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Fit for life: An exploration of the approaches used by sport-for-development NGOs to monitor and evaluate programmes offered in schools.

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(MSHTER001)

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Social Science in Social Policy & Management

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Executive summary

The study aimed at exploring the approaches used by sport-for-development organisations to monitor and evaluate their programmes offered to schools in the Cape Metropole. The study contributes to the growing fields of programme monitoring and evaluation (M&E) as well as sport-for-development in South Africa.

The study's sample comprised NGOs that used sport as an entry point to engage young people and engender behavioural change, thereby reducing youth vulnerability to sexual and reproductive health issues.

Twenty qualitative interviews were conducted: ten interviews with NGO programme coordinators and ten interviews with school contact teachers who oversaw the NGO programme in their schools.

The findings of the study indicate that many sport-for-development organisations offer programmes with a focus on HIV/AIDS prevention, teenage pregnancy, substance abuse prevention, anti-bullying and a variety of lifeskills inherent in group sports. These range from team building, tolerance within the team and stigma reduction, to altruism towards the larger community while improving the physical fitness of young people. This is usually done through integrating lifeskills messages into games and sports drills.

Secondly, organisations often develop M&E systems as a way to harvest knowledge for programme improvement, learn from experiences, build on success and report to funders. The M&E approaches used by these sport-for-development organisations lie within broad epistemological frameworks, namely positivist, interpretive and critical-emancipatory approaches to programme evaluation.

Furthermore, NGOs indicated that there was seldom participatory involvement of programme participants in the M&E process. M&E was largely undertaken by the programme implementers, who oftentimes, were peer educators, volunteers and/or paid programme staff.

The outcomes of the M&E process were mainly shared with funders in the form of

programme reports, used internally within the organisations and at times shared with the participating schools. However, the M&E outcomes were seldom distributed to programme participants and the larger community.

The recommendations include the involvement of programme participants in the process of M&E, disseminating the outcomes of the M&E process to all programme stakeholders and building the capacity of school contact teachers in their supportive role of the programme.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Over the past 20 years in Southern Africa, and internationally, there has been a mushrooming of organisations that use sports to advance a developmental agenda (Skinner, Zakus & Cowell, 2008). The increased need to address topical youth issues, through youth development initiatives, has facilitated the increased use of sport in addressing issues such as HIV/AIDS, teenage pregnancy and substance abuse among a myriad of other reproductive health and social issues that have contributed to the vulnerability of young people in developing nations (Springer, Sale, Hermann, Sambrano, Kasim & Nistler, 2004; Gano-Overway, Magyar, Kim, Newton, Fry, & Guivernau, 2009; Coalter, 2010). South Africa has seen an unprecedented number of organisations using sport-for-development (SfD) purposes. Many organisations included sport as a component of programmes in an effort to capitalise on the euphoria of South Africa winning the FIFA bid to host the 2010 Soccer World Cup. For organisations already doing SfD, this new environment provided a space where these organisations could finally flourish (Cornelissen, 2011).

International aid agencies have largely influenced the way organisations manage, monitor and evaluate programmes through the prescription of variations of the Logical Framework Models which have proved problematic in the developing world (Bornstein, 2006; Levermore, 2011). Past approaches to monitoring and evaluation (M&E) have primarily been quantitative in nature, derived from Logical Framework Approaches and mainly focussed on the evidence provided by programmes (Burnett & Hollander, 2007). However, there is an international trend to explore qualitative approaches to M&E in an effort to understand the lived experiences of those involved in the programmes and to increase the participation of communities in non-governmental organisation (NGO) accountability (Wickizer, Von Korff, Cheadle, Measer, Wagner, Pearson, Beery & Psaty, 1993). It is in this changing context that the study locates itself and aims to explore some of the M&E approaches and methods used by SfD organisations. The scope of the study is first to explore some of the programmes offered by SfD NGOs in some Cape Metropole schools, second, to explore the M&E approaches they use and locate these within broader epistemological approaches to programme M&E.

This chapter looks at the background to and rationale for the study, significance of the study, problem formulation, main research questions, research objectives, clarification of concepts, research design and methodology and the layout of the dissertation.

1.2 Background and rationale

The expansion of the civil society sector around the world has placed tremendous pressure on NGOs to build their management and organisational capacity in an effort to compete for funding and become accountable to stakeholders (Hailey, 2000). Many NGOs have had to develop their “managerial skills, adapt to new and unfamiliar managerial techniques and cope with rapid organisational change” (Hailey, 2000: 403). Existing management systems in many organisations are strained, lack the capacity to deal with increasing donor demands, leadership is weak which often results in staff confusion, blurred lines of authority and staff performing tasks outside of their scope of practice or expertise (Hailey, 2000). As a result of these management problems, some organisations are struggling to keep their doors open, while others have had to close.

The burden of proving the efficiency and effectiveness of NGOs, regardless of the field in which the organisation is operating, has become a vital aspect of NGO management in contemporary society (Molomo, 2006). The challenge increases when sport is used for addressing key socio-economic issues. It is no longer sufficient to measure the number of matches played and won or the number of lifeskills sessions attended. A holistic and integrated approach to programme M&E is necessary (National Council of Destination Organisations (NCDO), 2007; Chandan, Cambanis, Bhana, Boyce, Makoe, Mukoma & Phakati, 2008). It is in this context that this study aims to explore the M&E approaches used by NGOs offering SfD programmes in selected Cape Metropole schools.

There is a dearth of knowledge and research exploring the SfD and M&E relationship, particularly in South Africa (Levermore, 2008). This study specifically attempts to contribute to an understanding of the field of SfD and M&E.

1.3 Significance of the study

There has been no comprehensive audit of the NGO sector in South Africa since 1998. In 1998, there were over 38 000 non-profit organisations registered with the Department of Social Development (Department of Social Development, 2005; Patel, 2009). While the

number of NGOs has increased, there is no credible state data available on the number of SfD organisations operating in South Africa.

There is a shortage of studies conducted in the field of SfD, particularly regarding the M&E of programmes offered by NGOs (Burnett, 2001; Levermore, 2008). However, there is a growing knowledge base on NGO management and this knowledge base is influencing the way that NGOs adapt to the changing policy environment, funding climate and information technology and communication environment of the 21st century. NGOs have to develop management strategies and tools that formalize their work and professionalise their organisations or face losing funding and credibility (Molomo, 2006). The research aims to contribute to this increasing knowledge base. Specifically, this research aims to explore the approaches used by SfD NGOs to monitor and evaluate their programmes.

1.4 Research questions

- 1.4.1 What motivates sport-for-development NGOs to monitor and evaluate their efforts?
- 1.4.2 What are the perceptions that sport-for-development NGOs have about monitoring and evaluation?
- 1.4.3 In what ways are sport-for-development NGOs using epistemological evaluation approaches to monitor and evaluate their programmes?
- 1.4.4 What techniques and tools do sport-for-development NGOs use to conduct their monitoring and evaluation?
- 1.4.5 What is done with the outcomes of the monitoring and evaluation process?
- 1.4.6 What changes are needed in the current approaches to monitoring and evaluation?

1.5 Research objectives

- 1.5.1 To explore the motivation of sport-for-development NGOs to monitor and evaluate their efforts.
- 1.5.2 To explore the perceptions that sport-for-development NGOs have about monitoring and evaluation.

- 1.5.3 To explore the ways that sport-for-development NGOs are using epistemological approaches to monitor and evaluate their programmes.
- 1.5.4 To explore the techniques and tools that sport-for-development NGOs use to conduct their monitoring and evaluation.
- 1.5.5 To ascertain what sport-for-development NGOs do with the outcomes of the monitoring and evaluation process.
- 1.5.6 To explore the changes that are needed in the current approaches to monitoring and evaluation.

1.6 Clarification of concepts

- **Nonprofit organisation:** The Nonprofit Organisations Act of 1997 defines a nonprofit organisation as: a trust, company or other association of persons
 - (a) “established for a public purpose; and
 - (b) the income and property of which may not [be made] distributable to its members or office-bearers except as reasonable compensation for services rendered” (1997:2).
- **Youth:** the South Africa National Youth Policy 2009-2014 defines youth as any person between the ages of 14 and 35 years (The Presidency, 2009). Youth can also be defined as the period between childhood and maturity (De Witt &Booyesen, 1994). The definition used for youth in this study is of people in the age group of 12 to 20 years old. The rationale for the selection of this age group is that learners in South African schools are most likely to be in that age cohort (Jefthas & Artz, 2007).
- **Sport-for-development:** In this study, sport-for-development organisations are defined as organisations that educate and train people in addressing socio-economic and reproductive health issues using sport as a mechanism for attracting participants, with sport being a secondary objective of development

(Coalter, 2010). In this study the focus will fall on group sports such as soccer, rugby and cricket due to the inherent lifeskills in these group sporting codes.

- **Monitoring:** The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (1997) defines monitoring as the continuous tracking of performance against planned indicators by collecting and analysing data on the indicators established for monitoring and evaluation purposes. The process provides continuous information on whether progress is being made toward achieving results (outputs, outcomes, and goals) through record keeping and regular reporting systems. Monitoring looks at both programme processes and changes in conditions of target groups and institutions brought about by programme activities. Monitoring also identifies strengths and weaknesses in a programme and the performance information generated from monitoring enhances learning from experience and improves decision-making (UNDP, 1997). This study uses this definition for monitoring as it encompasses the cyclical nature of information gathering, analysis and feedback into programme implementation.
- **Evaluation:**“Evaluation is a periodic, in-depth analysis of programme performance and relies on data generated through monitoring activities and information obtained from other sources (e.g., studies, research, in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, surveys etc.) and is often (but not always) conducted with the assistance of external evaluators” (UNDP, 1997). This definition of evaluation is better suited to the purpose of the study as it includes data collection; methods used for data collection and include the roles of those involved in the evaluation process. Programme evaluation and evaluation are used interchangeably in this study to refer to the practice of evaluating programmes.
- **Life Orientation:** refers to the academic subject offered in both primary and high schools in South African, informed by the Revised National Curriculum Statement of 2002, which includes learning areas such as health promotion, lifeskills,

knowledge and values that are aimed at equipping learners to make informed decisions and prepare them for active citizenship (Department of Education, 2002).

- **Lifeskills:** is defined as the “skills necessary for successful living and learning, enabling people to participate fully in community development and holistic environmental living” (Rooth, 2002:27). This broad definition includes the important concept of empowered community participation and development as well as the health promotion components included in sport-for-development NGOs.

1.7 Research design and methodology

The study’s research design and methodology are outlined in chapter three.

1.8 Layout of report

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter introduces the background to and rationale for the study and locates the significance of the study in the broader movement of sport-for development and M&E. The research questions, objectives and clarification of concepts, research design and methodology are presented, as well as the layout of the report.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter outlines literature in the field of sport-for-development and youth development and presents developments and understandings of M&E. Epistemological approaches to M&E are provided as a framework for analysing data in the chapter 4. This chapter also provides a brief context for the study by setting out a summary of the NGOs, their programmes and the schools included in the research.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Chapter 3 presents the study’s methodology paying close attention to research design, sampling, data collection method, data analysis, data verification, the main ethical considerations, limitations of the study and a brief note on reflexivity.

Chapter 4: Findings

This chapter presents the findings of the research and their analysis.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations

Based on the findings of the research, Chapter 5 presents the main conclusions using the six broad objectives of the research and recommendations are offered for the consideration of practitioners and funders.

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CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

In the 1980s and 1990s most developing countries including South Africa saw an unprecedented growth in the number of NGOs as a result of an enabling policy and funding environment. These NGOs, often referred to as civil society organisations, focussed on addressing social issues, welfare and advancing country's developmental agendas (Banda, Lindsey, Jeanes & Kay, 2008). In South Africa and elsewhere in the world, as part of this growth, organisations were seeking innovations in incorporating youth into the national developmental agenda. In recent years, youth development organisations have shifted from didactic teaching interventions of lifeskills to include sport as an engine for youth development (Banda et al., 2008; Levermore, 2008).

Past approaches to programme monitoring and evaluation (M&E) have primarily used quantitative approaches, mainly focussed on the evidence provided by programmes with very little regard to how development is translated into the lives of people (Burnett & Hollander, 2007). The next section looks at the state of NGOs both internationally and in South Africa, the state of youth, history of SfD, theoretical frameworks and perspectives, development of M&E in SfD, the history of M&E followed by epistemological approaches to M&E, an integrated model of programme evaluation and programmes and school descriptions.

2.1 State of non-governmental-organisations

The only comprehensive attempt to take stock of the size and scope of the non-profit sector in South Africa was of a 1998 national non-profit survey (Swilling & Russell, 2002). The research identified 98,920 non-profit organisations (NPOs) with the majority (53%) being less formalised community-based organisations concentrated in poorer communities (Swilling & Russell, 2002; Kotze, 2004). The non-profit sector at the time employed 645,316 full time workers and in 1998 mobilised nearly 1.5 million volunteers (Swilling & Russell, 2002).

The growth of non-profit service organisations in South Africa, a sub-sector of the broader non-profit sector, has barely been studied. It is an important sector as community level organisations provide a range of HIV/AIDS related services and constitute a significantly scaled infrastructure for supporting community HIV prevention responses; albeit a sector

that may not be optimally equipped or sufficiently organised.

There has been a decrease in the number of registered NPOs since 1998 which can be attributed to NPOs defaulting on submitting their annual reports to the NPO Directorate, shut down due to lack of funding for programmes or changing their legal status. However, evidence from the Department of Social Development NPO database shows a steady increase from 49,826 registered organisations in 2007/08, to 76,175 by the end of March 2011 (Department of Social Development, 2011). This growth has been spurred by the opportunity for funding of HIV/AIDS activities, training of programme staff and volunteers and increased opportunities for career mobility in the development sector (Kelly, Rau & Stern, 2010). It is within this landscape that sport-for-development NGOs have emerged in South Africa.

Historically, South African politics played a vital role in shaping the evolution and functioning of NGOs. Colonialism and apartheid shaped the provision of welfare services by using paternalistic, residual and disempowering approaches to the delivery of services for beneficiaries (Habib & Taylor, 1999; Patel, 2005). Community dissatisfaction with paternalistic forms of welfare influenced the approaches adopted by NGOs, not only in the way they render services, but also how organisations engage with stakeholders in communities (Habib & Taylor, 1999).

Post 1994, South Africa adopted a developmental approach to welfare which influenced policy, impacted on NGO management and increased the need for accountability and transparency in service provision (Habib, 2005; Patel, 2005). The adoption of a developmental approach created a policy shift away from pathologising individuals within the context of a residual approach to welfare.. A developmental framework demanded an integrated, multi-sectorial, coordinated, collaborative and strength-based approach to service delivery where clients were at the centre of the developmental agenda (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997). In South Africa, the developmental approach recognised social service professions as having a major role to play in integrating economic development policies into welfare programmes so that they can directly benefit the poor and redress the inequalities of the past. As a result, the post-apartheid democratic state directed state funding of non-governmental organisations to interventions that targeted individuals,

groups and communities to improve human capacities and wellbeing (Patel, 2005).

In South Africa, service provision is offered through a partnership between government and NGOs. NGOs offer specialised services to communities and at times are the only services accessible to people in hard to reach areas (Gordenker & Weiss, 1997). The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) makes provision for collaboration of government and civil society through partnerships. The democratic government's adoption of a developmental approach to welfare provision facilitated a greater emphasis on collaboration and the equal distribution of state resources to partner organisations, and the synchronisation of both government and civil society efforts (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997). However, in practice, government often does not regard NGOs as equal partners, is often paternalistic towards organisations funded by government departments and government often dictates key priority areas (often without consulting NGOs) for interventions and then channels money in those directions. NGOs who receive government funding are still asked to focus their energies on meeting government priorities often to the detriment of programmes that target populations who do not fall within these prioritised focus areas.

The focus of this study is on NGOs because of their dominance in the SfD field. These SfD organisations offer selected and specialised programmes and services to communities, particularly youth in schools. The next section looks at some of the literature on the state of youth as a means to set the context in which NGOs offer their programmes.

2.2 State of youth

The United Nations (2007) defines youth as any person between the ages of 15 and 24 years. The South African National Youth Policy 2009-2014 (The Presidency, 2009) defines youth as any person between the ages of 14 and 35 years. Both definitions of youth are broad and within them are various age cohorts including adolescence, young adulthood and adulthood (Erikson, 1964). This broad grouping of youth has heterogeneous needs, each requiring special interventions. For the purposes of this study, the term youth is used to describe people within the age group of 12 to 20 years of age, who are still attending school.

The UN estimated that there were 157 million young people living in Sub-Saharan Africa in 2005 (United Nations, 2007). According to the October 1996 South African National Census, 16,1 million or 40% of the South African population were youth, i.e. people in the age

bracket 14 to 35 (Statistics South Africa, 2001). In 1996, South Africa had an overall youth unemployment rate of 40, 8% (Statistics South Africa, 2001). The following section looks at youth vulnerability in the context of changing economic, political and social environments.

South Africa's HIV prevalence peaks in the 15-24 year age group, with infections occurring disproportionately between sexes (Pettifor, Van der Stratena, Dunbara, Shiboskia & Padian, 2004; Pettifor, Rees, Kleinschmidt, Steffenson, MacPhail, Hlongwa-Madikizela, Vermaak & Padian, 2005; Harrison, Newell, Imrie & Hoddinott, 2010). Young women still bear the bulk of the HIV pandemic in comparison to their male counterparts (15.5% versus 4.8% prevalence) due to higher rates of sexual violence against young women, increased numbers of male sexual partners, age disparate relationships, inconsistent condom use, girls in transactional relationships and multiple concurrent relationships (Pettifor et al., 2004; Pettifor et al., 2005; Reddy, James, Sewpaul, Koopman, Funani, Sifunda, Josie, Masuka, Kambaranv & Omardien, 2010).

The Medical Research Council's 2008 South Africa Youth Risk Behaviour Survey (YRBS) found that 34% of learners reported that they had no physical education classes in schools, with a higher proportion of them reporting early sexual debut, smoking and drinking, experimenting with illegal substances and engaging in unprotected sex with multiple partners and some with older partners (Reddy et al., 2010).

South Africa also has the highest school violence in the world with township schools being the sites for increased youth crime, violence and substance abuse (Jefthas & Artz, 2007; Burton, 2008). Burton (2008) states that South African youth in schools have increasingly been exposed to risky behaviour. Seventy one point one percent (71.1%) of secondary school learners knew people within their communities who smoked dagga and 24% knew someone who used hard drugs such as crack cocaine, mandrax, tik and ecstasy in 2006/7 (Burton, 2008).

South African research conducted in all nine provinces in 2007 indicated that secondary school teachers reported that school children were coming to school drunk or under the influence of some illegal substances and that at times learners were freely bringing alcohol and drugs into the school premises (Burton, 2008). In this same study, learners also reported that teachers were sending them to nearby taverns to buy alcohol which was then

consumed during school time. Teachers and learners also reported that merchants were standing outside the schools or nearby freely hawking drugs to school children. School children, particularly girls, were susceptible to sexual violence perpetrated by teachers, peers and gangsters which increased their risk for HIV infection and teenage pregnancy.

Of relevance to the current study is the province of the Western Cape which has a youth population of approximately 39% of the overall population (Statistics South Africa, 2001). In 2007, Western Cape high schools experienced a level of 21.2% of thefts of personal effects; also high violence and crime within the school grounds, with substance abuse being on the increase and alcohol and cigarettes being the most popular substances among young people (Parry, Myers, Morojele, Flisher, Bhana, Donson & Pludderhann, 2004; Burton, 2008).

Adolescent substance abuse can negatively affect the individual, including increased risk to injury, psychosis and interpersonal conflict which may sometimes result in death, reduced academic performance and possibly school dropout (Parry et al., 2004). The other implications of substance abuse are that youth are likely to engage in risky sexual behaviour which increases their risk for teenage pregnancy and contracting sexually transmitted diseases such HIV/AIDS.

Easy access to legal and illegal substances, lack of recreational facilities, and lack of information about the effects of risky sexual behaviour among youth is evident and most apparent from the research cited in the section above. Youth development organisations often attempt to address these topical youth issues through behaviour change interventions. Effective implementation of Communication and Behaviour Change interventions are a public health and social development priority in South Africa and Africa. The following section takes a brief look at Social and Behaviour Change Communication as a prevention strategy targeting young people.

2.3 Social and Behaviour Change Communication (SBCC) as prevention

The field of prevention work by NGOs has grown over the past few decades with NGOs becoming key role players in the delivery of primary prevention programmes (Mercer, 1989). The field of prevention is broad and lies on a continuum ranging from primary, secondary and tertiary prevention. Primary prevention refers to efforts to intervene before a serious problem or illness develops, usually done through education and awareness raising

(Mercer, 1989).

Secondary prevention focuses on the reduction of the impact of a pathological condition that has developed and where possible the reversal of that condition. Historically, prevention has focused on the medical model of treating the pathology and thus educational programmes in schools have focused primarily on secondary prevention (Mercer, 1989). Methods of communication are often spoken of as methods of prevention. 'Peer education,' 'mass communication' or 'community mobilisation', are however, not in themselves prevention methods, but rather methods for introducing and promoting prevention.

SBCC as a prevention initiative worldwide has been aligned around a number of goals, most prominently the delay in young people having first intercourse; decreases in numbers of sexual partners; increases in numbers of sexual acts that are protected by condoms; individuals knowing their HIV status; adherence to biomedical strategies for preventing HIV transmission; decreases in sharing of needles and syringes; and decreases in substance use (Coates, Richter & Caceres, 2008). These goals have been pursued through a range of approaches and considerable innovation has occurred in different contexts.

A 2010 review shows that SBCC programmes aimed at achieving HIV prevention in South Africa have made some headway in contributing towards the uptake of HIV prevention behaviours, averting and/or delaying new HIV infections and saving the country future treatment costs (Scalway, 2010). The review shows that a generational shift is underway amongst young people in particular – a fact that was supported by the latest Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) survey which pointed out that the incidence of new HIV infections is decreasing amongst young people (Shisana, Rehle, Simbayi, Zuma, Jooste, Pillay-van-Wyk, Mbelle, Van Zyl, Parker, Zungu, Pezi & the SABSSM III implementation team, 2009). The evidence suggests that the more people are exposed to SBCC, the more likely they are to take up and practice HIV prevention.

SBCC cannot impact directly on HIV prevalence but rather impacts on the knowledge, action, beliefs and social practices which lead to behaviours that prevent new HIV infections.

It is important not to underestimate other influences on HIV prevention behaviour. The

world of SBCC is conducted in a broader social milieu that directly and indirectly impacts on HIV prevention behaviours, ranging from the attitudes of public figures, to cultural icons and soap operas. These may support or work against social and behaviour change programmes, and it has proved difficult to assess the contribution of campaigns in this context (Shisana et al., 2009; Reddy et al., 2010; Scalway, 2010). Also confounding communication programmes are naturally occurring changes in communities which result from exposure of people to the consequences of HIV/AIDS.

South African communication surveys indicate that young people mainly receive information via schools and media avenues such as television (Scott & Harrison, 2009; Shisana et al., 2009).

South African schools, prior to 1994, were used as the main avenues for delivering sexuality and health education (Reddy et al., 2010). However, the system was implemented inconsistently across different racial groups, there was a disproportionate allocation of resources to different departments of education and a lack of teacher training in the delivery of school-based health education. In addition, the unsystematic development of the health curriculum, inadequate implementation and a lack of evaluation plans, all of which contributed to poor quality and delivery of the programmes in South African schools (Reddy et al., 2010).

Currently, South African schools are still the primary source of sexuality and health promotion education for young people (Bhana, Brookes, Makiwane & Naidoo, 2005; Reddy et al., 2010). The school curriculum, based on the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS), includes Life Orientation (LO) which includes health promotion, lifeskills, knowledge and values that are aimed at equipping learners to make informed decisions (Department of Education, 2002; Van Deventer, 2008; Reddy et al., 2010; Francis, 2010). LO is meant to equip young people with skills that prepare them for positive citizenship, expose them to limited physical education and mitigate the impact of social problems. LO by its nature is knowledge/information-based and it fits into South Africa's broader SBCC strategy of HIV/AIDS prevention (Reddy et al., 2010).

Most schools have teachers dedicated to teaching LO. However there has been a recent trend to utilise NGOs (Van Deventer, 2008). Research done in the Western Cape, among LO

teachers, found that the majority of LO teachers were not fully qualified to teach LO which placed teachers in situations outside of their area of expertise, created stressful situations for them and raised questions around the teachers competence among learners (Van Deventer, 2008). In cases where teachers indicated that they were qualified to teach LO, their 'qualification' ranged from attending three-day HIV/AIDS courses, two-hour LO workshops, to being former guidance, religion or physical education teachers (Van Deventer, 2008). The lack of proper training, diminished teacher confidence and the changing school curriculum has implications for the nature and quality of potentially life-saving information being delivered to young people. It is in this context that NGOs offering sport-for-development programmes brought about a welcome relief to teachers and provided exciting mediums of learning for young people in schools.

2. 4 History of sport-for-development

There has been an international trend that has developed over the past 20 or so years to use sport for development agendas (Crawford, 2010). Sport was previously understood in its broadest sense as aimed at increasing the fitness of participants and has been related to sports psychology (Malebo, Van Eeden & Wissing, 2007). Sport also has a long history of being used to unify disparate groups and has roots in colonial times (Levermore, 2008). In recent years development initiatives have sought new ways to include youth development into broader developmental goals and find alternative means in which young people can be engaged in development, thus spurring the development of sport-for-development movements (Skinner et al., 2008; Banda et al., 2008).

There are those who see the movement as 'sports plus' and those who see it as 'plus sport'. 'Sport plus' is where sports are adapted and changed in order to maximise their potential to bring about some social change or development objective but ultimately the aim is still advancing sport (Coalter, 2010). 'Plus sport' is where sports is used as a mechanism for attracting young people to programmes that aim to educate and train them in addressing developmental issues, sport is a secondary objective of development (Coalter, 2010). It is the latter school of thought, plus sport, that is of interest in the current study. In this regard, sport due to its popularity, is used to advance and attract young people to educate and train them in prevention initiatives.

Levermore (2008) identifies a number of NGOs and other international organisations that have used sports in challenging injustices, creating awareness and education in social issues, increasing social cohesion and bringing about community empowerment. The organisations identified include The Homeless World Cup, Streetfootballworld, Sports Sans Frontieres and Nike's Yes to Soccer (Levermore, 2008).

The development of SfD in schools flourished in the 1990s in Africa with such organisations as Edusport Foundation, Zambia (1999), EMIMA, Tanzania (2001) and the South African based Kicking Aids Out Network (2001) (Coalter, 2010) are leading the movement. In South Africa, Sport Coaches Outreach (SCORE) was one of the prominent organisations that developed school-sport and community development initiatives using international and local volunteers in the 1990s (Coalter, 2010).

Increasingly over the last decade, nation states, aid agencies and grassroots movements worldwide have begun to proclaim the merit of sport in advancing development agendas which surpass its value on the playing field. In 2002, the United Nations (UN) established an Inter-Agency Task Force on SfD and Peace and passed Resolution 58/5 called "Sport as a means to promote education, health, development and peace" (United Nations, 2003a). Subsequent to this, several high-end meetings and conferences have been held where governments and international aid agencies have signed declarations on their commitment to sport-for-development, which was marked by 2005 being named the International Year of Sport and Physical Education (Burnett, 2010; Coalter, 2010). This landmark event marked international recognition for the potential of sport as part of social policy and the potential for it to improve the quality of people's lives.

Jeanes (2011) examines a Zambian NGO's HIV/AIDS and health education peer-led programme aimed at reducing infection rates among young people. The programme uses sports activities and HIV/AIDS education amongst a broad range of other life skills information. Young leaders are taken on training camps and on returning to their communities establish regular activities and competitive sports opportunities and use sport and education sessions to impart health knowledge (Jeanes, 2011). Research conducted in Zambia reveals that recent SfD programmes that aim to achieve behaviour change among young people need to involve and empower young people in taking ownership of

programmes that aim to address youth issues so as to engender a sense of ownership and behaviour change (Jeanes, 2011).

There has been an exponential growth in the number of South African SfD organisations delivering programmes in schools with some NGOs offering behavioural-lifeskills programmes through sport codes such as soccer, basketball, netball, rugby, cricket and other types of sports. NGOs have used sport-for-development programmes to build the resilience of youth to issues such as HIV/AIDS, substance abuse, risky sexual behaviour and teenage pregnancies, amongst others (Springer et al., 2004; Coalter, 2010).

The post-apartheid South African government, similar to some of its African counterparts, adopted SfD programmes as a contribution to meeting the UN's Millennium Development Goals (MDG) of poverty eradication, employment creation and development (Burnett, 2001). Below is an example of South Africa's mass participation SfD Siyadlala programme.

2.4.1 A South African example

In South Africa, the use of sports to promote a social development agenda dates back to apartheid era when African communities used sport to lobby for peaceful resolution to the political dispensation in the country (Cornelissen, 2011). Even when South Africa hosted the 1995 Rugby World Cup, various organisations and government departments attempted to use sport as a nation building initiative and with this spurred interest in the merits of sports for a social development agenda. An enabling environment was created for sport-for-development organisations to flourish (Cornelissen, 2011).

The post-apartheid South African government "imported sports and development programmes from England and Australia to facilitate the development of a broad participation base as a potential pool of sporting talent" (Burnett, 2001:3). The South African government, through the Department of Sport and Recreation, introduced a Mass Participation Programme called Siyadlala as a way to get the nation to be physically active and to provide sporting hubs to some previously disadvantaged communities while addressing high levels of crime, teenage pregnancy and youth unemployment (Burnett, 2001). Siyadlala included mainly five sporting codes, namely, soccer, rugby, cricket, netball and basketball with other codes not being as popular in black communities.

The main focus of Siyadlala, through the partnership of Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) and the Department of Basic Education, was to discover sporting talent amongst the youth while using sports as a vehicle to achieve social and human development (Burnett, 2001). Unfortunately maladministration a variety of other problems led to the suspension of this programme in 2007 (Burnett & Hollander, 2007)

Subsequent to the implementation of the Siyadlala Programme, South Africa won the bid to host the 2010 Soccer World Cup (Sport and Recreation South Africa, 2008; Burnett, 2010). With South Africa preparing to host the 2010 Soccer World Cup, international agencies saw this as an opportunity to advance SfD programmes in South Africa as well as other African countries thus propelling the growth of the sector.

Several NGOs adopted sports as a vehicle for development, with the added benefit of addressing sexual and reproductive health issues among youth. In 2007, Youth Development through Football (YDF) was established by Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) in South Africa with the aim of promoting education and capacity building of young people from economically disadvantaged communities utilising the popularity of soccer (football) and to form part of the Legacy Programme in commemoration of the Federation Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) 2010 Soccer World Cup (Burnett, 2010).

The South African Soccer World Cup in 2010 had a mushrooming effect on the number of NGOs offering sport, particularly soccer, as part of key programme areas. Some programmes were small-scale and conceived around the occasion of the World Cup, but for SfD organisations, this was their opportunity to shine (Cornelissen, 2011; Levermore, 2011).

It is important to make a distinction between conventional lifeskills programmes and SfD programmes so as to show how SfD programmes differ from conventional lifeskills programmes. Table 1 tabulates the differences and similarities of conventional lifeskills and sport-for-development programmes.

VARIABLE	CONVENTIONAL LIFESKILLS PROGRAMMES	SPORT-FOR-DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES
Delivery approach	Use standard classroom approach to intervention/ workshop based approaches. May provide physical safety within the classroom venue.	Exposure to the outdoors and physical activity generates interest in young people. The sports programmes provide a safe haven physically and emotionally.
	Facilitator adopts the role of teacher within the standard classroom approach to intervention setting.	Sport-for-development programmes provide clear rules, expectations, officials and sports organisers.
Content	Content of standard classroom approach to intervention is prescriptive and academic. Lesson content is usually generic and is not sensitive to the cultural or socio-economic context of youth.	Content is tailored and broken up between physical activity and learning. Sports based youth development programmes are sensitive to the cultural context surrounding the programme.
	Recognition is established through marks and academic performance.	Sports provide opportunities for recognition and acknowledgment for the contribution of each member to the team.
	Content is knowledge-based and assessed using knowledge-based tests and or exams. The end goal is getting the highest marks.	How youth become engaged in sports is more important for their development than whether they win.
	Limited numbers of participants based on venue size and facilitator's ability to manage the group.	Limited numbers based on team size.
Fostering relationships	Levels of literacy, or lack thereof, may leave some learners isolated and unable to participate in the workshops.	Sports programmes have caring and supportive adults involved in the programmes activities and events. The activities and events provide an opportunity for adult and youth to establish trusted connections.
Belonging	Limited sense of belonging for young people. The sometimes rigid and high expectations of achievements lead some young people to isolation and feelings of inadequacy.	Programmes provide an opportunity for young people to belong to positive peer groups. Positive social norms are developed through daily interactions and the promotion of good sportsmanship.

VARIABLE	CONVENTIONAL LIFESKILLS PROGRAMMES	SPORT-FOR-DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES
Skills building	The expectation of increased knowledge to the neglect of other competencies results in uneven development.	Opportunities for skills are created building the competencies of young people through the activities and team-building experiences.
Ways of learning	Little to no acknowledgement for the strengths and assets of youth.	Programmes are strength-based because they draw on individual strengths and assets to develop new skills or refine existing skills.
	Only stimulates the thinking abilities of the young person, to the exclusion of the physical and psychosocial.	Effective and successful programmes are ecological and holistic and address multiple facets of the physical and social environments of the young person.
	There may be limited opportunities for active learning and reflection within the standard classroom approach.	Provide interactive learning and reflective learning opportunities that engage different learning styles.
Stakeholder involvement	Limited to no involvement of key partners such as parents and communities.	The sports programme coordinates its efforts and communicates regularly with families and schools to ensure similar norms and expectations across settings.

TABLE 1: A comparison of conventional lifeskills and sport-for-development programmes. Table adapted from Perkins & Noam (2007).

Table 1 illustrates the differences between conventional lifeskills programmes and sport-for-development programmes. Conventional lifeskills programmes are standard classroom approaches or workshop-based interventions focused on the increase of knowledge on topics such as HIV/AIDS prevention, teenage pregnancy prevention, substance abuse prevention, crime prevention and employment creation initiatives amongst a variety of other social and sexual reproductive health issues (Gano-Overway et al., 2009). The programme participants are passive receivers of information, usually delivered by someone in a position of authority.

SfD programmes use sport as a hook to attract young people, deliberately use sport moves as metaphors for lifeskills education and encourage teamwork and socialising skills beyond the team (Perkins & Noam, 2007; Coalter, 2011). Young people are actively engaged in the process through the game and the facilitator/coach's role is to facilitate conversation and provide accurate information where necessary (Coalter, 2011).

The following section looks at theoretical frameworks and perspectives in SfD programmes.

2.5 Theoretical frameworks and perspectives

For purposes of this study three theoretical frameworks and perspectives are discussed, namely: social justice perspective, diffusion of innovation theory and social exclusion. The outlined theoretical frameworks inform some of the key values of youth development and SfD.

2.5.1 Social Justice Perspective

A Social Justice perspective advocates for public policy and legislation changes for the benefit of those who are suffering as a result of unjust or irregular policies and laws (Patel, 2005; Potgieter, 2006).

NGOs that are involved in youth development, advocate for the advancement and holistic development of young people, utilise the social justice perspective. South Africa has a large youth population that is marginalised and lacks access to information and resources (Patel, 2005). NGOs engaged in this type of work advocate for development that empowers participants, for changes in legislative frameworks that hinder young people from accessing their basic human rights and they challenge other organisations perpetuating oppressive

practices that drive young people deeper into poverty (Homan, 2004; Muspratt-Williams, 2009). SfD organisations undertake advocacy and address social policy issues that often marginalise young people from participating in development agendas.

2.5.2 Diffusion of innovation theory

The diffusion of innovation theory attempts to explain the transmission of ideas, practices and objects among groups of people using community leaders as vectors of communication and role models for the desired behaviour change (Bertrand, 2004). Diffusion of innovation has the following elements: an innovation, communication via certain channels, over a period of time, to members of a social system (Rogers, 2003). The innovation refers to an idea, practice or object that is perceived to be new. Communication channels refers to the means by which communication is transmitted from one person to the other and the person communicating the innovation is known as an Opinion Leader (Rogers, 2003). Opinion Leaders are people who are respected, knowledgeable and display the desired behaviour (Rogers, 2003; Bertrand, 2004; Dearing, 2009). SfD organisations attempt to diffuse messages about HIV/AIDS, teenage pregnancy, substance abuse and other topical youth issues through community role models to transmit the innovations and the process occurs over a period of time.

2.5.3 Social exclusion

Social exclusion combines various forms of exclusive which marginalise some groups from participating in decision-making, political processes, employment opportunities and cultural processes (Levitas, Pantazil, Fahmy, Gordon, Loyd & Patsios, 2007). Social exclusion thrives on the rejecting, isolating and further entrenching segregation of certain groups (Taket, Crisp, Nevill, Lamaro, Graham & Barter-Godfrey, 2009). Organisations that address social exclusion advocate for the inclusion of marginalised groups into vital process that they would not otherwise have access to. SfD programmes aim to include young people who are often marginalised from mainstream benefits, in socio-economic development. The following section looks at developments in M&E of sport-for-development programmes.

2.6 Developments in M&E of sport-for-development programmes

There is a dearth of knowledge and research exploring the SfD and M&E relationship. Academic literature seems to have ignored the increased use of sports to 'initiate, facilitate

and further development goals' (Levermore, 2008:189). Sports and sports policies which aim to reduce crime and substance abuse among young people often "reflect a particular ideological position based on an uncritical and one-sided perception of sport, rather than an orientation towards furthering our understanding of the social problems they are designed to address" (Smith & Waddington, 2004:17).

In 2005, UNICEF hosted an international workshop where key role players in the field of sports-for-development were present. At the conference, the Sport in Development Impact Assessment Tool (S*DIAT) was developed and presented (Burnett & Hollander, 2007). The S*DIAT was supposedly a multi-dimensional and context sensitive tool which could be used to monitor and evaluate programmes through "measuring" change from baseline data based on thirteen indicators. The thirteen indicator fields were divided into two broad bands, six indicators for programme management and delivery, and seven indicators for human and community development. The development of the S*DIAT was a commendable first effort to attempt provide a comprehensive M&E tool for SfD organisations. However, many grassroots organisations have not taken up this tool as it is complex, labour and resource intensive and requires sophisticated skills and capacity often lacking in organisations in developing countries; similar to those included in the study.

The 2007 World Bank Report (World Bank, 2007) on the state of SfD programmes "noted that the use of sports for development was an emerging and promising field" which needed closer attention when it comes to monitoring and evaluation (Levermore, 2008:189).

The next section looks at the history of monitoring and evaluation, M&E in practice and challenges of M&E in sport-for-development.

2.6.1 History of M&E

Relationships between international aid agencies and non-governmental organisations have become "increasingly shaped by procedural systems to assure that international funds do not go astray and that they have a developmental impact" (Bornstein, 2006:52).

Widespread corruption and mismanagement of funding have largely led the drive, by funders, for rigorous project management and calls for accountability systems with the result being the adoption of stringent approaches to planning, monitoring and evaluation that tightly links inputs to project outcomes (Bornstein, 2006). It is in this context that the

Logical Framework Approach (LFA) and variants have emerged in an effort to increase management accountability, fiscal responsibility and better tracking of programme implementation (Bornstein, 2006; Levermore, 2011).

However, the utilisation of LFAs has been plagued with inconsistent implementation, misunderstandings on how to implement the LFAs, dishonesty by NGOs in reporting project outcomes and inputs without taking into consideration the unexpected effects due to fear of losing funding, fear of not meeting targets and being inadequately skilled (Bornstein, 2006). NGOs and aid agencies have sought new ways to conduct their M&E and thus increase accountability. This study explores the approaches and tools to M&E for SfD programmes.

Monitoring and evaluation have become buzz words in the development arena. The focus of M&E has been on evidence-based work done by institutions that are funded for specific programmes. M&E is a “recognised management practice that allows for learning and change when implemented regularly” (Holte-McKenzie, Forde & Theobald, 2006:365).

Monitoring and evaluation are complementary components of programme management and play a major role in making sure that NGO management are accountable, inform decision-making and broadly facilitate learning (NCDO, 2007; Network for Sport & Development (NSD), 2009).

Monitoring and evaluation are management tools that enable managers to track programme efficiency and effectiveness (UNDP, 1997). This section looks briefly at a few definitions of monitoring and evaluation and also the tools and techniques used for programme M&E.

2.6.2 Monitoring

Monitoring has an “internally focused, management-driven emphasis on the efficiency of the project, while evaluation primarily has an externally focussed, stakeholder-driven emphasis on the effectiveness of the project” (Crawford & Bryce, 2003: 366). This means that organisational management is focused on doing things right (efficiency) and also doing the right thing (effectiveness) when they embark on monitoring and evaluation of programmes (Crawford & Bryce, 2003).

Crawford & Bryce (2003) note that monitoring is an ongoing process of gathering, capturing and analysing data for the purpose of controlling the process of programme implementation. This definition of monitoring is lacking, however, as it does not indicate how information is gathered, used and who the role players in the process are.

The UNDP (1997) offers a comprehensive definition of monitoring:

“Monitoring continuously tracks performance against what was planned by collecting and analysing data on the indicators established for monitoring and evaluation purposes. It provides continuous information on whether progress is being made toward achieving results (outputs, outcomes, and goals) through record keeping and regular reporting systems. Monitoring looks at both programme processes and changes in conditions of target groups and institutions brought about by programme activities. It also identifies strengths and weaknesses in a programme. The performance information generated from monitoring enhances learning from experience and improves decision-making” (UNDP, 1997:3).

The UNDP’s definition of monitoring emphasizes the cyclical nature of information gathering, feedback into the plan, action taken with regard to information and the learning experience obtained from the process. This study will use the UNDP’s definition to attempt to answer one of the research objectives, namely how NGOs utilize the information gathered from their monitoring and evaluation efforts.

2.6.3 Evaluation

Linked to programme monitoring is programme evaluation. There are mainly two types of evaluations conducted by organisations, namely formative and summative evaluations.

Formative evaluations are similar to monitoring and are mainly concerned with the improvement of a programme against the set objectives and outcomes (De Vos, 2005). This type of evaluation takes place while the programme is underway and helps to improve at the points where the programme is not meeting the initially conceived criteria. It is a corrective measure for programme staff to use to align programme implementation to the set intended outcomes.

Summative evaluations are usually performed at the end of the programme implementation and usually commissioned by programme funders. The overall purpose of this type of

evaluation is to assess whether the programme should continue or be discontinued (De Vos, 2005).

These types of evaluations, including formative evaluations, are usually undertaken for three broad reasons: “(a) to render judgment, (b) to facilitate improvement, and (c) to generate knowledge. These reasons are not mutually exclusive and an evaluation may be undertaken to serve all three purposes” (Anderson, Miles, Mahoney & Robinson, 2002:435).

Programme “evaluation is a periodic, in-depth analysis of programme performance. It relies on data generated through monitoring activities as well as information obtained from other sources (e.g., studies, research, in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, surveys etc.). Evaluations are often (but not always) conducted with the assistance of external evaluators” (UNDP, 1997:3). This definition captures both the analysis of programme performance and some of the tools and techniques to gather the information. There are as many ways to conduct M&E as there are definitions. There are qualitative and quantitative approaches that can be used to conduct programme M&E. Some qualitative tools and techniques include face-to-face interviews and focus groups (Ife, 2002).

Quantitative tools and techniques include questionnaires (telephonic, postal and self-administered), secondary data analysis and surveys (Ife, 2002). One of the key objectives of the study is to explore the tools and techniques used to conduct the monitoring and evaluation.

2. 6.4 Challenges in M&E in sport-for-development

There are some challenges that Sfd programmes present in terms of monitoring and evaluation. These are as follows:

- Assessing whether there has been a significant behaviour and lifestyle change as a result of the programme is often a challenge. It is easier to monitor the success of sports as an individual component (e.g. number of matches won) and lifeskills (knowledge-based tests) (NCDO, 2007; Chandan et al., 2008). However, the challenge is presented when one has to monitor and evaluate the outcomes of the combined components of sports and lifeskills as most organisations have not developed tools that measure both (Chandan et al., 2008; Coalter, 2010).

- Similarly, organisations struggle to measure or show that their programmes have changed behaviour and attitudes. Organisations often capture attendance and test knowledge of programme participants using pre- and post- test questionnaires or other knowledge-based ways.
- “M&E is generally associated with annual reports, fundraising applications, and donor reports. Instead of being perceived as a valuable tool, which can help the organisations achieve their objectives, M&E is generally associated with meeting donor requirements by providing piles of quantitative documentation” (NSD,2009:6). Organisations tend to focus on quantitative outputs of the programme and will not look to understand and evaluate the impact that the programme is having on reducing teenage pregnancy, HIV awareness or substance abuse prevention.

The length of the programme, lack of tools to assess both sport and lifeskills and donor needs in the process further compound the challenges that NGOs already face in M&E for SfD programmes. These challenges are compounded when organisations are under-resourced and lack capacity to conduct M&E. The next section outlines some epistemological approaches to M&E.

2.7 Epistemological approaches to monitoring and evaluation

In South Africa, programme M&E mainly developed since the 1980s lagging behind developed nations who started M&E programmes in the 1960s under the Kennedy and Johnson administrations in North America (Rossi, Lipsey & Freeman, 2004 as cited in De Vos, 2005; Potter, 2006). In the 1970', Britain followed the American trend of M&E. The need to monitor and evaluate social programmes has largely been driven by donors' and the publics' need to know whether social interventions are making the desired impact (Potter, 1999; Potter, 2006).

M&E has become a vital part of motivating for sustained programme implementation and ultimately for funding. Programme impact, more so than in the past, is being valued in quantitative measures and for some NGOs, this is proving to be a problem due to organisational stage of development, level of expertise in the organisation and resources to undertake the research (De Vos, 2005). NGOs use a variety of approaches to monitor and

evaluate the progress and impact of programmes (Potter, 2006; Hassin, 2009). The approaches used vary from qualitative to quantitative approaches and often form part of programme design (De Vos, 2005).

There are various epistemological approaches to research and the three dominant ones, namely positivist, interpretive and critical-emancipatory, are outlined within the context of programme evaluation as discussed in previous sections (Potter, 2006).

2.7.1. Positivist approach to programme evaluation

A positivist approach to programme evaluation is based on the scope of the social programmes that can be objectively observed and tested through scientifically designed and standardized tools (De Vos, Schulze & Patel, 2005; Potter, 2006; Babbie & Mouton, 2006). The positivist approach to programme evaluation uses a variety of methodologies and procedures administered through a systematic framework and has multiple stages depending on the phase of the development of the programme being evaluated (Potter, 2006).

There are three forms of evaluation usually associated with or used as part of the positivist approach:

- Firstly, a **needs assessment** is usually conducted through surveys or a situational analysis to determine a particular need requiring intervention.
- Secondly, **programme planning** focuses on the conceptualization, setting of goals and objectives and the assessment of the feasibility of the programme plans.
- Thirdly, **formative evaluation** focuses on the process of programme implementation and involves the monitoring of the programme to track the progress of the programme.

In practice, positivist programme evaluation is usually commissioned to assess programme efficiency and effectiveness according to predetermined objectives and requires evidence of a quantitative nature (Potter, 2006). Potter (1999: 209) states “programme evaluation research is about establishing whether social programmes are needed, effective and likely to be used”.

2.7.2 Interpretive approach to programme evaluation

The interpretive evaluation approach to programme evaluation draws on the traditions of participant observation, case studies, qualitative interviewing and analysis, which are qualitative in nature (Potter, 2006).

Interpretive approaches differ from positivist approaches because they require prolonged engagement in the programme in an effort to understand the meanings attributed to the social problems and the programmes designed by organisations (Potter, 2006).

The assumption is that the stakeholders are involved in the programme and therefore form a crucial part of the investigation process (Potter, 2006). Programme stakeholders are the people concerned with the implementation of the programme, and the direct and indirect beneficiaries of the programme such as, programme participants and community members.

In practice, the role of the evaluator becomes that of facilitator and the stakeholders are the main evaluators of the impact and effectiveness of the programme (Potter, 2006).

2.7.3 Critical-emancipatory approach to programme evaluation

A critical-emancipatory approach to programme evaluation differs from the positivist approach, which emphasizes objectivity and the exclusion of personal values (Potter, 2006).

Unlike the positivist and interpretive approaches, the critical-emancipatory approach starts off from the belief that society is flawed and attempts to change the status quo; to transform the power relations in society. Critical-emancipatory evaluation research is thus action-oriented and works to transform the social order (Potter, 2006).

The methodologies used to facilitate the process of reflection, or praxis, are facilitated by the evaluator who encourages participatory empowerment of stakeholders (Potter, 2006).

In the positivist and interpretative approaches to programme evaluation, donor agencies and organisation management usually drive the evaluation process often to the exclusion of the stakeholders. The critical-emancipatory research approach emphasises changes in social relationships and involves the stakeholders' valuable contribution to the evaluation process.

In sum, there are three dominant epistemological approaches to evaluation. This study aims to establish which of the epistemological approaches, if any, NGOs use to monitor and

evaluate their programmes. The following section looks at an integrated model of programme evaluation. In my opinion, the phases presented in the model can be approached using any of the aforementioned epistemological approaches.

2.8 Integrated model of programme evaluation

De Vos (2005) present an integrated model of programme evaluation, comprising seven phases. Although the model is presented in a linear manner for illustration purposes, the process is by no means linear in that organisations may use one or more the steps to assess programmes. The phases are as follows:

Phase 1: needs assessment

The needs assessment phase focuses on identifying the social problem or needs involved, assessing the extent of the problem, specifying the target population to be reached by the intervention, and establishing the incidence and prevalence of the social problem (De Vos, 2005). Qualitative and/or quantitative approaches can be used to conduct the needs assessment process (De Vos, 2005).

Phase 2: evaluability assessment

Evaluability assessment attempts to assess whether a programme is ready for evaluation (De Vos, 2005). Engagement with stakeholders, policy makers and service providers is required to gather data using qualitative and/or quantitative approaches.

Evaluability assessments strive to establish the areas that can indeed be evaluated, the approach to be used and the key informants to take part in the later evaluation process (De Vos, 2005).

Phase 3: programme monitoring

Programme monitoring seeks to track the progress of the programme implemented by looking at whether the programme is reaching the appropriate target population for whom the programme is designed, whether service delivery is consistent with specifications as outlined in the initial plan and what resources are being or have been expended in conducting the programme. Resources invested in programmes may include human resources, intellectual capital, buildings, money and time (De Vos, 2005).

The above phases bear similarities to the definition of monitoring presented in section 2.6.2 which highlights the continual tracking of the programme against the initial plan, capturing data to ensure that programmes are on track or that changes are made where necessary. Programme monitoring is of particular interest here as it forms one of the main objectives of the study which aims to explore approaches to programme monitoring employed by NGOs.

Phase 4: impact evaluation

Impact evaluation(s) are designed to determine what effect, if any, the programme has had on the target population, whether the intended outcomes have been met and whether, perhaps, there are important unintended effects (De Vos, 2005).

Impact evaluation includes evaluating individualised outcomes based on matching the individual and collective programme services and treatments to the specific needs of clients (De Vos, 2005).

Although similar to the definition of evaluation presented previously in section 2.6.3, the description of impact evaluation is not as comprehensive and merely measures the effect of the programme at a single point in time. One of the aims of this study is to explore NGOs' approaches to programme evaluation.

Phase 5: efficiency assessment

Efficiency evaluation is a broad term used to include both cost-benefit and cost-effective analyses (De Vos, 2005).

Cost-benefit analysis requires that the benefits of a programme be costed both in tangible and intangible estimates for undertaking the programme. Once the benefits and costs are specified, then the costs are translated into a common measure which is usually a monetary value (De Vos, 2005).

Cost-effectiveness evaluates outcomes as expressed in their economic terms to see whether the programme was effective in utilizing financial resources as was planned in the initial design (De Vos, 2005).

Phase 6: utilization/implementation

Utilization/implementation evaluation is usually undertaken while the programme is being implemented, to assess whether the programme is running on schedule, the types of services provided to clients, work performed by staff members, experiences of people in the programme and the organisation of the programme (De Vos, 2005).

This type of evaluation allows decision-makers to be informed about the progress of the programme and to motivate for any deviations from original programme implementation (De Vos, 2005). This phase is similar to programme monitoring and formative evaluation as it is concerned with tracking programme developments while the programme is underway.

Phase 7: empowerment evaluation

Empowerment evaluation is defined as the use of “evaluation concepts, techniques and findings to foster improvement and self-determination” (De Vos, 2005: 386).

Empowerment evaluation uses both qualitative and quantitative methodologies, and fosters a collaborative activity as opposed to individual pursuit, which excludes, and does not empower the majority of the key actors (De Vos, 2005).

The role of the facilitator is to train and coach the participants in planning, programme design and evaluation with the purpose of empowering and liberating them (De Vos, 2005). Empowerment is measured through the number of people participating in processes that change their lives, structures and programme dynamics. It is important to present this integrated model of programme evaluation for the purpose of understanding the scope of programme evaluation.

In sum, SfD is a new and emerging field which has the potential for advancing various development issues. Sport is also an innovative way to engage young people in development while addressing topical youth issues. There are several approaches to programme monitoring and evaluation which can help inform SfD approaches to M&E. In South Africa, programme M&E is a fairly new practice, especially in SfD. This directly impacts on the field of practice, the necessary skills for implementation and the capacity of organisations who have to account to funders on the outcomes of M&E.

2.9 Programmes and school descriptions

This section sets the context of the study by providing a brief summary of the ten NGOs included in the sample of the current study, their programmes, the schools and includes information on the research participants. Some NGOs provided programmes that were in modules in a manual format, while others offered lifeskills in an organic manner with key messages for each lifeskills, the lifeskills were addressed through health education and community awareness raising using sport as an entry point.

To maintain confidentiality and anonymity, organisations, programmes and schools are given numerical markers. These numerical markers correspond with the markers presented in the findings chapter. Data for this section was gathered from organisation source documents, NGO websites and the Western Cape Department of Basic Education website for school data derived from the 2011 annual school survey.

The age cohorts included in the school demographic data is not necessarily indicative of the population reached by the programme but merely presents the age range of the learners in the school. This study focused on programmes targeting learners in the age bracket 12 to 20 years and attending school.

NGO					SCHOOL			
	Geographical area	Programme description	Interview participant	Type	School location	Age bracket of learners	No. Of learners in school	Interview participant
Organisation 1	National	Is a school-based HIV prevention programme using sport as an entry point. The programme is delivered during Life Orientation (LO) classes and implemented by volunteer peer-educators trained in the curriculum.	Female programme coordinator	High school	Delft	14-19 years	962	Female LO teacher
Organisation 2	Three provinces	The programme uses soccer to deliver lifeskills in violence reduction, health promotion through diet, HIV prevention, personal and environmental hygiene. It is offered during and after school in disadvantaged communities and is implemented by school teachers and unemployed community members.	Male programme coordinator	Intermediate	Khayelitsha	6-17 years	989	Male LO teacher
Organisation 3	Western Cape	Offered either at schools or at the organisation's community centre and focuses on HIV prevention, teenage pregnancy and child abuse prevention and is implemented by the organisation's volunteers and staff.	Female programme coordinator	High school	Mfuleni	12-20 years	1347	Female LO teacher
Organisation 4	Four provinces	This is an HIV prevention programme and is implemented by volunteers trained in delivering the nine module curriculum in high schools, primary schools and community centres.	Male programme coordinator	Primary school	Philipi	6-16 years	1044	Male LO teacher
Organisation 5	Western Cape	The programme targets young girls but does not exclude boys. The programme has seven stages, namely: self-esteem, sense of humour, empathy/Ubuntu, responsibility, focus, integrity and self-awareness and is implemented by peer-educators and volunteer coaches.	Female programme coordinator	Primary school	Nyanga	6-16 years	888	Male LO teacher
Organisation 6	Western Cape	Offered to schools in Lavender Hill and uses a manual developed by a funding network called Youth Development through Football (YDF). The lifeskills manual focuses on HIV prevention, teenage pregnancy, substance abuse	Male programme coordinator	Primary school	Lavender Hill	6-15 years	984	Male teacher

		prevention, crime reduction and awareness through football. The programme is implemented by community volunteers.						
	Geographical area	Programme description	Interview participant	Type	School location	Age bracket of learners	No. Of learners in school	Interview participant
Organisation 7	Western Cape	Offered to schools and focuses on HIV prevention, delaying sexual debut, preventing Sexually Transmitted Illnesses and reducing teenage pregnancy through soccer. The programme is implemented by church staff and community volunteers	Male programme coordinator	High school	Khayelitsha	16-20 years	1077	Female LO teacher
Organisation 8	Western Cape	In partnership with a performing arts organisation, a rugby and health education programme is provided to learners in schools. The programme is implemented by the organisation's staff.	Male programme coordinator	Primary school	Elsiesriver	5-15 years	363	Male teacher
Organisation 9	Western Cape	The programme uses the YDF toolkit manual with youth in schools in Langa. It is implemented by the organisation's volunteers and peer educators.	Male programme coordinator	Intermediate	Langa	5-17 years	1506	Male teacher
Organisation 10	Western Cape	This programme is offered to learners in schools and uses partnerships between wealthier schools and disadvantaged schools to tackle bullying, build teamwork among learners, reduce substance abuse, reduce crime and gangsterism through rugby. The programme is implemented by volunteers and NGO staff.	Male programme coordinator	Primary school	Bonteheuwel	5-15 years	841	Male teacher

Table 2: Summary of participating NGOs and schools.

In sum, this chapter outlined literature and research related to NGOs, M&E and sport-for-development. Theoretical approaches were presented as well as epistemological approaches to M&E. This chapter also provided a brief context for the study by giving an outline of the NGOs, their programmes as well as the schools included in the study.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodology of the study. The chapter starts with the research design, sampling, then goes on to the data collection, the pilot study, data analysis and data verification. This is followed by a section on the main ethical considerations, the limitations of the methodology and a brief section on reflexivity.

3.2 Research design

Research design can be defined as the framework that directs the research by outlining the plan for how data will be collected and analysed. Research design can be described as a plan or a blueprint of how the researcher intends to conduct the research to answer the research questions (Babbie & Mouton, 2006). It can be a qualitative and/or a quantitative research design (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999; Fouche, 2005; Babbie & Mouton, 2006). This research was informed by a qualitative research approach.

A qualitative research design attempts to define and understand social phenomena from the “insider perspective” by attempting to capture the experiences or perceptions that people attach to everyday social phenomena (Fouche, 2005; Babbie & Mouton, 2006).

The researcher attempted to understand the meaning and perceptions that programme staff and school teachers attached to the notion of programme M&E. For this purpose, a qualitative research design was most appropriate.

This was an explorative study of the M&E practices of SfD organisations from the perspective of programme staff and schoolteachers. Exploratory research studies focus on areas that have not been studied, in which the researcher wants to develop initial ideas and/or to focus the research question. Exploratory research studies allow researchers the flexibility to probe the lived experiences and perceptions of people in their natural environment (Babbie & Mouton, 2006).

This study was applied research as it aimed at examining a specific set of circumstances with the goal of contributing to an understanding of the SfD field. Applied research examines sets of circumstances, and the ultimate goal is relating the results to particular situations in the real world (Stanovich, 2007). Inductive reasoning will be used to analyse the data. Inductive

reason, or induction, draws conclusions from observation of specific instances or occurrences about classes or events (Delpont & De Vos, 2005).

As was shown in the literature review, there is a dearth of literature and research on SfD organisations and how they monitor and evaluate programmes; thus this study aimed to contribute to an understanding in this regard.

3.3 Research Methodology

Research methodology relates to the specific stages in the research process, which includes sampling methods, data collection and analysis (Strydom, 2005). This study followed a phenomenological methodology. A phenomenological study describes the meaning ascribed to social phenomenon by individuals, in order to understand and interpret the meaning that participants give to their everyday experiences (Creswell, 1998 as cited in Delpont & Fouche, 2005). The phenomenological method was chosen because it allowed the researcher to explore the subjective experiences of participants in their work environment. The method enabled themes and categories to be developed in the data analysis. Below is an outline of the steps followed which formed a road map for the current study.

3.3.1 Sampling

The study used two tiers of sampling, namely at the organisational level and the interview respondent level. Sampling is defined as the “selection of elements of the study population to be included in the study” (Strydom, 2005:194). A broad search of SfD organisations was done using databases such as SANGOCO, NGOPULSE, PRODDER and databases from the Department of Social Development and the Department of Sports and Recreation. The search was then narrowed to SfD organisations that provided HIV/AIDS prevention, teenage pregnancy prevention and substance abuse prevention programmes to provide similar elements in the units sampled, and that operated in the geographical area of the Cape Metropole. This search returned several results. Due to the limited scope of the study, more rigorous sampling criteria were needed to inform which organisations should be included or excluded from the study. The first tier sampling criteria to select organisations were:

- The NGO must be rendering services to youth aged 12 to 20 years who are attending school.

- The NGO must be using sport as a vehicle to deliver prevention programmes to youth.
- The NGO must have been implementing the programme for a period of more than one year. This timeframe allows for a level of maturity of the programme implemented. Selecting programmes that were less than a year old could have meant that the organisation had not yet developed the tools required to monitor and evaluate the programme, thus skewing the results of the study.

From the search mentioned above, a list of 40 organisations was drawn up in no specific order. The researcher then began telephonically contacting the organisations descending down the list. The first 20 organisations were contacted telephonically to introduce the researcher and research study. Permission to conduct the research was then requested in this initial conversation. Then a letter of introduction (Appendix A) was either emailed or faxed to the organisations. A time was arranged for a follow up telephonic conversation to set up a time for the interview and secure the contact details of the school and school contact teacher. The aforementioned process was followed in gaining entry into the school. Of the 20 organisations contacted, five refused to take part in the research due to time constraints within organisations; a sixth was excluded due to organisational restructuring that was taking place. Another four organisations agreed but the schools did not grant permission for the study due to the schools preparations for mid-year (June) exams. This left ten organisations that were then included in the sample.

Purposive sampling was used to select the ten organisations as explained above, as well as their programme staff and the school teachers. Purposive sampling can be described as the selection of participants who represent the sample group because they possess the characteristics, opinions, ideas, knowledge and experiences about the subject of the research. Their inclusion in the research is based on the researcher's knowledge of the population. Purposive sampling relies on the judgement of the researcher to select participants that will give the necessary information for the study (Strydom, 2005).

The second tier of sampling was the selection of the interview participants from the organisations and teachers from the schools. Once permission was granted by the NGO, the researcher then asked for a referral to a partner school and the contact details of the

contact teacher at the school. The researcher then set up the interviews with both the NGO programme coordinator and the school contact teacher. From each of the ten NGOs, one participant and a contact school teacher were chosen for interviews, namely:

- One programme coordinator who was directly responsible for the programme under investigation. This person was selected because of their oversight of the programme which put them in a position to provide a comprehensive picture of the approaches used for M&E and detailed information on relevant aspects of the programme.
- In an effort to ascertain a holistic picture of the M&E done by NGOs, it was important to understand the involvement of participating schools in the process of M&E. In light of this, one school teacher, who liaised with the NGOs was interviewed. Ten schools participated in the study, each linked to a participating NGO.

The total number of interviews conducted was twenty (20). Ten (10) non-governmental organisations based in the geographical area of the Cape Metropole were included in the study as well as ten partner schools. The ten organisations were deliberately selected because they had similar characteristics in terms of the nature of the SfD programmes offered in schools.

3.3.2 Data collection

3.3.2.1 Data collection approach

The data collection approach used in this study was semi-structured face-to-face interviewing due to its flexibility for probing in-depth on specific areas of the conversation. Semi-structured face-to-face interviews are described as conversations “organised around particular areas of interest, while allowing considerable flexibility and scope and depth” (Greeff, 2005:292). The research aimed to explore the perceptions of those involved in the M&E process, thus semi-structured interviews provided a platform for this exploration into people’s perceptions and understanding of M&E.

To maintain the ethics outlined in a later section, an introduction letter (Appendix A) and the interview schedules were either emailed or faxed to the programme coordinators, once the organisations were on board. The school contact teacher was then telephonically

contacted to request permission to be interviewed.

Participants were interviewed by the researcher in a one-on-one interview setting having been selected as per the aforementioned sampling criteria. The interviews were conducted at the organisations and schools. The shortest interview was 35 minutes and the longest 90 minutes.

All interviews began with the researcher establishing rapport by introducing herself, the purpose of the study and outlining the ethical considerations. Interview participants were then asked to sign a consent form (Appendix D), which was explained along with the ethical considerations.

The questions in the interview schedules (Appendices B and C) were structured according to the main research questions and the researcher followed up with probes on the responses to each main question to elicit in-depth data on the subject. The body of the interview began with getting to know the participant, followed by programme planning, programme implementation, programme monitoring, programme evaluation and closed with a debriefing of the participants.

3.3.2.2 Data collection tool

The data collection tool used was a semi-structured interview schedule. An interview schedule is a written list of questions that schedules the interview (Greeff, 2005). Two interview schedules were developed, the first for the NGO programme coordinator (Appendix C) and the second for school teachers (Appendix B). By virtue of their work, teachers and programme coordinators have different roles within the programme, thus it was necessary to tailor questions based on the type of involvement each had in the programme.

In the interview schedule for the programme staff, the main themes focused on programme implementation (who, what, where and how?), the M&E methods and tools used, the challenges and benefits of M&E, as well as how the findings of the M&E process were disseminated.

The interview schedules for school contact teachers focussed on the role of the teacher in supporting the programme at the school, the training received for that role and their role in

M&E.

Pilot study

A pilot study is a smaller study conducted to simulate the main study context and helps to test the research design, sampling and the data collection instruments being used (Strydom, 2005b).

Two pilot interviews were conducted: with an NGO called Kulcha Knights and their partner school based in Khayelitsha, Cape Town, who offered programmes to young people in local schools. The manager of the programme and a contact teacher at the partner school were interviewed. This organisation used basketball as an engine for development. The organisation was selected because of the characteristics it shared with the sample for the study.

The pilot interviews provided an opportunity to simulate the study conditions. Great insight was gained which informed changes to the interview schedules. The main changes made were around terminology, clarifying definitions of the terms 'lifeskills' and 'life orientation', and collapsing the questions in the interview schedule for school teachers to accommodate their time constraints while gathering the most vital information.

3.3.2.3 Data collection apparatus

With the consent of the participants, a digital recorder was used to accurately capture their responses. All participants consented to the use of the digital recorder.

3.4 Data analysis

The interview recordings were transcribed into twenty interview transcripts. A qualitative data analysis approach using Tesch's (1990) eight steps was used to analyse the interview transcripts. This approach to data analysis was chosen because of successes yielded through previous applications in other research studies conducted by the researcher. These steps were as follows:

Step 1: The researcher read through all the transcriptions, carefully jotted down ideas that emerged.

Step 2: One interview was selected and notes were made in the margins about the themes,

concepts and ideas as they appeared.

Step 3: Step two was carried out in respect of all the transcripts. Topics, themes and ideas were listed into major topics, unique topics and leftover topics while attempting to cluster information and collapsed into the categories and sub-categories.

Step 4: Once a list had been established, the topics needed to be abbreviated into codes and the codes written next to the appropriate segments of text.

Step 5: The most descriptive words for the topic were found, and these were then turned into categories. By collapsing topics that related to one another, categories were reduced.

Step 6: The researcher made decisions about the categories and their abbreviations. Codes were alphabetically arranged.

Step 7: Data were assembled according to their closest fit to each category. This was repeated for all categories.

Step 8: Additional data were recorded and kept for reference during the write up and analysis.

Tesch's (1990) approach using themes and categories as per the steps outlined above assisted the researcher in managing and analyzing the data gathered during the interviews. By forming themes and categories, aligned to the research questions, related information was grouped to provide a comprehensive view on a particular issue.

3.5 Data verification

Lincoln and Guba (1985 as cited in De Vos, 2005; Babbie & Mouton 2006) provide four constructs that test the "truth value" of the qualitative research paradigm, namely: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

3.5.1 Credibility

The goal of credibility is to demonstrate that the study was carried out a manner that ensured that subjects were accurately identified and described. This was achieved through the researcher clearly identifying the parameters of the study by focusing on SfD organisations and selecting only programme coordinators and school contact teachers who

were in direct contact with the programmes.

3.5.2 Dependability

Dependability refers to the researcher's attempts to account for changing conditions in the phenomena and in the design chosen for the study (De Vos, 2005). Lincoln and Guba (1985 cited in De Vos, 2005) state that there can be no validity without reliability, and no credibility without dependability and thus one proves the existence of the other. This research, during the topic formulation and pilot study, changed the terms "department of social development" and "sport and recreation lifeskills programmes". The term Department of Social Development was changed as participants in the pilot confused it with the government department instead of the University of Cape Town's department. Subsequently, the term changed to the University of Cape Town's Department of Social Development. The term 'sport and recreation lifeskills programme' was initially used to refer to the type of programmes to be included, however, a scan of literature and immersion in the field revealed that the correct term was sport-for-development programmes which was then adopted in this study.

3.5.3 Transferability

Transferability is also referred to as external validity or generalisability, which deals with the applicability of the findings. In qualitative studies, researchers face problems with regard to generalisability of the findings. Transferability is achieved when other researchers using the same theoretical parameters in their research are able to produce similar results (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 cited in De Vos, 2005). Generalisability can be enhanced through data source triangulation. In this research, there was adherence to uniform data collection procedures, sampling and data analysis as outlined in sections 3.3 and 3.4 of this chapter. In addition, the school contact teacher was included as a data verification source for information provided by NGO source documents and interviews with programme coordinators.

3.5.4 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to objectivity. Lincoln and Guba (1985 cited in De Vos, 2005) refer to confirmability as the degree to which findings of the study can be confirmed by another researcher. This study ensured confirmability by following the standard criteria of qualitative research as outlined in sections 3.2 and 3.3 of this chapter.

3.6 Main ethical considerations

Conducting research poses a number of ethical issues which need to be addressed when dealing with human participants. Ethics in research are defined as “a set of moral principles which is suggested by an individual or group, is subsequently widely accepted and which offers guidelines and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and participants, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students” (Strydom, 2005a:57; Babbie & Mouton, 2006). A number of ethical considerations have been taken into consideration in the current study:

Informed consent: Informed consent refers to the participants’ ability to make the choice to take part or not take part in the study in light of all the information (Strydom, 2005a; Babbie & Mouton, 2006). The researcher has to give the participants all the information, including the advantages and disadvantages of taking part in the study. Additionally, the researcher has to ensure that the participant is competent to receive and process the information (Strydom, 2005a; Babbie & Mouton, 2006). Both the NGO and school research participants were given an introductory letter informing them about the purpose and the ethics of the study. The ethics were explained to participants at the beginning of each interview, after which participants were asked to sign a consent form prior to the start of the interview.

Deception of subjects/participants: The deception of participants is the intentional misrepresentation of information/facts, or withholding of information, in order to exploit the participants for the researcher’s own gain (Strydom, 2005a; Babbie & Mouton, 2006). In this study, participants were given honest and clear information about the study so as to maintain this ethical consideration.

Violation of privacy/anonymity/confidentiality: The violation of privacy refers to the intrusion of the researcher/research in some way into the personal life of the participant. This is usually done through a breach of confidentiality or the disclosure of the identity of the participant which is a breach of anonymity (Strydom, 2005a:61).

Confidentiality is maintained through the non-disclosure of information shared by respondents other than in the published report. However, the comments made by the participants may never be linked to the participant’s name, school or employing organisation thus maintaining anonymity. Numbers were assigned to identify and

differentiate the participants, organisations, programmes and schools. For example, the first NGO was assigned the number 1, the programme coordinator from that NGO was labelled coordinator 1 and the school contact teacher was labelled 1, the same was repeated with the subsequent organisations, schools and participants with the numerical values increasing up to the number ten.

Actions and competence of researcher: There is an ethical obligation of researchers and their assistants to ensure that they are competent and have the necessary skills to undertake the research (Strydom, 2005a; Babbie & Mouton, 2006).

The researcher has a background in social work education, training and practice and is currently employed by a research organisation. Thus, the researcher was sufficiently skilled to undertake the research and uphold ethical considerations.

Release of findings: Strydom (2005a) says the findings must be released in written form and should be compiled as accurately and objectively as possible. In this study the findings are written up in this report. The report will be emailed to participating organisations, participating schools and the University of Cape Town. Publications that may arise out of this research will be co-authored by the researcher and the supervisor, Dr. MG Booyens of the Department of Social Development at the University of Cape Town.

3.7 Limitations of the research

3.7.1 Research design

The qualitative research design, similar to other research designs, is open to levels of bias (Delport & De Vos, 2005). Some of the biases come from the participants, the researcher or both through the data capturing and the data analysis process.

The study used a qualitative research design and relied heavily on the subjective meanings given to situations and experiences by participants; the study was thus highly biased in that regard. However, due to the nature of the information that was required, this was the best approach to use in order to obtain rich data. The qualitative approach allowed the researcher to probe during the interviews.

3.7.2 Sampling

In probability sampling, one can often control for some of the potential biases and sampling

errors. However, in non-probability sampling, the sampling error is high and most often reliant on the judgement of the researcher (Babbie & Mouton, 2006).

The use of non-probability purposive sampling in this study did not give an equal opportunity for potential participants to be selected. Thus, the results cannot be generalised to the larger population of SfD and programme M&E; the results will only serve to add value to the reservoir of knowledge in the field of NGO programme monitoring and evaluation.

The reliance on one participant from each of the ten organisations and one teacher in each of the ten schools, also poses some biases as it focuses on the subjective views of only a few participants. However, their contributions have provided insight into the approaches, tools and techniques used by NGOs to monitor and evaluate their programmes.

3.7.3 Data collection

3.7.3.1 Data collection approach

There are many advantages to face-to-face interviewing; however, the method also has limitations. Greeff (2005) outlines some of the limitations as follows:

- It is time consuming.
- Due to large amounts of data collected, interpretation can be difficult and is highly reliant on the expertise of the researcher.

Although the face-to-face interview approach has some limitations, it was the best way to approach the interviews because of its flexibility for the participant to give uncategorized answers and for the researcher to be able to probe and clarify questions and aspects of the study during the interview.

The researcher had previous experience with interviewing and data analysis in qualitative research. This practical experience assisted to counter some of the limitations presented in the data gathering and analysis process.

3.7.3.2 Data collection tool

The data collection tool used in this study was a semi-structured interview schedule. The interview schedule served as a guide in directing the conversation. With hindsight, the main limitation of the interview schedule was that at times, questions included were not always

applicable to the different organisations and school contexts. However, quick thinking and flexibility on the part of the researcher countered this limitation. Where organisations and schools were not able to answer questions, the researcher moved on and focused on areas where they were able to provide information.

3.7.3.3 Data collection apparatus

The use of a digital recorder freed up the researcher to observe and document the non-verbal communication of the participants. However, the use of a digital recorder may have been a distraction to the participants. In an attempt to place the participants at ease with the use of the digital recorder, the need for the digital recorder to capture the responses as accurately as possible was explained at the start of the interview.

3.7.3.4 Data analysis

The researchers' previous experience with qualitative data gathering and analysis meant that she was able to manage the data analysis process. However, there are limitations to the data analysis process that was followed.

The use of themes and categories opens up the possibility of some information being overlooked, thus possibly resulting in crucial information being left out. The objectivity and experience of the research supervisor was a source of control for this possible limitation.

3.8 Reflexivity

As someone who had previously worked in youth development organisations, the researcher had interacted with some SfD organisations. The researcher had to suspend her experiences to ensure that data collected was a true reflection of participants' experiences.

De Vos (2005) describes reflexivity as one's ability to formulate an integrated understanding of one's own cognitive world, especially understanding one's influence or role in a set of human relations. This notion of reflexivity is very important in research as there are biases and values that individuals bring into the research process.

As a researcher, it is important to suspend one's own biases and values about the research content and the research participants. It is also important to be aware of one's own self-interest in the research as this may influence the interpretation and analysis of data and the research findings. Manipulating the research findings or misinterpreting the findings of the

research is unethical. Throughout the research process, the researcher attempted to remain neutral and impartial. The research supervisor was a source of reflection on core issues about the data gathering process, analysis and reporting. These mechanisms aided in controlling for researcher bias and unwarranted distortions of data due to the researcher's own value systems.

3.9 Summary statement

This chapter looked at the methodology of the research. It outlined the research design, sampling, data collection, pilot study, data analysis, data verification, limitations of the researcher and reflexivity. Chapter four presents the findings of the research.

University of Cape Town

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the current study. The chapter starts by presenting the schema for analysing the data (Table 3 below); followed by the presentation of findings. The themes, categories and subcategories were derived from the main objectives with the exception of one theme which was included for establishing the context of programmes and people involved. The views of participants are presented in direct quotations to preserve the integrity of the data, the quotations are formatted in single-line-spacing, are indented and are italicised. The quotes are set out by sex of the interviewee, their position and a numerical marker that links the interviewee to the programme and organisation and/or school, but are not used for analysis. This is because gender did not serve as a variable that directly influenced people's understanding of and application of M&E tools and thus the analysis. The conclusions and recommendations are outlined in chapter 5.

4.1 Schema of presentation of findings

The data was analysed using an inductive analysis approach based on Tesch's (1990) eight steps of qualitative data analysis. Table 3 below presents the themes, categories and subcategories which form the framework for analysis and discussion.

Themes	Categories	Sub-categories
Getting to know the study respondents and programmes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Roles and responsibilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Programme coordinators ▪ School contact teachers ▪ School contact teacher training
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Programme format and implementation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Format ▪ Programme implementers ▪ Integration of SfD into school curriculum
Motivation of sport-for-development NGOs to monitor and evaluate their efforts.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The role of funders in the development of M&E systems ▪ Reporting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Reporting to funders ▪ Internal and external reporting
Development of M&E systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Planning of M&E systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Levels of involvement in planning for M&E
Perceptions of monitoring and evaluation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Defining M&E 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Definitions of monitoring by programme coordinators ▪ Definitions of evaluation by programme coordinators

Epistemological approaches and tools to monitor and evaluate their programme.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Epistemological approaches to M&E 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Monitoring tools and epistemological approaches ▪ Programme evaluation tools and epistemological approaches
Utilisation of outcomes of the M&E process.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Reporting ▪ Motivating for funding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Reporting to funders ▪ Securing funds for continuation of programmes ▪ Reporting to stakeholders

Table 3: summary of themes, categories and sub-categories identified.

A limitation of the study is that demographic data of interview participants was not gathered, although it came up in some interviews, it could not be used as it was not readily available for all participants. The main reason for not gathering this data was largely due to the time constraints imposed by organisations and schools for the interview duration.

4.2 Roles and responsibilities

During the interviews with both the programme coordinators and the school contact teachers, the first section was on getting to know the respondent's roles and responsibilities regarding the programme. The purpose of this section was to verify that the right person was being interviewed as well as to get an understanding of the person's duties regarding the programme. This section of the chapter presents the findings of the roles and responsibilities of the programme coordinators and school contact teachers regarding their roles to the programmes. The term role here is used to denote the position of the person in the programme and their responsibilities with regard to the programme.

4.2.1 Programme coordinators

Programme coordinators are often responsible for getting programmes off the ground by gaining entry into a school, recruiting programme participants as well as overseeing the overall implementation of the programme.

I identified the 40 high risk schools by liaising with the Department of Education and once I got that list we identified them into different regions within the Western Cape so that it's well balanced. These areas are in the Townships and the Cape Flats. Once that was done we sent through letters to the principals informing them of the programmes and asking them if they wanted to be part of it and once they sign it and send back the return slips we then began preparing our visits. (Male Programme Coordinator 8)

My role is to implement the programmes in the townships or disadvantaged areas. I have to make sure that they run accordingly and to organise kids, community people, teachers, parents to be involved in all the projects. (Male Programme Coordinator 2)

Of the ten programme coordinators, all were involved in the programme implementation in varying degrees. In some instances the programme coordinators were also tasked with organising special events, such as commemoration day events and tournaments, liaising with the programme staff and volunteers, teachers and schools.

My role in the programme; I'm a coordinator, responsible for the rolling of the programme and the setting up meetings and internal trainings we run. I also set up leagues and social games so I am also responsible for the evaluations with leagues evaluations and monthly evaluations. I collect all the tools from the coaches and see if everything is smooth... Oversee the daily running of the programme. (Male Programme Coordinator 9)

In most of the organisations programme coordinators were split between programme implementation and the management of programmes, with less attention paid to the management role. The management role included overseeing staff and volunteers, monitoring of the programme, quality assurance and reporting on the programme. In this study, programme coordinators were often responsible for overseeing the everyday running of the programme, communicating with schools, supervising the implementing volunteers, staff and/or teachers, executing the monitoring and evaluation systems and reporting on the progress of the programme.

I am the Provincial Programmes Manager, meaning that I am responsible for the implementation of all [organisation] programmes. I am also responsible for looking at the monitoring and evaluation of all [organisation] programmes after they have been completed. (Female Programme Coordinator 1)

My role as the programme coordinator is basically to liaise with the schools which we are working with and also to prepare for whatever meetings we do have and whatever trainings come up. As well as to do reporting at the end of the month whether it would be statistics or financial reporting and to organise most of the things that need to be organised for example

getting the coaches here when we have meetings and stuff. (Male Programme Coordinator 6)

From the above findings, it is clear that programme coordinators play a multitude of roles in getting the programme running, ensuring that the programme is implemented consistently, maintaining relationships with communities and schools and at times implementing the programmes themselves. Although this study did not probe for this, programme coordinators shared being inundated with various tasks, many of which were administrative tasks. The sentiments expressed by programme coordinators are similar to those of Jeanes (2011), who found that in Zambia, many programme coordinators were inundated with tasks and responsibilities to programmes that could otherwise be performed by administration staff. This overload often detracted from the core function of programme coordinators which was to manage, monitor, evaluate and report on the programme.

4.2.2 School contact teachers

In all ten schools included in the study, there was a contact teacher responsible for the NGO's programme within the school. The school contact teacher would either be the Head of Life Orientation for specific grades, a Life Orientation teacher or the class teacher for the grade participating in the programme. In some instances, the appointed teacher was also the Sports Master at the school.

The roles and responsibilities of school contact teachers ranged from merely granting NGOs permission to run their programmes and giving them access to the learners, to being involved with the programme implementers.

Well, the only thing I do is to assist the coach who was doing all the training. He was doing most of the work. I was just assisting him with the learners, with the indemnity forms and I regularly held meetings with the learners and got them ready on a Saturday morning when they had to play on Newlands. So I did that kind of role. (Male School Teacher 8)

So anything that [organisation] brings to the school, they contact me and I contact the other teachers who are also in the programme. We then administer everything to the learners...My responsibility as coordinator of the programme was firstly to get the learners and the

coaches which is the teachers together, now after getting them together I have to see that coach's programme is running smoothly. (Male School Teacher 2)

In cases where the school contact teacher is also the Sports Master, the programmes seemed to have a more structured format, higher emphasis on physical education, integration of the programme into the curriculum, as well as a strengthened reporting system between the schools and NGOs.

To keep sports going, I coordinate sports within my school and I am directly involved in the coordinating and coaching of rugby in my school. We have, along with other schools, we have a little competition....My role is to be the coordinator of all the schools in Bonteheuwel as sort of the rugby union so to speak. I also have these guys [coaches] on the field there. These guys are employed as coaches and the one is growing to be a coordinator. We need teachers to present so I still have a role until eventually if I die they can still carry on. (Male School Teacher 10)

Teachers who supported the NGO programmes and were actively involved sought to maximise the benefits of the programme by exposing the programme participants to sports oriented opportunities. One teacher who was actively involved in the implementation of the NGO's programme in his school, incentivised participation in the programme through linking programme participants to various sports related opportunities.

So whatever I am doing, I make sure that I do it right because I don't want the learners to say I failed. I feel that by not giving them an opportunity to play is not right. Even Ajax [Cape Town], so Ajax was sending learners, about 60, whenever they had home games, they organised a bus and they took the learners to watch. Then they also have coaching clinics at the stadium. They gave them rule books, pep talks, etc. All these players who we see on TV, we are able to rub shoulders with them. (Male School Teacher 9)

The kids took part in the programme and they went to the World Cup. I even benefitted because at the World Cup I saw at face value some of the guys that I normally see on TV. That is the sports players from overseas... Last year the incentive was the World Cup, this year there are no incentives like the World Cup or anything like that. (Male School Teacher 2)

In addition to the programmes offered, two of the NGOs used the South Africa 2010 World Soccer Cup as an incentive for programme participants and school contact teachers to participate in the programmes. One male school teacher described how being part of the programme had resulted in him and his learners being able to attend some of the Soccer World Cup matches played. In 2010, some organisations incentivised participation in the programme by offering tickets to matches and fan parks for programme participants. The findings presented above support the findings of Cornelissen (2011) that there was a mushrooming effect on the number of NGOs using the South African 2010 Soccer World Cup as a lucrative bonus to programme participants. Cornelissen (2011) notes that in the rush and frenzy of the South Africa 2010 World Cup, many NGOs offered sport programmes linked to their daily activities. For NGOs that were already operating in SfD, the Soccer World Cup only served to promote recognition and support for their programmes (Cornelissen, 2011).

4.2.3 School contact teacher training

The interview schedule for school contact teachers contained a section that asked teachers about the training that they had received in order to carry out their roles and responsibilities as programme contact teachers and at times implementers. There were varying levels of training that the school contact teachers had received in order to execute their roles as programme contact teachers. Training received ranged from no training at all to formal training on how to use the M&E tools, with other forms of training falling in between.

Of the ten school teachers that were interviewed for this study, only two had received training from their partner NGO whilst other teachers relied on previous experience, training offered by other institutions and/or experiential learning inherent in the role they played in the school, to enable them to execute their roles.

They had their training. I first was a facilitator, I received facilitation training by them and then I received managerial training by them. We met at one of the hotels where all the other schools' line managers assembled there and we had our meetings and our trainings over a weekend. We come there on the afternoon of the Friday and we go home on the afternoon of the Sunday. Throughout that whole weekend we do training on HIV and AIDS, managerial

skills on how to manage the programme and how to implement the programme. I've recently completed a form where they ask us what we still need. So I'm sure they will be giving more training on whatever the managers ask. (Female School Teacher 1)

[NGO name] did give us some type of training. We did attend some training with [NGO name], we as the coaches. They took us to a neutral venue where we met and there were coaches who coached us on what we need to know so that we know exactly what is expected of us when we run the programme. (Male School Teacher 2)

A third teacher shared that the training received was not for the role of coordinator but rather to understand the rules and regulations of the game he oversaw.

I haven't received training to coordinate but I have been given the opportunities through [organisation]. I'm very grateful for it. They've sent me to do coaching courses, a referee course; I've also been through to workshops with Jake White where I've learnt the finer details around managing rugby teams at higher levels. So they've actually prepared me for something higher, I don't know if I will become the national coach or what but the opportunity has been given. That's the formal training that I've been given but they didn't train me for the specific coordinating roles. They are definitely creating little platforms where I can grow. I got to see a lot since I've been with them. (Male School Teacher 10)

The findings above indicate that training was often conducted by programme coordinators from the NGOs and/or other organisations sourced by the NGOs. The dearth of research and literature in this area indicates that this is an area needing further attention.

In other cases, teachers had received training from additional sources not linked to the NGOs they were working with.

I didn't receive any training from [organisation].... I am an Extra Mural Development Practitioner. We got the training. We did those courses. We know that we need to involve NGOs, we need to involve parents and we need to identify stakeholders so I think it's a process that we got used to already. Something that comes naturally. We also have the Department of Sport doing programmes here so we have people coordinating that as well. (Male School Teacher 6)

The provision of training by NGOs to school contact teachers was not always a given. In cases where no training was provided, teachers relied on their own knowledge and experience to enable them to execute their roles and responsibilities for the programme. The findings above support the findings in the NCDO report of 2007 on evaluation of sports for development organisations which found that many NGOs lacked capacity and thus relied heavily on teachers having the capacity to support the programmes (NCDO, 2007; Francis, 2010). This often results in inconsistencies in the implementation of M&E, augments the outcome and distorts the reporting of findings. The inconsistencies often result in no standardisation of M&E tools as they are constantly being changed according to the understanding and skills of the person implementing them. This inconsistent way of conducting M&E has implications on the way M&E data is generated and reported on. The next section presents the format of programmes offered by the ten NGOs in schools.

4.3 Programme format and implementation

The interview schedules for both the NGO programme coordinators and the school contact teachers included a section on the programme format and its implementation within schools.

4.3.1 Format

The programmes implemented by NGOs varied in format and in the way they were implemented. Depending on the availability of space within the school timetable, NGOs offered their programmes either during school time or after school:

It varies from school to school. The principal would say that you could get one Life Orientation period and you do it then. It all depends on who the [NGO name] friendly teacher is at the school. In many cases where English is a second language, they would say come in the English class because all our materials are written in English, so that is another learning for the youth. Sometimes the programmes happen after school during practice. Say the netball team is practising so the netball team practises from 2 to 3pm and we would get a half an hour of that time to do a little motivation and a little programme implementation. (Female Programme Coordinator 1)

Normally you must know the periods so we find it fits into Life Orientation class. They are able to give it to us. (Male Programme Coordinator 7)

NGOs that successfully negotiated entry into schools were allowed to fit into the school's tuition time. Where schools were able to identify the value of the programme but could not accommodate the programme into tuition time, NGOs then had to implement their programme after school. These findings support Quinns' (1999) findings that in most cases, sports-for-development programmes are add on programmes and offered in sports clubs, community halls and within the school setting to complement existing school curriculums. When programmes are seen as add-ons to curriculum, the value is often not fully appreciated and recognised in bringing behaviour and attitude change among youth.

In many cases, programmes offered the lifeskills lessons in the format of modules with a particular physical activity such as passing the ball, dribbling, tackling and kicking as part of the lifeskills lesson.

If we are doing our coaching, or speaking about the passing of the ball or dribbling. If I speak about passing we show them on the field of play how to pass the ball correctly. Then we take that how to pass, whatever knowledge in terms of what you have in the community out of the field. If you have plenty then what it means to pass using the same approach that we use on the field. And put it to what is happening in the community and also what is happening in church what it means, your resources and what you have and what it means to pass it to those who are poor. (Male Programme Coordinator 7)

A really important risk field so the kids play a dribbling match with a soccer ball..... Pretend each cone is a risk and the main risk is contracting HIV, having sex for stuff, drugs, alcohol, sex with older people, so then you put the cards next to the cones.....if team A touches a cone then all 3 teams do push ups and if we have you [researcher] there doing research then we have you do a push up just because you are there. So it's typical little games, you can look through the curriculum and they are about creating a conversation. (Male Programme Coordinator 4)

The above findings show how NGOs have found innovative ways to incorporate sports into lifeskills through using selected sports moves and relating them to risk "fields" to create awareness of HIV transmission, transactional sex, substance abuse and intergenerational sex. Fraser-Thomas, Cote & Deakin (2005) suggest that sport provides an arena that develops social skills such as cooperation, assertion, responsibility, empathy and self-control

which often carry over into the school, community and other life domains. In this regard, the findings above seem to support the notion of SfD presented by Fraser-Thomas et al (2005). Programmes offered by the NGOs help young people develop vital social skills and resilience to mitigate their vulnerability to HIV, substance abuse, economic exploitation and other sexual and reproductive health issues facing them.

While some organisations are able to develop and implement their own lifeskills modules, other NGOs often rely on partnerships with other NGOs that have established lifeskills curriculums which they can then implement. Most NGOs offered lifeskills modules delivered over several weeks and programme participants were encouraged to complete a certain number of modules in order to exit or graduate the programme.

This is a 24 modular programme. What we would like to see is that the young person actually goes through at least 18 of these modules. What we talk about there is personal development, personal vision, personal goals, the value of planning, hard work, team work; this is them in their sporting careers. We usually give the peer educators anything between 12 to 15 weeks to complete that. In reality, school programmes change and school timetables change. (Female Programme Coordinator 1)

They [sessions] take about 11 practices. Kids have to do a minimum of 8 practices before they graduateso usually we take the LO class for a term cause its 10 weeks. (Male Programme Coordinator 4)

The above findings support those of Chandan et al's (2008) in that the majority of the NGOs interviewed indicated that their programmes were in a modular format with each module addressing a particular lifeskills issue. Sometimes the programme participants received workbooks containing the lifeskills modules. The lifeskills modules are often developed to address key issues and differ across organisations but are not accredited by any statutory body.

4.3.2 Programme implementers

NGOs are often under-resourced and unable to employ large numbers of skilled staff (Chandan et al., 2008). In many cases NGOs rely on the services of volunteers to implement their programmes. In this study, NGOs implemented the programmes themselves using core

staff or recruited volunteers from the community, recruited school teachers and/or relied on peer educators to implement the programme.

We have a volunteer group which we call [name] and each peer educator has 5 volunteers [learners] in the school that assists them. The peer educators and the volunteers are responsible for starting these programmes in schools, clinics, recreational halls and wherever they get access. (Female Programme Coordinator 1)

Using our coaches, those are high school students. For coaches to be role models to the young ones, and the [volunteers].....most of them grow out of the programme. I would say they would break out of the programme, because they were participants. As they grow up loving the programme and seeing the change that it is making, they decide to come back and actually give back to the community through the programme. (Female Programme Coordinator 5)

Of the ten NGOs sampled, the majority used volunteers as programme implementers. Using the diffusion of innovation approach (Rogers, 2003), one could argue that organisations select coaches and volunteers based on their leadership qualities in communities. Coaches are trained as positive role models to diffuse the messages and display the desired behaviour change for the young people they come into contact with. Those young people are then vectors for diffusing innovations among their peers. Although organisations do not explicitly state this, their programme models of using coaches as positive role models for young people apply the logic of diffusion of innovation theory.

The use of volunteers was often regarded as a strength of the programmes offered by NGOs. Organisations felt that volunteers were valuable assets in reaching the youth population; however, the high dropout rate of volunteers presented a challenge.

And then with our peer educators, the turnover is high. You would find a peer educator leaving the programme in the middle of the year because they have found something better to do, they are going to study which in turn means finding new peer educators, training them and that means time wasted. (Female Programme Coordinator 1)

The findings support those of the study undertaken by the Human Sciences Research

Council (HSRC) that found that NGO programmes are often implemented by volunteers and/or peer educators who are trained in the material, deliver the interventions and are remunerated a small stipend (Panday et al., 2009; loveLife, 2008). Research into the retention and job mobility of volunteers indicates that peer educators often leave the programme to find better paying employment, pursue higher education and/or explore other opportunities which results in gaps within the implementation of the programmes (Chandan et al., 2008; Panday et al., 2009). Similar findings were reported in this research. The retention of volunteers was a major challenge because volunteers seek out better opportunities. The departure of volunteers often creates gaps in the programme implementation and is a loss to the organisation that has trained the volunteer.

4.3.3 Integration of sport-for-development programmes into school curriculum

Although the research did not directly seek to investigate a link between SfD programmes offered by NGOs and the Life Orientation (LO) curriculum, both interview schedules (programme coordinator and school contact teacher) probed for the type of integration made with regards to NGO programmes and the school curriculum. The study found that the majority of NGOs went to schools and offered their programmes as part of LO. The majority of LO teachers shared an interest in having NGOs offer programmes that included sports which they could then use as part of the LO assessment of the learners.

I think in Life Orientation is probably the biggest one. It basically goes hand in hand with the Lifeskills, with the movement and with a healthy lifestyle as well. (Male School Teacher 6)

There are four LO's, LO stands for Learner Outcomes. We focus on personal wellbeing LO1, LO2 is citizenship education, LO3 is recreation and physical wellbeing and LO4 is the world of work, career and career guidance. Those are the 4 LOs that we focus on. [Organisation] focuses on specific LOs; they focus on physical wellbeing LO1 and LO3 recreation and physical wellbeing. They come along with their curriculum or their plan. We work in conjunction. (Female School Teacher 1)

Teachers seemed to have a fair amount of autonomy as to how they interpret the content of Life Orientation and thus assess what learners need to achieve as part of the syllabus. The findings support the notion that LO in South African schools is reliant on the judgement of

the class teacher as there are no standardised qualifications attached to teaching the subject (Department of Education, 2002; Francis, 2010). Teachers have a large amount of autonomy in how they deliver sexuality education and physical education within the LO periods (Francis, 2010). Some teachers appreciated the efforts of NGOs that offered the lifeskills and sports programmes as it assisted them in delivering key learning and assessment areas for the learners.

They came to our school and their programme had to do with Life Orientation because their focus was on HIV and AIDS issues and sports... I didn't have much when it comes to activities, especially when it comes to physical education so they played a big role. (Male School Teacher 4)

The programme is helping us in Life Orientation that is lifeskills. There is LO3 in Life Orientation which is physical education. I personally apply what we do there in the lifeskills lesson as LO4 and I record what we do there as an outcome. (Male School Teacher 2)

School teachers found that using the sport-for-development programmes enhanced the LO periods by providing physical education to the learners. Schools are compelled to offer physical education as part of learning areas within the LO syllabus which makes special provision within Learning Outcome 3 for pupils to do physical education (Department of Education, 2002; Francis, 2010).

The NGOs in the study had different formats for their programmes. The most common format was that programmes were implemented during school time. Programmes were implemented by volunteers and/or peer educators (often referred to as coaches) who were trained in the delivery of the programmes.

The next section presents the findings on the role of funders in the development of M&E systems.

4.4 The role of funders in the development of monitoring and evaluation systems

Funders play a major role in providing resources to NGOs to run their programmes. In most cases funders provide financial support, technical support and at times varying degrees of both funding and technical support (Levermore, 2011a). The interview schedule for the

programme coordinators probed the role of funders in developing M&E systems for the NGOs. In some cases it was clear that some funders were making a move to build the capacity of the NGOs to develop and implement M&E systems that reflected the NGO's programmes. Some funders were offering technical support, through outsourced consulting organisations, to NGOs linked to their funding agreement.

The other thing that USAID do is they assign a technical assistance partner to every fundee/recipient; our partner is a group called Academy for Educational Development (AED).....we got technical support from them and they have very specific process of doing it.....Some funders are cool, we get some funding from Nike and they have a cool online database called, it's a cool name something like, are you making a difference or changetheworld.com but what's cool is it's much more qualitative, it asks you more questions and you have to answer online and it ask what is the coolest thing that happened. What is the worst thing that happened? What were the real challenges, so all of those things? So it depends on what the funder wants.” (Male Programme Coordinator 4)

In the case of the NGO above, the technical support to the organisation was offered at various phases of the funding period which the organisation would then report on. However, not all funders offer similar technical support. In cases where NGOs had developed their own systems, they often designed the M&E system to be in line with the requirements of their primary funders.

We develop our tools based on what they [funders] want. It's no use we develop our own tools and then we are going to have something that is very far from what they want. Like I said the different [government] departments have their own sets of tools that ask for different things. I think we have a balance between what sports wants and what social development wants. (Female Programme Coordinator 1)

The above finding supports those of Bornstein (2006) stating that NGOs have developed internal systems and tools based on reporting needs. The research done by Bornstein (2006) found that more experienced programme managers often designed their programmes and M&E systems to be aligned to those required by funders or donors.

While some funders play a role in how NGOs monitor and evaluate their programmes, other

funders allow flexibility in how NGOs monitor and evaluate. This study found that some funders supported the existing M&E systems within NGOs.

As I said, our funders have asked the organisation to use the tools that they were using so [name of organisation] is using the tools we were using even before our funders came. They accept these tools that we are using. (Male Programme Coordinator 9)

I think for us, well they [funder] didn't give us like the attendance registers and stuff like that, we basically came up with ways of as to how we are going to keep the statistics and keep track of who's attending, so basically we came up with some kind of ways on how we are going to keep register and then you know, so we basically just had to differentiate between the age groups and the stuff like that. (Male Programme Coordinator 6)

The findings above contradict the notion presented by Crawford & Bryce (2003) which states that funders often require partner NGOs to develop project evaluation M&E systems which are part of funding agreements and are often dictated by the funders. It is important to note that the two quotes presented above are from two organisations funded by the same funder, namely GIZ (formerly GTZ), hence the similarity in their responses.

In one instance, where programme funders were individuals or small funding bodies, very little was required in terms of NGOs developing systems for M&E and/or reporting on the programme findings. Instead, the private funders focussed on the financial management and financial reporting of the programme.

As long as we, they know we do, we spend the money where we said we would. I supply them with a budget of where we are going to be spending the money on all the rest and they approve that. So if its new rugby jerseys, then they will see the new rugby jerseys. If its transport, then they know the transport costs, because you've got to a get a kid from one end of Bonties [Bonteheuwel] to another and sometimes I hire a taxi. (Male Programme Coordinator 10)

The finding above indicates the development of an efficacy assessment of programme finances as opposed to the development of systematic M&E systems for this NGO. In cases where funders mainly require M&E of programme finances, the M&E focus is usually on

doing an efficiency assessment. An efficiency assessment requires that the programme be evaluated in terms of cost-benefit and cost-effectiveness to see whether the programme was effective in utilising the financial resources as per the planned budget at the onset of the programme development (De Vos, 2005).

4.5 Planning of monitoring and evaluation systems

The interview schedule for the programme coordinators included questions on the process of planning for the M&E of the programme. Organisations that had implemented systematic and structured M&E systems undertook varying degrees of planning for the process. In most cases, the respondents were not aware of what planning was done regarding M&E of the programme. Instead they shared that often organisation Directors or managers were responsible for the planning of M&E and programme coordinators were only responsible for executing the M&E. One organisation had a national planning department that dealt with all the details of planning for M&E.

Those tools are usually developed by our evaluation group or through the monitoring department.... We have an extensive department, also at our national office. It takes ¼ (3 quarters) of our work is to do the monitoring because we have to inform our donors as to what we are doing. There are monitoring forms for everything. There needs to be an account of how many kids there were and these must be accompanied by attendance registers with principal's stamps from the school. Whatever you can think of, we need to capture. Monitoring also helps with the evaluation afterwards. (Female Programme Coordinator 1)

In the absence of clearly planned and executed M&E strategies, it would be impossible to know if work is being done correctly, whether progress and success can be claimed, and how future efforts can be improved (Levermore, 2011b). The findings of this study indicate that M&E is regarded as a major component of programming and takes up a substantial part of programme staff's time. The above finding indicates that this NGO invested resources into a separate specialist department that plans the M&E strategies of this NGO.

In most cases the programme coordinators could not provide information on what planning had been done for the M&E systems. In these cases, the programme coordinators had either inherited the M&E systems from ones developed for previous years. In some cases, the M&E systems had either been developed by an external body/consultant, the systems

had come as part of funding agreements with funders and most commonly was that managers and/or directors had developed the systems. This made it hard for respondents to give comprehensive information about the planning process. In cases where the programme managers were involved in the process of developing systems, M&E was not part of the conceptualisation of the programme but was coming from a need to be accountable to stakeholders and an effort to lobby for funding. While M&E takes up a large proportion of organisation's time and resources, the people who directly implement the M&E systems are often not involved in the planning process and design of these systems. This has implications for how they understand the process and thus implement the systems and report on the findings.

The next section looks at M&E practices of the NGOs in the study. It begins with exploring the perceptions and definitions by programme coordinators of what they understand monitoring and evaluation to be. This is followed with the monitoring and evaluation practices of the participating NGOs.

4.6 Defining M&E

4.6.1 Definitions of monitoring by programme coordinators

Although both interview schedules asked programme coordinator and school contact teachers to define M&E, data was generated for both but school contact teacher information is not included due to the length boundary of this report. Only the definitions offered by programme coordinators are presented. It is important to understand the way that programme coordinators define key concepts like monitoring and evaluation as this may impact on the way that they supervise those (this often includes the contact teachers) gathering data for M&E, it may impact on the way they execute M&E strategies and the way they report on the findings of the M&E process. When programme coordinators were asked to define monitoring, similar understandings and definitions were shared.

Monitoring is to give an account of what happened, to see that what we said was going to take place actually happened. To just give report of what happened. (Female Programme Coordinator 1)

My understanding of monitoring is to just check up, if you are busy with a programme then you have to follow up that everything is working well accordingly to what you planned and what you want and also to reach the objectives so in a nutshell that is what monitoring is to me. (Male Programme Coordinator 8)

The findings above present similar characteristics of monitoring by emphasising the constant tracking of programme implementation, reporting or accounting for what has taken place against set objectives. The findings echo the three point definition of monitoring offered by NCDO (2007) which defines monitoring as "the systematic collection, analysis and use of information from projects and programmes for the purposes of learning from the experiences acquired (learning function), accounting internally and externally for the resources used and the results obtained (monitoring function) and taking decisions (steering function)".

4.6.2 Definitions of evaluation by programme coordinators

Due to the length boundary of this report, only the responses offered by programme coordinators will be discussed in this section. Programme coordinators understood evaluation in similar ways, with definitions of evaluation asking questions about the overall performance of the programme to assessing the knowledge gained by programme participants.

So the programme evaluation would then also refer to what you are doing, are you doing it correctly and like also like with the questions you asking, are there any challenges you are facing, how can we assist, um, is this sustainable, do you think we can continue. So I think that is what programme evaluation is basically about so that you can see in the future where you should be making new changes, shall I keep on going and doing it this way?(Male Programme Coordinator 6)

Programme evaluation is about is this working? Is what we are doing working? Is what we are doing in line with what we said we would do? The Business Plans that we submitted to the funders. Are we actually reaching what we said we would reach? Are we on the right track? Do we need to change things? (Female Programme Coordinator 1)

The findings presented above mainly refer to checking programme effectiveness and

efficiency, which was a general trend among the study's respondents. The findings indicate that programme evaluation was mainly about formative evaluations. Formative evaluations are concerned with the improvement of a programme against the set objectives and outcomes and are undertaken while the programme is still underway (De Vos, 2005). Formative evaluations help to improve at the points where the programmes are not meeting the initially conceived criteria (De Vos, 2005). Formative evaluations are similar to monitoring as they offer a corrective measure for programme coordinators to use to align programme implementation to the intended outcomes; this is evidenced in the supporting findings presented above. In essence, formative evaluations form a vital component of a programme coordinators' function as they inform future programme development, indicate the behaviour change achieved (or not) in programme participants and help organisations become accountable to funders.

4.7 Epistemological approaches to M&E

4.7.1 Monitoring tools and epistemological approaches

A number of the NGOs that were interviewed shared that their M&E tools were consistently in flux and changing to meet programme changes and donor needs. The tools were mainly developed to capture attendance of the programme participants. These tools and approaches to monitoring stem from positivist, interpretive and critical-emancipatory epistemological approaches to programme evaluation M&E. One programme coordinator described the programme monitoring as being about the relationships and feedback from parents and teachers about learners as a result of them participating in the programme.

No, there is no specific tool. There's no magic wand or fancy tool. I think that enthusiasm you can see when the kids are running around the field and they are having a great time. That puts a smile on our faces. You see the parents supporting it too. All of a sudden now we see parents lining the sides of the fields and that means that now we are actually winning because we now have parental support, which is fantastic for us if we have issues with kids, we now have a place to go. I should say it's a physical monitoring or assessment. Obviously we do get feedback from headmasters, teachers and schools about how the kids are excited and how they would do and how its working and how some kid's school marks are improving because they have been told that they can't play rugby unless their marks improve. (Male Programme Coordinator 10)

In the case of the above finding, the programme's focus on monitoring was mainly the behaviour change process that programme participants go through rather than testing knowledge gained through the programme. This echoes the critical-emancipatory approach to evaluation which emphasises reflection, praxis, action for improving social conditions, with emphasis on changes in social relationships (Potter, 2006).

The majority of programme coordinators shared that monitoring tools were mainly developed to capture attendance of programme participants and staff, number of matches played, accounting for equipment and at times the number of parents and community members attending events.

We do have monitoring tools as to attendance. These tools indicate whether this was a zonal game, a district game, how many people attended, how many codes were played, what were the ages of the young people that were there. Of course everything is accompanied by registration forms which can be attendance registers or just a registration form the school would send so that we could use them as evidence..... We are very target driven. We just want to see numbers, numbers. I must be very honest; we would like to say that there were 2000 people who attended. On the one hand it would be the lifeskills, how many people went through the lifeskills programme that was presented at the games. And then the overall population that attended the games, we want to see how many people got a taste of the programme. (Female Programme Coordinator 1)

In most cases, monitoring was done by the programme implementers and then fed back to the programme coordinators who would then reconcile all the site information collected and submit it for reporting purposes.

All our coaches have monitoring books and they never have more than 20 kids. We try to keep the ratio down and then what we do is they add in the kids name, a register and then that info is fed to a community project coordinator and then once a month they submit a big spreadsheet with all these details. (Male Programme Coordinator 4)

The monitoring practices of these NGOs focussed on capturing the numbers of session attended, number of learners in the programme and which lifeskills were delivered in each session. The use of quantitative tools for monitoring echoes the positivist approaches to

programme monitoring which emphasise objectivity and the capturing of observable and quantifiable data (Potter, 2006). It may be argued that a major weakness of this type of approach is that it lacks stakeholder involvement, aims to quantify the individual behaviour change which is not an easy feat and removes the personal experiences and voice of the programme participants from the process. The next section presents the findings on programme evaluation tools and epistemological approaches.

4.7.2 Programme evaluation tools and epistemological approaches

This section presents the findings of how the ten NGOs in the current study evaluate their programmes. These NGO's evaluation practices are compared using positivist, interpretive and critical-emancipatory epistemological approaches to programme evaluation.

The way participating NGOs evaluate programmes can be plotted on a continuum, with tools ranging from elementary data capturing to complex tools that are transferred to online databases. The majority of tools used for programme evaluation by the NGOs in this study generated quantitative data. Some organisations drew from both quantitative and qualitative methods in developing their tools and used surveys and focus group discussions when conducting the programme evaluation.

We had a survey for the programme participants, so we have four different modules. So before the seven tools, before you could start with the seven tools module, we always make sure that they first did the pre-survey.... Do they know about what they are about to teach. They go through two months of the seven tools and then at the end we do a post- survey, basically trying to see if they understood the whole sessions or all those seven tools that the coach taught them during that certain period. We also compare the pre- survey and post-survey, to see if there has been a change or understanding.I do focus group discussions in the community and all the schools. Basically see the participants that are in the programme.
(Female Programme Coordinator 5)

This NGO uses both quantitative and qualitative approaches to programme evaluation through the pre- and post- assessment surveys, completed by programme participants, while also engaging communities and schools through focus group discussions. This mixed methodology approach to programme evaluation echoes the interpretive and empowerment approaches to programme evaluation which draw on the traditions of

participant observation, case studies and qualitative interviewing, analysis and related disciplines. It assumes that the programme stakeholders (people concerned with the implementation of the programme, both direct and indirect beneficiaries) know the programme and thus form a crucial part of the investigation process (Potter, 2006; De Vos, 2005). In this case, the evaluator serves as a facilitator of the process while the stakeholders are the main evaluators.

One NGO's M&E system was an online software programme called Salesforce and was used to capture the findings of the programme's monitoring and evaluation efforts. Manual forms were completed by facilitators, checked by the site coordinator and then submitted to their M&E person who then entered the data into the online database. The programme coordinator describes the online database as:

So we have an online system called Salesforce....It is basically a really flexible database online and it exists in a cloud which is really nice and through that we can see at each of our sites, how many kids are in the programme, sort of like a pipeline, and how many are going to graduate...it also stores all the information of the coaches so if you are the coach it links you to the kids in your programme. All of our programmes have a pre- and post- quiz so the kids on the first day will get an 8 piece questionnaire which is simple. Sometimes we will put in local myths such as does showering protect you from HIV [laughs], but usually its things like questions about sexual fluids etc.....on Salesforce we can see what the pre- and post- info is that is coming in. So it's a huge database which contains the school we are working with, the coaches, the kids, how many went through and then the pre- and post- data. (Male Programme Coordinator 4)

This NGO's focus on M&E is to gather figures based on targets that were set at the outset of the programme year. It uses pre- and post- assessments to see the changes in behaviour and knowledge among programme participants as a result of the programme. In addition to the questionnaires, attendance registers are used to capture session attendance. All the information is populated into the online database that generates tables and charts of the progress. This type of M&E approach resonates with positivist approaches to programme evaluation which focuses on observable and quantifiable social phenomenon tested through standardised tools (Potter, 2006). The NGO's use of the pre- and post- assessments as well

as the constant monitoring of the participants also supports the notion presented by positivists where three phases of programme evaluation are presented, namely the needs assessment, programme planning and formative evaluation (Potter, 2006).

Interestingly, in all ten NGOs, the programme M&E was conducted by the programme implementers with school teachers helping at times. The programme participants were not involved in the planning or execution of the M&E process, instead they formed the group that was monitored and evaluated. The programme participants' involvement was limited to attending sessions, completing the pre- and post- surveys and participating in the focus group discussions. This approach to M&E maintains the social exclusion, as described by Levitas et al (2007), of young people in processes that impact their lives. Using programme participants only as subjects of monitoring and evaluation is a major weakness of these NGOs in being accountable to those involved and empowering programme participants to take ownership of the programme and learn a valuable skills in participatory M&E. Programme participants should not be subjects of M&E practices; rather they should become key partners in the process. This notion of empowered programme participants and building youth resilience through active and constructive participation in ensuring ownership of programmes is vital in engendering behaviour change in youth (Oliver, Collin, Burns & Nicholas, 2006; Tiessen, 2011).

The following section presents how the NGOs disseminate the findings of their monitoring and evaluation.

4.8 Utilisation of M&E findings

This section presents the findings related to how, for what purpose and why the ten NGOs utilise the findings of their programme M&E. Most of the organisations that were interviewed shared that M&E was done and the outcomes reported to funders through monthly, quarterly or annual reports. In some instances the information was even shared with participants. Among the ten NGOs, the primary way of using the findings was to report to funders.

We always send it to the sponsors and no one else. We might use some inserts for the media. That we have trained this amount of kids but not the whole report. (Male Programme Coordinator 8)

The focus group discussions, the pre- and post- survey, what I did with pre- and post-, I had a report on that those specific schools I went to, what I found, the pre-and post- survey we keep. All I know is I did it, I bring it back, report on it in the organisation and where it goes from there I don't know. But we did, the [volunteers] self-assessment and survey, we did it, and then because our programme was funded by funders, the one indicators etc, so the pre- and post- survey were part of that, so this guy did it, and they send it to JHB to head office. (Female Programme Coordinator 5)

The first finding above indicates that NGOs often use the M&E outcomes to report to donors. Of concern is the statement by the respondent identified as Female Programme Coordinator 5, namely that she reports the M&E findings to her employing organisation which then reports to the funder at the head office but then she is not aware of how that information is used. This indicates a gap that funders may need to address in informing organisations about how they use the findings. Literature shows that funders use outcomes of M&E to inform future programme funding and assess gaps in organisation systems (Hearn, 1999; Weidman, 2008). If more organisations knew how funders used the outcomes of M&E, organisations would place greater emphasis on the quality of data generated from M&E and the quality of training for those implementing the tools.

In some organisations, M&E findings were presented to stakeholders like school principals and funders via reports and newsletters.

Once a month all these dashboards [online spreadsheets] get sent to each site so every site gets an email with these updates. What [name of person omitted] is trying to do is like get us to drill down into a school and create a page for Khayelitsha or Chris Hani then you can cut and paste these boxes into PowerPoint or Word and then go to the principals and do a presentation about the last month's progress. We are not doing that enough and now [name of person] is pushing us to do it more often.....Some funders [name of person] they ask us to submit a table with our numbers and then they ask us to tell our story in a way we think puts our story across the best...We also do newsletters. Once a month an internal newsletter and then quarterly one goes out externally. (Male Programme Coordinator 4)

Yes, we distribute to our partners in the departments and the community as well. It's not only to our sponsors. We tell them what we have achieved this year and the plan for next year.

(Male Programme Coordinator 2)

Although the findings of the M&E processes were shared with donors, schools and at times parents through various mediums, interestingly, very little information was shared with programme participants and the broader community. Levermore (2011a) notes that often organisations conduct programme M&E because of pressures from funders, the findings of the M&E process often lack transparency, the involvement of stakeholders and the findings of the M&E process are seldom disseminated to the broader community.

4.9 Summary statement

This chapter outlined the findings of the research. The data was analysed using Tesch's (1990) data analysis framework. The discussion centred around five themes: a) getting to know the study respondents and programmes, b) the motivation of SfD to conduct M&E, c) the development of M&E systems, d) the epistemological approaches to M&E and e) utilisation of M&E findings. The three main findings are:

- M&E is a core function of programmes staff and NGOs and consumes a bulk of programme time and human resources.
- SfD organisations use M&E tools informed by different epistemological perspectives. At times, they use mixed approaches to developing M&E tools.
- The findings of the M&E process are primarily used to report to funders.

The following chapter outlines the conclusions and recommendations, both for practitioners and for funders.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the main conclusions based on the findings in Chapter 4.

Recommendations for practitioners and funders are then presented.

5.1 Conclusions

The main conclusions will be discussed in relation to each of the research objectives.

Objective 1: To explore the motivation of NGOs to monitor and evaluate their efforts.

The main conclusions are:

- The primary reason the ten NGOs monitor and evaluate their programmes is to report to funders. M&E findings help NGOs motivate for continued funding, to prove they have reached their targets and show the success of their programmes.
- NGOs did not indicate whether accountability to all stakeholders involved in their programmes was also a motivating factor. Rather, NGOs were motivated to conduct programme M&E as part of their funding agreements.
- Furthermore, some funders encouraged NGOs to conduct M&E by providing technical support to ensure that the process was conducted and reported on.
- It is important to note that not all the NGOs were funded by funders who required rigorous programme M&E. Instead, some funders were concerned with one aspect which is the financial management and accountability rather than the general programme outputs and outcomes.

This objective was reached completely.

Objective 2: To explore the perceptions that NGOs have about monitoring and evaluation.

The main conclusions are:

- Programme staff perceived that there were benefits to M&E as it helped them track the progress of the programme as well as clarify the outcome of programme input on programme participants.

This objective was partially reached as study participants were only partially able to provide

details on questions related to M&E.

Objective 3: To explore the ways that NGOs are using epistemological approaches to monitor and evaluate their programmes

The main conclusions are:

- The NGOs included in the study used one or more tools and approaches to programme M&E that were informed by one or more of the three epistemological approaches, namely positivist, interpretive and critical-emancipatory epistemological approaches. Some organisations used mixed methodologies and tools for programme M&E which drew from one or more of the epistemological approaches.
- NGOs had a strong leaning to the positivist approaches to programme M&E as was evident in the type of methods, tools and data collected by NGOs.

This objective was reached completely.

Objective 4: To explore the methods that NGOs use to conduct their monitoring and evaluation.

The main conclusions are:

- The NGOs mainly used quantitative methods of gathering data for M&E purposes.
- A small minority of NGOs used mixed methodologies to conduct their M&E.
- Quantitative tools used included surveys, session attendance registers, session progress reports and pre-post-assessment questionnaires which tested participant's knowledge before and after participation in the programmes.
- Qualitative tools used included focus group discussions with programme participants and stakeholders at schools.
- Some organisations relied on the observations and feedback provided by parents and teachers on the changes in behaviour of programme participants. This indicated that M&E tools in these organisations were still in the early developmental stage.

This objective was reached completely.

Objective 5: To ascertain what NGOs do with the outcomes of the monitoring and evaluation process.

The main conclusions were:

- The main method used by participating NGOs, to distribute the findings of their M&E was to report to funders on progress made in programme implementation and output.
- Reporting of findings was mainly through monthly, quarterly and annual reports.
- A few of the NGOs interviewed indicated sharing information with partner schools and the community. In cases where the findings of the M&E process were shared, it was mainly through informal communication and monthly newsletters.
- Some organisations did not have formal mechanisms for feedback to parents, teachers and the broader community not directly involved in programmes.
- None of the organisations reported the outcomes of M&E to the programme participants.

This objective was reached completely.

Objective 6: To explore the changes that are needed in the current approaches to monitoring and evaluation.

The main conclusions are:

- Using quantitative approaches to M&E only gathered specific types of data but did not necessarily show the programme outcome in terms of the desired behaviour change. Thus, organisations need tools that gather information which also indicates the behaviour change envisaged in the programme.

This objective was partially reached as interview participants indicated satisfaction with existing approaches and tools to M&E.

5.2 Recommendations

The recommendations are presented in two sections, namely, recommendations for practitioners and those directed at funders.

5.2.1 Recommendations for practitioners

It is recommended that organisations should consider:

- Developing M&E systems that draw on the strengths of the different epistemological approaches to capitalise on the benefits of each approach while attempting to minimise the weaknesses.
- Programme coordinators need to form an integral part of the planning of the M&E process so as to improve how M&E is conducted and reported.
- Greater emphasis should be paid to developing tools that yield the behaviour change outcomes that the programme is attempting to achieve. Measuring attendance and knowledge gained from lifeskills modules does not directly translate to attitude and behaviour change.
- Programme participants need to be involved at different levels of the M&E process in an effort to empower them and create a sense of ownership of the programme.
- Stakeholders should form a crucial group with whom M&E findings are shared, discussed and evaluated through a participatory and empowering process.
- Organisations need to induct and train programme implementers (and contact school teachers) in how to accurately use M&E tools so that data are captured consistently and reported on in a standardised manner.
- Organisations should invest in more research, documenting and publishing best practice lessons to grow the knowledge base of SfD.

5.2.2 Recommendations for funders

It is recommended that funders should:

- Support organisations in training on the systematic implementation of M&E in programme budgets so that organisations can develop a culture of M&E, reporting and utilising the findings of the M&E process.

- Support organisations to provide training to programme implementers and school contact teachers in an effort to build organisational capacity to conduct M&E.
- Invest in further research and the development of M&E tools specifically designed for SfD.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Letter to organisations and schools

Dear Sir/Madam (use names where available)

RE: REQUEST PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT ORGANISATION

My name is Rethabile Mashale. I am currently studying towards a Masters Degree in Social Science in the field of Social Policy and Management. I am registered for this degree in the Department of Social Development at the University of Cape Town. One of the course requirements is to complete an individual research project.

I have chosen to investigate the following topic: Fit for life: An exploration of the approaches used by sport-for-development NGOs to monitor and evaluate programmes offered in schools. I am interested in researching this topic within the broader context of the increased need for NGOs to become more accountable to their stakeholders.

The study will focus on NGOs located in Cape Town, working in schools and using sports to deliver prevention messages of HIV/AIDS, teenage pregnancy, substance abuse and various other youth related problems. The study aims to establish the monitoring and evaluation approaches of the prevention programmes within the school context.

The research objectives are:

- To explore the motivation of NGOs to monitor and evaluate their efforts.
- To explore the perceptions that NGOs have about monitoring and evaluation.
- To explore the ways that NGOs are using epistemological evaluation approaches to monitor and evaluate their programme.
- To explore the methods that NGOs use to conduct their monitoring and evaluation.
- To ascertain what NGOs do with the outcomes of the monitoring and evaluation process.

- To explore the changes that are needed in the current approaches to monitoring and evaluation.

I request permission to conduct the proposed study in your organisation. The ethics of the study will be clarified beforehand with all research participants.

I would like to collect data for the study by interviewing three people: one project staff member because of their daily interaction with the programme and direct involvement in service delivery; the programme coordinator who supervises the aforementioned staff member; and the programme's contact person/teacher at the school.

Each interview will take approximately one hour and all interviews will be scheduled at a time that suits the participant.

I would greatly appreciate it if your organisation would give me the opportunity to do my research in your organisation. I hope that the findings of the study may possibly benefit your programme.

Should you require additional information, please feel free to contact me on:

Cell phone: 073 166 9326

Email: ritsie02@gmail.com

My University of Cape Town (UCT) supervisor is Dr. Margie Booyens who can be contacted on:

Phone 021 650 34 81

Email: Margaret.Booyens@uct.ac.za

Attached please find the two interview schedules for the study.

I look forward to hearing from you at your earliest convenience.

Yours faithfully

Rethabile Mashale

Appendix B: Interview schedule for Schools

OPENING

My name is Rethabile (Ritsie) Mashale and I am a Masters student in the Department of Social Development at the University of Cape Town, majoring in Social Policy and Management.

I would like to ask you some questions about Programme _____. I am hoping that you can help me gain insight into the monitoring and evaluation of the programme.

I will use this information to help me understand how and with what purpose sport-for-development programmes are monitored and evaluated within the NGO sector. My findings will be published in a research report for the University of Cape Town, which will be available to all participants via email or through the NGO.

Consent to conduct the study has been granted by the Director/Manager of _____ (NGO name). All information will be treated as confidential and will not be shared with anyone not involved in the research.

Your real name will not be used in the interview transcript or in the final report; I will use a pseudonym to identify you. I will also give pseudonyms to the school and the programme we will be discussing. Only my supervisor, Dr Margie Booyens, and I will know the real names of the interview participants, the programmes, the organisations and the school.

All information gained in this interview will be presented as honestly as possible.

This research has obtained ethics clearance from the Department of Social Development.

Ethical clearance for this research has been obtained from the Department of Social Development.

The interview should take about an hour and a half. Your participation in this interview is entirely voluntary and you can withdraw at any stage during the interview. May I use a digital recorder to record the interview so that I can accurately capture the information you are sharing with me?

GETTING TO KNOW THE PARTICIPANT

Please tell me about your role as programme contact person.

Probes:

- What does it entail?
- What specific responsibilities do you have in the programme?

IMPLEMENTATION

Please give me a full description of the programme and its implementation at your school.

Probes:

- Who is involved in the implementation of the programme?
- What is the implementation timeframe? (term vs annum)
- What is the programme format? (during school time vs after school)
- Who is the target population?
- Why this particular target population?
- What was the school's involvement in selecting the target population?
- How many participants currently benefit from the programme?
- Training received by the contact teacher?

What are the kinds of prevention messages the programme focuses on?

Probes:

- Please give me examples of how sport is used to communicate the prevention messages.
- What are some of the benefits of this type of programme?
- What are some of the challenges of this type of programme?

Please tell me about the involvement of other school stakeholders, besides yourself, in the implementation of the programme.

Probes:

- Who? (teaching staff, principal, parents, SGB, WCED, others)
- How are each of the stakeholders involved?
- What other stakeholders should be involved?
- What value do they bring?

How do teachers create integration of what the learners are learning in the programme and what they learn in the classroom?

Probes:

- What are some of the challenges of incorporating the programme into classroom work?
- What are some of the benefits of incorporating the programme into the classroom work?

PROGRAMME MONITORING

What do you understand by the term 'programme monitoring'?

Please tell me about the monitoring of the programme under discussion.

Probes:

- What aspect(s) of the programme are monitored? (e.g. lifeskills and or sports performance: number of matches won etc).
- Specific methods used to conduct the monitoring.
- What tools are used to conduct the monitoring?
- How (use of tracking sheets, registers etc)?
- Who monitors?
- When is monitoring conducted?
- Level of involvement of the learners in monitoring.
- When and how the outcome of the monitoring process is used.

What are some of the factors that influence the monitoring process?

Probes:

- Internal (e.g. school and NGO staff capacity, skills, education, school policies, funding etc). How?
- External (WCED, government policies, funding etc) How?

What are some of the particular challenges that you experience in the monitoring of the programme?

Probes:

- How are challenges minimized?
- What are some of the particular benefits that you experience in the monitoring of the programme?
- How are the benefits maximized?
- Please tell me how those factors impact on the monitoring process?
- What are some of the factors?
- How do these factors impact?

Please tell me what is done with the findings of the monitoring process. When? Why? How? Who?

PROGRAMME EVALUATION

What is your understanding of the term 'programme evaluation'?

Please tell me about the organisation's approach to evaluation?

Probes:

- What aspect(s) of the programme are evaluated?
- Can you tell me about the methods used to evaluate this programme?
- Unplanned negative outcomes as a result of the programme?
- Any unintended benefits?
- When is programme evaluation done?

- By whom? How long it takes?
- Involvement of the programme learners and other stakeholders in the programme evaluation process? How?
- How are the evaluation findings distributed? To whom? How?
- Benefits of learners being the programme?
- The feedback of findings to the learners and the schools? When? How? Why?

What are some of the factors that influence the evaluation process?

Probes:

- Internal (e.g. school and staff capacity, skills, education, funding etc)
- External (funders, policies, funding etc)

What are some of the challenges that you experience in the evaluation of the programme?

Probes:

- How are challenges minimized?

What are some of the benefits that you experience in the evaluation of the programme?

Probes:

- How are the benefits maximized?

In which ways do you think the process of monitoring and evaluation of the programme could be improved (if at all)?

CLOSING

Thank you so much for taking the time to talk and share information about the programme and your school with me.

Is there anything that you would like to add or ask before we end off?

How did you find this interview?

Appendix C: Interview schedule for NGOs

OPENING

My name is Rethabile (Ritsie) Mashale and I am a Masters student in the Department of Social Development at the University of Cape Town, majoring in Social Policy and Management.

I would like to ask you some questions about Programme _____. I am hoping that you can help me gain insight into the monitoring and evaluation the programme.

I will use this information to help me understand how and with what purpose sport-for-development programmes are monitored and evaluated within the NGO sector. I would like to find out how the particular sport-for-development programmes are monitored and evaluated and also explore the challenges experienced by NGOs when going through this process of M&E. My findings will be published in a research report for the University of Cape Town, which will be available to participants via email.

Your real name will not be used in the interview transcript or in the final report; I will use a pseudonym to identify you. I will also give pseudonyms to the school and the programme we will be discussing. Only my supervisor, Dr Margie Booyens, and I will know the real names of the interview participants, the programmes, the organisations and the school.

All information gained in this interview will be presented as honestly as possible.

Ethical clearance for this research has been obtained from the Department of Social Development.

The interview should take about an hour and a half. Your participation in this interview is entirely voluntary and you can withdraw at any stage during the interview. May I use a digital recorder to record the interview so that I can accurately capture the information you are sharing with me?

GETTING TO KNOW THE PARTICIPANT

Please tell me about your role in the programme.

Probes:

- What is your current position in the organisation?
- What does it entail?
- What specific responsibilities do you have in the programme?

PROGRAMME PLANNING

Please share with me the process that was followed to plan the programme.

Probes:

- Who was involved in the planning of the programme?
- What planning was done regarding the M&E?
- How are programme objectives linked to sport-for-development?
- How is sports linked to the lifeskills programme?

PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION

Please share with me about the implementation of the programme.

Probes:

- Who is involved on the programme implementation?
- What is the implementation timeframe? (number of sessions per week, per term, per annum)
- What is the programme format? (during school time vs after school)
- Who is the target population of the programme?
- Why this target population group?
- How are they selected?
- Have there been any changes to these criteria since the programme was introduced? What? Why?

- How many participants currently benefiting from the programme?
- Could the programme accommodate more participants?
- If yes, what are some of the reasons for not filling to full capacity? (e.g. voluntary participation vs compulsory participation)

What are the kinds of prevention messages the programme focuses on?

Probes:

- Please give me examples of how sport is used to communicate the prevention messages.
- What are some of the benefits of this type of programme?
- What are some of the challenges of this type of programme?

PROGRAMME MONITORING

What do you understand by the term 'monitoring'?

Please tell me about the monitoring of the programme under discussion.

Probes:

- What aspect(s) of the programme are monitored? (e.g. lifeskills only, sports performance: number of matches won etc)
- Who monitors?
- When is monitoring done?
- Specific methods used to conduct the monitoring.
- What tools are used to conduct the monitoring (use of tracking sheets, registers etc)?
- Level of involvement by the learners in monitoring.
- When and how are the outcomes of the monitoring process used?

What are some of the particular challenges that you experience in the monitoring of the programme?

Probes:

- How are challenges minimized?
- What are some of the particular benefits that you experience in the monitoring of the programme?
- How are the benefits maximized?

What are some of the factors that influence the monitoring process?

Probes:

- Internal (e.g. School and NGO staff capacity, skills, education, funding, etc). How?
- External (funders, policies, funding etc). How?
- Please tell me how those factors impact on the monitoring process?
- Please tell me what is done with the findings of the monitoring process. When? Why? How? Who?

PROGRAMME EVALUATION

What is your understanding of the term 'programme evaluation'?

Can you tell me about the approach of the organisation to evaluation?

Probes:

- The methods used to evaluate this programme: What are they? How were they developed? By whom?
- What aspect(s) of the programme are evaluated? (Linked to programme objectives?)
- Can you tell me about the tools used to evaluate this programme?
- Unplanned negative outcomes as a result of the programme?
- Any unintended benefits?
- When is programme evaluation done?
- By whom? How long?
- What is the involvement of the programme participants and other stakeholders in the programme evaluation process? Who? How? When? Why?
- How are the evaluation findings used? By whom?

- Are the evaluation findings distributed? If yes, How? To whom? For what purpose?

What type of monitoring and evaluation is required by your primary source of funding?

Probes:

- Who is your primary source of funding?
- Qualitative?
- Quantitative?
- Mixed?
- Frequency? (How often?)
- Any specific tools prescribed? (e.g. logical framework etc)
- Format required for feedback?
- How is what is required by your primary source of funding with regard to M&E similar to what your organisation requires?
- How is what is required by your primary source of funding with regard to M&E different to what your organisation requires?
- What is the purpose of their M&E requirements? (both primary source of funding and organisation)

What are some of the factors that influence the evaluation process?

Probes:

- Internal (e.g. staff capacity, skills, education, etc)
- External (funders, policies etc)
- Please tell me how those factors impact on the evaluation process?
- Probes:
 - What are some of the factors?
 - How do these factors impact?

What are some of the challenges that you experience in the evaluation of the programme?

Probes:

- How are challenges minimized?

What are some of the benefits that you experience in the evaluation of the programme?

Probes:

- How are the benefits maximized?

Please tell me what is done with the findings of the evaluation process. When? Why? How?

Who?

In which ways do you think the process of monitoring and evaluation of the programme could be improved (if at all)?

CLOSING

Thank you so much for taking the time to talk and share information about your programme with me

Is there anything that you would like to add or ask before we end off?

How did you find this interview?

University of Cape Town

Appendix D: Participant consent form

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study is for academic purposes for the partial fulfilment of a Masters Degree. The purpose of this research is to find out how the particular sport-for-development programmes are monitored and evaluated and also explore the challenges experienced by NGOs when going through this process of programme M&E.

THE RESEARCH INTERVIEW

The purpose of the interview is to better understand the approaches used by NGOs to monitor and evaluate sport-for development programmes.

You have been selected to participate in this interview on the basis of your knowledge about the programme in your school and the specific NGO that you are part of.

If you decide to be in this research study, you will be asked to sign this consent form after you have had all your questions about participation answered to your satisfaction, and you feel comfortable about participation.

You will be required to participate in a discussion on M&E related to the programme and it will take one and a half hours for the discussion.

RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

In the discussion you will not be pressured to discuss personal details that you are not comfortable sharing, but open discussion of all topics will be encouraged. However, if there is any reason you think that you may become upset by answering questions about M&E, please feel free to not participate.

You are required to agree to maintain confidentiality, which the researcher will also maintain within the limits of the study requirements. The research supervisor and researcher are the only people that will be aware of your organisation and school.

BENEFITS AND COST

You may not get any direct benefit from this study. But, the knowledge gained from the study will assist in contributing to the topical issues of programme M&E within sport-for-development programmes offered by NGOs. Your participation will be a small but significant one in making this study significant and relevant in the context of South Africa.

The results of this study will be made available through an electronic report and through the Department of Social Development at UCT.

There are no costs for participating in this study other than the time you will spend in the interview.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You do not have to participate in this study, although your participation would be greatly appreciated. If you choose to participate, you may stop at any time without any penalty. You may also choose not to answer particular questions that are asked during the interview.

PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

You will not be pressured to offer private information about yourself in this interview.

The interview will be digitally recorded and transcribed to ensure that what you and other participants say is accurately documented. There will be no linking information on the transcription, so there will be no way for anyone else in the study to know what your personal responses were.

The information you supply will only be used by the researcher of this study and will not be circulated to other parties.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be given a consent form to sign ensuring your informed consent to participate in this study.

QUESTIONS

If you have general questions about this study you can contact the Department of Social Development at UCT-(021) 650 34 83 or the researcher on 073 166 93 26 or ritsie02@gmail.com.

In the future, you may have questions about your participation in this study. If you have any questions about your participation or your rights as a participant, you may contact Dr Margaret Booyens– Tel (021) 650 34 83 or Margaret.Booyens@uct.ac.za.

CONSENT

The research study, including the above information, has been described to me orally. I understand what my involvement in the study means I voluntarily agree to participate. I have been given an opportunity to ask any questions that I might have about participation in the study. My signature confirms that I am willing to participate in this study and agree to abide by the expectations regarding privacy and confidentiality set out above.

I understand that the interview will be recorded and transcribed without names attached to comments, and consent to this.

_____/_____/2011

Participant name

Participant signature

Date

_____/_____/2011

Researcher

Signature of researcher

Date