project activities and investments.

Cooperation with local authorities. 11 projects reported to cooperate with the sectorial administration at municipal level. As illustrated in table 4.10, the local authorities' involvement in the different stages of the project varies significantly between the projects. Eight projects have involved them in project preparation and design, and six in the planning of activities at field level. Only five projects have involved the local authorities in the actual implementation of activities and four projects in the preparation of plans and budgets. In four of the 17 projects the authorities have not been involved in the project cycle at all.

Relatively, there is a slight tendency to have broader involvement of local authorities in Latin America. This is particularly so for the NLM and NMA projects in Bolivia, where the legislation on decentralization and participation makes it an obligation and an opportunity for the municipalities to actively participate and coordinate with this

type of projects. This includes co-financing of project activities and coordination with municipal plans.

Table 4.10 Involvement of local authorities in the project

| | Number of projects where local authorities are involved at different stages |
|---|---|
| Project preparation and design | 8 |
| Preparation of annual plans and budgets | 4 |
| Planning of activities at field level | 6 |
| Implementation of activities | 5 |
| Not involved | 4 |
| Not answered | 3 |

NMS' project in the Mopti seems to collaborate more closely with the local communes than its partner MELM. Previously the communes' administration and currently the communes' elected members⁵ are members of the project's coordination committee. They also participate regularly in the monitoring and sometimes also in the execution of project activities. The communes, together with the beneficiary communities, will also take over the responsibilities of many project investments after PDHIK phases out.

According to the MOs, the local authorities are often more involved in IPs than in more sectoral projects as IPs often have strategies for involving local authorities and are consequently easier to involve. Moreover, IPs have greater potentials in e.g. raising important issues with the local authorities such as raising transparency and corruption issues (e.g. projects in Bolivia and in Ecuador) and to make vulnerable groups more visible. However, as the findings here reveal, there are great variations in the actual involvement of local authorities.

It is important to note that most of the projects in Africa target remote and marginal areas that have been chronically neglected by central and local governments. Consequently, many projects had minimal contacts with the national authorities and other development actors in particular during the projects' start up phase.

Some MOs also reported that the interest in IPs could also be lacking among the local authorities (as with the local partner) as they sometimes want large and visible development projects and IPs are at community level and less visible.

Cooperation with national authorities. It appears that IPs in Latin America and in Africa have overall limited cooperation and very little contact with national authorities. Generally sector projects have more relations with national authorities. Often due to their heavy investments (infrastructure) they sometimes have possibilities for influencing national authorities and their policies (such as NMS in Madagascar).

⁵ The change is due to the recent organizational set-up of Mali's municipalities/communes.

4.2.4. MO – in country (satellite) and in Norway

There are also differences in the relations between projects on the one hand and partners, satellites and MOs on the other. Table 4.11 shows that 12 of the projects are either heavily dependent on the satellite or the member organization in Norway, while only four projects are dependent on their local partner organization. Projects, which are mainly dependent on MO in Norway, are only in Africa. If we look at the project period or when they were started we find no systematic difference regarding this type of dependency.

Table 4.11 Projects' relations to partner, satellite and MO (in Norway)

| | Number of projects | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| Project mainly dependent on | | | |
| a) Partner | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| b) Satellite | 3 | 4 | 7 |
| c) MO in Norway | 5 | | 5 |
| d) Not known | 1 | | 1 |
| Total | 11 | 6 | 17 |

There seems to be a tendency that when the project's local partner is weak, the project cooperates more directly with either the satellite or the MO in Norway. It might also be that the partner remains weak as the project will over time neglect its partner and collaborates directly with the MO.

This is apparent from the experiences in Africa where the local churches are weak. E.g. Madagascar's FLM, which is rather weak, has not been much involved in project planning and implementation. Until recently, the Sofaba and the Manakara projects relied on direct cooperation with NMS in Stavanger. Currently they cooperate more closely with NMS in Madagascar as NMS recently decided to decentralize many of the responsibilities related to the organization and follow-up of its development work from Norway to its country offices.

In Ethiopia where the local synods associated with the five projects are weak, there is also a tendency that the projects rely more on cooperation with satellite or with MO.

The two projects in Mali report to depend mainly on Normisjon's satellite (Goundara project) and NMS in Norway (PDIKH).

On the other hand, the CELPA program reports to be dependent on the church administration which is an experienced and strong organization.

The above also applies to Latin America, where the local partner churches are weak organizations. On the other hand, the NMA way of working in Bolivia and Ecuador which is to build up and support the national partner as a development NGO, brings about total project ownership of the partner.

The above findings imply that the local partner might have little influence as the dialogue is often between project team (e.g. a Norwegian project manager) and the satellite or MO in Norway. Sometimes the MO country offices want to become more operational, such as NLM's satellite in Ethiopia or Normisjon in Mali where the local church is perceived as too weak to be involved. NMS in Madagascar has also plans to strengthen its office with a development officer.

These findings have significant consequences for the needs for specific skills/competencies of the local partner, the MOs' satellites and home offices. It also affects the sustainability aspects of the projects' activities and achievements which are discussed in chapter 6.3.

5. APPROACHES AND METHODOLOGIES

Integrated projects represent a particular approach to development where the term "integration" is the focal concept. When discussing this concept a basic question is "integration of what and in relation to what". Different projects have different answers and methodologies to this question. In the previous chapters, the focus has been on the integration of stakeholders – both target groups and cooperating institutions.

This chapter focuses on the project approaches and methodologies, which include participatory approaches and techniques, training activities and methodologies, rotations and mechanisms for coordination and integration of sectors.

5.1. Participatory approaches at different stages

5.1.1. Overview

As already mentioned in section 4.2 participation of different stakeholders is an important aspect of integrated projects and a condition for achieving results. The approaches and methodologies to achieve stakeholder involvement and ownership are often yardsticks for a project's strengths and weaknesses.

Several MOs reported that it is easier for integrated projects to obtain participation and ownership by stakeholders than for other kind of projects due to their flexibility and community level approach. However, the findings in section 4.2 reveal that there is a great room for improving the stakeholders' involvement in the various stages of the project. The beneficiaries are first and foremost involved in the planning and implementation of field activities, and to a much less extent in the preparation and design of the actual integrated project (table 4.9). With some exceptions, such as some of the projects in Latin America and the Pokot and CELPA project in Africa, the partners were mainly involved in approving project plans and budgets and much less in project preparation and implementation. Local authorities were more involved in project preparation and design than in project implementation (table 4.10).

In planning and implementing activities at field level the project administration may be more or less active. It may be a “doer” or more of an intermediary facilitator. For five of the projects the project administration is more of an intermediary facilitator, leaving most of the responsibilities for planning and implementation to the local communities. For the remaining 12 projects the role of the project administration is more of the traditional “doer”. Regarding implementation at field level, 4 projects report that they are directly involved, while 5 explain their role as that of an intermediary facilitator, as shown in table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Implementation of activities at field level

| | Number of projects |
|--|--------------------|
| Project administration directly involved in implementation | 4 |
| Project administration plays an intermediary role, facilitating implementation | 5 |
| Not answered | 8 |

5.1.2. Different approaches to achieve participation of stakeholders:

1. Techniques for beneficiaries’ needs assessment and project identification

Almost all IPs reported to apply different techniques related to needs assessments and processes for identification of projects. Some projects also reported to have developed rather comprehensive methods and approaches that they reportedly have good experiences in applying at community level. Some of these techniques are described below.

In spite of these encouraging findings, many projects should strengthen their skills in participatory techniques and learn from the many positive experiences and good practices of other integrated projects. In Ethiopia, MO satellites and some projects reported that many projects and their staff were weak in involving adequately the local communities in needs assessment and identification of project activities. The satellites reported that project staff often had little awareness in or did not know how to use various participatory techniques, including rapid rural appraisals.

Others (MOs, satellites or projects) claimed that the project documents were sometimes based on poor if any proper needs assessments and identification of project activities at community level. Subsequently it could be difficult to change or modify project activities or selection of project sites during the project period as many of these were already “cast in stone” by formal agreements between the MO, the project and sometimes also the partner. In this respect it is also important to note that the initial phase of most of the reviewed projects in Africa and some in Latin America have mainly been initiated and prepared by persons associated with the MO (generally missionaries and seconded staff by MO, Norwegian expatriates etc.) and with varied involvement of the other stakeholders.

NLM's Pokot project reported to have good experiences with their methods for selecting communities for its community mobilisation program and in assessing their needs. ELCK is also involved in this process. First, the churches at parish level receive applications from local communities. The applications are then submitted to ELCK's District Council who will do a preliminary selection of the villages which is submitted to the Pokot project. Subsequently, project staff will carry out a preliminary base line study in all the proposed communities. The project's recommendations, including a ranking of villages, will be sent back to the District Council which will make a final decision on the selection of beneficiary communities. Subsequently, the outreach staff starts its gatekeeper method in each selected village (see Box 1 below).

Box 1: The Pokot project's gate keeper approach

The Pokot project has developed a special approach in how to select committed village development agents (VDA)¹ at community level. During the first meeting with a selected community, the outreach team will inform village elders and people representing the local administration and government and other village "gate keepers" about the project. Some of these people will be provided with five days of training by the project which focus on PIP's objectives and approaches, the work ahead and the significant work associated with and the criteria for being a VDA. According to PIP staff, the training results in a general reduction of interest by the "gate keepers" in becoming the actual VDA and being involved in the daily project implementation ("too much work involved"). Instead the "gate keepers" will start identifying serious VDA candidates who meet PIP's criteria. The final selection of the VDAs will be done in a public meeting and the "gate keepers" can continue their previous activities. The 20 VDAs constitute the member of the Village development committee. PIP's approach is based on the mixed experiences during its first phase when PIP staff selected the VDAs. At that time village meetings were often "hijacked" by the gate keepers who wanted to become VDAs - but without knowing the work associated with such responsibilities. According to PIP, the "gate keepers" are often the opinion leaders within the village and are often better as PIP informers than implementers. PIP claims that its new approach guarantees a selection of good VDAs and the village elders or opinion leaders will feel involved and not neglected.

Following the selection and training of the 20 VDAs, the outreach team, the VDAs and the "gate keepers" will do a relative thorough Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) at village level. The PRA results will be compared with the Project Document and with the baseline data from PIP's previous survey.

The *NMS' project in Mali* selects villages consciously to create inter-village competition. The project also carries out feasibility studies at village level together with the community. It was reported that they were previously weak but have now been improved. PDIKH supports the community in the elaboration of the village development plans. The beneficiary community participates in the selection of activities and concrete commitment contracts are established between each community and PDIKH. The village chiefs and their counsellors will be in charge of

preserving the cohesion of activities while the elected village development committee (VDC) will manage the concrete activities. Project plans are elaborated in close collaboration with the target group and local authorities (its technical departments). The coordination committee has quarterly evaluations of project implementation.

The *NMA projects in Bolivia* has a process for identification and approval of projects which include beneficiaries, local authorities and NMA project staff. In the community the focal point is the Administrative Committee, who organizes community meetings for the identification of project ideas. The selected project idea is submitted to NMA project staff and the Municipality who jointly analyze the proposals and approve it based on certain criteria.

2. *Development and strengthening of community based organization*

Most of the IPs undertake activities to develop and strengthen community based organizations. This may be supporting existing organizations or to promote the creation of new ones. Types of local organizations created or supported by different project comprise: village development committees (VDC), health and school committees, water (user) committees, farmers groups and women groups (often women credit groups).

The projects in Bolivia represent different approaches. The *NLM project in Tinguipaya* is very actively promoting creation of water committees as a prerequisite for drinking water schemes. These committees would be in charge of the implementation of the schemes as well as the operation and maintenance.

The two *NMA projects* focus on the establishment of community administration committees, who are in charge of identification, planning and implementation of activities with financial and technical support from the project.

NMS' PDIKH in Mali puts a lot of emphasis on the need to create and strengthen the village development committees to ensure that they are operational *prior* to launching project activities. To strengthen the sustainability of project investments at village level, the project stresses the need that each community is committed, that its village development committee is operational and that maintenance funds exist (see section 6.4). PDIKH also reported that the training needs of the local organizations are important and take considerable time and efforts. The project also stresses the need of involving women and marginalized groups in the various committees, these are often categories of the communities that are being neglected and rarely involved in decision making activities.

3. *Contribution from beneficiaries*

In all projects there is contribution from the beneficiaries. This may be cash and/or kind and/or labor.

In *Africa*, six projects reported that beneficiaries' contribution in terms of physical labor and provision of local material is an important precondition for the implementation of project activities, in particular for construction of wells and class rooms. Interestingly, the *PDIKH project in Mali* has changed focus from physical to

financial contribution due to the communities' previous problems in mobilizing physical labor and in respecting the agreed hours of work etc.

In *Latin America* the beneficiaries' contribution for all projects are both in kind and labor. For four projects the beneficiaries also make cash contributions.

4. *Financial contribution by the municipality or the local church.*

None of the 11 projects in *Africa* reported that the relevant municipalities had contributed financially to the project activities except for the education sector for the Sofaba project in Madagascar and the Pokot project in Kenya (that provides school books and some materials for some of the classrooms constructed by the project). Concerning the contribution from the local church, that was generally non-existent or more related to e.g. permitting the use by the project of church facilities, infacilitating meetings etc.

In Bolivia the municipalities contribute in cash to all the three projects, most systematically so for the two NMA projects. The basis for this is the new legislation on decentralization and participation. Based on this, the Central Government makes important transfers to the municipalities for local investments. For the two NMA-B projects agreements have been made with the municipalities on their contributions to different categories of projects. Furthermore a procedure for joint project approval has been established.

5. *Coordination with municipal budgets and plans*

The agreements between the two *NMA projects in Bolivia* and the municipalities also ensure coordination between project plans and municipal development plans, including annual plans and budgets. No projects will be approved unless they are in accordance with municipal plans, which is ensured by an approval process where both NMA and the municipality participate. In Bolivia there is therefore an important participation of the municipalities in the projects, both financially as politically.

5.2. Training activities and methodologies

Training activities and capacity building should be an integral part of these projects that most often target rural communities located in remote and resource poor areas and with a population with high illiteracy levels and with few and often weak local rural organizations, in particular in Africa.

Most of the projects are involved in training exercises. As illustrated in Table 5.5 the main target groups are individual farmers or farmers organized in groups, (12 projects), community organizations and their local leaders (7), committees in charge of a specific activity (6), women groups (6) and individuals, eg. students, women (6). The table also shows differences between Africa and Latin America. In Africa more projects are targeting committees in charge of specific activities, women groups and local authorities. In relative terms projects in Latin America are focusing more on community organizations and local leaders

Table 5.5 Target groups for training

| | Number of projects addressing target groups | | |
|---|---|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| Community organizations and local leaders | 4 | 3 | 7 |
| Committees in charge of specific activity (e.g. water committees) | 5 | 1 | 6 |
| Farmers – individually or in groups | 8 | 4 | 12 |
| Women groups | 5 | 1 | 6 |
| Parents' associations | 3 | 2 | 5 |
| Local authorities | 4 | 0 | 4 |
| Staff of public institutions (teachers, health workers) | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| Pupils and students | 3 | 1 | 4 |
| Leaders of local organizations and churches | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Individuals, e.g. women, pupils etc | 4 | 2 | 6 |
| Project staff | 1 | 0 | 1 |

Table 5.6 shows the subjects included in the training. The most common subjects in the projects are administration and organization (10), agricultural production /extension (10), community development (9), health and education (8) and operation and maintenance (7). The table also shows differences between Africa and Latin America. In relative terms projects in Latin America do more training on production, administration, community development and operation and maintenance. In Africa seven projects have training on health and education and in Latin America only one. In Africa five projects have training on gender and in Latin America none.

Table 5.6 Training subjects which are included in the training activities

| | Number of projects with training subjects | | |
|---------------------------------|---|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| Community development | 6 | 3 | 9 |
| Administration and organization | 6 | 4 | 10 |
| Operation and maintenance | 4 | 3 | 7 |
| Production (agriculture) | 6 | 5 | 11 |
| Marketing and commercialization | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Health and education | 7 | 1 | 8 |
| Gender | 5 | 0 | 5 |
| Literacy | 3 | 0 | 3 |

Finally, in most projects but one, the training is done both by project staff as well as by outside specialists.

The findings reveal that the training aspect is important in the integrated projects. This is also confirmed by the fact that improved skills of individuals and strengthening of community organizations were reported as important project achievements by 11 and 10 projects, respectively.

However, it is important to note that only two projects report to target church organizations and their leaders with skill development. This can imply that the organizational development of their local partners has not yet been given attention by many projects. This issue is discussed further under section 6.2 on sustainability.

Box 2: The training approach of NLM's Pokot project

The training approach of the Pokot project's community mobilisation program is as follows: After the training topics have been selected jointly by the community and the project, the training will be provided to the 20 village development agents (see section 5.1.2 for how the VDAs are selected). They will act as the lead trainers and will each disseminate the information given to at least 20 other village members or followers. However, during the first year, PIP staff focuses on training the VDAs. In the second year, the VDAs will start disseminating information to 10 followers each and the next year 10 new followers. During the third year the project also tries to link the community and VDAs to government and other organizations that can take over old activities or that can start new activities in the community.

All training is provided to all the 20 village development agents, no matter whether the training section concerns only agricultural activities for the agricultural agents or health related issues for traditional birth attendants.

Organizational development in PYM's CELPA program: Since 1992, the CELPA program has included an organizational development component. The main objective has been to enable and strengthen CELPA's central administration in Bukavu in the management of the different departments, activities and projects, both in Bukavu and at local level. Later the activities related to this component have included CELPA's regional administrations.

Box 3: Administration and organizational skill training by NMA in Bolivia

The NMA projects in Bolivia have training of beneficiaries in technical skills as well as in training in administrative and organizational skills for project identification, planning and implementation. The administrative committees are fully in charge of all the steps in the project cycle including management of funds and contracting of labour and consultants – all with technical assistance and supervision by project staff.

This evaluation has not been able to assess the impact of the training activities on individuals or organizations. However it was reported that because integrated projects are generally involved in many activities the training efforts often have little impact. Moreover, relatively new and very weak rural organizations, often project initiated and with many illiterate members (in particular in Africa) might need skills and organizational development for a longer time period than the typical “rotational” period of a specific project. Consequently there is an apparent need for either a long term follow-up including training activities beyond the rotational period. Solutions might be that other development partners (local technical services, NGOs etc.) take-over the responsibility for providing training to these organizations.

5.3. Rotations, change of sectors and/or activities, mechanisms for coordination and integration

5.3.1. Rotations and change of sectors

The rotational aspect is often perceived as being an important part of many integrated projects and is often an integral approach or strategy of these projects. In general, rotation implies that the project will stay in a specific area working together with a limited number of local communities for a certain time period, and subsequently leave the community or area and move to new project sites or communities. Rotation can also be changing of sectors or components of a project.

MOs and BN reported that rotation is specific for integrated projects, often due to their more flexible approach. Other projects often expand geographically, but they rarely rotate.

The MOs and BN also reported that integrated projects often start wide with many sectors and limit the number over sectors over time to those sectors they implement well. On the other hand, it was also reported that sometimes the projects had problems in withdrawing from a sector, even when the project did not perform well in the sector. The actual limitation of sectors was often dependent on the project's or MO's use of evaluations and the actual follow-up of the evaluations' recommendations.

Table 5.7 shows that out of 15 projects that responded there have been changes in the geographic coverage of nine projects. There have been fewer changes in the composition of sectors, but nevertheless, such changes have taken place for five out of the 13 projects that responded.

Table 5.7 Rotation - changes in projects

| | Changes in | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------|--|
| | Geographic coverage | Composition of sectors and/or components |
| Number of projects with changes | 9 | 5 |
| Number of projects with no changes | 6 | 8 |
| Not answered | 2 | 4 |

Of the nine projects where geographic coverage has changed, five are in Africa and four in Latin America. Of these nine, six are ongoing projects

Table 5.8 shows the extent to which the projects have plans for changes of the geographical coverage or sectors. Quite a large number have plans to change the geographic coverage, but less so to change the composition of sectors and components.

Table 5.8 Rotation - plans for changes

| | Plans for changes in | | | |
|--|-------------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|--|
| | Expanding geographic coverage | Close present area and start in new area | Include new sectors or components | Close ongoing sectors/components and start new |
| Number of projects with plans to change | 6 | 7 | 2 | 4 |
| Number of projects with no plans to change | 9 | 8 | 11 | 10 |
| Not answered | 2 | 2 | 4 | 3 |

Half of the eight projects in Africa that responded rotate. These are the Sofaba project in Madagascar, the Pokot project in Kenya, the CELPA program in DRC and PDIHK in northern Mali.

The Pokot project has in its community mobilisation program two outreach teams⁶ that normally stay three years each in a specific geographical area supporting a limited number of communities (currently three per area). Subsequently, they will move to new communities in another area. The activities focus on agricultural extension and community based health care (CBHC). They have followed this approach during several project phases and reported to have good experiences with this approach. But the intended follow-up of old beneficiary communities has so far

⁶ Each outreach team comprises an agriculturalist, a health specialist and a person in charge of women activities. An ELCK evangelist is also team member, but is financed by ELCK.

not been feasible. This is partly due to the important geographical distances between new and old project sites, the lack of adequate man power to follow-up and the high transportation costs that this would imply. Moreover they reported that the three years would not be enough to have any impact on important awareness activities such the project's awareness campaigns to reduce the traditional practices related to female genital mutilation (FGM).

The PDIHK project in Mali supports a community for about one project phase of five years before they move to new communities. The project phases out from an area gradually and informs each community in writing for the dates when the project closes its activities. The beneficiary communities are selected consciously to create competition among the communities within the area. They report to have good experiences with the rotational approach. The project also creates antennas in the new areas to reduce some of the increased transportation costs and time involved in project staff travelling to the new areas that are remote to the project headquarter.

The Sofaba project in Madagascar has experienced significant problems in respecting the limited number of years in a given community because of several reasons that comprise: (i) the important distances between the dispersed project sites. This is due to both the fact that the project covers two synods and because the project, during its first phase expanded to new sites without having finalized its old activities. The selection of the two synods and the premature expansion to new sites appear to be mainly based on evangelical objectives of FLM and NMS rather than development objectives; (ii) the consequent reliance on helicopter transportation to visit project sites. This implies that the project team visits each community only 2-3 days every month which is a very short time to carry out both general supervision and to provide training; (iii) the general weak and often project initiated development committees that need to be strengthened for a considerable time period; and (iv) a multi-sector involvement/approach with many activities that demands a lot of attention.

For the projects in Ethiopia, only three projects responded and neither have rotated or have any plans to rotate. This is also interesting given that two of the projects are new, and one might assume that new integrated projects would have plans for rotation.

Four of the six projects in Latin America have undergone changes in their geographic coverage, most of them by shifting between communities within the same target area. One project has extended the target area to include an additional municipality.

Tables 5.1 and 5.2 showed that relatively few projects have changed or plan to change project sectors. This lack of dynamism may be because the projects in themselves consist of a set of sectors and beneficiaries' expectations make it difficult to change.

Four of the five projects which have undergone changes in the composition of sectors are in Africa. The one in Latin America is *the NLM Tinguipaya project in Bolivia*. The project covers five sectors, of which agriculture is the only one which has been included during the full project period. Health was included in the first years and then phased out and transferred to the municipality. Education started after a few years and then phased out. Water supply was started after some years and is still going on. The last sector was started rather recently and is still going on.

5.3.2. Mechanism for coordination and integration of sectors and components

Integration and coordination within multisectoral projects is important. However, project documents, interviews and project visits have not given a clear picture of expectations or methods for cross fertilization between sectors. Nevertheless, 14 projects reported on mechanism for integration between sectors, as shown in table 5.9. Seven projects mentioned internal team work. Five mentioned the existence of crosscutting issues and staff working in more than one sector. Four mentioned involving other stakeholders in planning exercises. Two mentioned general coordination with different stakeholders.

Table 5.9 Mechanisms for coordination and integration

| | Number of projects |
|--|--------------------|
| Internal coordination between sectors within the project (team work) | 7 |
| Crosscutting issues and/or staff working across sectors | 5 |
| Integrated planning involving other stakeholders showing interrelations between sectors and components | 4 |
| Coordination with other stakeholders | 2 |

6. RELEVANCE, ACHIEVEMENTS, IMPACT AND SUSTAINABILITY

This chapter discusses the integrated projects relevance, achievements and impact and the sustainability aspects of the projects' activities and achievements, including the projects' plans for phasing out.

6.1. Projects' relevance, achievements and impact

6.1.1. Project relevance

The reviewed projects' objectives, sectors and most activities supported, their approaches (e.g. for integration, strengthening community organizations) seem very relevant for local community members and their organizations living in poor and often remote areas in Africa and Latin America. Moreover, the projects' target populations are often minority groups living in areas that have been chronically neglected by national and local governments.

This finding that the projects are relevant is supported by different project evaluations. In addition, the MOs and BN reported that integrated projects and their activities generally have high relevance because an integrated project should be the result of people's own assessment of needs and because the target population usually

is involved from the very start. Moreover, although integrated projects are often more complex with a multitude of sectors and activities, they are more flexible than other projects as they are easier to change over time. According to the MOs, this flexibility should make it easier to ensure the integrated projects' relevance.

6.1.2. Project achievements

This evaluation has not assessed the actual achievements of each of the 17 integrated projects. However, an indication of the project achievements are given by the 13 of the 17 projects that have listed their main project results, as illustrated in table 6.1⁷.

The main achievements reported by the projects comprise improvements in individuals' and families' living conditions (11 projects), improved skills of individuals (11) and strengthening of community organizations (10). Table 6.1 also shows differences between Africa and Latin America. In Africa all projects report on improvements in living conditions for individuals and families. In Latin America more projects report on improvement in economic basis for families and groups.

Table 6.1. Project achievements

| | Number of project including mentioned achievement | | |
|--|---|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| Improvements in living conditions for individuals and families | 7 | 4 | 11 |
| Improvement in economic basis for families (families and groups) | 2 | 5 | 7 |
| Improved skills of individuals | 6 | 5 | 11 |
| Strengthening of community organizations - Empowerment | 5 | 5 | 10 |
| Increase in school enrolment | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| Improved infrastructure | 3 | 2 | 5 |
| Number of projects reporting | 7 | 6 | 13 |

The MOs and BN reported that in general it was assumed to be easier for IPs than other projects to achieve project objectives partly because of their focus on mobilizing the local communities, and partly the projects cover several sectors and try to have a holistic approach. The rotational aspect was also reported as being positive as the project can finalize work in one area and continue in another area. It was stressed that IPs that focus on the sectors and activities that they do well can achieve better results.

On the other hand, aspects that could hamper project achievements (more than in other projects) included the fact that focus may be lost and some areas can be "swept over" too fast with too many activities, with a consequent lack of results

⁷ The other four projects (of the 17) that did not list their project results were all projects which started during the last year.

(e.g. for the *Sofaba project in Madagascar* that has very many activities in project sites that are highly geographically dispersed). Other projects are often geographically more focused and concentrated. There can also be a risk that focus is too much on small results instead of higher level such as sustainability of project's activities and achievements.

6.1.3. Project impact

This evaluation has not assessed the impacts of integrated projects. Nevertheless, the question of integrated projects' impact on target groups and on cooperating organizations (relative to that of other projects) was raised during the interviews with the MOs and BN and their responses are as follows:

Impact on local communities. In spite of great variations among integrated projects, it was perceived that they generally have a larger scope for impact on local communities with their community level approach and the often focus on changes attitudes and building organizations and networks. As a result, the effects and impact of a *good* IP are generally greater on a target group, in particular marginal groups such as in Africa, than for other projects. However, it was also stressed that IPs that do not manage to have an impact at community level should be closed.

Impact on cooperating organizations. It was reported that other projects of MOs are more used to work with cooperating organizations, and consequently it was easier to have an impact. However, IPs could bring cooperating organization closer to target population and learn about needs of target population, but that the IPs' methodologies and approaches are decisive for the extent of impact. Also that IPs that build network and the impacts from competence building are more widely spread. In terms of regional differences, it was perceived that IPs in Latin America have more impact on cooperating organizations and that the impact in Africa was sometimes questionable.

6.2. Plans for phasing out and sustainability of activities and achievements

A great risk for integrated projects, as with many other projects, is that they can become "institutions" in the project area and among the local communities, and, consequently, will have problems in phasing out and closing. Moreover, it was reported that a project's cooperating partners and beneficiary communities often do not fully understand the sustainability aspects such as e.g. the consequences of handing over of responsibilities for running schools or dispensaries before the project's closing date is set and the project starts implementing its disengagement plans. This evaluation has assessed the integrated projects' extent of plans for phasing out.

Sustainability of project activities and investments is a crucial but also very challenging aspect of all development projects, not at least in marginal and resource poor rural areas with new and weak local organizations and cooperating partners. The

evaluation has looked at the projects' strategies for ensuring sustainability and the projects' assessments of the stakeholders' likelihood for this.

6.2.1. Plans for Phasing Out

Seven out of the 17 projects report that they have phasing out plans, six report that they do not have such plans and four projects, that are all new, did not answer. Table 6.2 shows that of the seven projects that are ongoing (but have not reached the phasing out stage) only two have phasing out plans. Of the three projects that have closed, two had phasing out plans. The table also shows that of the seven projects with phasing out plans five are projects with geographic rotation.

Table 6.2 Project phases and phasing out plans

| Project phases | Projects with phasing out plans | Projects without phasing out plans | Not answered |
|---------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------|
| a) New – starting | - | - | 4 |
| b) Ongoing | 2 | 5 | - |
| c) Phasing out | 3 | - | - |
| d) Finished | 2 | 1 | - |
| Total | 7 | 6 | 4 |
| Geographic rotation | 5 | 5 | 2 |

These findings suggest that the phasing out issue of a project is often neglected during a project's preparation and initial phases and that some of the projects tend to “drag their legs” until later phases. The same finding will probably be relevant to not only integrated projects but to many other if not most development projects. Nevertheless, it is a crucial issue that needs to be addressed and, ideally, the development of a project's disengagement strategies should be an objective from a project's initial stages. This was also confirmed by the various questionnaire responses by satellites, partners and projects.

This finding is confirmed by the experiences of e.g. the *Pokot project in Kenya* where the need for phasing out was not seriously considered before towards the end of its third phase (after about 14 years of implementation). Partly because the project did well with its different approaches related to building classrooms, running dispensaries, mobilizing local communities around development activities in different sectors and also in continuously rotating to new and needy communities. Although the project is currently in its five year out-phasing phase, it will continue its full fledged outreach program targeting several rural communities until the two last project years. The project has during this phase already carried out some capacity building activities that targeted the diocese and parishes of the local partner, ELCK Pokot. The project plans to, but has yet to develop and implement a comprehensive capacity building strategy and program for its two out-phasing years.

The *NLM Tinguipaya project in Bolivia* is following a well defined phasing out plan of activities and will be closed down by the end of 2006. They are scaling down physical activities in the different sectors and the staffing accordingly. Agreements

are made with former staff to promote their continued activities on a cost recovery basis. Emphasis is on capacity building of beneficiaries in order to ensure sustainability of activities and building up relations between beneficiaries and relevant organizations for future support and cooperation.

6.2.2. Sustainability of activities and achievements

13 of the 17 projects confirm that they have strategies for ensuring sustainability of project achievements and activities. 12 projects listed types of strategies for ensuring sustainability as shown in Table 6.3. Most projects focus on the training of beneficiaries in operation and maintenance, e.g. of equipment, classrooms, dispensaries etc. (10), training of local persons or teams for follow up (7) and initial involvement of beneficiaries (5). Only two projects report to have special agreements with communities for follow-up and two have their projects included in municipal plans. As may be seen, projects in Africa are very focused on training of beneficiaries in operation and maintenance. In Latin America projects are more focused on agreements with different institutions to ensure sustainability.

Table 6.3 Types of strategies for ensuring sustainability

| | Number of projects including mentioned type of strategy | | |
|---|---|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| Initial involvement of beneficiaries | 4 | 1 | 5 |
| Special agreements with communities for follow-up | - | 2 | 2 |
| Training of beneficiaries in operation and maintenance | 8 | 2 | 10 |
| Provision of equipment for maintenance | - | 1 | 1 |
| Training of local persons or teams for follow up (often project personnel or beneficiaries) | 5 | 2 | 7 |
| Agreements with other institutions on budget for maintenance | 1 | 3 | 4 |
| Projects included in local plans | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Increase revenue base through income generating activities | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| Number of projects having reported | 8 | 4 | 12 |

Table 6.4 lists those who may be in charge of ensuring the sustainability of the project's achievements and activities, which comprise mainly beneficiaries and their

organizations (11) and the municipality/local authority (8). Only three projects mention the local partner. Projects in Africa mention a wide range of those who will be responsible for ensuring sustainability, with emphasis on beneficiaries and local authorities. Projects in Latin America focus almost only on these categories

Table 6.4 Those who will be responsible for ensuring sustainability

| | Actors responsible for ensuring sustainability | | |
|--|--|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| Beneficiaries and their organizations provided with equipment and training for maintenance | 8 | 3 | 11 |
| Municipality and local authority | 6 | 2 | 8 |
| Former project staff – agreement and equipment | - | 1 | 1 |
| Other institutions | 1 | - | 1 |
| Line ministries | 2 | - | 2 |
| Local partner | 3 | - | 3 |
| Sectoral departments | 1 | - | 1 |
| Number of projects having reported | 9 | 4 | 13 |

The projects have also assessed the possibilities of beneficiaries, partners and cooperating authorities to ensure the sustainability of project's achievements and activities as shown in tables 6.5, 6.6 and 6.7.

Concerning the beneficiaries, only six projects (out of 11 that answered) consider them capable and committed to ensure sustainability. Five projects report that they lack the capacity.

Out of 11 projects that responded, only four projects report that their partner has follow-up mechanisms (after activities have been completed) and seven projects report that the partners either lack funds or ownership, or both to ensure sustainability. Only two projects report that their partner is administratively prepared.

Concerning cooperating authorities, four of nine projects report that the local authorities are committed through agreements, two that the local authorities are committed and two that they are not.

Box 4: NMS PDHIK project's focus on sustainability at village level

In order to strengthen the sustainability aspects at community level and to integrate lessons learned from its previous phases, the *NMS' PDIKH project in Mali* puts emphasis on the actual community commitment to project activities, the village development committees' actual operationality and the existence of maintenance funds. The project document includes sustainability criteria and indicators for sustainability, which are as follows:

1. Criteria: dynamic local participation: that the target groups is committed to carry out development activities. Indicator: physical/financial participation from villages is delivered on schedule
2. Criteria: functioning local organizations. Indicator: village development committees hold meetings, present their activities plans and annual budgets, reports and minutes.
3. Criteria: Existence of funds for the maintenance of infrastructure and the functioning of village development committees. Indicator: the fund will come from the members' participations, from fees charged for services (water etc.) and from financial support from the communes.

NLM's Pokot project in Kenya has established a partnership with the local government that takes over the running of the school buildings that are sponsored by the project⁸. The Government of Kenya will provide teachers, curriculum, inspections and overall management of the schools. At the same time, the church (ELCK Pokot) can continue to have an important representation, even majority representation, in the schools steering committees.

Although the number of projects which have responded is limited, the tables also show some interesting differences between Africa and Latin America. Projects in Latin America are more confident that beneficiaries are capable and committed to ensuring sustainability. Almost all projects in Africa who have reported find that the local partner has limited possibilities to ensure sustainability, while in Latin America more projects have confidence that the partner has follow-up mechanisms. Projects in Latin America also have a much higher confidence in local authorities, whose responsibilities to ensure sustainability has been included in agreements.

⁸ On average the project has supported the building of 2 classrooms in 12 primary schools per year, and from 2000 the project has financed the building of 2 classrooms in 5 primary schools.

Table 6.5 Assessment of beneficiaries' possibilities to ensure sustainability

| | Number of projects including mentioned assessment | | |
|---|---|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| 1 Beneficiaries capable and committed | 2 | 4 | 6 |
| 2 Little capacity and further capacity building required | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| 3 Maintenance capacity installed | - | 1 | 1 |
| 4 Local economic basis missing | 2 | - | 2 |
| 5 Cost recovery mechanisms to ensure maintenance in place | 1 | - | 1 |
| Number of projects having reported | 5 | 5 | 10 |

Table 6.6 Assessment of partners' possibilities to ensure sustainability

| | Number of projects including mentioned assessment | | |
|---|---|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| Limited possibilities: no funds or no ownership | 6 | 1 | 7 |
| Partner has follow-up mechanisms after activities have been completed | 1 | 3 | 4 |
| Administratively prepared | 2 | - | 2 |
| Number of projects having reported | 7 | 4 | 11 |

Table 6.7 Assessment of cooperating authorities' possibilities to ensure sustainability

| | Number of projects including mentioned assessment | | |
|--|---|---------------|-------|
| | Africa | Latin America | Total |
| Local authorities not committed | - | 1 | 1 |
| Local authorities committed | 2 | - | 2 |
| Local authorities committed through agreements | 1 | 4 | 5 |
| Number of projects having reported | 5 | 5 | 10 |

The above findings demonstrate that the sustainability aspects are very challenging for the integrated projects, in particular for those in Africa. Only two projects in Africa report that the beneficiaries are capable to ensure sustainability of project achievements and six (out of seven) report that the partner has no funds or ownership to ensure sustainability. For Latin America the sustainability prospects are more optimistic because of the strengthening of beneficiaries' organizations and the linkages to the municipalities

7. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This thematic evaluation of integrated projects (IP) has tried to address various aspects of integrated projects in order to identify strengths and weaknesses of such projects and through this conclude: (i) whether this is a relevant and effective way of conducting development work and (ii) whether the way the BN member organizations – with the support of BN – is managing such projects is good.

In the description of the evaluation BN lists the questions they want the evaluation to address. This outline is used in order to sum up the evaluation's conclusions and recommendations.

7.1. Main finding

This review shows that BN's integrated projects, their objectives, approaches, sectors and activities are generally very relevant for and most benefit the MOs' target population. The main shortcoming and challenge for the MOs is the role of the local partner. For the majority of the projects the partner is a church. Most of these churches do not have the capacity to manage such complex projects adequately. This raises serious questions about the institutional strength of these churches and the sustainability of the projects' activities and achievements.

It seems that MOs may choose between three strategic alternatives. The first alternative may be to support the development of an evangelic NGO to become a professional local development agent capable of planning, managing and sustaining complex multisectorial integrated projects. The second alternative may be to focus the support on the partner church and to finance only those projects where the church has been actively involved in identifying and planning the project and will be in charge of the management of the project. The overall scope of such a project must be within the institutional and administrative capacity and capability of the church. This would be smaller projects limited to one or two sectors with few components. The third alternative would be to launch a multisectorial integrated project with heavy involvement of the church with the objective to develop the church's technical and administrative skills for such complex projects.

7.2. Organizational level

7.2.1. Choice of organizational model

In spite of significant variations in the organizational set-up between the 17 projects, most MOs have chosen their partner church in the specific country as the project's local partner (9 in Africa and 3 in Latin America).

This seems to be based on the two objectives of integrating and/or strengthening diaconal activities within the church and using the church as a decentralized arm for

development activities. In addition, some MOs emphasize the linkage between evangelization and development in integrated projects.

The findings in section 4.2.2 reveal that with some exceptions most partner churches' involvement in project planning, implementation and monitoring are limited. Moreover, although many of the local partner churches are inexperienced and organizational weak, few projects address the church's need for organizational development (section 5.2). As a result, the churches' ownership to the project is often weak and they have generally few follow-up mechanisms to ensure sustainability of project activities and achievements as demonstrated in chapter 6.

One of the promising exceptions is the CELPA program in DRC where the organizational development of the church administration has been an important and long term objective of PYM's project support. As a result, the church is now not only managing the integrated CELPA program, but also other NORAD and PYM supported projects in Eastern DRC. PYM's CELPA experiences provide important lessons learned for other integrated projects, particularly in Africa.

Some MOs have chosen other stakeholders than the church as the project's partner. In Mali, Normisjon chose the municipality in Goundara as partner to avoid overburdening its new and small national church. NMA's three projects in Latin America have an NGO as the local partner. These NGOs have been developed with the support of NMA. NMS' Mali project has a partner that is perceived as being more of the country office of various MOs than a local or national church.

Recommendations:

- (i) The MOs should be *more conscious both in their choice of partner organization and this choice's implications for project planning, implementation, ownership, sustainability and follow-up requirements by the MOs.*
- (ii) The MOs should assess the partner's actual capacities (organizational, human and financial) and the need to strengthen these to enable an adequate involvement in and ownership to the project. This assessment should already be done during the initial project planning and prior to project start up.
- (iii) Capacity building activities, in particular organizational development targeting the partner should be an integral part of the project.
- (iv) The MOs should ensure that they and expatriate project staff have the required know how in building local organizations.
- (v) Lessons learned and best practice case studies from other projects, such as PYM's CELPA program, NMA's experiences in building national NGOs and possibly from relevant projects in Asia should be developed and disseminated to projects, partners and MOs.

7.2.2. Choice and priority of integrated projects as an approach to development cooperation

As stated in chapter 2, the MOs generally define integrated projects as local community development projects that:

- are based on the essential needs of the community members,
- cover not only one but several sectors at the same time and integrate these
- rotate geographically and/or change the composition of sectors over time⁹.

Some MOs have a considerable portfolio of integrated projects. In particular NMS with its six projects in Africa, NLM's four projects (2 in each of the 2 continents) and NMA's three projects in Latin America.

Few MOs have developed a specific and coherent strategy for integrated projects. Some report that such projects are often complex (given the multitude of sectors and its genuine focus on participation, capacity building, ownership etc.) and that they consequently require a lot of expertise at project and MO level.

The findings in chapters 3 and 4 show that the reviewed projects' objectives, approaches, sectors and activities are generally very relevant for the MOs' target population.

Only one project appears to not be a full fledged integrated project but rather an offspring of a previous sectorial project which continues providing the same sectorial activities.

It seems that sometimes the MOs do not incorporate lessons learned and best practice methodologies of its old projects into its more recent integrated projects (such as NMS' new IPs in Ethiopia and Madagascar). It was also reported that MOs can plan new integrated project without involving staff with previous experiences in implementing integrated projects.

Recommendations:

- (i) BN should consider assisting the MOs in developing a practical guideline for planning and implementing integrated projects
- (ii) MOs/BN should organize various fora (workshops etc.) in Norway and in countries where there are several IPs to exchange experiences and disseminate best case studies related to IP approaches
- (iii) MOs should ensure that staff (in particular project staff) with experiences from other integrated projects is involved in the preparation of new integrated projects.

⁹ Some MOs also emphasize the linkage between development and evangelical activities. This evaluation has not reviewed this linkage.

7.2.3. The member organizations' role at the different stages of the project cycle

The findings in section 4.1.1 suggest that with some exceptions the projects have often been closely linked to and dependent on the MO's seconded staff during its initial stages. Many satellites and projects reported that the missionaries had been involved in initiating, planning, drafting and approving the projects. Moreover there are Norwegian expatriate staff in 12 out of 17 projects (sections 4.1.1 and 7.2.4)

The findings in Section 4.2.4 suggest a tendency that when the project's partner is weak, the project cooperates more directly with the MO in the country or in Norway. Seven projects reported to be mainly dependent on the MO satellite, five on the MO in Norway and only five were dependent on its partner. This implies that the local partner might have little influence as the dialogue is often between the project team and the satellite or MO. Sometimes when the partner churches are perceived as being too weak to be much involved, the MO country offices want to become more operational (e.g. NMS in Madagascar and NLM in Ethiopia).

These findings have important consequences for the needs for specific skills and competencies of partner and the MOs' seconded staff, and their country and home offices.

The MOs should also be very conscious on the fact that a very strong involvement from their side can create more project dependency and further weaken the partner church. On the other hand, NMA's and PYM's experiences in supporting their national partners in managing development activities have brought total project ownership of the partner.

Recommendations:

- (i) MOs should consider very carefully their role and involvement in the different stages of the project cycle. The MOs involvement should aim at building and supporting their partner organizations so that they become full fledged professional and responsible partners in the field of rural community development.

7.3. Project level

The seven points below are related to BN's criteria for integrated projects.

7.3.1. Local ownership and sustainability

The ownership and sustainability aspects are challenging for integrated projects, in particular for those in Africa. Here only two projects report that the beneficiaries are capable to ensure sustainability of project achievements. In addition, most projects report that their partner church has no funds or ownership to ensure sustainability.

Most of the projects confirmed that they have strategies for ensuring sustainability of project achievements and activities. While projects in Africa focus on training of beneficiaries in operation and maintenance, Latin American projects focus more on partnerships and agreements with different institutions.

Projects in Latin America are more confident that beneficiaries are capable and committed to ensuring sustainability and also that the partner has follow up mechanisms.

Projects in Latin America have higher confidence in local authorities whose responsibilities to ensure sustainability have been included in formal agreements. There is a slight tendency that the projects in Latin America have a broader involvement of local authorities. Many of the projects in Africa had minimal contact with the local authorities in its initial phases as they target areas that have been neglected by their governments for a very long time.

These findings demonstrate that there is a considerable room for improving the sustainability aspects of many of the projects. Projects, MOs, satellites and BN provided some of the following recommendations.

Recommendations:

- (i) Sustainability and phasing out strategies should be identified and elaborated together with concerned stakeholders and should be an important part of the initial project plans. These strategies should be included in the project document and in the written agreement between MO, local partner and/or local authorities.
- (ii) The different stakeholder groups should be involved from the very start, and when responsibilities are agreed upon these should be respected and enforced.
- (iii) The local partners' involvement in project and their capacities should be developed and strengthened
- (iv) The local authorities should be involved at an early stage and where possible, partnerships with these should be built. This should include the establishment of binding agreements for follow-up or take over of activities.

7.3.2. Service delivery and fixed assets

The extent of service delivery appears to be less for integrated projects than for the MOs' other projects that are often sectorial projects and mainly related to service delivery (hospitals, schools etc.). Of the 17 projects only three pay salaries for service providers. They are all in Africa.

Of the 17 projects nine projects own physical assets such as buildings, land etc. The majority are in Africa. In most cases the local partner church will take over these assets. For a few projects, the local authorities will take over. In the phasing out of projects the question of what to do with physical assets has been a major problem

Recommendation:

- (i) It is recommended that whenever possible, projects should avoid attaining ownership of physical assets and instead lease these.

7.3.3. Rotation

The findings in section 5.3.1 demonstrate that geographical rotation is an important part for many (11) of the integrated projects. About one third of the projects have changed composition of sectors.

The reported benefits with rotations comprise: the possibilities to cover more beneficiary communities; the decrease of project dependency and strengthening of ownership to project achievements, and – because the outphasing date is fixed – an increased stakeholder understanding of future responsibilities and challenges related to the follow-up of these after the project leaves.

Challenges related to rotations include: the need to strengthen the skills and capacities of individuals and local organizations in a shorter period of time; higher transport costs and time as the distances between the project's headquarter and new target areas can increase considerably; the new sites are areas where the local partner church is new or not represented; and the follow-up of previous beneficiary communities and costs related to this.

Some of the projects have developed sound rotational approaches and have good experiences with these. Many of the other projects, which are either still in the learning stage or have not yet considered rotating, could learn from these experiences.

Recommendations:

- (i) All project documents should include a strategy for geographic and sectorial rotation as a principle for project development. This strategy should take into account the need for flexibility inherent in all IPs.
- (ii) Projects that are either still in the learning stage of rotation or those that have not yet considered rotating should learn from projects that already have a good grasp of how to rotate, and adapt the best practices to the specific socio-economic settings of their own beneficiary communities.
- (iii) The various projects should develop methods that will ensure regular follow-up visits or ensure that “old” communities are followed-up by other development actors.

7.3.4. Local resources

Section 4.1.1 shows that there are Norwegian expatriate staff in 12 out of 17 projects. 10 of these are advisors and only 2 project directors. Some projects claimed that the expatriates often launch activities that are too complex or large for a given project area and for a local partner. This can lead to dependency on expatriates, in particular during the initial phases. The relative high and frequent turn over could also create turbulence and the percentages of total salaries for expatriate staff are high.

Some projects have had difficulties in finding competent local staff due to the lack of people with higher education in the target area. Some projects have responded by launching scholarships for locals and try to recruit them afterwards.

Recommendation:

- (i) MOs should consider very carefully the role and profile of expatriate staff in projects so they support the development of projects and institutions and do not contribute to dependencies and impede local ownership and sustainability.

7.3.5. Organization and management

In section 4.1 one third of the projects reported that the organizational set-up contributed to high level of local participation in the project. Four stated that the organization was efficient and effective.

Most projects have an administration of either between 5-10 or 10-15 staff. There is a tendency to have a smaller project administration in Latin America than in Africa.

Even if these units are not big they cannot be sustained by the local partners, particularly when salaries are much higher than salaries in the partner organizations and elsewhere

In half of the projects changes and improvements related to the internal organization had taken place.

The various projects' relationships and collaboration with partner and with MO vary as sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.4 reveal.

Only five projects report to be dependent on the partner while 11 claim be either heavily dependent on the MO.

Recommendation:

- (i) Most MOs should carefully consider how to strengthen the involvement of partner organizations in project management and implementation, particularly with a view to ensure project sustainability

7.3.6. Participatory approaches and methods

The review found that almost all projects apply different techniques and methodologies related to stakeholder participation, needs assessment and project identification, training of individuals and local groups, and strengthening of community organizations. Chapter 5 includes good practice methods and methodologies developed by some of the projects.

Chapter 5 reveals that there is a great room for improving and strengthening the skills of many projects, partners and MOs in most aspects related to stakeholder participation and training methods and methodologies. Most MOs and projects should also put more efforts into targeting and involving local women in project activities and in beneficiary organizations, in particular in the agricultural sector and in decision making bodies.

Most MOs and projects should be conscious of the considerable time and efforts required to develop viable rural organizations in poor and remote areas with high illiteracy levels.

Recommendations:

- (i) MOs and project staff need to have a good understanding of the characteristics and complexity of integrated projects, participatory methodologies and awareness techniques and gender and capacity building issues.
- (ii) Project staff need to have specific skills and have visions and be able to transfer these to the local partner and cooperating organizations.
- (iii) MOs/BN should organize various fora (workshops etc.) in Norway and at country level to exchange experiences and to disseminate best case studies related to IP approaches, participatory approaches and methodologies and techniques.
- (iv) Lessons learned and best practice case studies related to participatory approaches and training methodologies and experiences should be developed and disseminated to projects, partners and MOs.
- (v) BN and MOs should encourage exchange visits between relevant projects and promote visits to relevant projects of other development actors.

7.3.7. Sectors and integration between these

Chapter 3 shows that all integrated projects cover at least two sectors and most between two and four sectors. The dominant sectors are agriculture, health and education. The oldest projects covered less sectors than the recent projects. Projects in Africa tend to cover a wider range of sectors than those in Latin America. It was reported that some projects' involvement in too many sectors was often very costly and could reduce the partner's ownership to the project and its possibilities to follow-up after the project closed, including large project units.

Few projects are clear about the relations between sectors such as linkages and synergies. Nevertheless 14 project report (section 5.3.2) that they have mechanisms for integration between sectors which include team work, cross cutting issues and staff covering more than one sector. But some also reported that they feel there is a potential for a stronger integration between the sectors.

Recommendations:

- (i) The projects should try to limit the number of sectors to those they can do well, in particular in Africa. This can contribute to a realistic cost level.
- (ii) The projects should try to ensure that other partners support the communities in carrying out activities in other sectors that have been identified in the community level needs assessments.

- (iii) In planning and implementing projects, efforts should be made to explicitly identify linkages between sectors and activities and how synergies between these can be attained.

7.4. Innbydelse til anbud på temastrategisk evaluering

7.5.

7.6. ”Integrerte tiltak – på rett veg”

7.7.

7.7.1. Innledning

Norsk Misjons Bistandsnemnd (BN) er en paraplyorganisasjon som forvalter en samarbeidsavtale med NORAD på vegne av 16 medlemsorganisasjoner (norske misjonsorganisasjoner). Våre medlemmer samarbeider med ulike partnere (hovedsakelig nasjonale kirker, myndigheter eller NGOer) i ca 40 land.

Med integrerte tiltak mener vi tiltak som har flere komponenter, slik som helse, landbruk og skole, men som administreres under en felles prosjektorganisering. Om lag en tredjedel av BNs portefølje klassifiseres som integrerte tiltak:

- BN støtter i 2004 25 (16 %) tiltak. Det samlede søknadsbeløp ligger på ca 43 millioner kroner eller ca 30 % av totalt søknadsbeløp. Tiltakene finnes i følgende land: Etiopia (5), Bolivia (3), Kina (3) Madagaskar (2), Mali (2), Congo DR (1), Kenya (1), Paraguay (1), Ecuador (1), Vietnam (1), Nepal (1), India (1), Bangladesh (1), Elfenbenskysten (1), Mongolia (1).
- Afrika er høyest prioritert med 12 prosjekter i 6 land. Deretter kommer Asia med 8 prosjekter i 5 land og Latin-Amerika med 5 prosjekter i 3 land.
- I alt 9 av våre 16 medlemmer har integrerte tiltak. Disse er: Areopagos, Den Norske Tibetmisjon, Frelsesarmeen, Den Evangelisk Lutherske Frikirke, Normisjon, De Norske Pinsemenigheters Ytremisjon, Den norske Misjonsallianse, Det Norske Misjonsselskap og Norsk Luthersk Misjonssamband.

Integrerte tiltak er altså en høyt prioritert prosjektform blant BNs medlemsorganisasjoner:

- Med sin helhetlige tilnærming anses integrerte tiltak å være en relevant og effektiv måte å drive lokalt utviklingsarbeid på.
- Flere av medlemsorganisasjonene har støtte til integrerte tiltak som del av sin bistandsstrategi.
- Tiltakene har lokalsamfunnsutvikling som en vesentlig målsetting.
- Tiltakene er i vesentlig grad i størrelsesordenen fra 1 – 3 millioner kroner, noe som er en gjennomnittelig størrelse for tiltakene i BN.
- Et par av tiltakene har form av å være programmer med egen rammeavtale. Disse er relativt store i BN sammenheng (5 – 8 mill.)

Ettersom det er flere norske organisasjoner og nasjonale partnere som er ansvarlige for denne type prosjekter er det vanskelig å vurdere de integrerte tiltakene som en homogen gruppe. BN har likevel utarbeidet strategi og kriterier for hvordan denne type prosjekter. Disse er vedlagt, men handler i hovedsak om at:

- tiltakene skal være lokalt forankret og ha som mål å bli bærekraftige,
- tiltakene skal i liten grad ha tjenesteytende komponenter,
- tiltakene skal ha en roterende profil,
- tiltakene i størst mulig grad bygger på lokale ressurser og kompetansebygging,
- tiltakene bør vektlegge god organisering og forvaltning og at
- deltagende tilnæringer og metoder benyttes.

Som en kontrast til BN har man i flere andre bistandssammenhenger, deriblant NORAD, gått bort fra satsningen på integrerte utviklingstiltak. Vanskeligheter med å oppnå bærekraft i tiltakene, lokal ansvarliggjøring og det faktum at disse prosjektene lett blir svært omfattende, er noen av grunnene til at andre organisasjoner vegrer seg for denne prosjektformen.

Initiativet til evalueringen er tatt av BN. BN har i sin evalueringsstrategi et ansvar for å *”ta initiativ til og gjennomføre tverrgående evalueringer, dvs. evalueringer som behandler felles tema og/eller inkluderer flere organisasjoner”* (Kap. 4, c).

I 2002 gjennomførte BN en temastrategis evaluering av tre organisasjoners skoleprosjekt i India. (Rapport: ”Education as Development for Marginalised Groups”, april 2002.)

BNs styre vedtok i 2003 (Sak 52/02, dok. 5) å gjennomføre en temastrategisk evaluering av BNs integrerte tiltak. Evalueringen ble imidlertid vedtatt utsatt til 2004.

Med bakgrunn i dette er det nå BN ønsker å sette i gang en temastrategisk evaluering av sine integrerte tiltak og inviterer til en begrenset anbudsrunde.

7.7.2. Mål

Evalueringen bør, gjennom å vise til sterke og svake sider, komme frem til om integrerte tiltak er en relevant og effektiv måte å drive utviklingsarbeid på. I dette bør det også vurderes om måten organisasjonene, med veiledning fra BN, i dag driver de integrerte tiltakene på er god. Arbeidstittel for evalueringen er ”Integrerte tiltak – på rett veg”. Den kan forstås som en påstand eller også som et spørsmål.

7.8. Evalueringens omfang og begrensninger

7.8.1. Referansegruppe

En referansegruppe bestående av representanter fra organisasjonene er opprettet. NORAD er også representert i denne gruppen. Referansegruppens rolle er å komme med innspill og å være kvalitetssikrer for evalueringsarbeidet.

7.8.2. Økonomiske rammer

Godkjent økonomisk ramme for evalueringen er på NOK 400.000.

Dette skal inkludere lønn og reiser til konsulen/-er og eventuelt de lokale konsulentene. Kostnader til BNs saksbehandler skal ikke gå av denne rammen. Kostnader ved oppfølging (seminar ol.) etter at rapporten foreligger forventes å kostnadsføres kommende år, og altså budsjetteres for 2005.

7.8.3. Tidsramme og metode

Evalueringen skal gjennomføres 2004.

- Tidsbruk vil begrenses av de økonomiske rammene gitt for evalueringen.
- Studier av planer og dokumenter i Norge, med besøk i enkelte organisasjoner er å anbefale.
- 2 reiser er også å anbefale, f.eks. oktober – november.
- Oppdragsbeskrivelse med teamforslag (der kvalifikasjoner klart fremgår) og tidsplan må godkjennes i BNs styre i juni – august.
- Rapport må være ferdig i løpet av desember 2004.

7.8.4. Team

Prosjektteamet bør bestå av ekstern konsulent/-er og intern (BN) saksbehandler. Konsulent fra BN skal ikke være teamleder, men kan ha en koordinerende rolle. Det kan være ønskelig å supplere teamene med regionale konsulenter for de områdene der feltarbeider skal gjennomføres. Under feltarbeidene er det naturlig at prosjektledere deltar i evalueringen.

7.8.5. Valg av case/prosjekter til feltstudiene

En oversikt over integrerte tiltak i 2004 ligger vedlagt. Prosjektene er i ulike faser, fra oppstart, til konsolidering og utfasing. Avsluttede prosjekter kan også tas med i evalueringen om dette er ønskelig.

7.8.6. Forventede resultater og oppfølging

Evalueringen er tenkt å munne ut i følgende resultater:

- En rapport med konklusjoner og anbefalinger i henhold til målsettingen.
- Ny viten og læring for fremtidig arbeid med integrerte tiltak i BNs sammenhenger.

Anbefalingene i rapporten bør ha en slik karakter at de vil ha betydning for videre arbeid med integrerte tiltak i medlemsorganisasjonene. For BN vil evalueringen danne grunnlaget for fremtidig saksbehandling. Bl.a. vil kriteriene for saksbehandling måtte opp til ny vurdering.

Oppfølgingen etter evalueringen blir vel så viktig som selve evalueringen. Minst et oppfølgingsseminar bør gjennomføres i 2005. Dette vil være BNs ansvar og som sådan ikke inngå i anbudet. Oppfølgingen etter evalueringen må også være organisasjonenes eget ansvar og tas med i deres langtidsplaner.

7.8.7. Spesifikasjon av anbudet**Gjennomføring:**

- Teoretisk fundament
- Metode
- Omfang og utvelgelse
- Kompetanse og personell
- Tidsplan

Økonomi:

- Timetall med honorar
- Reisekostnader
- Lokale kostnader

- Andre kostnader

7.8.8. Søknadsfrist:

Frist for anbudet er 26. mai 2004.05.03

Spørsmål må rettes skriftlig, gjerne pr mail, til Margrete Haga Lindeland (mhl@bnn.no) innen 14. mai 2002. Spørsmål og svar vil bli samlet og sendt til alle deltagerne i anbudsrunderen denne dato.

Med dette ønsker vi dere velkommen til anbudsrunderen!

Med vennlig hilsen for BN

Oddvar Espegren
Generalsekretær

Oppdragsbeskrivelse for temastrategisk evaluering

”Integrerte tiltak – på rett vei”

8. BAKGRUNN

Om lag en tredel av BNs prosjekter defineres som integrerte utviklingstiltak. Integrerte tiltak er derfor en høyt prioritert prosjektform blant våre medlemsorganisasjoner. Som en kontrast til dette har man i flere andre bistandssammenhenger, deriblant NORAD, gått bort fra satsningen på denne prosjektformen. Vanskeligheter med å oppnå bærekraft i tiltakene, svak lokal ansvarliggjøring og det faktum at disse prosjektene lett blir svært omfattende, er noen av grunnene til at andre organisasjoner vegrer seg for denne prosjektformen. En gjennomgang BNs integrerte tiltak, om man med denne prosjektformen er på rett veg, anses derfor som svært nødvendig.

Initiativet til evalueringen er tatt av BN. Dette med bakgrunn i BNs evalueringsstrategi som sier at:

BN har ansvar for å ”ta initiativ til og gjennomføre tverrgående evalueringer, dvs. evalueringer som behandler felles tema og/eller inkluderer flere organisasjoner” (Kap. 4, c).

BNs styre vedtok i 2003 (Sak 52/02, dok. 5) å gjennomføre en temastrategisk evaluering av BNs integrerte tiltak. Evalueringen ble imidlertid vedtatt utsatt til 2004.

8.1. Satsning på integrerte tiltak

For 2004 utgjør BNs portefølje 25 integrerte tiltak (ca 16 % av totalt 147 tiltak). Afrika er høyest prioritert med 12 prosjekter i 6 land. Deretter kommer Asia med 8 prosjekter i 5 land og Latin-Amerika med 5 prosjekter i 3 land. Budsjettall for 2004 ligger på ca 43 millioner kroner eller ca 30 % av totalt søknadsbeløp. Av dette går 20 mill. til Afrika, 15.6 mill. til Latin-Amerika og 7.5 mill. til Asia.

I alt 8 av BNs 16 medlemsorganisasjoner har integrerte tiltak. Tiltakene er i hovedsak i størrelsesordenen 1 – 3 millioner norske kroner, noe som er en gjennomsnittlig størrelse for tiltakene i BN. Et par av tiltakene (med egen rammeavtale) ligger i størrelsesordenen 5 – 8 mill.

8.2. Hvordan definere integrerte tiltak

Med 8 norske og langt flere nasjonale partnere er det vanskelig å vurdere de integrerte tiltakene som en homogen gruppe. Ett par av prosjektene har også form som programmer. Dvs. at lokal partner selv forvalter en form for rammeavtale med norsk

organisasjon og BN. For de integrerte tiltakene har BN egne kriterier for godkjenning av støtte.

Begrepet *integrering* forstås innen bistandsarbeid på flere måter. Ofte ses begrepet i sammenheng med en deltagende arbeidsmetodikk og tilnærming. For eksempel:

- Integrering av lokalbefolkningens definerte behov ved valg av prosjektaktiviteter og målsettinger.
- Integrering av prosjektets målsettinger i nasjonale planer og prioriteringer.
- Integrering av lokale myndigheter eller lokale organisasjoner, slik som en kommune eller en lokal kirke, enten som partner eller som en ansvarlig aktør i planlegging og gjennomføring.
- Integrering som en holistisk tilnærming til lokalsamfunnsutvikling, gjennom innsats på flere områder samtidig; utdanning, helse, landbruk o.l.

BN har valgt å definere integrerte tiltak som

”gruppen av prosjekter/programmer med flere delkomponenter (Multisektorielle tiltak)”, jf. BNs kriterier for søknadsbehandling.

Felles for denne type tiltak er at en sentral organisering (prosjektadministrasjon, -kontor) er ansvarlig for de ulike delkomponentene/sektorene. Et eksempel vil være et prosjekt der et prosjektkontor driver aktiviteter innen helse, skole/alfabetisering og landbruk. I mange tilfeller har prosjektkontoret ansvar for initiering og oppstart av ulike aktiviteter, mot at disse drives videre lokalt.

Det som skiller gruppen integrerte tiltak fra andre prosjekter i BN er derfor ikke den deltagende arbeidsmetodikken, men at flere sektorer er integrert i ett prosjekt, under en felles administrasjon. Likevel anses deltagende metodikk som avgjørende for et integrert prosjekts suksess (bærekraft). For å kunne vurdere styrker og svakheter ved BNs integrert prosjekter må deltagende metodikk derfor få en sentral plass.

9. MÅL OG PROBLEMSTILLINGER

9.1. Overordnet målsetting:

Kvalitetssikring, læring og forbedring av misjonens bistandsvirksomhet.

9.2. Målet for evalueringen:

Gjennom å vise til sterke og svake sider ved misjonens integrerte tiltak vurdere om denne prosjektformen er en relevant og effektiv måte å drive utviklingsarbeid på. I dette bør det også vurderes om måten organisasjonene, med veiledning fra BN, i dag driver de integrerte tiltakene på er god.

Dette bør belyses på to nivå:

- a) **Organisasjonsnivå**
- b) **Prosjektnivå**

9.3. Problemstillinger:

a) Organisasjonsnivå: Gjennomfører organisasjonene på ulike nivå integrerte prosjekter på en god måte?

Vurderingene bør bl.a. se på hvilke ulike organisatoriske forhold som kan bidra til prosjektets kvalitet:

- i) Valg av organisatorisk modell.
 - Bakgrunn for valg av organisatorisk modell i tilknytning til integrerte tiltak.
- ii) Valg og prioritering av denne prosjektform.
 - For å se hvordan organisasjonen definerer og prioriterer denne type tiltak.
 - Se om valg av metodikk og tilnærming har betydning for valg av prosjektform og omfang.
 - Se om organisasjonen har egen strategi for integrerte tiltak og om denne er hensiktsmessig.
- iii) Organisasjonens rolle på de ulike stadiene i prosjektsyklusen.
 - Organisasjonens rolle i planlegging, gjennomføring og utfasing.

b) Prosjektnivå: Er dette en relevant og effektiv måte å drive utviklingsarbeid på?

Vurderingene kan bl.a. gjøres med bakgrunn i BNs strategi og kriterier for søknadsbehandling:

- i) Tiltakene skal være lokalt forankret og ha som mål å bli bærekraftige:
 - De ulike aktiviteter og/eller den tilsiktede virkning som prosjektet bidrar til fortsetter etter at støtten er trukket ut.
 - Eierskap og ansvar for aktivitetene må ligge lokalt.
 - Det er et godt samarbeid med lokale strukturer og myndigheter.
- ii) Tiltakene skal i liten grad selv stå som eiere av tjenesteytende komponenter:
 - Tjenesteytende aktiviteter, slik som skoler, sykestuer og institusjoner, blir ofte avhengige av ekstern støtte, og kommer dermed i motsetning til kravet om bærekraft. Prosjektet må gjerne bidra til å etablere og styrke slike aktiviteter, men ikke selv eie eller være driftsansvarlige.
- iii) Tiltakene skal ha en roterende profil.
 - Integrerte tiltak kan lett bli ”institusjoner” i lokalsamfunnet og ha vansker med å fase ut. Kravet om ”roterende profil” forstås som et virkemiddel for å unngå dette og betyr at prosjektet går til nye område eller landsbyer etter en planlagt programsyklus.
 - Dette for å minske risikoen for avhengighet, ansvarliggjøre lokale strukturer og for å nå en større målgruppe. Samtidig vil prosjektet måtte styrke sin aktivitetsprofil og deltagende tilnærming.
 - Ved at tiltaket går videre til nye områder går ikke kapasitet og kompetanse tapt.

- iv) Tiltakene skal i størst mulig grad bygge på lokale ressurser og kompetansebygging.
 - Dette for å ansvarliggjøre folk til egen utvikling og holde aktivitetene på et nivå det vil være realistisk å forvente fremtidig bærekraft (faglig, administrativt og økonomisk).
- v) Tiltakene bør vektlegge god organisering og forvaltning.
 - Dette gjelder både for egen virksomhet (prosjektkontoret) og for de ulike aktiviteter som iverksettes. Prosjektet har et særlig ansvar for opplæring og tilrettelegging for lokale interessegrupper og utviklingskomiteer og grupper.
 - Institusjonsbygging og/eller organisasjonsutvikling bør stå sentralt.
- vi) Deltagende tilnærminger og metoder benyttes.
 - Dette for å ansvarliggjøre folk til egen utvikling.
- vii) Vurdere omfanget av sektorene og graden av integrering mellom disse.

10. ORGANISERING OG OMFANG

10.1.Referansegruppe

En referansegruppe bestående av representanter fra organisasjonene er opprettet. NORAD er også representert i denne gruppen. Referansegruppens rolle er å komme med innspill og å være kvalitetssikrer for evalueringsarbeidet.

10.2.Team

Evalueringen skal gjennomføres av Scanteam ved Anne Mossige og Erik Whist jf. kontrakt av 18. august 2004 og Work Program av 29. juni. 2004. Konsulent fra BN skal fungere som tilrettelegger for evalueringen og kan delta som observatør under feltbesøkene.

10.3.Økonomiske rammer

Godkjent økonomisk ramme for evalueringen er på NOK 400.000 (ekskl. moms). Dette inkluderer alle kostnader ved evalueringen, samt lønn og reiser til konsulent/-er. Kostnader til BNs saksbehandler skal ikke gå av denne rammen. Kostnader ved oppfølging (seminar ol.) etter at rapporten foreligger inngår ikke i denne rammen.

11. TIDSPLAN, METODE OG UTVALG

I følgende tidsplan går det frem hvilke aktiviteter som er tenkt brukt og når arbeidet skal utføres.

| Tasks | Comments | Time |
|-------------------------------------|--|--------------------|
| Review of documents | 1. Member organizations' strategies for development work and integrated projects 2. Project documents, reports, administrative procedures and reporting will be reviewed. Emphasis will be on progress reports and evaluations. | August - September |
| Selection of projects to be visited | Proposal based on review of documents and selection in consultation with BN Member organization, satellite and partner | August |
| Establish database | The unit for the database will be the project for which all relevant information for the analysis will be included | August - September |

Thematic Evaluation of Bistandnemnda's Integrated Projects

| | | |
|--|--|---------------------|
| Introductory interviews with BN member organizations | Strategies for development work and integrated projects, relations between the different levels (member organizations, satellites, partner organizations and project) and views on strengths and weaknesses of integrated projects compared to other strategies for development work | August - September |
| Design of questionnaire for survey to stakeholders | Detailed questionnaire to satellites and partners for all projects | September - October |
| Undertaking of survey and analysis of answers | E-mail based survey | September- October |
| Planning of fieldwork | In consultation with BN member organization, satellite and partner | September - October |
| Field work | Interview with Satellite of Norwegian Member Organization Interview with partner organization Visit to project Interview – participatory evaluation – with stakeholders | November |
| Follow-up interviews with BN member organizations | Checking out preliminary findings | November - December |
| Analysis and report writing | | November - December |

- a) Tilnæringsmåte vil være dokumentstudier (planer, retningslinjer ol.), spørring via e-pst, intervjuer og feltbesøk.
- b) Fokus skal være på Afrika og Latin-Amerika. Dette med bakgrunn i støtteomfang. - 17 prosjekt, i 9 land og i regi av 6 medlemsorganisasjoner skal med i vurderingen.
- c) Feltbesøk til 4-5 av prosjekter: I Afrika; 1 prosjekt i Kenya og 1 prosjekt på Madagaskar. Latin-Amerika; 2 prosjekter i Bolivia og, dersom det lar seg gjøre (økonomisk og praktisk), 1 i Ecuador.
- d) Informanter vil være: BN, norsk medlemsorganisasjon, partner eller satellitt ute, prosjekt og andre ”stakeholders” lokalt.
- e) De 3 største medlemsorganisasjonene, NMA, NLM og NMS, skal inkluderes spesielt.

Metodikken er ellers nærmere beskrevet i Scanteams anbud av 26. mai. 2004 og Work Program av 29. juni 2004.

12. FORVENTEDE RESULTATER OG OPPFØLGING

Evalueringen er tenkt å munne ut i følgende resultater:

- En rapport (engelsk) med konklusjoner og anbefalinger i henhold til mål og problemstillinger.
- Tilbakemelding på om integrerte tiltak er god bistand, og hvis ja, hvordan slike tiltak best kan gjennomføres.
- Ny viten og læring for fremtidig arbeid med integrerte tiltak i BNs sammenhenger.

Anbefalingene i rapporten bør ha en slik karakter at de vil ha betydning for videre arbeid med integrerte tiltak i medlemsorganisasjonene. For BN vil evalueringen danne grunnlaget for fremtidig saksbehandling. Bl.a. vil kriteriene for saksbehandling måtte opp til ny vurdering.

Oppfølgingen etter evalueringen blir vel så viktig som selve evalueringen. Minst et oppfølgingsseminar bør gjennomføres i 2005.

Scanteam:

Thematic Evaluation of Bistandnemnda's Integrated Projects

Annex 3

12.1.

Project list for BN evaluation 2004:

12.2.

| | Org. Norway | Partner | Prj.nr | Project name | Country code | Start - End | Phase |
|---------------|----------------|---------------------|--------|--------------------------------------|--------------|-------------|--------------------|
| Afrika | | | | | | | |
| 1 | DELFI | EECMY- CS | 10219 | Integrated Health & Development | ETH | 1996-2006 | Phasing out |
| 2 | NMS | EECMY | 10218 | Agallo Meti-Sirba Comm. Dev. Project | ETH | 1996 -2006 | Running |
| 3 | NMS | EECMY | 10488 | Integrated Rural Development, Nonno | ETH | 2004-2006 | Start |
| 4 | NMS | EECMY | 10489 | Integrated Development, Begi-Gidami | ETH | 2004-2008 | Start |
| 5* | NLM | ELCK/Pokot District | 10005 | Pokot Development Progr. (PDP - PIP) | KEN | 1990-2008 | Phasing out |
| 6 | NLM | EECMY/SEAW + NLM | 10452 | Rayto Comm. Dev. Project (RCDP) | ETH | 2003-2005 | Start |
| 7 | NMS | MELM | 10072 | Integrated Development Program | MLI | 1991-2008 | Running/ new area |
| 8 | Nor | MPN+ Commune | 10027 | Gondara integr. Development | MLI | 1994-2003 | End |
| 9* | NMS | FLM | 10295 | Integrated Village Dev. Program Bara | MAG | 1998-2007 | Running/ new area |
| 10 | NMS | FLM | 10499 | Integrated Development Manakara | MAG | 2004-2006 | Renewed objectives |
| 11 | PYM | CELPA | 10082 | Integrated program CELPA | CDR | 1992-2004 | Running |
| Latin-Amerika | | | | | | | |
| 12** | NLM | NLM + Church | 10010 | Rural Dev. Prog. of Tinguipaya | BOL | 1989-2006 | Phasing out |
| 13** | NMA | NMA-B | 10374 | Integrated Dev., Interandean Valleys | BOL | 2000-2007 | Running |
| 14 | NMA | NMA-B | 10081 | Regional development, Alcoche | BOL | 1995-2008 | Running/ new area |
| 15 | NMA | NMA-E | 10070 | Slum project in Guayaquil | ECU | 1994-2009 | Running/ new area |

| | | | | | | | |
|----|-----|--------------|-------|---------------------------------|-----|-------------|-----|
| 16 | NLM | NLM + Church | 10006 | Rural Development Program, Moho | PER | 1998 - 2002 | End |
| 17 | Nor | Nor + AEIC | 10044 | Rural Development Project | ECU | 1986-1999 | End |
| | | | | | | | |

* Project visit in the beginning of November 2004

** Project visit in the beginning of October 2004