An Introductory Guide to Proposal Development for Small NGO/Organizations Seeking Funding for Institutional Development

Compiled by

Ranjith Ratnayake
SRI LANKA WATER PARTNERSHIP
A host of publications, training material and information on proposal development for funding for various organizations over a wide spectrum of activities and interests are freely available, both in written form and through the electronic media. This short guideline developed through compilation of information from many sources, both published and unpublished, includes knowledge gleaned through personal experience and training in many recognized international development institutions over a period of four decades in the water sector. This document essentially focusses on requirements that usually need to be met by small local NGOs and organizations such as the Country Water Partnerships (CWP) under the Global Water Partnership (GWP) network umbrella when seeking funding.

The very nature of the activities and scale of investment precludes the usual focus on economic criteria such as Benefit Cost Analysis, Internal Rate of Return etc and also environmental considerations such as Environment Impact Assessments. These activities seldom include capital/infrastructure related development undertakings of a significant nature, with the realm of operations being social and institutional interventions or demonstrations based on small grants. The approaches and considerations before proposal preparation are very important in the context of limited outreach capability and control factors that are within the ambit of facilitating catalytic small institutions such as the CWP.

It is hoped that this document will go some way in helping our collaborators and partners to better understand the issues involved and aspects to be considered when developing proposals to secure funding for the type of activity that local NGOs and CWP propose to donors. Aspects such as Project/Programme Management concepts and practices have not been covered here as it constitutes a wholly separate dimension.

Ranjith Ratnayake.
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1. Context 01

2. Getting started 02
   a). Understanding the Project Cycle
   b). SWOT Analysis
   c). The Project Environment

3. Structure of Concept Notes/Proposals 07
   - Writing to Inform
   - Writing to persuade
   A). Concept Notes
      i). How to write a Concept Note
      ii). What should be the size of the Concept Note?
      iii). Is there a specific format for writing the Concept Note?
      iv). Is the Concept Note useful for the applying NGO/CBO/CWP as well?
      v). What are the contents of a Concept Note?
   B). How to write a proposal
      i). Introduction to proposal writing
      ii). Problems in Writing Proposals
      iii). Before Writing a Proposal
      iv). Writing about the Organization
      v). The Actual Proposal
      vi). Writing Problem Statement/Project Rationale in a Proposal
      vii). Explaining the Problem Statement in the Proposal
      viii). Project Goal
      ix). Writing Project Objectives
      x). Strategies and Activities
   C). Performance Indicators, Risks and Assumptions
      i). Performance Indicators
      ii). Risks and Assumptions
   D). Results
   E). Monitoring & Evaluation
   F). Budget and Proposal Packaging
      i). Proposal Packaging
   G). How to write Logical Framework Analysis (LFA) in Grant Proposals
      i). What is Logical Framework Analysis (LFA) and why is it important
      ii). Why is LFA so important
      iii). Inside the Logical Framework of a grant proposal
      iv). Various components of a Logical Framework in a grant proposal
      v). Logical Framework (USAID/ ADB)
      vi). A way to develop the Logical Framework in a grant proposal
      vii). The Problem Tree and the Logical Framework
      viii). Some more tips on writing the LFA
   H). Outcome Mapping (OM)
   I). Critical Path Method (CPM) and Programme Review and Evaluation Technique (PERT)

4. The Executive Summary 28
5. Proposals on Climate Change
   a). How to write Proposals on Projects addressing Climate Change
   b). Project Rationale: How to write Proposals on Projects addressing Climate Change
   c). Cause and Effect Relationship: How to write Proposals on Projects addressing Climate Change
   d). Defining the Project Goal and Objectives: How to write Proposals on Projects addressing Climate Change
   e). Strategies and Actions: How to write Proposals on Projects addressing Climate Change
   f). Gender and Climate Change: How to write Proposals on Projects addressing Climate Change

6. Donors
   a). Defining Donors
   b). Types of Donors
   c). Types of Funding
   d). Donor Relations and Public Awareness
   e). Donor Intelligence
   f). Strategic Fund-Raising Plan

7. MOU/MOA/ LOI and Contracts

8. References
Country Water Partnerships (CWP), in general, occupy a unique position in the Global Water Partnership (GWP) Network, in that whilst coming under the umbrella of GWP, CWPs are in themselves independent and autonomous entities linked through the common thread of commitment to promoting Integrated Water Resources Management (IWRM). Operationally too it is significant that CWPs work through a horizontally integrated matrix arrangement of water enthusiasts contributing time and energy on a voluntary basis. The concept of also undertaking IWRM activities in “partnership” with collaborators through mobilizing existing resources for implementation and by attachment to an institutional home to provide a hosting arrangement for internal services, including financial, ensures that only a core minimal staff is required for operations. This enables full commitment to programme implementation and the best use of its volunteering members is not handicapped by administrative issues. A Regional Water Partnership (RWP) as a collective of country and CWP interests enables the regional dimension to be internalized and harmonized providing a smooth strategic link for somewhat seamless upstream/downstream information (global to local and vice versa) exchange to take place. Though the focus of CWPs are water centric, considering the many dimensions of its interaction and impact, it cuts across many sectors and considering especially the added challenges of climate change, many opportunities are available for intervention.

Some CWPs are legal entities while others are not. The lack of a legal basis is not too inhibiting if the legal backstopping of a recognized host such as IWMI for SLWP and the GWP brand exists and legal standing can be mobilized when needed when contractual agreements arise. Contracting parties in most instances would view the credentials of the recognized host/GWP over that of the CWP as a legal body for entering into contracts. Unlike in projects implemented by state agencies or donors, the sphere of control over implementation in any “project environment” (see Figure 2) remains quite small in the case of institutions such as CWPs. However, the ability to include the host/GWP as the main party to any agreement enables the “sphere of influence” to be expanded over and beyond what would have been the level of influence garnered by a legal CWP acting on its own as a proponent.

Another advantage a CWP has is that its core partnership comprises of highly respected water and related professional institutions cutting across academia, to practitioners and policy, while its partnership mode of operation and non-profit nature enables it to mobilize resources for implementation in the most cost effective ways. Its direct linkage and access to knowledge products and platforms, both regional and global, provide significant backstopping appreciated by prospective clients.
a). Understanding the Project Cycle

A project cycle describes the various phases - and their sequence - that a project must go through from beginning to end in order to realize its objective.

Usually, all major donors expect a project cycle based schedule both for the pre implementation and implementation/evaluation stage. Therefore, an understanding of what constitutes the processes in a project cycle is important in the casting of a proposal and onto its implementation.

The Project Cycle (figure 1a) is basically a Two Part Seven Stage process through which practically every major project goes through: (1) Identification: the stage where one project-idea out of several alternatives is chosen and defined; (2) Preparation: the defined idea is carefully developed to the appraisal stage; (3) Appraisal: every aspect of the project idea is subjected to systematic and comprehensive evaluation, and a project plan prepared; (4) Presentation: a detailed plan is submitted to the appropriate entities for approval and financing; (5) Implementation: with necessary approvals and financing in place, the project plan is implemented; (6) Monitoring: at every stage of the project its progress is assessed against the plan; and (7) Evaluation: upon completion the project is reassessed in terms of its efficiency and performance.

It is also called project life cycle. Usually structured as a cycle to confirm the continuity of the process whereby the monitoring and evaluation (M&E), including ex post, serve as Feedback to a new cyclic process of project development. This is especially important where projects are defined in phases or as complementary/sequential. A simpler Five Stage Cycle (figure 1b), as used by the UNEP, is also illustrated below.

![Project Cycle Diagram](image-url)
Many formats of a Project Cycle exist and various proponents and donors use their own. In the case of Donors the internal approval processes take precedence and the first part of the cycle may have several additional stages.

b). SWOT Analysis

As a first step in the design of any proposal it is important that the CWP is clear of its relative ability to deliver within the context of its operational environment, resources and timelines. A SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) analysis is vital and precedes any proposal submission. This is well understood and no further expansion under this activity is envisaged.

c). The Project Environment.

With large numbers of NGOs and similar institutions competing for interest/funds from donors it is imperative that submission of information should be in an acceptable coherent format and in content that would encourage any appraiser to delve deeper into the submission. Often, proposals are won or lost in the first few pages. The flow and substance of the presentation must generate interest from startup, be it a Concept Note or Proposal proper.

The Economic Development Institute (EDI) of the World Bank conceptualized the typical Project Environment (see Figure 2). This is in reality an expanded SWOT analysis that helps a better visualization of its own competence and constraints by bringing the magnitude aspect to the forefront.

Logically, the area of Control and Influence are much greater in State/Donor projects than those of smaller local NGO/CBO and CWP projects that necessarily work in a less authoritative and more challenging collaborative mode catalyzing and facilitating the changes envisaged.
However, a CWP has the advantage of enhancing the Control and Influence spheres when activities are linked or worked through a recognized host (IWMI) and the use of the GWP Brand is possible. The regional dimension added by GWP SAS also reinforces the institutional strength and visibility of the CWP.

Usual aspects covered in considering the project environment in relation to implementation cover issues of legal, economic, social, institutional, resources, finances, environmental and externalities that may impact on the project during its implementation.

In practice, the 24 cells can be recast with the project activities subsumed within the three dimensions of control, influence and appreciation, to provide a realistic overall picture of the implementation environment to enable project management to respond and intervene appropriately. It is a useful tool to assist the project proponent of the possible capability thresholds to be addressed during proposal development and estimation of needed resource mobilization, funding and project timelines etc.

Consideration has to be given to M&E during the identification phase as well. Monitoring and evaluation depend on own capacity/resource capability and requirements of the donor as well. For small projects with a limited menu of activities a simple bar/Gantt chart system plotting progress against timelines or costs is adequate.

Where a greater number of activities delivering outputs on differing timelines are involved milestone charts seem to be more effective. Here activities are plotted against events over a timeline considering that one or several activities may lead to each event. The use of the term Activity and Event is well defined in this instance and cannot be loosely interpreted as we do in everyday use where we even interchange the terms as we see fit. Here, activity has to be noted as consuming both time and resources while an event is the culmination or product and by itself does not consume time or resources.

Where supplies and services to activities based on differing timelines influence the reaching of an event status or there is need for many events to contribute to a goal or objective and regular time wise monitoring is required to manage a series of activities the Critical Path Method (CPM) is used. On given timelines for the final Event if all the activities have no leeway or Float, as it is termed, to allow for any delay then these activities are termed in the critical path and have to be monitored closely to ensure that agreed timely product output is possible. Other activities that contribute to the event may have float allowing delays in supply or fulfilling that activity and not affect or impact on the timely product of the output or event.

Thus, items with float are considered not in the critical path and can allow for some delay. Time overruns beyond the period of float may result in activities not earlier on the critical path now being on the critical path and the critical path now changed from the earlier.

The CPM requires some expertise and considering the type of focused activity with fewer inputs that are undertaken by local NGOs/CWPs it is unlikely that CPM as an M&E tool will be required.
Outcome Mapping (OM) is an M&E tool developed by IDRC and is useful where institutional/behavioral changes are to be monitored. Not widely used, it has relevance where the control/influence aspects of project are significant as in the case of a state/donor implemented project.

M&E is important especially if another Phase or follow up project is to be undertaken where the feedback will feed into casting of the new proposal.
Usual Aspects Relating to Project Environment

- Control
- Influence
- Appreciation

Legal
Economic
Social
Institutional
Externalities
Environmental
Resources
Finance

EDI/ World Bank
Writing to inform. Writing to persuade.

- **Writing to Inform.**
  It is important to understand that the intent of the proposal is to persuade rather than merely inform. Writing a report constitutes intent to inform.

- **Writing to persuade**
  Persuasion is goal driven. Advertising people write to persuade. Politicians talk to persuade. The purpose of the proposal is to get money/funding. Therefore, the proposal must persuade and not merely inform. For this, of prime concern is to appeal to the self-interest of the donor to want them to fund what we propose than fund someone else. The next important factor is to write with **passion**. The **urgency** and **enthusiasm** for what is to be done has to be clear in the proposal. It is not a clinical dispassionate report like a judgment in a court of law. Short sentences convey urgency, while long sentences may appear impressive but could, with a lot of subordinate clauses, put an appraiser off.

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A). Concept Notes

i) How to write a Concept Note
   A concept note (CN) is a short expression of the project idea given on paper to a prospective donor or sponsor. It is usually preferable where no proposals have been requested (unsolicited). Most sponsors/donors initially prefer to understand the project through a CN rather than a full-fledged proposal.

ii). What should be the size of the Concept Note?
   This actually depends upon the donor requesting the CN. However, we need to remember that it is the shortest possible text for our project idea. So, shorter the better. Most donor agencies request a minimum of one page to a maximum of three pages.

iii). Is there a specific format for writing the Concept Note?
   Usually donors do not have a format for a CN as they have for a full proposal. But there are some agencies that issue solicitation for CNs based upon a basic format given in the guidelines.

iv). Is the Concept Note useful for the applying NGO/CBO/CWP as well?
   A CN has many advantages for NGOs/CBOs seeking funds. It practically gives a framework for ideas when they are organized on paper. It is also the first expression of the project and gives the flexibility for the organization to work and re-work on idea before presenting it to the donor.

v). What are the contents of a Concept Note?
   While there is no standard format for a CN, generally the following information is expected:
   1. Name of the organization
   2. Title of the proposed project
   3. Potential Donor
   4. Context (not more than 300 words)
   5. Rationale for the proposed project
B). How to write a proposal.

I Introduction to proposal writing

A proposal is essentially a marketing document that helps cultivate an initial professional relationship between an organization and a donor over a project to be implemented. The proposal outlines the plan of the implementing organization about the project, giving extensive information about the intention for implementing it, the ways to manage it and the results to be delivered. A proposal is a very important document. In some cases, a concept note precedes a proposal, briefing the basic facts of the project idea. However, the project idea faces a considerable challenge when it has to be presented in a framework.

The proposal has a framework that establishes ideas formally for a clear understanding of the project for the donor. Hence, a proposal facilitates appropriate words for the conception of an idea.

Proposals have recently become more sophisticated. This reflects the increased competitiveness and larger resources existing in the NGO/CBO sector. The trend of inviting proposals for contracting development programmes began with the allotment of substantial resources for development that triggered the mushrooming of NGOs around the world.

Enormous opportunities existing in the sector have led to the trend of making proposal writing a profession. Proposal writing poses many challenges, especially for small and unskilled NGOs, including CWPs. Here, we discuss some basic and necessary information required for developing a proposal.

Contents

1). Introduction
2). Challenges in proposal writing
3). Before writing a proposal
4). About the organization
5). Actual proposal
6). Problem statement and project rationale
7). Project goal(s)
8). Project objectives
9). Strategies and activities
10). Performance indicators
11). Results
12). Monitoring and evaluation
13). The budget and proposal packaging
ii). Problems in Writing Proposals

Before we start learning about proposal writing, it will serve our purpose if we outline the exact difficulties we face working on writing a proposal.

The following are the common problems we face while trying to write a proposal:

- **Confused about the format?**
  There are as many proposal formats as there are the number of donors and each donor has a different format. Although the basic information requested by various donors is generally the same, we often encounter snags that make the entire process confusing.

- **Planning problems?**
  Although a good idea exists, when we try to plan it out extensively we face many unexpected challenges.

- **Fear of proposal rejection**
  No matter how much of an expert we are in writing proposals, the underlying fear of proposal rejection hovers over us while writing it.

- **Tight deadlines**
  This is perhaps the most universal problem for all proposal writers. For some reason or the other, we are expected to complete working proposals under very tight deadlines.

- **Solicited and unsolicited proposals**
  Solicited and unsolicited proposals are quite confusing. Many NGOs work hard and submit proposals to donors but soon they are informed by the proposed donor that they had never been asked to submit one.

iii). Before Writing a Proposal

Before we start writing a proposal, it is important for us to do some research. No matter how small or big the project is some kind of references to existing literature or data should be made. Usually, it is expected that the NGO has enough information at hand about the problem or the project before writing the proposal. However, NGOs have to gather all related information about the issue they are working on to write the proposal.

In some cases, donors sponsor pre-proposal research so that organizations have adequate evidence, both at field level and in literature, before developing the actual proposal. But not many NGOs are lucky enough to avail of such an opportunity.

While planning the proposal, it is believed that ideally all stakeholders have been consulted or have been involved in the process. There are generally three main categories of stakeholders involved in the process of writing the proposal. They are:

1. The proposing organization/s or the proponent: This could be just one NGO or a group of NGOs applying for the project to the donor.

2. The community: The most important stakeholder for whom the project is conceived. Community members or beneficiaries or the target group have
to be involved in the proposal planning process so that the project reflects strong qualities of participation and community.

3. The Donor Agency: Wherever possible, it will be useful to take inputs from the donor. In formal invitations for proposals, the donor may discourage any contact with the proposing organizations. However, in other situations where a donor has requested for a one-to-one proposal, it is a good idea to have several meetings with the stakeholder and note down information carefully. It will also help to research the Donor's priorities while conceiving the proposal idea.

Make sure you gather enough information about your donor, such as,

- Aid priorities and issues of the Donor
- The Donor’s country strategy paper (if any)
- Proposal guidelines
- Previously funded projects and programs

iv). Writing about the Organization

New individuals working on proposals may face problems when writing the organization's background. They prefer to copy previous information into this particular section of the proposal. However, this information may sometimes be outdated, e.g. you may have forgotten to add an important NGO activity. In the case of CWPs, the linkages to the host institution and the brand name of GWP adds value to the credentials.

Besides, many times, there are facts about an organizations that the writer may not be aware of. While we do quite a lot of research on the beneficiaries and the donor agency when writing the proposal, we hardly see the need for researching our own organization to present the best picture of the institution to the donor.

To ensure that there is thorough knowledge about the organization in the proposal, it is important not only to copy information from previous documents, but also to carry out discussions with colleagues about the project.

The SWOT tool comes handy here when we sit with our colleagues and find out the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the organization. Once this framework is ready, it will be quite easy to write the proposal and answer the sharp questions of any proposal format.

v). The Actual Proposal

A general format of the proposal consists of the following parts:
1. Problem statement
2. Rationale or justification for implementing the project
3. Project goal and objectives
4. Strategy and activities
5. Results: Outputs and outcomes
6. Budget

This basic format of a proposal could be expanded to cover many concepts and issues confronting project funding and project implementation.
vi). Writing Problem Statement/Project Rationale in a Proposal

The problem statement/project rationale gives an explanation about the issue that is being addressed by the project. It also argues in favour of implementing the project in the proposed area in the existing conditions. It is very critical that we give evidence to what we are writing in this section of the proposal.

Evidence can be in the form of other research, existing literature or data collected by the organization itself. The following are some important points that need to be remembered while developing the problem statement/project rationale:

- Problem statement/project rationale is a brief analysis or summary of the problems identified relating to the project or issue to be addressed by the project.
- It has to be precise and in a point-to-point basis.
- Use of quotes, live examples, references, research data and press articles would be very helpful.
- It has to be very specific to donor issues and priorities.
- Giving references to other NGOs/CBOs, government/state organizations working towards solving the same problem would be useful.

Some common information we can use in this section includes:

- Country, region, area details (location in region, government, population etc);
- Poverty information, including information on the state of the economy,
- Status or water sector/issues, institutional/policy issues
- Employment/unemployment/incomes;
- Gender issues;
- Health/sanitation and education

As new experiences are gathered by donors in project implementation and funding processes, new explanations are sought from the applicant through the proposal.

vii). Explaining the Problem Statement in the Proposal

Sometimes we may find difficulties in writing the exact problem we intend to address in the proposed project, especially if the problem being mentioned in the proposal is not the problem at all but is actually an effect of another problem.

For example, suppose there is high child mortality in our project area and we wish to put up a proposal on it, we cannot mention this as a problem because this is an effect of a problem where the problem is something else. In this case, it could be the prevalence of diarrhea that is leading to high child mortality. So the problem here is “the prevalence of diarrhea” and not “high child mortality rate.”

It is also necessary to mention the cause of the problem because it is an integral part of the project implementation. In this scenario, the cause of the problem for the prevalence of diarrhea could be the “poor knowledge of the community about proper hygiene and sanitation.”

Effect > Problem > Cause

The relationship between the three (effect, problem and cause) has to be outlined in the problem statement of the proposal. If we have an issue, it will be a good
exercise to take a step back and forth to find out its cause and effect relationship. The best way to understand the cause of an issue is to ask “Why” continuously. This will help reveal the cause of the problem. A problem can have many causes and effects.

“The Why of Why”

- Projects evolve out of identified problems
- It is the problem that comes before a project
- The secret of solving a problem is proper identification of the problem. This requires a thorough investigation.
- A problem does not happen in isolation. It goes hand in hand with cause and effect.
- There is a relationship between cause and effect. They are linked by the problem.

A way to analyze a problem is through analyzing the root causes and its effects.

- State the problem as effectively and precisely as possible
- Refer to any research data that is available, including publications, reports, newspapers etc.
- Give a narration of community perception with quotes.
- Check back how well it matches with the donor guidelines or issues.
- Give thorough background information about the region, community and resources available.
- Explain the organizational strength and capacity in countering this problem and achieving long-term results.

viii). Project Goal

A project goal is a very general, high-level and long-term objective of the project. It is different from project objectives because the latter are very specific and have to be addressed alone by the project. But a goal cannot be achieved by the project on its own since there will be other forces like the Government and other agencies as well working to achieve it. It is a major benchmark to compare work between different projects. Usually there is one project goal only and it can be reflected in the title of the project also. It should ideally support the overall policy of the government or the donor agency.

ix). Writing Project Objectives

Project objectives should be:

SMART : Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant and Time-bound.

Project objectives are the specific objectives towards which the project works to achieve them within a stipulated time. They should directly address the problem mentioned in the problem statement and should be specific; the more specific it is the better to design activities, indicators and the logical framework analysis. Specific objectives also help address the problem stated and convince the donor easily.
Tips:
- Think about what success means for your project and how you would show that success
- Refer to the results you expect from the project
- Describe the focus population and the desired change among the population
- Include the location and time period for each objective
- Reflect the intended changes in systemic conditions or behaviors that must be achieved to accomplish the goal/strategic objective.
- Objectives should have measurable indicators which show what, when, and how conditions, behavior and practices will change.
- Objectives must be verifiable at some point during the execution of the project.

A good objective can be:

“To increase the income-level of women farmers from 5% to 15% in the district.”

Some Relevant Words to be used while writing Objectives
- Decrease...
- Increase...
- Strengthen...
- Improve...
- Enhance...

Some words to be avoided as far as possible while writing Objectives
- Train
- Provide
- Produce
- Establish
- Create

x). Strategies and Activities

Proposals are required to outline how the objectives of the project would be achieved. Here, it will be necessary to mention the strategies and the activities to be implemented in the project. There is a difference between strategies and activities. Strategies are broad concepts under which activities are placed.

Strategies in a project can include:
- Capacity-building/ awareness raising
- Organizational/institutional development
- Research and development
- Advocacy
- Victim/community support strategy
- Micro-finance and CBO development strategy
- Participatory institution/infrastructure development strategy

Activities can include:
- Training workshops, street shows, rallies
- Staff selection, staff training
- Baseline, PRA, FGD
- Conferences, meetings, articles, publications
- Capacity Building, counseling, legal support
- Forming SHGs and cooperatives
- Knowledge Products, Extension
- Pilot/demonstration activities, demo plots etc

To develop activities:
- Refer back to the lessons learned from previous projects.
- Identify best practices from other agencies/projects/sources.
- Activities as identified by the communities
- Develop activities by listing numbers, so that they could be referred back to easily
- Leave space for unplanned activities that can be added later during project implementation

### GANTT CHART

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Activities are usually listed out in a Gantt Chart. A Gantt Chart is a kind of a time table of all project activities given along with the role and responsibilities of the project staff.

### C. Performance Indicators, Risks and Assumptions

#### I. Performance Indicators

A Performance Indicator is a measure of the result. It gives a sense of what has been or what is to be achieved.

For example, the number of households keeping their surroundings clean and hygienic or the number of women participating in training programs.

There are two types of indicators, namely, “process indicators” and “results indicators.” Process indicators define the indicators for a process or an activity like...
'number of women participating in the training on gender development” and results indicators refer to the indicators that indicate the result achieved from implementing the activity, such as 'number of women aware about gender rights.”

ii). Risks and Assumptions
Risks and assumptions are part of the concept based on the principle that we have less and less control of the project results as we go further down implementing the project.

For example, 'government policies/officials are supportive of the project activities' or 'ongoing peace and stability may be hampered by sporadic violence.'

D). Results
Results are changes that we expect to take place after implementing the project activities. Results are generally positive experiences undergone by the beneficiaries.

Results are divided into three types:
1. Outputs
2. Outcomes
3. Impact

Outputs are immediate results that we achieve soon after the completion the project or any specific project activity.

For example, if a training on human rights is carried out in a project, the output or the immediate result of it is “a greater understanding of human rights amongst the participants.”

Outcomes are results that have been or that are to be achieved after a period of time, but not immediate. In the above example, it could be that “the participants have moved further into communities to inform them about human rights or carrying out policy advocacy in favor of human rights.”

Impact is the longer-term result that has happened because of the activities undertaken in the project. The impact in the example given above could be “policies are framed by the Government to protect the human rights of the people.”

E). Monitoring & Evaluation
Monitoring is the systematic and routine collection of information to learn from experiences and improve practices, to have internal and external accountability of resources used, to take informed decisions and to promote empowerment of stakeholders/beneficiaries.

Evaluation on the other hand is assessing systematically and objectively a completed project/programme. Evaluations appraise data and information that inform strategic decision making.

Although it is the responsibility of the donor to carry out monitoring and evaluation of the project, it usually seeks the plan from the implementing NGO about it.
Monitoring and evaluation enables constant check on the activities and helps review the progress made at every step. Monitoring should be the integral part of project implementation; in fact, there should be an internal mechanism to monitor the results, risks, assumptions and performance regularly through meetings and report submissions. The Management Information Systems (MIS) is often used as a mechanism to undertake monitoring. The baseline information is critical to the monitoring process.

Involving external entities such as donors, government people, consultants etc., in monitoring would be an ideal opportunity to collect feedback, provide exposure to the work and also explore new options. Evaluation is carried out by an external agency during the mid-term or towards the end of the project.

F) Budget and Proposal Packaging

The Budget section is the backbone of the grant proposal. Some grant reviewers look at the budget even before reading the proposal to see what the money will be used for. Program activities must drive the budget. The program narrative should match the budget perfectly. There should be no “surprises” in a budget.

- Cost estimates should be credible and realistic.
- Inflated budgets will damage your credibility with the grant reviewer.
- Never use the word “miscellaneous”.

Most Foundations ask for two types of budgets to be included in a grant proposal:
1. Organization or operating budget; and
2. Project or program budget

The Operating Budget is the financial statement that is submitted annually for approval by the nonprofit organization's Board of Directors. It is a projection of income and expenses for the organization's fiscal year.

The Project or Programme Budget enumerates the resources required to carry out the program or project which is being proposed for funding.

Budgets can be presented in a variety of formats, but should contain the following common features.

- Is for a set time period, which should be identified (i.e. Fiscal Year 2005); and
- Expenses should be divided into two broad categories:
  - Personnel
  - Non-personnel

The Project Budget may also include support to be received or revenue to be earned. If there are some unusually large expenses in the budget or if something requires an explanation, include a budget narrative that explains the details and shows the calculations used to arrive at the numbers.

The budget has to be itemized as clearly as possible and presented in the required format. It should be in line with the activities set in the project. It will be an additional advantage to mention contribution from other sources, such as the community or other donors. Contribution made by the proposing organization should...
also be mentioned. If there is any recurring income from the project activities, it needs to be clearly indicated in the budget section.

I. Proposal Packaging

When the proposal writing is complete, it is important to ensure that the packaging has been done properly before submitting it to the donor. Below are some important points to bear in mind while packaging the proposal.

The proposal should be structured as follows:

- Title Page with the project title, name of the donor agency and name, logo and contact information of the Proposer.
- Table of Contents;
- Page spelling out the acronyms used in the proposal
- Project Summary of not more than one page, narrating goal, objectives, results and activities.
- Organizational overview
- Bibliography/references.
- Appendices, if applicable
- Ensure that page numbering, headers and footers are complete.
- While writing, use active sentences more often.
- Keep in mind the limit for the total number of pages for the proposal.
- The proposal should be signed and sealed.
- Cover letter is essential

G). How to write Logical Framework Analysis (LFA) in Grant Proposals

In various proposal formats, we come across a table or a framework required to be filled to give more detailed information about our project. This table is referred to as a Log frame or Logical Framework or Logical Framework Analysis (LFA) or Logical Framework Matrix. This framework is the most important part of the proposal, yet it continues to be the most complicated one. Here are provided some simple explanations to help NGOs/CWPs and other development professionals on how to understand and develop this framework in an easier manner. A log frame has relevance for both Project/Proposal Development and Project M&E.

I. What is Logical Framework Analysis (LFA) and why is it important

An LFA is a management tool for effective planning and implementation of developmental projects. It provides clear, concise and systematic information about a project through a framework. We know about various components of a project such as goal, objectives, activities, results and indicators.

The LFA helps in connecting all these components in one framework, presenting the tight relationship between them, leading to the achievement of the expected outcomes.

ii). Why is LFA so important

Because donors use it. It was first actually developed by USAID during the 1970s, but now every donor uses it in its proposal format. The log frame has become an essential tool for donors not only in planning their own macro-level strategies, but also
in seeking in-depth information about small and medium-sized projects funded by them. LFA also gives a clear outlay of how much resources would be needed and how these will be used for various project activities.

The logical framework also aids in the monitoring and evaluation of projects. The framework can be used to examine the progress of the project to co-relate the activities carried out and results achieved.

iii). Inside the Logical Framework of a grant proposal

If we really look at the LFA more closely, we will understand that it is not as complicated as it sounds. In fact, the LFA is nothing but putting together the whole project proposal in one table with brief descriptions of the projects. Different terms are applied for various parts of the LFA by different donors. Nevertheless, they mean the same. If we understand the general principles of developing the log frame, it is easier to complete LFAs of many different donor organizations.

As an LFA is an integral part of a proposal, we first need to complete the proposal so that it becomes an easy reference for writing the log frame. We can always go back and forth from log frame to the proposal to make any changes.

To begin with, completing the proposal in a draft manner or at least writing down various proposal components is a good practice before feeding information into the log frame.

iv). Various components of a Logical Framework in a grant proposal

The Log Frame enables the examination of relationships between the various inputs, outputs and outcomes in relation to anticipated objectives of a proposed line of action. At the same time the juxtaposition of the means of verification for each level of input/output and the indicators that will be used for verification enable the logic of the proposed course of action to be validated.

More importantly, by laying and layering the assumptions under which the planning process was instituted provides a reviewer to assess the conditions and environment under which success is assumed and whether such assumptions are
reasonable and acceptable as risks in operationalizing and implementing any proposed activity. Thus, the 16 cells in the Log Frame provide an easily visualized summary of the scenario under which the project or activity will be undertaken enabling a third person or donor to do a quick appraisal. In addition it offers a framework for developing an M&E outline for implementation and even ex post evaluation.

v). LOGICAL FRAMEWORK (USAID/ ADB)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>VERIFIABLE INDICATORS</th>
<th>MEANS OF VERIFICATION</th>
<th>IMPORTANT ASSUMPTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GOAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PURPOSE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OUTPUT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INPUT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Just as we have formatted our proposals by giving detailed information in various components such as goal, objectives, activities, results etc., we need to put the same titles in a framework or a table and provide brief information about them. In some instances Sub Goals/Objectives may be included.
In many other formats, LFAs have a narrative summary section, which is nothing but a narration of what the project intends to seek, i.e. the goal and objectives of the project.

**Defining the components of the Logical Framework in a grant proposal**

**Goal**
A project goal is a very general, high-level and long-term objective of the project. It is different from project objectives because the latter are very specific and have to be addressed alone by the project. But the goal cannot be achieved by the project on its own since there will be other forces like the Government, other agencies etc., also working to achieve it. It is a major benchmark to compare work between different projects.

**Objectives**
Objectives are the specific objectives the project works towards to achieve within the stipulated time.

**Activities or Inputs**
Activities or inputs are actions undertaken by the project or the organization to achieve the set objectives.

**Outputs**
Outputs are immediate results that we achieve soon after the completion of the project or any specific project activity.

**Outcomes**
Outcomes are results that have been or that are to be achieved after a period of time, but not immediate.

**Impact**
The impact is the longer-term result that has happened because of the activities undertaken in the project.
### Indicators

Indicators are a measure of the result. They give a sense of what has been or what is to be achieved.

### Means of Verification

Data or information based on which the indicators will be measured or monitored.

### Risks & Assumptions

External factors affecting the progress of the project.

### Costs

Budgetary explanations.

A direct cause and effect relationship is presumed between activities, outputs, and purpose, an IF THEN relationship. IF activities are undertaken THEN outputs will be produced. IF outputs are produced THEN purpose will be achieved. However, the relationship between purpose and goal is less direct and causal, since many exogenous factors may influence goal attainment. Attaining the project purpose is necessary but may not be sufficient by itself for achieving the goal unless other causal factors are also active.

### Vertical Logic

From top to bottom of the left Column is a “narrative summary” of the four levels of objectives of a project, including activities, outputs, purpose and goal. A clear concise statement of objectives indicate the plausibility of the assumed linkages between levels.

Activities are actions needed to achieve each output and are **tasks** to be undertaken. Activities are accomplished with inputs. **Outputs** are the anticipated predicted consequences of the Inputs. The **purpose** is what the project is expected to achieve once completed and the **goal** is the greater reason for undertaking the project.

### Horizontal Logic

**Objectively Verifiable Indicators** specifies the type of evidence needed to verify the achievement of objectives at each level and the third column **Means of Verification** indicates how that evidence can be found and measured. Both have consequences for **Monitoring and Evaluation**.

### vi). A way to develop the Logical Framework in a grant proposal

One of the basic principles of writing down the LFA is that it should be participatory. Participatory because without the participation of all stakeholders, the LFA can never be complete.

A full and final LFA represents the ideas and concerns of all stakeholders involved in the projects. These stakeholders can be communities or the direct beneficiaries of the project, the implementing organization, the partner agencies, the local authorities and, in some cases, the donor as well.

Tools such as stakeholder analysis, organizational analysis and SWOT analysis can be very useful at this point. If such exercises have been undertaken earlier, the information collected can be used in improvising the LFA.
vii). The Problem Tree and the Logical Framework

Before thinking of implementing a project, we usually have a reason in mind: a reason as to why a project is required. We may have noticed a problem in a community or its effect and in response to it we may need a project. This cause-and-effect relationship is critical to our understanding in writing a proposal and completing the LFA.

To understand the cause-and-effect relationship, we often use the Problem Tree diagram where we keep climbing up and down to understand a situation.

Similarly in a logical framework analysis, we have to keep going up and down often and again to refine our goals, objectives and results.

viii). Some more tips on writing the LFA

Ensure that the logical framework is in line with other components of the proposal.
The log frame should show a clear relationship between the various parts of the project. The goal should be aligned to the objectives; the objectives to the activities; the activities to the results; and the results to the indicators.

Do not leave the LFA for the last. As you keep developing the proposal, try filling it up.

Always double-check your LFA after completing the full proposal

Use large sheets or a board while discussing and developing the LFA and then use the actual format to fill it up.

Some other examples of LFA:

**AUSAID**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity Description</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Means of Verification</th>
<th>Assumptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goal or Impact - The long term development impact (policy goal) that the activity contributes at a national or sectoral level</td>
<td>How the achievement will be measured - including appropriate targets (quantity, quality and time)</td>
<td>Sources of information on the Goal indicator(s) - including who will collect it and how often</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose or Outcome - The medium term result(s) that the activity aims to achieve - in terms of benefits to target groups</td>
<td>How the achievement of the Purpose will be measured - including appropriate targets (quality, quantity and time)</td>
<td>Sources of information on the Purpose indicator(s) - including who will collect it and how often</td>
<td>Assumptions concerning the Purpose to Goal linkage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Component Objectives or intermediate results - This level in the objectives or results hierarchy can be used to provide a clear link between outputs and outcomes (particularly for larger multi-component activities)</td>
<td>How the achievement of the component objectives will be measured - including appropriate targets (quality, quantity and time)</td>
<td>Sources of information on the Component Objectives indicator(s) - including who will collect it and how often</td>
<td>Assumptions concerning the Component Objective to output linkage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outputs - The tangible products or services that the activity will deliver</td>
<td>How the achievement of the objectives will be measured - including appropriate targets (quality, quantity and time)</td>
<td>Sources of information on the output indicator(s) - including who will collect it and how often</td>
<td>Assumptions concerning the Output to Component Objective linkage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DFID

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OBJECTIVES</th>
<th>MEASURABLE INDICATORS</th>
<th>MEANS OF VERIFICATION</th>
<th>IMPORTANT ASSUMPTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GOAL : Wider problem the project will help to resolve</td>
<td>Quantitative ways of measuring or qualitative ways of judging timed achievement of goal</td>
<td>Cost - effective methods and sources to quantify or assess indicators</td>
<td>(Goal to supergoal) External factors necessary to sustain objectives in the long run</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PURPOSE : The immediate impact on the project area or target group i.e. the change or benefit to be achieved by the project</td>
<td>Quantitative ways of measuring or qualitative ways of judging timed achievement of purpose</td>
<td>Cost - effective methods and sources to quantify or assess indicators</td>
<td>(Purpose to Goal) External conditions necessary if achieved project purpose is to contribute to reaching project goal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OUTPUTS : These are the specifically deliverable results expected from the project to attain the purpose</td>
<td>Quantitative ways of measuring or qualitative ways of judging timed achievement of purpose</td>
<td>Cost - effective methods and sources to quantify or assess indicators</td>
<td>(Outputs to purpose) Factors out of project control which, if present could restrict progress from outputs to achieving project purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACTIVITIES : These are the tasks to be done to produce the outputs</td>
<td>INPUTS : This is a summary of the project budget</td>
<td>Financial out-turn report as agreed in grant agreement</td>
<td>(Activity to output) Factors out of project control which, if present could restrict progress from activities to achieving outputs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H). Outcome Mapping (OM)

Outcome Mapping (OM) is a concept for M&E developed by the International Development and Research Centre (IDRC) Canada that has application for strategy and programme development as well. Some shortcomings of the Log Frame as a tool for M&E for institutional projects where changes to behavior are important are addressed by OM or Outcome Mapping. It attempts to identify behavioral change as an outcome to an intervention through consideration as an Outcome Challenge (OC). It is more useful where the proponent has greater control over the project environment as in the case of a direct donor implemented or donor/state project or programme. It attempts to record changes in behavior linked to project goals in “Boundary” or collaborating partners through use of Progress Markers (milestones). OM has advantage when used as an M&E tool where the proponent has a high degree of control over project implementation especially if the components are few and the investment significant. If the activities are many and discreet with low unit investment the transaction costs of M&E outweighs its relevance, especially if responding partners are themselves not onto Outcome Mapping. Nevertheless, it has a group of intense and enthusiastic followers or OM Community. The Overseas Development Institute or ODI has developed its own version called ROMA (Rapid Outcome Mapping Approach), whilst GWP uses a hybrid version of Outcome Mapping as its M&E tool.
**Rationale**

Outcome Mapping (OM) is a methodology for planning and assessing projects that aim to bring about 'real' and tangible change. It has been developed with international development in mind, and can also be applied to projects (or programme) relating to research communication, policy influence and research uptake. Initially, it can seem like a complicated process, made up of numerous different elements, but once one has got to grips with it, it can be a valuable way of planning, monitoring and evaluating a project, while also engaging stakeholders.

Outcome Mapping introduces monitoring and evaluation considerations at the planning stage of a project. It moves away from the notion that monitoring and evaluation are done to a project, and, instead, actively engages the project team in the design of a monitoring framework and evaluation plan and promotes self-assessment.

OM provides a set of tools to design and gather information on the outcomes, defined as behavioral changes, among the 'boundary' partners of a project. Identifying the behavioral changes that a project aims to deliver becomes synonymous with its outcomes, and part of a wider process of focusing on how change happens. OM can be used as a standalone methodology or in combination with a variety of others, such as Log Frame Analysis or Most Significant Change (MSC). In addition, a variety of tools, such as Force Field Analysis and Stakeholder Analysis, can be used to support the OM process.

OM helps one learn about the influence or progression of change among direct partners as part of a project or program (boundary partners), and therefore helps those assessing a project think systematically and practically about what they are doing and to adaptively manage variations in strategies to bring about desired outcomes.

In relation to research communication, OM could be used to help plan and monitor a communications strategy for a research programme, or be attached to a policy influence plan (as adapted in the Rapid Outcome Mapping Approach -ROMA).

The following terms are at the heart of outcome mapping:

**Behavioral change:**
Outcomes are defined as changes in the behaviour, relationships, activities, or actions of the people, groups, and organisations with whom a programme works directly. These outcomes can be logically linked to a programme's activities, although they are not necessarily directly caused by them.

**Boundary partners:**
Those individuals, groups, and organisations with whom the programme interacts directly and with whom the programme anticipates opportunities for influence. Most activities will involve multiple outcomes because they have multiple boundary partners.

**Contributions:**
By using Outcome Mapping, a programme is not claiming the achievement of development impacts; rather, the focus is on its contributions to outcomes. These outcomes, in turn, enhance the possibility of development impacts but the relationship is not necessarily a direct one of cause and effect.
Progress Markers:
Events that signify an activity has reached a measurable or identifiable status of achievement.

There are generally three stages to Outcome Mapping:

The first stage is the design stage (Intentional Design Stage), which helps a project establish consensus on the macro level changes it will help to bring about and plan the strategies it will use. It helps answer four questions: Why? (What is the vision to which the programme wants to contribute?); Who? (Who are the programme's boundary partners?); What? (What are the tangible changes that are being sought?); and How? (How will the programme contribute to the change process among its boundary partners?).

The second stage is the monitoring stage (Outcome and Performance Monitoring), this stage provides a framework for the on-going monitoring of a project’s actions and the boundary partners’ progress toward the achievement of outcomes.

It is based largely on systematized self-assessment. It provides the following data collection tools for elements identified in the Intentional Design stage: an Outcome Journal' (to track impact against progress markers); a Strategy Journal' (that seeks to test and adapt the programmes strategy in ever changing circumstances); and a 'Performance Journal' (that logs organisational practices and gauges the need for improvements).

The third stage, Evaluation Planning, helps the project identify evaluation priorities (more in-depth review of progress) and develop an evaluation plan that makes good use of resources and provides strategic benefit to the project.

The OM process is intended to be participatory and, wherever feasible, can involve the full range of stakeholders, including boundary partners. Outcome Mapping is based on principles of participation and purposefully includes those implementing the programme in the design and data collection so as to encourage ownership and use of findings. It is intended to be used as a consciousness-raising, consensus-building, and empowerment tool for project staff.
The Outcome Mapping Process

Source: Sarah Earl/IDRC.

I). Critical Path Method (CPM) and Programme Review and Evaluation Technique (PERT).

CPM and its later derivative PERT are techniques in project modeling, management and M&E that have origins in US defense programmes since the late 1950’s. These methods are more suited to complex projects /programmes (eg construction, factory production etc) with many interdependent activities and variables with respect to inputs requiring fine sequencing to meet dedicated timelines. Any items on the critical path have no leeway or float (flexibility as to delivery timeline on any input or output that is an input to another activity or to the final product) as it is termed and thus needs specific attention in project management to ensure target deadlines. It is based on sequencing of inputs/activities linked to mathematical calculations as to timelines for each activity & identification of activities on the critical path. It usually defines Activities as those consuming time and resources and Events as milestones that do not consume time or resources. These are usually highlighted as an activity on arrow or activity on node network display and many software programmes are now available for this purpose.

PERT is a variation of Critical Path Analysis and uses a time estimation of shortest/longest for any activity based on a formula that helps to bias estimates away from unrealistically short time scales normally assumed when developing critical paths.

It is envisaged that the type and scale of activities undertaken by CWP/ Small NGO the necessity of using the above techniques would be unnecessary and is mentioned here as prompt to anyone desirous of obtaining further information on CPM & PERT.
The Executive Summary outlines what the proposal is all about. It is a vital selling tool for the proposal since it comes upfront in the presentation. Though it comes first it is always written last. An Executive Summary is required in all proposals that are say longer than 7-10 pages. For shorter proposals a brief introductory section or set of bullets would suffice.

**Tips.**
- Always written last
- Utmost care in wording essential
- Refer to all sections in the proposal
- Be brief. Two pages maximum
- Highlight any known donor interests
- Be simple and direct and include request for funds
With Climate Change (CC) taking centre stage and given that water serves as the main vehicle of impact for Climate Change there is increasing opportunity for water sector NGOs and CWPs to access Climate Change and Climate Change Adaptation (CCA) Funds that seem more available and accessible. For CWPs, CCA issues are linked to livelihoods, food, health/sanitation, gender and related institutional issues. Generally, two types of CC funding is available. Those for “No or Low Regret” proposals where the cost/benefits can compete with other proposals and be seen as break even against “Climate Justified” Projects which, though costly and may seem uneconomical from a financial or standard cost/benefit point of view, are nevertheless required for safety or strategic reasons.

a). How to write Proposals on Projects addressing Climate Change

As issues related to climate change and global warming start to occupy large spaces on our tables, it is high time that we are prepared to address them in a holistic manner. Many NGOs are not yet ready to equip themselves with information on climate change either because they still believe it is too scientific or because it can easily divert their current work strategies. While it is important to remain focused on issues of interest, it is also necessary to keep our eyes and ears open to the world.

Projects on climate change are the next big thing for NGOs (like HIV and AIDS some years ago) as donors continue to look at NGOs as the strongest mediums to reach out to communities in poor and developing countries (in a pyramid-like top-down fashion). Nevertheless, climate change is a critical issue and all organizations should begin to consider it as an issue of highest relevance and work in its direction either in a full-fledged manner or as a cross-cutting theme in their other projects.

Besides, in recent times, we have all observed a high number of call for proposals advertised by NGOs concentrating mostly on addressing climate change and global warming and we cannot ignore the fact that it is the poor (with whom we work) who bear the greatest brunt of these problems.

Considering the challenges that NGOs may face in developing proposals to address these issues, we are presenting some useful information on how to write them effectively.

- Project rationale or background
- Cause and effect relationship
- Project goal and objectives
- Strategies and actions
- Gender and climate change

b). Project Rationale: How to write Proposals on Projects addressing Climate Change

It is important to justify the importance of implementing or proposing a project to address climate change and global warming in the most convincing manner; therefore, the project rationale should be an analysis of the problem related to climate change in our area. For example, we may be working in an area with 70% forest cover but recently, due to continuous deforestation activity, we have observed change in the weather.
Besides, this may have also caused soil degradation and droughts in the area nearby, affecting agricultural crops and livestock and causing food security problems for the people. If this situation has been observed, it is important to carry out quick research through interaction with the stakeholders: the community, village councils, CBOs, the governmental agencies, the private sector and other organizations working in the area. If the problem has been discussed with them, it is also possible to arrive at a solution like planting extra trees. This should be carefully documented in the project rationale of the proposal.

We should also make sure that we provide evidence on what we write. While community interviews can be quoted, it would also help if we use some relevant research-based data on the issue we write. There may be forest research reports that carry statistical data on the number of tree reduced in the project area. There could also be meteorological data informing us about the changes in the weather. These sources will help us make the proposal more convincing.

c). Cause and Effect Relationship: How to write Proposals on Projects addressing Climate Change

In defining the problem, it is important that we are clear about the cause we are trying to address. Sometimes, causes and effects can become very confusing and we may just end up addressing the effects while the cause continues to remain the same.

For example, deforestation can lead to loss of livelihood for the communities due to land degradation, but here it is not just enough to address livelihoods by introducing new sources of income for the people because the actual cause of the problem is climate change.

Therefore, it is necessary for us to delve deeply into the problem and reach to a cause that can be practically addressed.

Another good example for an NGO-led project against climate change can be advocacy at micro and macro-level. We can propose a project on raising awareness on global warming among communities by organizing media campaigns, awareness workshops and other means of information dissemination.

Here the problem or the rationale can be that the high level of human activity such as farming, irrigation, electricity consumption etc., is leading to some change in the weather. Sensitizing government officials and private agencies on the climate change is also a relevant area of intervention.

d). Defining the Project Goal and Objectives: How to write Proposals on Projects addressing Climate Change

Once we have the project goal and objectives at hand, next we need to define our project goal and objectives. What are we trying to achieve? The goal can be to reduce the impact of climate change since any goal is just a contribution of the implementing agency to something that is also targeted by other entities such as government or other agencies. Objectives need to be specific: For example, increasing plantation in the project area or enhancing the understanding of climate change issues. As usual, objectives have to be “SMART: Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant and Time-bound.”
It must be remembered not to confuse objectives with activities.

### e). Strategies and Actions: How to write Proposals on Projects addressing Climate Change

We have the problem, we have the goal, we have the objectives and we also know the solution. But what about the approach to merge all of these?

A strategy will build a plan for the activities that need to be done to achieve the objectives. It can be building the capacities of the community in planting trees and maintaining forest cover to maximize their livelihood generation or it could be raising awareness on global warming. In this context, activities can be organizing trainings, education classes, awareness workshops, meetings and other dissemination activities.

- **Results**
  
  Our activities can lead to results both expected and unexpected. Nevertheless, we need to list them out as clearly as possible in our proposals. We expect positive impact over the community through our actions and in this case, it could be a drastic increase in the forest cover, improvement in water-levels, better generation of agricultural crops, improvement in livestock and better food security for the people. But negatively speaking, there may be also unavoidable risks such as natural disasters. These need to be mentioned in the proposals in a clear manner.

- **Sustainability**
  
  Besides the impact, it is also necessary to ensure sustainability and all donors seek sustainability plans for the projects funded. Sustainability is all about projects or
project activities continuing even after the end of the support. This involves a whole lot of concepts from community empowerment to ownership to institutional building and management. Proposals need to lay out this plan carefully. Community-based organizations or CBOs are one of the best means for creating sustainability of the intervention.

Trainings should be focused upon strengthening the management capacities of the community so that they can collectively manage the operations without any outside support. Local government agencies can also take over projects as another way of sustaining the work or NGOs can seek funding support from new donors to further the process for another few years so that the community becomes fully empowered.

f). Gender and Climate Change: How to write Proposals on Projects addressing Climate Change

As climate change gains more and more importance, we cannot forget to integrate gender into our approaches to address it. Earlier, it was believed that climate impacts equally on women and men. However, there have been some studies that have pointed out that this is not true.

Women representing the poor and the disadvantaged sections of society suffer to a higher degree from the consequences of climate change.

Besides, they have also better coping strategies to adapt to climate change and hence, they need to be considered as crucial mediums to address the problem in question.

To mainstream gender in projects addressing climate change, it is important to first understand the level of vulnerability of women (or men) to it. In male-dominated societies, women have little access to information; therefore, they may not be aware about the impact of their activities on the climate despite possessing responsive behavior.

In male-migrated areas, where women carry out traditional farming and firewood collection, they may suddenly reach a point in time where they may face problems of land degradation and scarcity of forests. Besides, they may suffer more from the results of natural disasters in their rural locations.

Gender-sensitive strategies have to be outlined during the planning and implementation of the projects. Women should be counted upon during all processes of the project. Focusing our empowerment approaches over women can help bring about results. Women activists can become strong forces to address the issues and save their livelihoods.
a). Defining Donors

It is important to be aware of the types of donors, type of funding available and particular donor interests. This helps in focusing the proposal to fit in with perceived donor interest.

b). Types of Donors

Donor agencies differ according to from where they receive their funds. Many are publicly funded.

Public funding comes from taxes paid by individuals and businesses. For instance, the Department for International Development (DFID) of the United Kingdom gets its funding from the British Treasury Department. Many publicly funded donors are called bilateral donors. The word “bilateral” conveys the meaning of aid following from one government to another, although bilateral donors often provide funds to non-government organizations also. Most bilateral donors are the aid agency arms of industrialized country governments. All the funds of bilateral donors come from a single source— the revenues of the donor’s country. Some bilateral funders of agriculture and natural resources related activities in less-developed countries include:

ACIAR - Australian Center for International Agricultural Research
BADC - Belgian Administration for Development Cooperation
CIDA - Canadian International Development Agency
Danida - Danish International Development Assistance
BMZ - Federal German Ministry of Economic Cooperation
NEDA - Netherlands Development Aid
SIDA - Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SDC - Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation
DFID - British Department for International Development
USAID - United States Agency for International Development
JICA - Japan International Cooperation Agency
GTZ - German Technical Assistance
NORAD - Norway Development Assistance

Some countries have complex arrangement for providing bilateral assistance. One example in France, where aid for say international agriculture research is provided by several ministries, including The Ministry of Education, Research, And Technology, The Ministry of Cooperation, And the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Aid is coordinated though a small group of representatives from these and related ministries.

Many donor agencies are made up of members (usually member countries). Their funds come from contributions (also usually tax revenue) from each member. Such donors are known as multilateral donors.

Some of the best-known multilateral donor agencies providing funds for international agricultural research are:

AfDB - The African Development Bank
AFESD - The Arab Fund for Economics And Social Development
ADB - The Asian Development Bank
EC - The European Commission
IADB - The Inter-American Development Bank
IFAD - International Fund for Agricultural Development
IBRD - The World Bank
JBIC - Japan Bank for International Cooperation

The United Nations organizations are also multilateral. Some UN agencies are very much involved in natural resources and associated agricultural research. These include:

FAO - The Food and Agricultural Organization
UNEP - The UN Environment Programme
UNDP - The UN Development Programme
UNESCO* - The UN Education, Science & Cultural Organisation

However, in recent years the budgets of these organizations have declined. And their ability to make grants to NGO and other groups has markedly declined.

Some donors get their money from private funding sources. These agencies are often funded from the profits of a commercial company, or by a gift of money from a wealthy individual or group of individuals. These agencies are often called foundations.

Foundations are started with a large chunk of money (called an endowment) that is invested so that it yields interest income. That interest must be used to support the activities for which the foundation was established.

Most foundations are based in the US, but there are many in other industrialized countries, such as Japan and Western Europe. Some of the largest and most famous foundations that have supported international agricultural research and water related activities include:

The Ford Foundation
The Rockefeller Foundation
The MacArthur Foundation
The Toyota Foundation
The Packard Foundation
The Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation

The CGIAR, the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research, is not a donor agency. However, the Consultative Group is made up of a group of donor members, who came together to provide funding for 16 international centers that are found throughout the world, all working on different aspects of agricultural research. The Centers are staffed by a mixture of locally recruited staff, who come from the host country, and internationally recruited staff, who may come from anywhere in the world. The scientists in these Centers spend a great deal of their time writing proposals to donors!

There are currently 53 donor members of the CGIAR. To qualify as a member of the CGIAR, each donor must give at least $500,000 per year to one or more of the Centers. Almost 50% of the donor members are now countries of the South. The
International Water Management Institute (IWMI) is an important CGIAR centre and acts as the host institution to both the Regional Office of GWP South Asia and of the Sri Lanka Water Partnership and provides a “Brand Name” and leverage when both institutions seek funds from donors.

c). Types of Funding

Some donors (like the World Bank) do not give grants to individuals or organizations. They give loans, which must be repaid. For this purpose, we are only concerned with grants, which are financial contributions that need not to be repaid. Some donors give their funds as core, or unrestricted grants. This means that the recipients (also sometimes called grantees) can spend the money on any type of research, or even use it to buy equipment, or pay for administration. However, unrestricted grants are getting very hard to obtain.

Many, if not most donors, nowadays give some or all of their money in the form of restricted or special project grants. These grants have to be spent on specific activities, as agreed between the donor and the recipient. This agreement is based on a project proposal.

*UNESCO coordinates UN Water a UN stakeholder platform of 14 UN Organizations on water related matters. GWP serves as a thematic leader for water for UN Water.

Sometimes donors know what they want to fund. The agency does not, however, want to implement a project itself. Instead, it wants to find a good organization to implement it. To this end it issues a request for proposal or RFP to receive several proposals, from which it will choose the most cost-effective, usually judged against quite explicit criteria.

But donors often like to pick and choose from different proposals. So they often set up competitive grants programs. These are far less specific than RFPs. The donor may only specify a given topic, such as “natural resource development” or “crop improvement” or a given geographic area. The donor will also usually give guidelines about the size of the grant that is available, or the preferred duration of the project. This may be known as the Call for Proposals. There is nearly always an annual deadline for submitting a proposal. If you miss that deadline, you have to wait till the following year.

In this environment, the organization would do well to sharpen their skills and expertise, and be ready to work for different clients on different aspects. Knowing how to sell project ideas is a useful skill for the changing times ahead.

Many donors do not have competitive grant programs, but are willing to receive proposals on any topic at any time. Such proposals are called sole source proposals. A proposal is submitted because the organization is uniquely qualified-the sole source- to do the activity.

Donors Are Really Investors

Some people do not like to use the word “donor” anymore; they prefer to use the term “investor”. An Investor by definition expects to see a return on its
investment. By using the term investor in the organization may help to convey the idea that it cares about results. There is therefore much merit in using these terms. However, since “donor” is still widely used, it is usually the default term.

**d). Donor Relations and Public Awareness**

Good relationships are based on mutual understanding; mutual understanding depends on good communications. In other words, you need to be talking about the same thing to understand one another.

One important component of an organization’s public awareness effort will focus specifically on donors. This is the core of the Institute’s donor relations effort, and will include materials specially written for donors, and a series of presentations, meetings, and other face-to-face encounters with donor agencies and staff. Everyone in a Network such as a CWP has a role to play in the donor relations effort.

It is always important, however, that the efforts of individuals be coordinated and the role significantly more important regionally and then globally.

**e). Donor Intelligence**

Donors have many options when considering how to allocate their grant funds. The competition is stiff, and getting stiffer. Donors will only fund work if it is of interest to them. One needs to know as much as one can about a donor agency, including about its staff, its purpose, its interests, its politics and its budget. This information can be called donor intelligence. This information is available in written form from the donor’s publications and websites, but the best information comes from personal interactions, when you learn about the donor, at the same time as the donor learns about you. This personal donor intelligence gathering is the work of everyone in a NGO.

*To be useful, donor intelligence must not only be gathered, but shared.*

**f). Strategic Fund-Raising Plan**

Each NGO or CWP will want to prepare a Strategic fund-raising plan as part of its Business Plan in which are set out the amounts of funds expected over the coming years from various sources. GWP SAS has a Fund Raising Strategy in place but not a Business Plan as yet. The plan will typically cover some five years, and be reviewed and revised annually. The plan should include further estimates from a wide mix of donors. The plan will take into account the time lags involved in receiving funds; for instance, funding from an international donor will, on average, take 12-18 months from project idea to receipt of funding. The plan will also seek to ensure that all programs or departments within the organization will receive the funding they need in good time to ensure seamless funding of research activities. Finally, the plan will likely define the roles and responsibilities of various groups and individuals with the organization with respect to project development and fund raising.
There will be instances when formal understanding of mutual expectations will need to be defined for clarity of purpose. MOU, MOA, LOI, LOA etc are some instruments that are used for such purposes.

MOA stands for Memorandum of Agreement and MOU stands for Memorandum of Understanding. They are both used as written agreements between two parties. There is no established legal difference. The two terms are interchangeable. Because it contains the word “agreement”, and a contract is an agreement, some people believe that an MOA signifies a more significant commitment than an MOU. An MOU/MOA is like a contract, but it doesn’t have to carry the same legal weight. That is because an agreement doesn’t need to be intended as a legally enforceable arrangement, but a “Contract” always is intended that way. However, an MOA can include any or all of a contract’s terms and conditions. If it includes all of them, but is just titled an MOA, it can carry as much legal weight as a contract. Most often, an MOA is just a statement of cooperation or understanding about a specific or general topic between two(or more) parties. It is often used to clarify the roles and responsibilities of each party in a shared situation of interest. An MOU/MOA therefore often defines a mutual relationship or partnering while a Contract is a legal document that binds and formalizes an agreement usually between two parties for the delivery of services or products.

According to Wikipedia

Memorandum of Understanding

A memorandum of understanding (MOU) is a legal document describing a bilateral agreement between parties. It expresses a convergence of will between the parties, indicating an intended common line of action, rather than a legal commitment. It is a more formal alternative to a gentlemen’s agreement, but generally lacks the bind power of a contract.

Memorandum of Agreement

Memorandum of agreement (MOA) or cooperative agreement is a document written between parties to A letter of intent (LOI) and sometimes capitalized as Letter of Intent in legal writing, but only when referring to a specific document under discussion) is a document outlining an agreement between two or more parties before the agreement is finalized. The concept is similar to a heads of agreement. Such agreements may be Asset Purchase Agreements, Share Purchase Agreements, Joint-Venture Agreements, Lease Agreements, and overall all Agreements which aim at closing a financially large deal.

Letter of Intent

LOIs resemble written contracts, but are usually not binding on the parties in their entirety. Many LOIs, however, contain provisions that are binding, such as non-disclosure agreements, a covenant to negotiate in good faith, or a "stand-still" or "no-shop" provision promising exclusive rights to negotiate.

An LOI may sometimes be interpreted by a court of law as binding the parties to it, if it too-closely resembles a formal contract. Cooperatively to work together on an agreed upon project or meet an agreed upon objective. The purpose of an MOA is to have a written understanding of the agreement between parties. The MOA can also be a legal document that is binding and hold the parties responsible to their commitment or just a partnership agreement.
An LOI may also be referred to as a term sheet or discussion sheet. The terms reflect different styles (an LOI is typically written in letter form and focuses on the parties’ intentions; a term sheet skips formalities and lists deal terms in a bullet-point summary), but usually do not indicate any difference under law. A contract, by contrast, is a legal document governed by contract law. Furthermore, there is also a specific difference between a letter of intent and a memorandum of understanding (MOU); an LOI outlines the intent of one party toward another with regard to an agreement, and may only be signed by the party expressing that intent, whereas an MOU must be signed by all parties to be a valid outline of an agreement. Nevertheless, LOIs are fairly often incorrectly referred to as MOUs and vice versa.
Training Course Material
- Project Design and Evaluation (Feb 1980) SLIDA/USAID
- Project Management Techniques (Feb 1980) SLIDA/USAID
- Managing Agriculture and Rural Development Projects (Jan-Mar 1981) - EDI/World Bank
- Planning and Evaluation of Agricultural Projects, (Sept-Nov 1982) - USDA/GMU Washington
- Managing Irrigation Projects (Mar-April 1984) - IIM Bangalore
- Monitoring, Evaluation, Feedback and Management of Agricultural Systems (Sep-Oct 1988) - CSU Fort Collins

Other Reading/ Publications
- Project Proposal Guidelines and Templates - ACIAR
- Project Proposal Application - UNVFD
- Project Proposal Modules - APEC Guidebook, Edition 8
- GEF SGP Proposal Template Guidelines - UNDP
- Step by Step Guide to Project Proposals - A Christian
- M&E Systems - K Mackay
- Basic Steps in Planning and Writing a Grant Application - Eric Rinehart and Babra Bouie-Scot
- How to Write a Convincing Proposal - ISNAR/IWMI 2001
- Funds for NGO’s - fundsforngos.org
Promoting Integrated Water Resources Management (IWRM)