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**THE CHANGING ROLE OF NON-STATE ACTORS' RELATIONS IN
POST APARTHEID SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF TWO
EASTERN CAPE NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS (NGOs)**

BY

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ABSTRACT

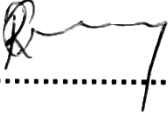
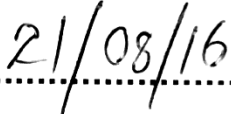
This study focused on the changing role of non-state actors' political relations in post-apartheid South Africa. During the apartheid period, NGOs were considered to be pushing a people-centered agenda, but the transition to the post-apartheid era made the role of NGOs complex and debatable as they are now viewed as organisations that work hand in hand with the government.

A qualitative research design was implemented to conduct the study, in particular, individual interviews. The respondents included local households, community leaders and NGO representatives. The selected NGOs which participated were World Vision, Africare, Phumalanga and Victim Support Center (VSC). This research was conducted in Nkonkobe Municipality, in the communities of Alice, Middledrift and Seymour.

The major finding of the study is that the political role of the NGOs has changed. Whilst in the apartheid period the NGOs openly opposed the state, in the post-apartheid period NGOs find themselves providing development services to the state. In other words, in the post-apartheid period NGOs tend to co-operate with the state by acting as service providers for a variety of development related functions. This condition raises questions about the autonomy of the NGOs and the agenda they serve in the post-apartheid period.

DECLARATION

I, Raymond Farai Chirowamhangu, do hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is entirely a product of my own original work with the exception of such quotations or references which have been attributed to their sources. I further declare that this dissertation has not been previously submitted and will not be presented at any other University for a similar or any other degree award.

Signature:  Date: 

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First, I would like to thank the Almighty God for giving me the strength to complete this work. I would like to acknowledge my supervisor, Mr R. Mongwe, for being supportive and available to assist during the study. I would also like to thank my family and friends for supporting me throughout this research period; I could have given up easily, but they stood with me. I greatly want to appreciate my research assistant, Nyasha Chiuta, for helping with the work. I appreciate the assistance from World Vision, Africare, Phumalanga, Department of Social Development, Political institutions and the field respondents. Furthermore, thank you to Govan Mbeki Research & Development Centre (GMRDC) for supporting me financially for this research. Lastly, I thank the National Research Foundation (NRF) for administering the research grant.

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to the billions of Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVCs) all over the world. This study is a testimony that you too will make it.

ACRONYMS

AACC	All Africa Conference of Churches
ACORD	Agency for Cooperation and Research in Development
ADP	Area Development Programs
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANC	African National Congress
AusAid	Australia Aid
BNA	Basic Needs Approach
BODA	British Overseas Development Agency
CBO	Community based organisations
CDI	Career Development Internship
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DfID	Development for International Development
DNA	Democratic National Alliance
ECSECC	Eastern Cape Socio Economic Consultative Council
FIP	Fuzzy Index of Poverty
GEAR	Growth, Employment, and Redistribution Strategy
HIV	Human Immune Virus
ICT	Information and communication technologies
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MDC	Movement for democratic change
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals

MWENGO	Mwelekeo wa NGO
NDA	National Development Agency
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NLDTF	National Lottery Distribution Trust Fund
NNGOs	Northern Non-Governmental Organization
NOH	Networks of Hope
NPO	Non-Profit Organisations
NSFAS	National Student Financial Aid Scheme
OXFAM	Oxford Committee for Famine Relief
PBO	Public Benefit organisations
PDA	Participatory Development Approach
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Program
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SANGOCO	South African National NGO Coalition
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programs
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SL	Sustainable Livelihood
SLA	Sustainable Livelihood Approach
SNGO	Southern Non-Governmental Organization
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNESCO	United Nations Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION and BACKGROUND

1.1 INTRODUCTION

During the apartheid period, developed nations increasingly made use of foreign aid to directly assist NGOs in South Africa. This was primarily because Northern governments and donors were interested in supporting non-state actors. On the other hand, the apartheid state exhibited a hostile political attitude towards NGOs. The apartheid state's hostility towards NGOs was shown through political harassment (Hendrickse, 2008).

The elections in 1994 had a great impact on relations with civil society organisations. Summer and Tribe (2008) highlight that a different political context has different implications on NGOs and in the South African context, this was proven true as NGOs had to reposition themselves in relation to the post-apartheid government. Firstly, in 1995, NGOs began to structure themselves for better coordination through the establishment of the South African National NGO Coalition (SANGOCO), which is the national umbrella body that represents NGOs. This ensured that NGOs were well represented in all areas - even in political structures. In 1997, the government, through the Department of Social Development, initiated a policy framework for better evaluation and monitoring of NGO activities; this was done through the implementation of the Non Profit Organisations Act of 1997.

The post-apartheid period, however, also affected the sustainability of NGOs since the newly elected government came up with structures to effectively support communities. The Department of Social Development, for example, has taken a mandate to improve the welfare of communities; this includes major efforts to support Orphans and Vulnerable children (OVCs), the elderly and the homeless.

The Non-profit Organizations Act (No 71 of 1997) recognized NGOs in their role of addressing needs in vulnerable communities, their stand against apartheid and any form of injustice. Nzimakwe (2008) highlighted this two-sided role of NGOs in South Africa in that they provide services with the intention of improving the general welfare of people; they are also involved with government institutions.

Furthermore, the Department of Education has made radical efforts, through scholarships and grants, to allow every child (regardless of race) to have access to education. All these are areas which NGOs specialized in during the apartheid era, and now the government is taking the lead (Bekker, 2004).

Not all authors support the work of the NGOs. For an example, Temple (1997) argues that NGOs are a continuation of colonial missionary traditions and handmaidens of the capitalist destruction of non-Western societies. They are often seen as agents that help to sustain and extend neo-colonial relations in Africa (Tandon, 1996). This means NGOs have been used as instruments to extend Western policies over developing nations. The use of funds with dictated terms and conditions has been a tool used to force a hidden agenda, and this practice has been common in Africa (Tribe, 2008).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In the apartheid period, South African NGOs were considered to be pushing a people-centred agenda which stood firmly against apartheid whilst simultaneously bringing these civil societies closer to the people. In that context, apartheid era NGOs were considered as being pro-liberation in their political stance, and thus closer to the people. In the post-apartheid period, the role of NGOs is complex and debatable. There are critics who suggest that NGOs are agents of imperialism who are serving the interests of Western World (Tandon, 1996:164).

This is further elaborated by Gary (1996) who argues that contemporary NGOs have become complex and very bureaucratic in nature. Furthermore, Igoe (2005:142), on the other hand, suggests that NGOs and their leaders have taken on the character of neo-patrimonial agencies. Igoe (2005:142) points out that NGOs use their institutional power to build local political bases to access transnational resources.

The central argument of this study is that whilst NGOs operating in post-apartheid rural South Africa do not work to directly serve foreign interests, the local NGOs are enmeshed in a paternalistic and symbiotic relationship with the South African state. Therefore, in this context, NGO activities are shaped in a complex way by their desire to balance their interests to appease the state without abandoning local interests.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research is aimed to answer these questions concerning NGOs:

- What are the opportunities and limitations faced by NGOs in the post-apartheid period?

- How did the democratic order shape the political relationship between the NGOs and the state in the post-apartheid era?
- Given the fact that NGOs currently tend to be service provider organisations to the state what does this mean for their autonomy?

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are as follows:

- To investigate the role of NGOs in post apartheid era.
- To assess whether the post-apartheid political environment presents any opportunities or limitations to the existence of NGOs in Eastern Cape Province.
- To evaluate the origins and historical background of NGOs in South Africa.
- To investigate the level of community knowledge and participation in NGO programs.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

The study anticipates establishing an updated and researched view pertaining to the knowledge that exists in the local community about NGOs. It, furthermore, will inform communities of interest the extent to which ordinary people in the communities participate or are involved in NGO activities. These two areas help promote community development and will be instrumental in improving the welfare of beneficiaries in the local areas (Weyers, 1997). The study will help policy makers to understand the extent to which ordinary people have knowledge of NGO projects in their community and the extent of people's involvement in these projects. The research will further expose

critical elements of NGO-state relations, which will contribute to policy debates and policy development.

The study will also highlight some areas of weakness with regards to NGO approaches when conducting projects. This includes when NGOs come with a pre-planned agenda excluding the voice of community members. The case studies used in this study can be used by other NGOs as an evaluation study to improve on their approaches.

The research will yield knowledge on areas of good governance with regard to NGOs such as accountability and confidentiality. Pandit (2006) highlights that the level of community participation is, in many ways, a better and more efficient method of assessing good governance. Lastly, the study provides a framework of good governance which can be used by other institutions before engaging in partnerships with NGOs.

1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher ensured that ethical principles of confidentiality and consent were followed when conducting this research. The researcher made ethical considerations by making sure the participants are well informed about the nature the study and assured them that the data collected will only be used for academic purposes. The academic purpose, in this instance, was for the completion of a Masters degree in development studies. Formal procedures were followed using a letter of consent which fully introduced the research to the participants. The research staff and participants must normally be informed fully about the purpose, methods and intended possible uses of the research, what their participation in the research entails and what risks, if any, are evolved. Some variation is allowed in very specific research contexts (Richie, Lewis, Nicholls & Ormston, 2013).

The letter of consent was obtained from the University of Fort Hare. This important document ensured that the researcher is authorised to conduct research, and in the event of any harm conducted during the encounter, the participant could contact the respective authorities at University of Fort Hare. Ethical clearance also helps the participants to know fully what the study involves before participating in it. This also makes the participants aware that their personal views will not be used, in any way, against them. Most importantly, the research should never put participants, either physically or psychologically, at risk Flick (2006).

These principles of research ensured that good research ethics are maintained at the highest standard throughout the study; for example in this study, no human rights were violated whilst conducting. Lastly, it should be understood from the onset that research is a process and certain things may go wrong during the study; for example, if the participant falls ill during the interview, the letter of consent acted as a reference point to establish that as a researcher, I had no bad intentions against the participant. Research has evolved over the years, and issues such as violation of human rights, gender discrimination and environmental damage are critical. Ethical considerations have become pivotal in modern research to ensure that all these issues are not ignored whilst conducting research.

Creswell (2003) mentions that the success of any research rests on the researcher's ability to provide an accurate and honest account of the findings. This study has strived to provide an unbiased account of events during the research.

1.7 ACCESS TO THE FIELD

Entry to research areas was obtained through a letter of consent (see Appendix 1) to gain access into NGOs, government offices, business and communities. This letter had the following information:

- Researcher's contact details;
- Purpose of research;
- Voluntary nature of research; and
- Participants' information confidentiality

This was a brief letter attached to the questionnaires and interview questions. The data collection process was carried out prior to the national Elections of May 7 2014, so this letter helped prove that none of the information would be used for political purposes. In many instances, the researcher had to leave the questionnaires at the organization and collect later on; therefore, this letter of consent helped to show that the study was authentic.

The researcher also used snowball sampling to identify other organisations that work with NGOs. A visit to the Department of Social Development proved to be useful as they recommended several organisations that interact with NGOs in their operations; in particular, reference was given to Phumalanga Community Center which is located in Alice. The organisation works with other NGOs to help improve the welfare of vulnerable members in society, specifically the aged. Their services cover Ntselamanzi, Golf Course, Hill Crest, Zone 24, Gqumashe and other villages surrounding Alice.

The reference from the Department of Social Development was very instrumental in obtaining an interview with the manager at Phumalanga. The manager was busy having

other meetings to attend with government officials but gave instructions to the caretakers at the organisation to assist me. They were very helpful, and their contributions were of great assistance towards this research.

However, in some instances, NGOs were limited by organisational restrictions, and this made it difficult to obtain much information. This happened at Africare as the local office informed me that they were not in a position to have any interviews, but rather referred me to the head office in East London. There were several interviews turned down because the managers were not available. I was also willing to send my questionnaire by e-mail, but they stated that they only conduct face-to-face interviews.

The rest of the questionnaires were sent to community leaders and to NGOs for their input. These included leaders in social issues, law enforcement, religion and government. The Department of Social Development was easily accessible, and they were available to assist at all times. Their interaction with NGOs and perspectives on them offered essential information on the role on NGOs in development. Community leaders are key decision-makers, and various development projects have to be accompanied by their approval or assessment. This population included social workers, leaders in political institutions, academic experts in NGOs, local police and representatives at Nkonkobe municipality.

1.8 THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

The study is made up of seven chapters. A brief outline of each chapter is presented on the next page:

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION & BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

This chapter provides an introduction and a background to the topic. This includes the problem statement, research objectives and the research questions of the study. It also highlights the significance of the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The chapter highlights the following themes of NGO funding and relations, namely, the Issue of relations (NGO-to-NGO relations, NGO-to-donor relations and NGO-state relations). The literature review identifies other vital aspects such as NGO governance and accountability. The challenges facing South African NGOs in post-apartheid era are discussed, including established survival mechanisms that have assisted NGOs. Furthermore, the chapter discusses the origins and historical development of NGOs and an analysis of Northern NGOs (NNGOs) and Southern NGOs (SNGOs) in the context of South Africa.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The chapter discusses the type of research methodology employed in the study. This also includes the research instruments used to collect data. Furthermore, it gives a brief outline of successes and challenges faced during data collection process.

CHAPTER 4: PROFILE OF THE EASTERN CAPE PROVINCE

The chapter gives a profile of the Eastern Cape Province by giving statistical reference to some of the main challenges facing the province. These include electricity, water and sanitation. Furthermore, it highlights the three main NGOs participating in the study: World Vision, Africare and Phumalanga.

CHAPTER 5: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Using data findings, this section uses data presentation tools to present the results and then further makes a comprehensive analysis of findings under six main themes. The themes used are: the knowledge of NGOs and programs, quality of NGO services, the role of NGOs in socio-economic development, factors affecting NGO efforts, the impact of politics on NGOs and the opportunities or limitations presented by the post-apartheid political environment.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter discusses the main findings of the study and conclusion. The chapter also contains recommendations for future research. These are ideas which other researchers may adopt for their study or areas which, due to other limitations such as time constraints, the researcher could not cover. The chapter provides a summary of the main findings and draws conclusions.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This section provides a narrative literature review on the critical areas related to the work of NGOs. The essence of this literature review is to discuss and summarize the state of the NGO industry (Rowley & Slack, 2004). The review examines fundamental aspects that include conceptualising the term *NGO* and highlighting the classification of NGOs; this is because as time frames change, there have been different perspectives linked to the term *NGO*. The chapter specifically examines NGOs from the Western point of view NNGOs and examines the history and trends in growth in Southern NGOs. The origins of NGOs and their work in South Africa are discussed in this chapter. The other areas covered include areas that affect NGOs such as NGO relations, funding, accountability and instrumental survival mechanisms that have assisted NGOs in South Africa. The objective of this review is to go beyond the body of knowledge but to identify and articulate relationships between the literature and the field of study (Boote & Beile, 2005). This chapter also provides a conceptual framework to highlight characteristics of good governance. Rowley and Slack (2004) highlight that conceptual frameworks can be useful to develop an understanding of the subject area. The value of this chapter is that it highlights some of the contributions made by other researchers who have studied NGOs and related issues.

2.2 NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATION (NGO)

The discussion of this research study focuses on NGOs and their contribution. This section aims at giving a more contextual understanding of NGOs. Korten (1999) states that for an organization to be an NGO, in its true sense, it should fulfil the following criteria:

- a) It should be self-governing rather than depending substantially on the state for its funds; however, it must be argued that some NGOs receive a proportion of their funds from other sources;
- b) It should be a non-profit organization; and
- c) The major part of its funding should come from voluntary contribution.

The World Bank (2001) defines Non-Governmental Organisations as private organisations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote the interests of the poor, protect the environment and provide basic social services, or undertake community development. They are autonomous, privately set up, non-profit-making institutions that support, manage or facilitate development by providing socio-economic activities to the needy (Lienbenberg, 2000).

They are commonly understood as “independent development actors existing apart from governments and corporations, operating on a non-profit or not-for-profit basis with an emphasis on voluntarism and pursuing a mandate of providing development services and undertaking communal development work or advocating development issues” (Michael, 2002:3). NGOs tend to be best known for undertaking one or other of these two main forms of activity: the delivery of basic services to people in need and organizing policy advocacy and public campaigns for change (Kanji & Lewis, 2008). The scholars continue to state that NGOs have also become active in a wide range of

other more specialized roles such as emergency response, democracy building, conflict resolution, human rights work, cultural preservation, environmental activism, policy analysis and research and information provision.

These organisations can either be local (operating in one country) or can be international (operating in two or more countries). Pertaining to their financial sustainability, NGOs are value-based organizations which depend partly or totally on charitable donations and voluntary services (Fisher, 1994). On this matter, Momo (2009) highlights that independence, volunteerism, and altruism, therefore, are key defining principles of NGOs. In the context of this study, NGOs are registered, private, independent, non-profit organisations which facilitate development to the needy communities. These can either be local or international NGOs operating in Eastern Cape. Unregistered, informal NGOs were not considered.

2.3 CLASSIFICATION OF NGOS

According to Hortensia (2008), NGOs are classified according to their orientation and level of operation. Orientation entails: charitable, service, participatory and empowering orientation. The levels of operation are community-based organisations (CBOs), city-wide organisations, National NGOs and International NGOs.

2.3.1 NGO Type Based On Orientation

Charitable Orientation

The activities of these NGOs are mainly focused on the poor in order to meet their needs. These include distributing food, clothing and medicine, providing housing and transport. Hortensia (2008) notes that they usually apply a top-down paternalistic

approach which involves little participation from the “beneficiaries”. These NGOs are often common during natural or man-made disasters.

Service Orientation

These NGOs may design certain programs for the communities, but the beneficiaries are expected to participate and offer feedback. Examples of such NGOs include health and family planning services.

Participatory Orientation

In a study of Income-generating NGOs in the post apartheid South Africa, Hortensia (2008) describes this orientation to include self-help projects in which the beneficiaries are involved in the implementation of projects through contributions in the form of cash, tools, land, labour and so on.

Empowering Orientation

Hortensia (2008) highlights that such organisations aim to help poor people by developing a clearer understanding of the socio-economic and political factors affecting their lives, as well as to strengthen the awareness of their own potential power to control their lives.

2.3.2 NGO Types Based On Level Of Operation

Community-Based Organisations (CBOs)

Amner and Vergnani (1995) state that community-based organisations (CBOs) are non-profit, grassroots organisations that have their base in particular communities; these organisations are often formed to carry out specific developmental projects or fulfil particular needs. They are formalized representative structures which champion the interest of their members (Smith, 2001b). CBOs are mainly made up of volunteers as

part of their staff. Examples of more formal community-based organisations, with a distinct leadership and membership, are: the Treatment Action Campaign, the Soweto Electricity Crisis Committee, the Concerned Citizens Group, the Salvation Army, the South African Red Cross Society and the St John Ambulance Foundation (Habib, 2003; Kihato & Rapoo, 1999).

Citywide Organisations

According to Hortensia (2008), these include organisations such as the Rotary or Lion's Club, chambers of commerce and industry, coalitions of business, ethnic or educational groups and associations of community organisations which are usually involved in helping the poor in community.

National NGOs

These NGOs are more commonly known; examples are the Red Cross and other professional organisations.

International NGOs

Operations of this type of NGO are beyond national borders. These NGOs often are responsible for funding local NGOs and projects. Examples include OXFAM, CARE, Save the Children organisations and so on.

2.4 HISTORY AND GROWTH OF NGOS: A GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE

The introduction and dominance of neoliberal policies, specifically Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) and other market reform policies, strengthened the need to promote private markets (Fowler, 1991). These policies were introduced by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank to provide loans to developing nations. Loans from both the World Bank and the IMF are claimed to be designed to promote economic

growth, to generate income, and to pay off the debt which the countries have accumulated (Matenga, 2001). In return, the program required assisted countries to devalue their currencies, lift import and export restriction and reduce state interventions and provision of basic services.

In response, donors began to channel money to NGOs for programs that would minimize the inequalities perpetuated by the neo-liberal policies (Garutsa, 2010). Donors began to see NGOs as a 'quick fix' or, in Vivian's (1994) phrase, a 'magic bullet' that could unblock the disappointment, disillusionment and deadlock that had characterized the world of development. This, however, was not much of a compliment but rather a challenge as too much was now expected of NGOs, and in some cases, NGOs failed to live to their expectations.

The ascendancy of neo-liberalism created an environment favourable for NGOs in which the state no longer had a monopoly role in development. The failures of state-led development approaches throughout the 1970s and 1980s fuelled an interest in NGOs as a development alternative, thus offering innovative and people-centered approaches to service delivery, advocacy and empowerment (Lewis & Kanji, 2008). Despite the 'magic fix' challenge highlighted by Vivian (1994), NGOs became a major phenomenon in the development agenda, having certain comparative advantages such as NGOs' small size, links to the grassroots, sympathetic values and capacity for efficient service (Hilhorst, 2003:213). The links to the grassroots have played an important role in the growth of NGOs. The grassroots linkages has been their major strength, which enables them to design services and programs using innovative and experimental approaches centered around community participation (Bebbington et al., 2008).

The growth of NGOs has been an evolutionary process from one generation to another (Korten, 1999), meaning that NGOs have changed as a result of both external pressures and internal processes. Korten (1990) introduces a model in which he explains NGO growth from generation one to four. The first generation shows NGOs focusing on relief and welfare. In this case, NGOs have been formed in response to a particular problem. The second generation includes NGOs which attend to community development, and their scope covers neighbourhoods and villages. Sustainable development NGOs occupy the third generation and have a wider regional and national scope. The last generation includes NGOs involved in advocacy which end up forming people's movements. Many of such movements have a global coverage.

Petras (1999), in a comprehensive study of NGOs, highlighted two critical reasons associated with the growth and proliferation of NGOs over the last quarter of century. He mentions that the real boost in NGOs mushrooming is the need for rising effective mass movements to challenge imperial hegemony. In many nations affected by colonialism, NGOs grew as advocacy agents fighting against any form of oppression. Secondly, NGOs have multiplied during frequent and deepening economic crises provoked by free market capitalism.

The main cause for the increasing the number and significance of NGO activity appears to be the growing practice of international and national development agencies to channel development through NGOs (Fisher, 1994: 5). In addition, other reasons that have been attributed to this sudden growth include the incentives offered to new NGOs resulting in expansion to engage in development and environmental issues at the international level. Secondly, the impact of mass media has led to awareness and support of NGO programs. Furthermore, the international civil society has also been

influential in taking over former state-driven welfare services. Lastly, in many developing countries, NGOs function as substitutes for formerly state-run activities.

2.5 NGO AND THE STATE

Phoebe (2007) emphasizes the value of partnerships in order to obtain sustainable social development. The writer mentions that these partnerships include Non-governmental organisations (NGOs), the corporate sector and the donor community. This is because NGOs alone are not able to deal with the magnitude of complexities of development to alleviate all the needs in society. In this way, MacRobert (1992:54) affirms this argument when he contends that: "NGOs, therefore, can only operate effectively in a partnership climate with the government, donor agencies, the corporate world and other outside specialists who could often give them very good advice to assist them in their strenuous efforts at the pit phase."

NGO-State relations have often stood out as the most critical link in the functioning of NGOs. The condition of this union helps to determine the extent to which NGOs can excel in a particular region. Edwards and Hulme (1992) identify two main factors which have been a cause of conflict between NGO and state, and these include the type of regime and the function served by NGOs.

While there is scope for positive relationships between government and NGOs for those working towards mutual goals in service and welfare provision, those working openly in advocacy and human rights tend to be viewed with suspicion or open hostility, especially when explicitly challenging the state (Banks & Hulme, 2012). In Latin America in a study conducted by Drabek (1987), the researcher shows that historically,

NGOs in this region have functioned in opposition to the government, thus playing a decisive role in strengthening civil society.

Accordingly, the NGO sector in Latin America emerges from a stronger and more radicalized body of civil society organisations in opposition to the authoritarian regimes across the region (Bebbington, 1997; Miraftab, 1997; Bebbington, 2005). This is evident in Mexico in which NGOs emerged from university-educated members of the middle class motivated by their desire for 'transformation from below' through a process of mobilization and sensitisation with poor communities (Miraftab, 1997). However, these popular movements, have, over time, experienced fragmentation, weakening, and an identity crisis (Bebbington, 1997; Gill, 1997; Miraftab, 1997).

It is interesting to note that relationships are universal, and there is no one rigid reflection of NGO-state relationships. This is also because governments vary, and the kind of social, political and economic environments differ. To understand this in the African context, it would be useful to take a world view of NGO-state relations and identify in which ways the continent has been influenced or has influenced other relations. Nasir (2011) takes an in-depth analysis of the South Asia situation as he traces the evolutionary history of relationships between the state and NGOs in Bangladesh, India and Pakistan in which there is a mixture of socio-political environments, NGO activities, donor presence and agendas whereby global policies and pressures have influenced government-NGO relationships to varying degrees across nations.

Nair (2011), on NGO-state relations in Pakistan, highlights the potential for collaboration when NGOs remain in predefined roles of service provision, but there have been conflicts when NGOs step outside to question government policies. This has resulted in

a “head or tail” situation in which collaboration and strong linkages with the state assists programme sustainability (Barr et al., 2005; Rosenberg et al., 2008).

However, when there is conflict between the two, there is often the risk of forsaking the needs of the poor (White, 1999); for example, in some instances in which municipalities and provincial governments have to approve certain projects in a community, there have been considerable delays noted. The government, in many countries, is an institution that is responsible for registering, co-coordinating and regulating NGO activities. This helps to keep check on NGO activities to assess if they are in line with government policy.

Korten (1999:82) confirms this in saying, “Governments are often informed of what each NGO is doing, whether they are actually carrying out their stated objectives or whether these objectives fit government policy, their own overall development plans, or even address priority needs.” This has been the case in Rwanda in which Rwanda's law has gone further by requiring that NGOs demonstrate the involvement of the beneficiary community in defining its own needs and in planning the project before the NGO can be registered; furthermore, this requires that the impact of projects be evaluated and approved by the responsible ministry before the NGOs’ registration can be extended by government (Garutsa, 2010).

In most countries, the conflict between NGO and state has emanated from the fact that NGOs have grown immensely from being simple gap fillers to becoming major contributors in the development field. This change in role also means that amendments have to be made in their operations and functions (Fonjong, 2007).

In response to NGO growth in the 1990s, some African countries such as Uganda have shown mixed feelings, including rampant suspicion that the public good is not the

primary motivation fuelling NGOs (Barr et al., 2005). Political influences have been suggested as a strong influence on NGOs in Africa, with NGOs joining the patronage networks of political leaders (Brass, 2012). This has worsened this relationship, especially with the claim in recent years by mostly southern and eastern Africa governments that NGOs are infringing the conditions of their registration and their involvement in politics.

In a study in Kenya, Oyugi (2004) reports that as the NGO sector has grown, there have been some differences with the state. He observes that the impact of NGOs has been felt, especially in times of national crises such as famine. Secondly, the mode of NGO operation has been contentious, that is, NGOs tend to work directly with beneficiaries instead of through state agencies. Still, the spirit of co-existence has emerged between the state and the NGO sector. Lastly, the researcher highlights that NGOs have forced the state to relax its authoritarian character in the conduct of public affairs.

This is critical as in many cases, a level of mistrust has been reflected between NGOs and the government. In some instances, the government does not trust the contribution of the civil society as they may seem to advance their own agenda. This has been rampant in Africa as NGOs are often viewed as a form of imperialism and suspected to promote a Western ideology; as a result, they are viewed by the state as an obstacle to progress or enemies of the state (Tandon, 1997).

Ulimwengu (2007:11) goes further to illuminate this mistrust and suspicion clearly by saying:

African states generally mistrust NGOs and other non-state actors for a variety of reasons. These include the suspicion that NGOs are invading traditional government territory,

arrogating to themselves roles that are the preserve of the state, thus, undermining their authority and discrediting them. Their dependency on foreign funding has led to the suspicion as to their real motivation, the suspicion that they are really “Trojan Horses” doing bidding for their funders, who may have interests inimical to those of their states.

Nevertheless, there has not been always a case of conflict all the time. Helliker (2006) confirms this in a research on NGOs in the sub-Saharan African region by highlighting that these NGOs may co-operate and strategize with states on certain matters but often disagree on approaches on issues of state legislation. These are the core issues that affect NGO registration and their operations in an area. On this issue, other scholars have highlighted that the strength of civil society and of NGOs, in particular, lies not in opposing the state but co-operating with it (Ikiara, 1999). This also means instead of focusing on rivalry, NGOs should rather focus more on strengthening the civil society.

2.6 NGO TO NGO RELATIONS

The internal relations within any organisations contribute immensely to the overall output. In the NGO context, this is echoed by Helliker (2006) that whether they are developmental or advocacy groups, NGOs are supposed to empower grassroots communities, pluralize the civil society environment and thereby capacitate it. Thus, “the ultimate aim of the work of NGOs must be to strengthen civil society and not compete with the state or among themselves for the delivery of charity.” (AACC & Mwengo, 1993: 84)

In most cases, the effect of such divisions is that it weakens the position of this important sector in society (Dzimhiri, 1997). This is why NGOs have to appreciate their diversity in structure, function and operations. Particularly also between Northern and Southern NGOs, Brunnstrom (2003) notes that this gap exists in theory and practice

when it comes to issues of participation, accountability and coordination. Therefore, there is need to encourage collaboration between the two.

Helliker (2006) also highlights that international organisations have often assumed the best functioning systems and institutions are dominant in Western countries but when it comes to operating in Africa, they need to interact with local NGOs because they have more knowledge of and interest in local circumstances, culture, tradition and language. Such is the case in South Africa with its diverse culture and language whereby there is need to NGOs to work together to effectively help communities. This can be achieved through having established bodies that co-ordinate the affairs of NGOs such as the South African NGO Coalition (SANGOCO).

2.7 THE RISING PROMINENCE OF NGOS

Banks and Hulme (2012) highlight that the rising prominence of NGOs can be traced from the late 1970s whereby a limited number of small NGOs survived through receiving external support. Most of these were mainly offered relief aid or had a short-term presence. This history is categorized into 5 main phases, namely: late 1970s, late 1970s to 1980s, late 1990s, 2000s and lastly, 2010s.

The period from the late 1970s to 1980s was known as the NGO decade in which there was Western pursuit of Neoliberal policies, and NGOs were an emerging development alternative. Furthermore, the issue of good governance was critical and reflected in the role of the state.

2.7.1 Historical Stages of Northern NGOS (NNGOS)

According to Charnovitz (1997), the evolution of Northern NGOs can be divided into seven specific stages. In his study, he outlines the 'emergence' of NGOs from 1775 to

1918 and concludes with a current phase of relative NGO 'empowerment' that has been in evidence since the UN Rio Conference in 1992.

Charnovitz (1997) emphasises that NNGOs began to grow in the late eighteenth century through a range of national-level issue-based organisations which focused on the abolition of the slave trade and peace movements. These, according to the writer, continued to grow and by 1900, there were 425 peace societies active - which later grew into interest groups which now are termed *NGOs*.

The formation of the International Labour Organization (ILO) led to continued growth in NGOs by allowing each of its member countries to send four representatives: two from government, one from employers and one from worker organisations. This created a forum in which, for the first time, three sectors were recognised, and useful debates on labour rights were made.

Nonetheless, from 1935 onwards, the League became less active as growing political tensions in Europe led towards war. NGO participation in international affairs began to fade into a phase of 'disengagement', and until 1945, the newly established United Nations (UN) led to a new stage of post-war 'formalization'.

The UN charter formalized NGO involvement in UN activities and processes (Lewis & Kanji, 2008). However, Charnovitz (1997) reflects on this and states that the reality was that Article 71 merely codified NGO participation and constituted very little advance from the low levels of participation that NGOs had experienced under the League of Nations. NGOs played pivotal roles in UN conferences such as the Stockholm Environment Conference in 1972 and the 1974 World Population Conference in Bucharest. NGOs were also key role players in the drafting of the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child and the UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED)

in Rio approved policy documents on the need to draw from the views and expertise of NGOs. Charnovitz (1997) concludes that the era of NGOs has begun, and other scholars such as Martens (2002) have revealed that NGOs now form an integral part of the UN system.

2.7.2 Origins of NGOs in South Africa

Hortensia (2008) states that the history of NGOs in South Africa can be traced back to the 1600s, that is, the time of missionaries and colonialists from Europe. The missionaries, in particular, were pivotal in setting up schools during the apartheid regime. In addition, colonial powers brought their own organisations which aimed at service provision to the poor communities (Ozigbo, 2011). The work of missionaries went a long way to foster development, as quoted by Koegeleberg (1995:46), “Not only did churches and NGOs support and work for the democratic transition of South Africa, but many believed that they are, in fact, the best instruments to support people-centered development in local communities.” The struggle against apartheid compelled religious communities, whether Christian, Muslim, Hindu or Jewish, to establish organisations which promoted their own communities’ interests and provided protection against various forms of repression and control (Camay & Gordon, 2000).

The rise of NGOs in South Africa was greatly influenced by racial discrimination, and NGOs specialised their efforts in helping deprived communities. NGOs targeted towards specific forms of deprivation began to form to meet the needs of disadvantaged. Specifically, pre-apartheid NGOs in South Africa focused more on addressing political, social and economic injustices (Phoebe, 2007). Apartheid policies, in particular, led to increase in NGOs to minimize the effect of this threat among the non-white populace.

Habib (2003) contends that the early 1980s presented a hostile financial and legal environment for NGOs as a result of President P.W. Botha's liberalisation of the political system. NGO leaders were arrested, detained without trial, and in some cases, their homes and cars were petrol bombed under the apartheid regime. During this same period, NGOs grew to respond to this higher level of oppression. Their primary goal at this time was to provide services to the oppressed people (Blacks), fight against the oppressive government and put an end to its oppressive policies (Hortensia, 2008).

Foreign governments and organisations played a vital role as they helped fund local NGOs. Brink (2008) echoes that the majority of the population had to rely on these committed NGOs for their developmental needs. NGOs were viewed as the most efficient alternative to help deprived communities. During this dispensation, international organisations funded local organization with fewer or no conditions attached. In terms of local government funding for developmental work, much of it was also channelled to the NGO sector.

The democratic government of 1994 aimed at ending the oppression of non-white population and thereby strengthened relations with civil society. This led to the 1995 formation of South African National NGO Coalition (SANGOCO) to coordinate NGO activities. Furthermore, the government recognized the contribution of NGOs by passing the Non Profit Organisations Act 1997 (No 71 of 1997) (Department of Social Development, May 2007). This, in effect, established a platform for the operations of NGOs in South Africa.

2.8 NGO POST APARTHEID ERA

After the 1994 democratic elections in South Africa, the NGO sector shifted its strategy from an 'oppositional' mode to a 'developmental' mode (Pieterse, 1997: 158). There were liberation movements that were actively involved in the struggle to oppose, evade and weaken the oppressive regime. It is for that reason that their approach was labelled the oppositional mode (Pieterse, 1997). The apartheid government had policies which only supported NGOs that were serving the white community and the racial order, and NGOs opposing the government were subjected to increased harassment.

The post apartheid period was associated with liberalization of the political environment in South Africa wherein NGOs were allowed to serve the marginalized black population. According to Habib and Taylor (2001), the particularity of the South African case during apartheid was such that foreign aid was directly channelled to NGOs rather than through the government. After apartheid, there was a marked decrease in direct NGO funding from international organisations; this is because there was this perception that with the success of ending the apartheid rule, then most likely the state would be in a better position to undertake development projects. This transition did not last long due to state failures in projects such as the RDP and cases of corruption.

Fisher's (1994) reflection on the issue of funding supports the notion that NGOs have grown primarily due to the growing practice of development agencies channelling funds directly to NGOs. According to Bernstein (1994), this resulted in a massive growth of the NGO sector to the extent that by 1990, it was estimated that there were about 5,000 NGOs in the country. In 2012, the number of NGOs operating in South Africa were estimated at 85 000 (Times, 2013). This reflected the constant growth that the NGO sector has undergone. This growth, however, has been hampered by government

interference, especially in cases where some NGOs have been de-registered primarily as a result of advocacy against government policies.

According to Pieterse (1997), one of the main characteristics of the post-1994 NGOs is the substantial volume of funding and knowledge that was flowing into the country to facilitate the development initiatives such as: urban and rural development, housing, education and micro-enterprise development, among others. This has promoted a growing interest in NGO research and the issues that they deal with, and this helps NGOs in developing policies aimed to foster development. This has resulted in the rapid expansion of small NGOs in terms of staff and resources, thereby allowing them to fulfil a number of tasks such as: policy research, action research, networking, training, design and implementation of development projects (Pieterse, 1997). Government and civil society at large have benefited greatly from this contribution, mainly because NGO research does not simply identify the problem facing society but plays an influential role in coming up with feasible and sustainable solutions.

The period between 1990 and 1994 is characterized by the crisis of identity in the NGO sector (Momo, 2009). Under apartheid, NGOs were often over-politicized mainly to mobilize and to bring an awareness of strategies against oppression. The post-democratic era brought a sudden shift which Marais (1998:125) calls 'shift from the politics of resistance to a politics of reconstruction.' In a clearer analysis, Walters (1998) speaks of a shift from an oppositional mode to a developmental mode. The relationship of NGOs had changed from conflictual to a much more collaborative one. In the South African context, NGOs that used to oppose the government are now either part of the government or partnering with it in projects. This is confirmed by Ikiara (1999) that the strength of NGOs lies not in opposing the state but rather in co-operating with it.

NGOs found firm ground to participate in development issues as a result of the several unsuccessful state initiated projects. The Rural Development Program (RDP) was one of those established to tackle development challenges, poverty being one of the main ones. The main function of the RDP was to reverse the legacy of apartheid and ease the effects of poverty on the poor through an interventionist strategy of expansionary fiscal policy and land redistribution (Smith, 2001). This resulted in expenditure increasing on areas of basic service delivery and development.

There were several failures that were associated with RDP which included slow delivery and poor economic performance, and this prompted the introduction another strategy which was the Growth, Employment, and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR). In reality, however, the shift from the RDP to GEAR represented a distinct shift in economic thinking, away from a primarily state-led redistributive development strategy to a neo-liberal strategy of standard structural adjustment prescriptions intended to attract foreign investment and promote economic growth (Padayachee et. al., 2000). The most significant limitation of the GEAR was that it largely failed to make an impact on the rural and poor population. NGOs became well suited to change the negative impact of these programs through their ability to link well at grass-root level.

This tremendous growth in the NGO sector in South Africa has resulted in increased pressure for NGOs to adopt a more professional and technocratic approach to development (Marrais, 1997). Due to the removal of legislative restrictions, NGOs have been able to change their structures and become more organized in their operations. This means increased and adequate NGO staff training including adopting relevant leadership styles which are effective in this era.

An important issue is the fact that the black population had limited access to good education, and even now, many find it difficult to upgrade their skills for efficient NGO management. Swilling et al. (2002:5), in their study on the size and scope of the non-profit sector in South Africa, affirm that 'social watch' and 'service delivery' were the two basic expectations of NGOs in current government policy. This, however, has created another challenge for NGOs because a higher level of accountability is now expected of them. NGOs now have unlimited access to financial resources and are now expected to shape delivery processes in a way that helps sustain them in the new democratic order (Swilling et al., 2002).

1.9 CHALLENGES FACED BY SOUTH AFRICAN NGOs IN THE POST- APARTHEID ERA

NGOs have gone through a definite transition which has involved a set of challenges along the way. Bornstein (2001) gives a summary of the challenges faced by the NGO sector in South Africa's post-apartheid era. He highlights that NGOs have struggled to create new identities and establish a relationship with the democratic government at national and local levels and had to redefine their relationships with the wider community. The researcher continues to show that the NGO sector was and remains fragmented, with indications that "professionalized" formal NGOs have consolidated their operations and access to funding (government and internationally). However, they are not necessarily reaching those in need. In conclusion, Bornstein (2001) indicates that South African NGOs are conforming to donor pressures in ways that compromise their activities. This has led to the closing down of some NGOs while some have found it difficult to survive with such challenges, thus creating a gap in the provision of services to the population that needs such services the most.

The reflection on the NGO in the post-apartheid era would be incomplete without stating how the legal framework has completely changed in this respect. Laws have been established whilst others were abolished mainly to target the NGO sector. Some may argue that some of these actions have been done to oppress NGOs to “keep them silent”, while others will appreciate that NGOs now have “more room to operate”. The next section highlights the post-apartheid political environment.

2.10 SURVIVAL MECHANISMS: INSTITUTIONAL AND POLICY FRAMEWORK

The post-apartheid political and institutional framework has helped to establish the nature of NGO state relations. The government has contributed immensely to come up with policies that allow NGOs to participate in the development process. This is critical since the NGO sector during apartheid existed under a clear division based on politics and ideology (Swilling & Russell, 2002). Such policies have been the core foundation of several projects initiated to promote development as discussed below.

1. The South African government, as quoted by Morrow (2003:41) is “anxious to satisfy the expectations of the masses”, and knowing that it could not undertake all service delivery activities to all sectors of society, single-handedly launched the Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) which bound the NGO sector to a government partnership to achieve this national effort (Phoebe, 2007).

The program was implemented to address socio-economic challenges within South African populations. This was set to help deal with some of the evident inequalities as a result of apartheid. NGO participation was encouraged in order to reach some of the grass root populations that were heavily affected. The RDP integrated with all spheres of government, including the civil society. The successes of the RDP also led to the

formation of the South African NGO Corporation (SANGOCO) in 1995 to foster a more institutionalised and cooperative relationship between government and NGOs (Heinrich, 2001:5).

2. The Welfare White Paper of 1997 initiated a complementary role and proposed long-term participation in the delivery of welfare services (Republic of South Africa, 1997:17). This is to say NGOs were now fully recognised as key role players in development. The paper proposed an inter-sectoral approach that would enable the government to reach a wider audience to fight poverty. The role of NGOs was appreciated through their “people centered” development strategies.

3. The Non-profit Organisations Act 71 of 1997 was formulated to properly manage NGOs. The main objective was to encourage and support non-profit organisations in their contribution in meeting the diverse needs of the population of South Africa. When dealing with the state, the issue of accountability is critically vital, and through this act, NGO-state relations improved due to proper governance. Furthermore, this, in turn, improved the credibility of NGOs, thereby attracting funding opportunities

Wynaard (2002) highlights that this Act was aimed at creating an environment in which non-profit organisations can flourish. The framework promoted values of good governance, transparency and accountability through access to information concerning registered non-profit organisation. Lastly, the Act promoted a spirit of co-operation and shared responsibility within government, donors and other interested parties.

4. The Lotteries Act of 1997 was a great innovation with respect to funding of NGOs and charity organisations. This also led to the establishment of a National Lottery

Distribution Trust Fund (NLDTF) so that lottery funds can be properly administered to serve community and development initiatives.

5. The National Development Agency act of 1998 was the principal foundation of the National Development Agency, an organisation set to promote poverty eradication through proper channelling of funds to NGOs and other development initiatives. Furthermore, they provide advice to such organisations so that all projects are properly evaluated and researched. The establishment of the Agency was also a message to accept that the government alone cannot solely deal with socio-economic challenges of the South African population. Their inter-sectoral approach was essential to reach all affected communities and households.

However the existence of such a political framework has not guaranteed the expected goals. This is primarily a result of limited NGO knowledge and research and the limitations of the government to achieve such goals. These limitations are not so much because the government has no funds but rather due to issues such as corruption and bad governance. Swilling and Russell (2002:4) confirm that the legal framework in which NGOs operate was established without empirical and qualitative knowledge of the NGO sector in South Africa. NGOs, over the years, have evolved in their operations, and this acknowledges that continuous research and study had to be done in the area of NGOs. This also prompts that the existing frameworks have to be assessed and evaluated in line with the current socio-economic environment.

2.11 GOOD GOVERNANCE, EVALUATION AND EFFECTIVENESS

There is no way one can make an effective evaluation of NGOs and their role in development without the mention of NGO governance. Hendrickse (2008) has noted that the aspect of governance has become an important developmental issue. Governance is further concerned with the management of the development process, involving both the public and the private sector, as well as the rules and institutions that create the framework for the conduct of both public and private business, including accountability for economic and financial performance and regulatory frameworks relating to companies, corporations and partnerships (Van der Walt, 2004).

Governance is defined as “the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country’s economic and social development” (United Nations Development Programme, as quoted in Olowu, 2002); this shows that there is a balance in power and authority. NGOs, in particular, have to apply such principles in their operations. Hendrickse (2008) states that a second approach of defining governance is through focusing on authority shared for public management between state and non-state organisations. It looks at how authority or power is shared within an organization or between organisations.

Governance is an all-conclusive principle operating in all sectors of society. International Monetary Fund (2003) defines governance as a generally used term which encompasses all aspects of the manner in which a country, corporation, or other entity is governed. This governance also entails the level of accountability and responsibility practised in an organization.

The terms *governance* and *good governance* have grown in popularity amongst NGO development literature, and this shows how governance is a vital aspect in the

management of any organization. Weak or bad governance is the root cause of many NGOs being unable to achieve their set goals, thus leading to poor performance. Weak governance is increasingly seen to be at the core of socio-economic development challenges where there is misguided resource allocation and corruption operating in civil society organisations (World Bank, 2001). In response, many donors are now basing their aid distribution on aspects of good NGO governance (Van der Walt, 2004). Camay and Gordon (2004), in their study, refer to this term as “sound governance” which is participatory, transparent and accountable.

Van der Walt (2004) highlights some characteristics associated with good NGO governance. These are explained below:

a) Participation

Participation is a key element in NGOs. This involves participation at all levels of society. NGOs, like any principle organization, need feedback and also have to give feedback for the process to complete. Participation needs to be informed and organized, which implies freedom of association and expression, on the one hand, and an organized civil society, on the other (Van der Walt, 2004).

b) Rule Of Law

The state of the post-apartheid NGO governance has been a result of improved legislation which has supported the work of NGOs and other civil society organisations. Hendrickse (2008) contends that good governance requires fair legal frameworks that are enforced impartially. Such impartiality can only be achieved in the presence of legislation and organisations that independently stand for NGOs (Van der Walt, 2004).

c) Transparency

This, therefore, means that NGOs take extreme care in making and implementing decisions by following set regulations. There is less of a “closed door” policy since information is freely made available and directly accessible in the form of media that is easily understandable (Van der Walt, 2004). In the Eastern Cape, for instance, this has been the case when NGOs use all languages to communicate an important matter.

d) Consensus-Oriented

In order to achieve good governance, it is important to accept that there are several actors in society, each sharing different viewpoints. This, therefore, requires NGOs to meditate on the best possible solution and how best to achieve it. Hendrickse (2008) states that this requires a broad and long-term perspective on what is needed for sustainable socio-economic development and how to achieve the goals of such development. This, in return, requires full understanding of the historical, cultural and social context of a given society (Van der Walt, 2004).

e) Effectiveness and Efficiency

NGO effectiveness ensures that the organization produces results that meet the needs of the society while making the best use of available resources (Hendrickse, 2008). Efficiency is a similar concept and in this context, is the sustainable use of natural resources and protection of the environment (Van der Walt, 2004). Socio-economic development must not always come at a cost, thereby causing destruction to the natural environment.

f) Responsiveness

Good governance gives value to time. Therefore, the rate of response is an important factor in determining governance. Van der Walt (2004) confirms this view that good governance requires that institutions and processes should make maximum effort to serve all stakeholders within a reasonable timeframe.

g) Accountability

Accountability means that individuals and organisations report to a recognized authority (or authorities) and are held responsible for their actions (Ebrahim, 2010). *Accountable* means NGOs are answerable to an authority or authorities. When NGOs participate in development, there are several authorities involved which the organization has to account to. The importance of accountability is that for an effective relationship to work between NGOs and community, it involves a high level of trust and commitment (Lee, 2004). An organization can be highly funded, with expert workforce but without accountability, development will be a concept that will never seem to materialize.

An accountable NGO is transparent and readily opening its accounts to donors and beneficiaries for scrutiny (Waytt, 2004). Hendrickse (2008) supports this by stating that NGOs should be accountable to those who will be affected by its decisions or actions. In application, there seems to be a close relationship between accountability and the previously stated aspects. Van der Walt (2004) highlights that accountability cannot be enforced without transparency and the rule of law.

Effective accountability requires a statement of goals, transparency of decision-making and relationships, honest reporting of what resources have been used and what has been achieved, an appraisal process for the overseeing of authorities to judge whether

results are satisfactory, and concrete mechanisms for holding to account (rewarding or penalizing) those responsible for performance (Edwards & Hulme, 1998).

According to Edwards and Hulme (1998), accountability can be differentiated in two main ways; firstly, it can either be formal or informal. Formal principally refers to some form of documentation involved whilst informal is passed through a verbal agreement. Secondly, it can be distinguished by the time frame. In this case, this refers to short term functional accountability (accounting for resources, resource use and immediate impacts) and strategic accountability (accounting for the impacts that an NGO action have on the actions of other organisations and the wider environment). High levels of accountability can only be achieved through effective and efficient utilization of resources.

Over the years, several initiatives have been established to promote NGO accountability such as the INGO Accountability Charter which is committed to transparency, accountability and effectiveness in NGO operations. The Charter is the only multi-sectoral INGO accountability framework; furthermore, it provides a global reach. Members of the Charter include: Amnesty International, CARE, OXFAM, SOS Children's Villages International and World Vision.

h) Effectiveness

NGOs can encourage and facilitate participation in needy communities and can reach strata of population which have hitherto been left untouched or bypassed by public service delivery systems (Lewis, 2001). The writer continues to show that this is because government sector agencies suffer from shortages of resources and face social and cultural access problems, and government decision-making is over-influenced by the interests of elites. NGOs can achieve a high level of effectiveness as

they are less vulnerable to sudden and unexpected social and political changes and seem to have more room for flexible decision-making. In some cases, governments operate with a 'hidden' political agenda in order to win votes and build patronage. However, NGOs often have the concerns of the society they are serving at heart, with less political influence. Southern NNGOs, specifically in Southern Africa in this context, are more rooted to the local culture and more sensitive to the local needs of community.

There are several measurements for effectiveness; these often may change and may be affected by other factors. According to Svobodo (2003), common measurements of effectiveness include: (a) the extent to which the major goals stated in the mission are achieved, (b) the extent to which key stakeholders (donors and other groups with major stake) are satisfied with results, and (c) the extent to which the organization is able to attract resources to continue its activities. Elton (2009) mentions that for an NGO to be labelled effective, it must bring meaningful changes to people's lives.

Fowler (1995: 152) states that for an NGO to be effective, it needs the ability to be (maintain identity, values and mission), to do (most indicators have been developed to evaluate this), and to relate (manage interactions while retaining autonomy). A critical analysis of these aspects helps to evaluate NGO performance. This is reflected below when investigating issues of evaluation and accountability.

i) Evaluation

Evaluation, in this context, focuses on the process of assessing NGO performance against set objectives (Riddell et.al, 1995) and present standard of living. Evaluation techniques must be able to assess performance results against objectives and benefits

against costs, and in so doing, identifying strengths and weaknesses in a way which can have a positive impact on the effectiveness of NGO (Riddel et.al, 1995).

Marthinsen (2007) mentions that there is a complex interrelation between evaluation and accountability, thereby showing the relation between the two. There is no organization that can achieve peak performance without good accountability of its operations. Hilhorst (2003) asserts that if NGOs do not make efforts to be accountable to their clients, they risk losing their appeal for funding from donors; their legitimacy as advocates; their credibility in the eyes of media and the people; and their status as an organization doing well for the benefit of others. Accountability plays a crucial role in evaluating NGO performance. Marthinsen (2007) acknowledges the growth in the NGO industry and the difficulty in having a standard of performance for all NGOs. The writer attributes this to the fact that evaluation and accountability are inevitably a matter of judgment and interpretation. In most cases, the level of accountability is determined by the donors, government, community and so on.

2.12 NGOs IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

During the last twenty-five years, NGOs in general and more recently, African NGOs in particular, have increased dramatically in number and in influence (Igoe & Kelsall, 2005; Michael, 2002). This has been an accurate representation of the growth of NGOs. Matenga (2001) confirms this by highlighting that since 1980, NGOs in Africa have been receiving a high profile as development role players offering an alternative development approach to poverty alleviation and long-term sustainable development to poor communities in developing countries.

The effects of Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) on African economies included liberalisation of markets, de-valuation of local currencies, de-regulation and removal of

subsidies from the public sector by government (Stromquist, 2002). This resulted in drastic cuts in the provision of social services such as health, education and largely affected African NGOs which relied on agricultural production (UNESCO, 2001). A vicious cycle of poverty was prompted and escalated across developing nations in Africa. It is in this arena that NGOs rose to prominence.

In a research conducted by United Nations Development Program (UNDP 1996), between 1981 and 1989 per-capita incomes dropped by 21 percent in sub-Saharan Africa countries. In reference to the same period, Fisher (2006) concludes that ‘there is widespread evidence that development strategies of the past few decades have failed to adequately assist the poorest of the world’s poor’ (1997: 443). The impact of SAPs was largely visible, and many developing nation governments struggled to bring about socio-economic growth.

MWENGO (2000), a regional NGO body in southern and east Africa claims that NGOs in Africa perceive the state ‘as inefficient, ineffective and unable to make any meaningful contribution to their development initiatives.’ In this context, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have appeared as complements or alternatives to the failed states (Lutabingwa & Gray, 1997; Michael, 2004). Following this claim, Manji and O’Coill (2002) affirm that NGOs have been plying their trade within the escalating impoverishment, growing conflicts and state negation of its social responsibilities. NGOs in Africa have been instrumental in development, and through their involvement in poverty reduction programs have provided access to basic services, thus fostering democracy and advocating for peace in regions of conflict and war. It is for this reason that NGOs in Africa have been viewed as the ‘favoured child’ of official development agencies ‘hailed as the panacea to cure the ills that have befallen the development

process, and imagined as a “magic bullet” which will mysteriously but efficiently find its target’ (Edward & Hulme 1998).

Lutabingwa and Gray (1997) indicate that the NGO sector in sub-Saharan Africa has grown tremendously both in number and financial resources which they control. This pattern has been evident in countries such as Tanzania, Botswana and Kenya, including Western Africa, Cote d’Ivoire and Niger.

The political context, in many cases, greatly influenced the role and operation of NGOs in African countries. During the colonialism era, most NGOs operated against the government as they advocated for the liberation of the oppressed masses. African scholars have advocated that NGOs should not be taken for granted as they were one of the leading agents in the democratization process in Africa (Nyang’oro, 1993).

However, the post colonialism era presented a different environment in which the state opted to work with NGOs to achieve development targets. In this way, NGOs in Africa have often been forced to change their functions from opposing to complementing government efforts to achieve development goals. They have gradually grown to become major contributors in the development field and have evolved from being simple gap fillers in service delivery to important agents of development (Nyathi, 2011). Such changes in their role have translated to a change in the way they collaborate with the state (Fonjong, 2007).

In the African context, such growth and change in function has led to mistrust between governments and NGOs as they are viewed as a form of imperialism in a camouflage. Governments have questioned the issues of foreign ideologies and funding used in these NGOs. Ulimwengu (2007:11) clearly explains this mistrust and suspicion thus:

African states generally mistrust NGOs and other non-state actors for a variety of reasons. These include the suspicion that NGOs are invading traditionally government territory, arrogating to themselves roles that are the preserve of the state, thus, undermining their authority and discrediting them. Their dependency on foreign funding has led to the suspicion as to their real motivation, the suspicion that they are really “Trojan Horses” doing bidding for their funders, who may have interests inimical to those of their states.

The question on NGO funding in Africa is unavoidable (Baccaro, 2001). As highlighted by Fehnel (1997), many of them are funded by foreign agencies such as United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA), and the British Overseas Development Agency (BODA). Is this genuine generosity to Africa or rather, another form of modern colonization in process?

In response to the above views of NGOs, Petras (2007) concludes in his study that:

In reality, NGOs are not “non-governmental” organizations. They receive funds from overseas governments, work as private sub-contractors of local governments and or are subsidized by corporate funded private foundations with close working relations with the state. Frequently, they openly collaborate with governmental agencies at home or overseas. Their programs are not accountable to local people but to overseas donors who “review” and “oversee” the performance of NGOs according to their criteria and interests.

There have been other scholars who have agreed with this view, including Korten (2005) who gives a contextual view of South Africa by highlighting the role of NGOs as becoming “facilitators of a global people’s development movement”. Supporting this view, De Beer and Swanepoel (2000) add that NGOs can contribute towards achieving

the lives of the poor and protecting their basic rights. Furthermore, these NGOs can play a positive role in the transformation of South Africa's socio-economic development (Nzimakwe, 2008). However, some of these views are contested in this study as there has been lack of participation in some areas and knowledge of NGOs. The impact of NGOs is limited without these influential themes.

2.13 FUNDING: NGO AND DONOR RELATIONS

A relationship is marked with interaction between the source and the recipient. In the case of NGO and donor relations, both of them equally have important roles to play. Helliker (2006) simplifies this by highlighting that this is a mutual relationship in which NGOs need ongoing donor funds to sustain themselves and simultaneously, donors need NGOs so that funds can be readily disbursed and hence visible progress in the field made and reported on.

This brings in the argument that NGOs have been regarded as a creation of funding agencies wherein they operate as instruments of donor agencies (Zaidi, 1999). In this way, foreign aid agencies would have more control over NGOs as they state the conditions of funding. Helliker (2006) expands on this by showing how this has been evident in cases where foreign donors decide to bypass NGOs and fund grassroots groups (or even the nation-state) directly; when donors withdraw their funding completely in protest against an authoritarian regime; or when political reforms demonstrate that outside financial assistance on notably political governance and human rights is no longer warranted. This portrays a picture that portrays external donors as having firm control over some communities, governments and nations. In Africa, this has led to governments sometimes making a bold decision to ban NGOs as an action to resist any form of Western influence.

The channel of funding used between NGOs and donors is also critical. Some channels are more effective than others, and some have more long-term consequences in comparison. Helliker (2006) highlights that private aid from voluntary donations and investment income is channelled through various non-governmental bodies, including charities, foundations and northern NGOs. The reliability of these channels is also another vital concept as in many cases, funds have been released, but communities have not been impacted in any way.

In funding, donor agencies make use of aid-coordinating mechanisms in transferring funds to NGOs or governments. Such agencies include Development Assistance Committee (DAC) and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). However, there are other non-DAC/OECD organisations or countries that help co-ordinate aid such as the Gates Foundation which provides private philanthropy worth over US\$10-25 billion annually; other celebrities have also followed such a trend. This all makes it difficult to come up with official figures of how much aid is sent to NGOs since in some cases, no formal mechanizations are followed. It becomes relatively difficult to find accurate or up-to-date figures on aid flows to NGOs through official channels (Riddell & Robinson 1995; Wallace et al., 2006).

In some cases, aid co-coordinating mechanisms have been by-passed, and donors have directly used NGOs to distribute aid. Little (2003) highlights two main qualities that make NGOs unique in distributing aid. Firstly, they are independent from strategic and geopolitical interests that drive foreign policy. This helps to prevent NGOs from pursuing their own goals contradictory to development goals. Secondly, they have an ability to provide opportunities for ordinary citizens from both North and South to engage with development and other issues.

When proposing for funds, NGOs can propose projects and programs and receive the funds from the donors or alternatively, they can be contracted, in which case NGOs are engaged by bilateral donors to undertake specific roles and tasks within certain projects and programs. Lewis and Kanji (2009) further states that it is common for donors to sub-contract projects to NGOs and provide all the funds to the NGOs that are required to carry them out.

The growth in the NGO sector has not only influenced their operations but even furthermore, it has had an impact on NGO-donor relations. Historically, NGOs were viewed by donors as organizations which were useful in emergency work rather than as serious actors in development (Lewis & Kanji, 2009). NGOs were seen by donors as offering new potential to transform aid implementation - the difference being during emergency work, NGOs do not have to do much managing of funds since usually, this can be for a limited period in time, and the need is specific. However, with development projects, a lot has to be done to manage funds; the time frame can be extended or it can be a project for a bigger population.

This has resulted in increased responsibility as NGOs have grown to be regarded as 'capacity builders'. Their roles have gone beyond just implementing projects but rather working with local 'partner' organisations. Fowler (1997) contends that capacity-building potentially provides opportunities for reflection on development approaches and on the renegotiation of NGO roles, perhaps allowing a move beyond the banal rhetoric of 'partnership'. This explains why some governments have not only restricted the operations of donors but rather gone further to ban or hinder NGOs from operating because of such 'partnership' relations.

Rather than implementing projects, there has been a shift towards working with local 'partner' organizations and a search for new 'enabling' roles. Fisher (1994) pointed out that much of the discourse on capacity-building was tinged with a 'subtle paternalism', since it assumed that these NNGOs knew best. For this reason, some agencies now speak of capacity 'enhancement' in place of 'building', in recognition of these issues of unequal power. Nevertheless, Fowler (1997) argued that capacity-building debates potentially provide opportunities for reflection on development approaches and on the renegotiation of NGO roles, perhaps allowing us to move beyond the banal rhetoric of 'partnership'.

The aid chain is often highly complex due to the series of links in which the aid flows through mainly because requirements and conditions almost always flow down the chain from the donor to the recipient (Marthinsen, 2007). In a study on funding from NGOs in United Kingdom to those in South Africa, Bornstein (2003) found that there is a trend towards paying for projects rather than the core costs and that international funding is now very restrictive as it excludes smaller, less capitalized organizations.

Fehnel (1997) contends that international and regional donor agencies come in many forms, and these include, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the European Union (EU), and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA), and the British Overseas Development Agency (BODA). These agencies have been instrumental in solving development problems, and many of them offer loans and grants to NGOs. Hendrickse (2008) adds that donor agencies have played an important role in Africa, offering technical assistance in the form of development experts, providing access to international information and experience, and thereby helping to ensure that development tasks are achieved.

However, in respect to funding, governments have queried donors pertaining to who really sets the agenda for policies and programs (Smith, 1998). Often, it seems that donors attach certain conditions to their funding and usually, organisations that conform to such conditions are preferred compared to others. Themudo (2003) also supports this view and states that the terms of conditions in funding can also be of great restriction towards NGOs.

Furthermore, bad international relations have been a factor that often hampers NGO-donor relations. For example, since the 9/11 attacks on the US, the policy of the so-called 'war on terror' has brought further changes within the aid industry which have threatened the capacity of NGOs to maintain room for manoeuvre (Lewis, 2009). This has brought about what is often called the increased 'securitisation of aid' (Macrae & Harmer, 2003). Painfully, this has cost a large proportion of the population that is in dire need of aid.

Smith and Bornstein (2001) contend that in some instances, donors make funding available for specific sectoral areas e.g. food security, climate control, and if the NGOs do not have programs or expertise in that sector, then it might imply that funding is inaccessible. The scholars conclude that this results in NGOs pressurizing themselves to establish certain kinds of programs whilst they do not have the capacity or skills to implement these. This further limits NGOs, thus constraining their flexibility and creativity. Funding of NGOs does not always necessarily come from external donors. This is an important aspect because funding comes from different sources, and each source has certain benefits and negative consequences; in each case, there are advantages and disadvantages in each funding source.

NGOs may have to face various negative and positive aspects linked to the sources of funding (Glaser, 2004). At times, NGOs have to go through long delays for institutional donors to approve funding, not to mention the complex requirements needed for approval. Camay and Gordon (2004) contend that a culture of dependency and entitlement prevails amongst some NGOs. Thus, the authors report that there is a need to build public understanding of philanthropy, social responsibility and individual citizen responsibility and voluntarism to contribute to the public good. NGOs have to be sustainable in their operations being able to use diversified channels for funding.

Therefore, it is better for an NGO to have a mixed funding portfolio instead of depending on a single donor to meet current and future needs (Viravaidya & Hayssen, 2001; Layton, 2006).

The primary cause of mistrust has been the source of NGO funding. Governments view NGOs to be economically and ideologically controlled by the Western donors (Baccaro, 2001). This has been highlighted above when discussing NGO-donor relations.

Pertaining to NGO State relations, Tandon (1997:4) concludes by saying:

For a person to understand the role of the NGOs, voluntary institutions, citizen's initiatives, neighbourhood groups, development organisations in the contemporary society we need to approach the questions of these institutions from a different perspective. We need to understand the relationship between the state and the civil society in order to situate the role of NGOs and voluntary development in that context.

The state of relationship between state and civil society is an area of focus for some African states during this democratic era. In particular, the Southern African state,

Botswana, has experienced some challenges with regard to NGOs. The section below expands on some of these challenges.

2.14 IMPACT OF DEMOCRACY ON AFRICAN NGOs: CASE OF BOTSWANA

This section focuses on the survival of NGOs during this democratic era. Botswana, a Sub-Saharan African country which is a member of the regional block Southern African Development Community (SADC), is used as a case study. Botswana obtained its independence in 1966 and boasts of one of the longest surviving democracies in Africa. The country has done very well in terms of social development and management, through the adoption of good macro-economic management policies (Leborwe & Mpabanga, 2007).

Despite such socio-economic strides, Maundeni (2005) highlights that the civil society in Botswana is very weak, and as a result, organizations usually lobby bureaucracy rather than politicians. The writer further asserts that civil society is characterized by ad-hoc ways of organizing in which NGOs are temporary in nature; when particular problems have been addressed, they then go into a state of decline. Lekorwe (1999) also argues that 'civil society in Botswana is weak and lacks the capacity to organize itself'.

Lekorwe (1999) continues and argues that the civil society structures in Botswana still remain weak. The belief is that democracy is one of the mechanisms that promote growth in civil society sector, but in Botswana, this has not been the case. This confirms the argument of Molomo and Somolekae (1999) that 'it is an undisputable fact that democracy is hollow and meaningless if not accompanied by the existence of a strong civil society seeking to represent non-governmental interests.

There are several factors that have contributed to this failure. Firstly, Botswana has experienced a shortage in adequate human resource knowledgeable in the management of NGOs. Consequently, they end up having a limited number of educated individuals who support and actively participate in management activities.

Secondly, Lekorwe and Mpabanga (2007), on their analysis of NGOs in Botswana, highlight that NGOs have a limited amount of financial and human resources available to them, and this makes management a difficult task. Furthermore, this has been aggravated by the fact that international donor agencies have, in some cases, withdrawn funding since Botswana was re-classified as an upper-mid-income country.

Lastly, Lekorwe (1999) mentions that the strict control of public media greatly limits development activities. Sources of public media such as such as newspapers, radio and television are controlled by the state. The result is that it limits NGO publicity and often biased publications are made against civil society. Hirschman (1970) then shows that society will end up with a negative attitude towards NGOs as they believe that there is no use in putting pressure on the state 'since no one is prepared to listen to them' (cited in Lekorwe, 1999).

Molutsi (1995) argues that one of the factors contributing to the weaknesses of civil society is that the concept of non-governmental organizations was imported from outside by donor agencies in response to the African states.

Despite the case of Botswana, there are specific advantages and disadvantages which are specifically found in Southern African NGOs. The section below highlights factors that are constraining and those facilitating Southern African NGOs.

2.15 FACTORS CONSTRAINING SOUTHERN AFRICAN NGOs (SNGOs)

2.15.1 Political and Economic Context

There is a visible variation in the political and economic context across Southern African countries. Klugman (2000) states that this variation is evident as some countries in Southern Africa are in a period of political change, others in the aftermath of war, others are relatively stable, thus lacking the specific window of opportunity that comes with radical change.

2.15.2 Differences in Perceived Role and Organisational Culture of NGOs

Klugman (2000) notes that differences in style of operation and work, the organizational hierarchy and approach to work, including the extent to which these NGOs, are prepared to challenge government on certain developmental issues. It always brings a lot of suspicion when one NGO in particular is in the forefront whilst others do not make any effort to make their voice heard.

2.15.3 Diversity within the NGO Sector

Another challenge is that NGOs in countries in Southern Africa see themselves as being in partnership with the state, in opposition, or in a facilitating/reforming role (and, of course, different NGOs within one country frequently differ in their roles). For NGOs to work together to influence policy in the region presumes some confluence between them. At the moment, there are substantial differences in style of operation and in assumptions about the role of NGOs in particular, the extent to which they are ready to challenge government and facilitate processes of policy change. There are also differences in their style of work, with some NGOs having little hierarchy and a team-based approach to work and others operating along more traditional organizational

lines. However, these differences apply as much within countries as between. They are problems that could be overcome where there is a pressing sense of mission driving the need for collaboration. The last few years have seen a range of regional networking initiatives in the health field – from those exploring means of promoting equity in health-sector reform to those specifically sharing information and expertise on HIV/AIDS advocacy.

2.15.4 South Africa's Perceived 'Imperialism'

One of the challenges of Southern African NGOs is the increasing economic encroachment of South Africa on other Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries coupled with a perception that South African activists are arrogant – certain of their skills and failing to learn from the experience of others in the region; this can undermine efforts to collaborate (Klugman, 2000).

2.15.5 The Implications of Dependency on Donors

Challenges are always evident when NGOs turn to bilateral and multilateral agencies to obtain financial support. NGOs, in return, may become increasingly dependent on such funding to the extent that their ability to make quick, strategic and political decisions is often restricted. Klugman (2000) states that if this persists, NGOs may find themselves in a position where they can easily become parastatals, predominantly carrying out work for the state or contracted to international NGOs or other agencies. In such cases, it will appear as if NGOs are working for the state or rather contracted to work for international agencies. Lack of funds creates a difficult environment for NGOs to operate whereby they end up doing work that does not match their goals. Lack of funds creates hurdles for collaboration between NGOs and different Southern African countries (Klugman, 2000).

2.15.6 Need For Institutionalised Fora To Focus Collaboration: SADC

SADC stands as an institutional forum that allows NGOs to participate and collaborate on policy issues. SADC operates as a development body in the region which only does not help to exert pressure on member states but rather, is also a platform for NGOs to lobby and garner support on certain developmental issues. Klugman (2008) concludes that SADC, as an inter-governmental organization, has not been fully institutionalized to allow NGOs to fully function within its premise. NGOs, in particular, do not have full access to issues that are under debate.

2.16 FACTORS FACILITATING SOUTHERN AFRICAN NGOS

2.16.1 A Growing Culture of Participation and Rights

This growing culture has an open government approach and human rights for all. The end result has been that no matter what NGOs have stood for, this growing culture has allowed NGOs to stand for what they must stand for without any form of restriction.

2.16.2 Experiences Relevant to Other Countries

Southern Africa is a region that is so connected so much that its experiences are shared amongst countries; others can learn how to tackle similar problems and succeed. That is the reason for the several regional blocks because NGOs can share resources, skills etc. For example, experiences in managing multilateral agencies are shared so as to help those other NGOs not to repeat others' mistakes but rather learn from its successful strategies (Klugman, 2000). This has prompted what is known as a 'regional' programming approach in which training courses and materials are distributed to share certain problems experienced and feasible solutions. This process helps to foster collaboration and partnership within the region and amongst NGOs. Furthermore, for

this to take place, NGOs have to be able to deal with a certain amount of diversity and variation in the industry. This is critically discussed below.

2.17 The Diversity in the NGO Industry

There is a wide range of diversity on the NGO scene; they are not all the same and differ in certain attributes and functions. However, despite such diversities, Tvedt (2002) points out that NGOs share systemic and relational similarities rather than essentialist and ideological characteristics. He continues to highlight that such diversity can, at times, pose a challenge as NGO research has to integrate the homogeneity and the heterogeneity of the NGO scene. This shows the value in appreciating NGO diversity.

Slim (2001) differentiates NGOs as he discerns between 'humanitarian' and 'developmental' NGOs. Martens (2002:282) brings in a variation based on the reach of NGOs as he defines NGOs as formal (professionalized) independent societal organizations whose primary aim is to promote common goals at the national or the international level. This shows that some NGOs may operate on national variables whilst others focus more at international variables. Their level of operations completely differs. Such variations are essential to note so that even when we evaluate NGOs, we know specifically their goals and reach.

The distinction between Southern and Northern NGOs has been pointed out by a number of authors (see Commins, 2000; Eade, 2002; Nelson, 2002). NNGOs focus more on operational roles and have been leading in research and empowerment. They contribute immensely to the world trading system and financial investments. Southern NGOs (SNGOs) are assumed to, more effectively, hear and represent the authentic voices of the poor and implement local projects (Marthisen, 2007).

This is further illustrated by Hailey (2001) that in the North, you find large semi-donor NGOs, broad-based development NGOs, specialist NGOs, advocacy agencies and emergency relief agencies, while in the South, the diversity ranges from small grassroots and community-based organizations to large multi programme development agencies (Hailey, 2001: 164). NNGOs have a stronger international appeal and are often involved in charity and fundraising work. Thomas and Allen (2000) show that SNGOs have stronger local and national concerns and focus more on research and campaigning, national service-providing and rural development. This is the more accurate representation of the NGOs in Africa. It is important to appreciate that there is not much conflict between the two but rather, they have learnt to appreciate their roles and functions which evidently differ.

In a research by Marthisen (2007), the researcher mentions a case study from Heliwa district in Mogadishu, Somalia which illustrates how Africa has benefited from both Northern and Southern NGOs mutual collaboration. The war and famine in Somalia caused half of Heliwa's population to be displaced. The British NGO Agency for Cooperation and Research in Development (ACORD) focused its work on environmental sanitation by cooperating with two local NGOs working in several displaced camps. This partnership enabled the agency to gain experience of the problems faced by Somali NGOs and how best to support them (Bushra et al., 1996).

In summary, Lewis and Kanji (2009) highlight that:

In terms of their structure, NGOs may be large or small, formal or informal, bureaucratic or flexible. In terms of funding, many are externally funded, while others depend on locally mobilized resources. Some may be well resourced and affluent, while others may be leading a 'hand to mouth' existence, struggling to

survive from one year to the next. There are NGOs with highly professionalized staff, while others rely heavily on volunteers and supporters. In terms of values, there are secular NGOs, as well as increasing numbers of 'faith-based' organizations. Some NGOs may be charitable and paternalistic, others seeking to pursue radical or 'empowerment'-based approaches.

This, in application, means no single NGO can combine all several of these different elements at one time. Despite such diversity, NGOs can work together in development and maintaining existing social and political systems (Morris-Suzuki, 2000)

2.18 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical frameworks used in this study are the Participatory Development Approach (APA), Humanistic Approach and Capability Approach. The Participatory Development Approach emphasizes that community members should be involved in every cycle or stage of development process. The humanistic approach highlights that people are at the centre of the development process. Lastly, the capability approach goes further to ensure not only involving the people but to ensure that they are empowered. The study was guided by these theoretical frameworks.

2.18.1 Participatory Development

Participatory development is the continual involvement of communities to express and analyze the realities of their lives and conditions, to plan for themselves what action to take and to monitor and evaluate the results (Chambers, 1997). This ensures that the community is involved in every stage of the development process. Chambers (1997) continues and emphasize that the approach empowers the local people in all cycles of development from design, formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

The approach emphasizes the importance of the involvement of people, partnerships, the sharing of power and responsibility and empowerment (Dennis, cited in Fitamo, 2003). Social Development encourages NGOs to build partnerships in the work and processes.

Participation has been known as a new form of development intervention which fundamentally involves self-transformation processes and a proactive 'learning by doing' approach (Penderis, 1996). As highlighted by Roodt (2001), it involves organisations or peoples being able to influence the decisions that affect their own lives. This means anyone in the community has the ability to make an important impact towards their own development. This perspective shows that poor and marginalized people have the power to change their own conditions for the better (Williams, 2003).

2.18.2 Humanistic Approach

The humanistic approach complements the participatory development approach (PDA) in that it further provides an in-depth understanding of the concept of participation. The fundamental aspects of the approach are centered on the fact that people have the right, desire and ability to determine what is best for them and how they will achieve it (Cain, 2002). The best person to understand the challenges community are facing and the best solutions to those problems are the people involved or affected the most. Cain (2002) continues and emphasizes the importance of a commitment to democratic principles in negotiating differences and solving problems; this requires effective collaboration which provides optimal freedom for the clients involved. The humanistic approach allows room for the clients to feel validated and understood.

The approach addresses a major challenge with regards to NGO relations with the community in which NGOs have often approached communities without considering the

perspective of those affected by the problem. Community meetings end up like presentations of already prescribed solutions without community consultation. The approach highlights that the client must have maximum involvement during the process.

2.18.3 Capacity Approach

The Capability Approach is the work pioneered by Amartya Sen. He argues that development should be the expansion of human capabilities and not the maximisation of utility, or its proxy - monetary income (Sen, 1999). The fundamental principles of the approach reject monetary income as an indicator of well-being and focus more on freedom to live a valued life. According to this approach, poverty is defined as deprivation or failure to achieve certain minimal or basic capabilities or the ability to satisfy certain crucially important functions, up to certain minimal levels (Sen & Nussbaum, 1993). This approach emphasizes the quality of life for which monetary resources is considered as a means to enhancing well-being only (Stewart et al., 2005).

2.19 CONCLUSION

The chapter provided a contextual background of NGO and highlighted the types of NGO according to orientation and their level of operation. The main aspect emerging from this chapter is the historical preview of NGOs focusing on different time periods. The literature review provided scholarly information on aspects of NGOs such as NGO relations, funding, governance and accountability. Also highlighted is that NGO to donor relations are critical as they need each other to achieve development goals. Donors need NGOs to readily disburse funds, and NGOs need donors to sustain themselves. The chapter indicated that the need for good NGO-state relations is critical, and the establishment of mechanisms such as Non-Profit Act, 71 of 1997 has

encouraged NGOs in their contribution towards social development in South Africa.
This chapter discussed used scholarly input to discuss principles of good governance.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the research methodology used in the study. The methodology specifies how the researcher can go about studying practically what he believes can be known (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). This chapter begins by giving a brief description of the study area then gives an outline of the research method and design used and research design. Furthermore, a preview of the population, sampling, data collection and analysis implemented. In conclusion, the chapter highlights the successes and challenges encountered.

3.2. DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA

The research area is located in Nkonkobe Municipality under the Amathole District of the Eastern Cape Province in South Africa. The research focused on three main towns which are Alice, Middeldrift and Seymour. The choice of these areas was based on factors which include accessibility, distance, time, NGO activity and programmes. There are 56.9km from Middeldrift to Seymour, and Alice town is located fairly at the mid-point of the towns.

3.3. RESEARCH METHOD

The study used a qualitative research methodology because it made it easier for the researcher to flexibly explore the field area with the aim to assess specific information. Babbie (1999) highlights key features that are visible in a qualitative research, and these are: research is conducted in the natural setting; the primary aim is an in-depth

understanding of the actors and events; and the focus is rather on the process rather than the outcome. Qualitative research is an enquiry process of understanding where a researcher develops a complex and holistic picture, analyses words, reports detailed views of informants and conducts the study in a natural setting (Creswell, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

Qualitative studies share a common goal of presenting findings in the form of written descriptions rather than in terms of statistical analysis which is the characteristic of quantitative studies (Crowl, 1993). This study includes information obtained from interviews and focus groups conducted with NGO leaders, political and community leaders and the civil society.

3.4. RESEARCH DESIGN

The research designs for this study are survey and case study. Welman et al. (2005) define a research design as a plan according to which research participants are obtained and how information is collected from them. The study implemented a qualitative research design to obtain a more holistic view of NGOs in Nkonkobe. This is because it involves, at most, human experiences and their views on critical matters. This method helps to understand social phenomenon within its cultural, social and situational context without imposing pre-existing expectations upon the setting (Gubrium & Sanker, 2005:52).

3.5. POPULATION

A population is a collection of objects, events or individuals having some common characteristics that the researcher is interested in studying (Mouton, 1996:34). The sample was drawn from Nkonkobe Municipality. The analysis by Dirwayi (2010)

contributed to this decision as the researcher highlighted that the area comprised a poor rural sector with under-serviced townships and informal settlements.

3.6. SAMPLING

A sample is a portion of a larger entity and is always intended to be representative of the larger population (Abrahamson, 2000). In research, a representative sample is characterised by selecting from a larger population that is statistically found to be typical of that population (Schaefer & Lamm, 1992). In this research, non-probability sampling methods were implemented to select respondents in Nkonkobe to examine the role of NGOs in development. This was implemented to help guarantee information richness in the study (Polit & Hungler, 1991).

In this case, purposive sampling was applied. A specific number of questionnaires were distributed in the selected towns in Nkonkobe, and four villages which currently receive NGO assistance were selected. The first criterion used in distributing questionnaires was the distance from the NGO; this was to investigate if distance from NGO has any impact on the quality and frequency of aid. The researcher distributed questionnaires to Ntselamanzi community located in Alice. The village is located close to Africare offices and also approximately 34km from World Vision offices located in Middledrift. The other questionnaires were distributed in Seymour central, which is located more than 60km from the NGOs. Both NGOs have no sub-offices in Seymour, so field workers often plan trips to this destination.

The second criterion used to examine was if class position had any influence on the quality and frequency of NGO services. The townships were clearly selected to represent class differentiations within the area NGOs operate in, and the researcher chose Happy Rest, which is located north of Alice town. This community represents

much of the urban community of Alice. Then contrary to this, the researcher visited a community in Middledrift, Gugulethu. The community is made up of a rural population, and the standard of living is much lower, with makeshift houses being visible.

3.7. DATA COLLECTION METHODS

The data collection methods used were questionnaires, in-depth interviews and focus groups. Various factors were taken into consideration, including the nature of the research problem under investigation, the research objectives, availability of finances, human resources and time. The sub-section below expands more on the methods.

3.7.1 In-Depth Interviews

The main reason for use of in-depth interviews was that it allowed the researcher flexibility to tackle issues related to the issues of study. As the respondents answered each question, the researcher could discuss other matters related to their response. This confirms the reflections of Gubrium and Sankar (1994) that highlight that the method promotes rich, meaningful, subjective data viewed through the eyes of the participant. The interviews enabled the researcher to assess NGO involvement in development issues and to identify the form of challenges that they face in their operations.

The interviews also helped encouraged the participants to give their own perceptions on the contribution of NGOs in development. They helped to create an atmosphere of trust and union-ship and allowed respondents to say what they think with richness, sincerity and spontaneity (Brewer & Miller, 2003). For example, in some responses, they would respond in their local language or act out a short demonstration. The interview questions were primarily open-ended questions to allow the participants to openly disclose their thoughts, feelings and perceptions regarding the roles of NGOs in

development. It was a common characteristic throughout the study that respondents preferred to express their ideas or thoughts rather than filling in any information, so researcher had to take notes during interviews.

Researchers have argued that the interviews promote an “insider’s” view on the way participants view NGOs in addressing societal needs (De Vos, 1998:300; Mouton & Marais, 1990:212). This has proven to be advantageous due to the vast flexibility which allows researchers to explain themselves fully (Leddy et al., 2001). These interviews were conducted face-to-face with participants, and times and venues were arranged for each interview. In all cases, the participants offered to have the interview at their offices.

This was profitable because it gave the researcher an opportunity to also take notes on their operations and also including some challenges they face. For example, after the interview at Phumalanga, the respondent took me for a short tour of the place to show some of the projects they are currently working on. She explained the normal activities they undertake every day, and I also had the opportunity to meet the workers who serve there. This shows the value of in-depth interviews; they are not limited to just question and answer on paper but go beyond to tackle other issues that might have had been overlooked. Furthermore, interviews are not limited to the sequence of questions; oftentimes, the sequence can be changed depending on the flow of discussion.

However, the effectiveness of the in-depth interviews depends on the willingness of the participants to fully contribute in research. For example, other NGOs such as Africare in Alice informed me that they were not allowed to have any interviews or give out any information about the organisation. The best they could do was to refer me the head office in East London. Even at the head office, it took a lot of follow up to have interview

questions filled. The main reason is that the manager was mostly busy, and no other person is authorised to conduct an interview in this organisation. The major disadvantage that I noticed in having interview questions filled in is that some of the questions were not filled, and in other cases, participants gave short two-word questions. This shows some of the challenges encountered when using this instrument of research; the respondents should be willing to fully participate.

In the case of interviews, preparatory meetings were with the interviewees from World Vision, Africare and Phumalanga to set up meeting dates and venues. The data was collected using an interview schedule. In the case of this study, the interview schedule was written in English. Holstein and Gubrium (1995) cited by de Vos et.al. (2005) defined an interview schedule as a preparatory questionnaire written to guide the interviews. This schedule also helps to forecast some challenges that might be encountered during the interview (de Vos et al., 2005 & Welman et al., 2005).

The questions in the interview schedule were arranged in a logical manner to facilitate a proper way in which to address different areas and knowing sensitive areas; they also followed a simple hierarchy from simple to much more complex questions. For example, the question on the impact of politics on NGOs was often the last as most respondents were reluctant to answer it, bearing in mind the National elections period. The researcher had to clearly explain that their responses will be kept confidential. The advantage of this form of preparation is that there was order in the interviews and good flow in the discussion. This, furthermore, also created a comfortable atmosphere where respondents could also discuss other issues which were not on the schedule.

The researcher also ensured avoiding more complex words that might be difficult to understand. The authenticity of one's interview is undermined when the researcher

has to explain certain words more often or when trying to expand and explain questions frequently. The researcher must ensure that questions are non-judgmental and unbiased and furthermore, make use of focused questions so that the interview will give specific information required for the study (Nyathi, 2012 & de Vos, et.al, 2005).

3.7.2 Questionnaires

The questionnaire is a set of questions formalized to obtain data from respondents (Lombard, 2002). In this study, the researcher also used questionnaires in order to reach a wider audience throughout Nkonkobe Municipality. This helped to obtain a more variant input from different audiences. The questionnaire was carefully designed to capture the important required data. The instrument enables data to be collected from a relatively large number of people and facilitates easy comparison process amongst the respondents as well as easy quantitative analysis process (Lombard, 2002).

The closed-ended questions were short, precise and strictly on the work of NGOs. Contrary, the open-ended questions allowed the respondents to give a wide range of answers to enable the researcher to intellectually analyse their views on certain issues (Brewer & Miller, 2003:166). Such questions helped the researcher to fully capture the feelings, thoughts, emotions and ideas on NGO work in Nkonkobe.

Furthermore, to encourage participation, the questionnaires were short and precise and at most, one page long. The major challenge which occurred in the planning phase was the proper order of questions. Effective use of questionnaires involves proper sequence and flow of questions. In this study, I used the reverse funnel format prescribed by Baxter and Babie (2004) which involves opening with narrowly focused or even closed

questions, then moving to broader, more open questions. For example, in this case, the questionnaire began with asking them whether they know any NGOs operating in Nkonkobe. This needed a simple yes or no answer, but the final questions of the questionnaires needed some reflection - asking if the post-apartheid era has affected NGO operations; such questions were open-ended to gather as much contribution as possible. The questionnaire layout and design allowed the researcher to make sure that each question addressed a specific area of the research, and there was no clustering of questions. This was instrumental in keeping the respondents expectant and willing to complete the questionnaire.

Despite all efforts to make sure participants answer all questions, 20% of the questionnaires were left unanswered (Table 3.1). Some participants did not have the time to answer or complete the questionnaires, and others were simply not interested to participate. In all these cases, the researcher did not apply any force or threats to encourage them to take part. The research was successful considering the 80% return rate of the questionnaires. Babbie (1992:165) writes that a response figure of at least 50% should be sufficient for analysis of the questionnaire; a figure of 60% can be seen as good, and a figure of seventy percent is very good. Such participation can be attributed to the fact that the instructions and purpose of study was clearly stated before the participants took part. Furthermore, the study did not place any age restriction as participants of varying age groups took part.

The major advantage of the questionnaire includes the fact that it allowed me to ask many questions on the given topic. Each question represented a specific theme which was used in the data analysis stage. Likewise, with the questionnaire, I could take as many samples as possible, from different areas and communities in Nkonkobe. However, the use of questionnaires established a debate between quantity and quality

in the sense that the instrument can reach a larger audience, but they produce less quality compared to interviews. In the interviews, the researcher can modify field conditions and can influence the discussion to tackle other areas linked to the participants' responses, but questionnaires are often limited to the questions asked.

3.7.3 Focus Groups

A focus group is a carefully planned discussion which is designed to obtain thoughts and ideas on a specific subject within a permissive, non-threatening environment (Kingry et al., 1990; Patton, 2002). There were two focus groups, one at Phumalanga Community Center and the other at the University of Fort Hare. The visit to Phumalanga was established after the visit to the Department of Social Development in Alice where they revealed that this was one of the major local NGOs that were supported by the government. The organisation also interacts with NGOs which support aged people, and in this instance, the use of a focus group was more appropriate.

The focus group had 21 participants of which the majority were women, and only 7 men were present. In terms of race, all of them were black except one coloured man. All of them could understand English, but in some instances, they preferred using their local language, IsiXhosa. The caretakers were present to help translation when needed. Most of them were more comfortable with airing out their views through discussion rather than filling in the questionnaires. The interactions within the group helped to develop a multiple views on the issue of the role NGOs in Nkonkobe. The flexibility of the conversation was even more interesting as the respondents were able to build up from each other's responses.

The other focus group was conducted at the University of Fort Hare during a student lecture of the Life Knowledge Action (LKA) programme. Every student at the university

has to go through this programme, so this was appropriate as it allowed students from different fields, nationalities, ages and background to participate. It is this diversity that was instrumental to establish a rich discussion full of variety of views and arguments. Their experiences with NGOs from the areas were valuable to the discussion. The group was made up of 48 students, most of them first year students. In terms of gender, 64% were women, and 26% were men. In terms of nationality, there were 12 Zimbabweans, 2 Nigerians, and the rest were South African students. The students were seated in smaller groups of 8 each to assist in encouraging participation. Some students are not confident enough to speak in front of the class, but gave valuable contributions within their smaller groups. McQuarrie (1996) purports that the main thrust of the focus group discussions is their reliance on the interaction within the group. This was the case as students reflected, approved and challenged the contributions of other peers.

Effective facilitation was key to ensure success in this discussion. This is because in as much as other students were more vocal and open on issues on NGOs, there were also other reserved students who spoke only when I specifically asked them, but their contribution would be very valuable. Therefore, Silverman (1997) is accurately true in stating that focus group discussions are valuable both in channelling the group interaction and making comparisons across individuals in the group.

Welman et al. (2005) highlights one of the major limitations of focus groups as that respondents might be intimidated by the presence of other respondents; therefore, the interview requires good facilitation skills which include the ability to handle the various characters respondents may display. This was evident in this case as some respondents were more participative than others, whilst others were not. In this case, one of the caretakers at Phumalanga proved to be more helpful as she offered her

assistance and was part of the focus group. She was more familiar with the respondents and helped to motivate the more quiet ones to participate. The group was multicultural, and English, Xhosa, Zulu and Afrikaans were the common languages. Some desired to use their local language, and a caretaker and student assistant helped to translate their views. The focus group discussion was also valuable both in channelling the group interaction and making comparisons across individuals in the group (Silverman, 1997). This made it much simpler when changing the focus from NGOs to politics and other developmental issues.

The focus group with university students was conducted during an LKA seminar. The focus of the seminar was Poverty, Equality and Development. The researcher thereby used these three aspects to also discuss the contribution of NGOs in development. The students were divided into small groups of 8 people each. In this case, little or no translation was needed because English was used as the medium of interaction as the group included multicultural and international students. The discussions within the groups were rich as they brought up different aspects on these issues. The Table 3.1 below shows a summary of the interviews conducted and questionnaires distributed.

Category	Number Distribution	Number Received	Percentage
Community (Questionnaires)	100	80	80.0
Household Interviews	10	7	70.0
NGO Interviews	3	3	100.0
Political Leaders Interview	3	3	100.0
NGO Field Workers	6	4	66.7
Focus Group	2	2	100.0
Total	124	99	79.8

Table 3.1 Interviews Summary

3.8. DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is a process of gathering, modelling, and transforming data with the goal of highlighting useful information, suggesting conclusions, and supporting decision-making (Welman et al., 2005). In the entire process, the data is instrumental for further research, therefore copies of the data were made.

Qualitative data analysis transforms data into findings, thereby reducing the volume of raw information, sifting significant patterns and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveals (De Vos, 2005). The data collected was analysed using the SPSS statistical analysis package for Windows. The researcher also made use of notes taken during interview and focus groups, and attention was given to themes and patterns that were mentioned frequently. The findings have been categorised into: Questions to the recipients of NGO services in Nkonkobe, questions to NGOs operating in Nkonkobe, and questions to community leaders on NGO participation in Nkonkobe.

3.9. CHALLENGES DURING THE RESEARCH

The section below highlights some of the challenges that were experienced during the study.

3.9.1 Long Delays

In most cases, there were long delays when working with NGOs. This was primarily due to the fact we had to wait for the NGO director or manager to be available. Usually, they were busy travelling for conferences and other meetings. Often, when they came back from such assignments, I would be informed that they did not have any time to attend to the interview. Due to these scenarios, the interview would be shelved or alternatively, another representative would conduct the interview.

3.9.2 Rescheduling Meetings

This is connected to the issue above regarding meetings rescheduled. In one case at Africare in East London, the researcher was only told upon arrival at the NGO offices to come back another day because my appointment was rescheduled. In this case valuable resources in the form of time and finances were used up. The researcher was forced to make frequent trips from Alice to East London for the NGO interviews. Furthermore, the study was purely for academic purposes, and there were no incentives for participation.

3.9.3 Communication Problems

The solution to the above two challenges could have been effective communication which would mean if meetings are rescheduled, then the researcher must have been informed in advance. However, this was not the case in my experience whilst conducting research. There were no responses to emails, and telephone calls were not answered.

3.9.4 Attitudes towards the Researcher

Further challenges were also encountered whilst working with community participants. Some respondents would have a negative attitude. In one case in particular, the respondent became violent towards the researcher whilst conducting the study. In no incident was the respondent ever forced to participate or respond to the study. A non-threatening environment is critical for the interview to be successful (Kingry et al., 1990; Patton, 2002). During the study, I realised that a threatening environment can also be inspired by such bad attitudes. When respondents gave such attitudes; as a researcher, I would have to show a high level of maturity and professionalism to prevent such incidents from affecting the study.

3.9.5 Weather Challenges

The issue of weather was prevalent when working in the field. More often, weather patterns would just change, and it would start raining whilst collecting data. Some of these areas would have no shelter at all for refuge, and the researcher would have to walk lengthy distances to get refuge.

3.9.6 Effect of 2014 Elections

There were several challenges during the research such as time, resources, institutions, respondents etc. The timing of data collection during and after the elections proved to be a challenge as some information on the influence on politics was often censored or avoided completely. NGOs in particular were more suspicious and in some cases, would withhold sharing any information about the organisation. The data collection was carried out within a few months, but more time would have been useful to fully cover all other areas within Nkonkobe.

3.9.7 ACCESS TO NGOs

Approaching some of the NGOs and organisations proved to be the greatest challenge as some turned down the interview while others were often too busy to the extent that most of the interviews often had to be rescheduled. Working with NGOs proved to be a difficult task. The researcher had to spend much of the time travelling and checking the whether the director would be available. In the other instances, the researcher was informed at Africare, Alice branch that the NGO does not conduct any interviews and had to travel to the East London branch for assistance. This also meant a lot of money was spent travelling to get feedback from NGOs.

3.10 SUCCESSES IN RESEARCH

Despite the challenges that were faced during the research process, the researcher also managed to obtain assistance to effectively conduct the study.

3.9.1 Language Translator

The sample population of the Eastern Cape Province included mainly Xhosa speaking participants. This was a major challenge for the researcher considering still learning the language and could not fluently conduct a conversation. The researcher obtained the assistance of a language translator who helped, especially when conducting the household interviews. The translator only worked when the participant was more comfortable speaking in Xhosa and was more familiar with the local culture. The researcher, on the other hand, was mainly responsible for taking notes during the research. The discussions were very interactive as the respondents were also willing to hear foreign translations of some of the local words.

3.10.2 Financial Assistance

As mentioned earlier, one of the major challenges was in finances, especially in taking care of the frequent travelling expenses. The University of Fort Hare, through the Govan Mbeki Research and Development Centre (GMRDC), assisted greatly especially through the Supervisor-linked bursaries. This financial assistance helped much in taking care of all the incurred financial expenses.

3.11 CONCLUSION

The chapter highlighted the methods that were used to collect data and analysis procedures in the study. The study applied a qualitative research design mainly because the study involves most human experiences in which sharing of views and opinions was very critical. The sample was conducted from Nkonkobe Municipality.

Sampling method used in the study was purposive sampling in which two main criterion were used - firstly, the distance from NGOs and secondly, the rural urban divide. The research instruments used included in-depth interviews, questionnaires and focus groups. Questionnaires were conducted in the following areas: Ntselamanzi, Seymour, Gugulethu and Happy Rest. The interviews involved NGOs, NGO field workers, political parties and households. There were two main case studies conducted, one with students at University of Fort Hare and the other with the elderly at Phumalanga. The chapter goes further to describe how access to the research field was obtained and provides a list of documents used and their purposes. The chapter concludes with highlighting the challenges and successes that were experienced during the research.

CHAPTER 4

PROFILE OF THE EASTERN CAPE PROVINCE

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the socio-economic profile of the Eastern Cape Province based on statistical data. The profile is based on key socio-economic indicators such as access to piped water, electricity, unemployment and HIV/AIDS. Secondly, the chapter provides an overview of three NGOs operating in the Nkonkobe Municipality. These NGOs are World Vision, Africare and Phumalanga. In a sense, the overview of these respective NGOs is necessary since this serves to introduce the case studies of this research.

4.2. BACKGROUND OF EASTERN CAPE PROVINCE

The Eastern Cape Province is located in the south-eastern part of South Africa and is divided into six district municipalities, namely: Alfred Nzo, Amatole, Cacadu, Chris Hani, O.R. Tambo, and Ukhahlamba and a metropolitan area called Nelson Mandela Bay. The province is ranked as the third most populated province with a population of 6.7 million people which contributes to 12.7% of the national population (Eastern Cape, 2013). Over 60% of the population remains rural, and the government has initiated several rural development programs to alleviate poverty and the historical effects of apartheid

4.2.1 State Of Social Development in Eastern Cape Province

The province has faced several challenges, particularly in reference to availability of electricity, water and sanitation infrastructure. This has largely affected the construction of healthcare facilities, schools and houses. The following diagrams highlight such challenges.

4.2.2 Percentage of Households With Access to Piped Water by Province.

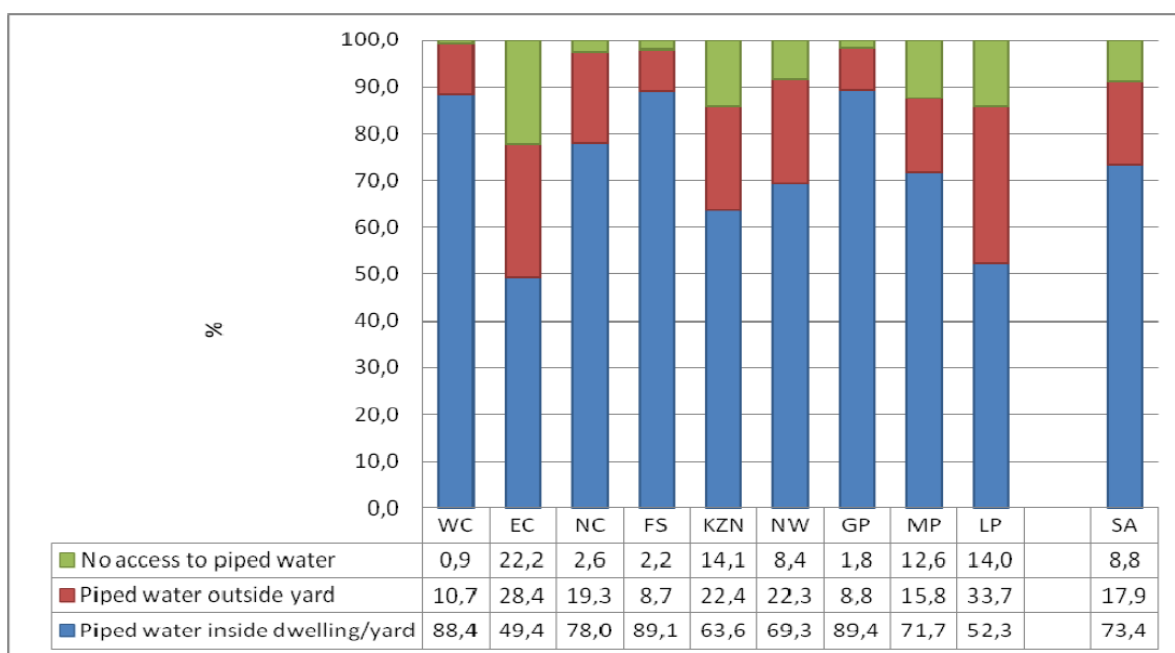


Figure 4.1 (Source Statistics SA, 2014)

As shown in Figure 4.1 above, the Eastern Cape Province has the largest population without access to piped water with a bulk of 22.2%. A greater majority has to obtain piped water from a distance outside the yard. Both governments and NGOs have made immense efforts to try making piped water assessable. A lot still needs to be done as the province has the least population with access to piped water within their dwelling or yard (49.4%). Such a similar trend can be seen with regards to electricity as shown below.

4.2.3 Percentage Of Households With Use Of Electricity

There has been a constant trend of increase with regards to access to electricity in Eastern Cape from the year 1996 - 2011. However as shown in Figure 4.2 below, much needs to be done as the province has the second least percentage of access to electricity with 62.1%.

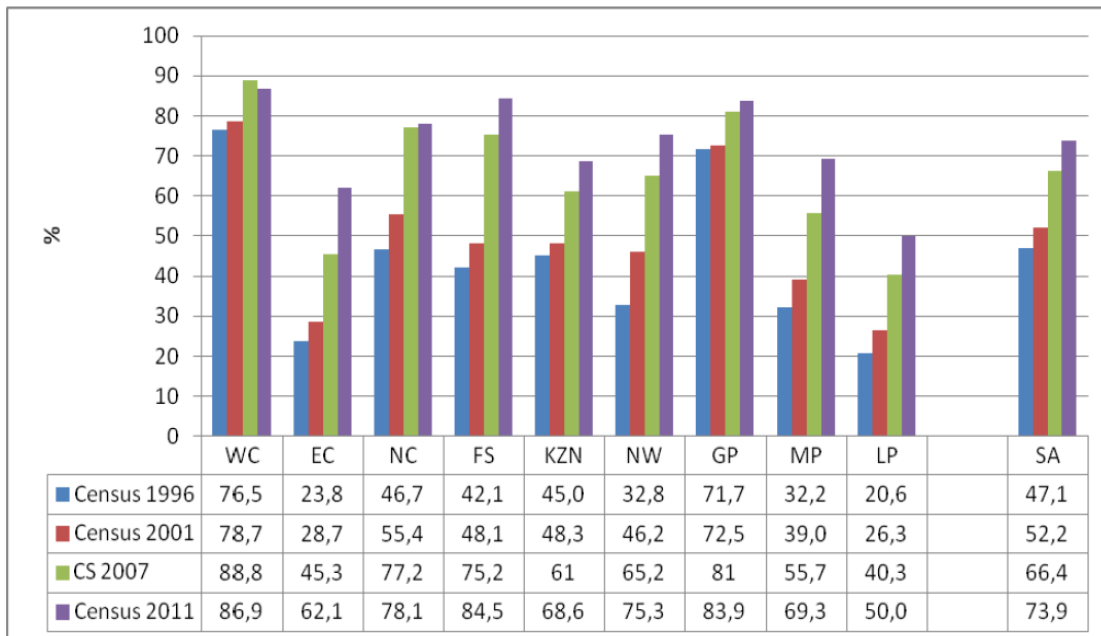


Figure 4.2 (Source: Statistics SA, 2014)

The standard of living still remains low since the population hardly has a reliable means of energy for cooking, heating, lighting and other activities,

Impact Of Poverty On Socio-Economic Development

Measuring poverty is essential in socio-economic development assessment. In reference to poverty levels in the Eastern Cape Province, the study acknowledges the use of the Fuzzy Index of Poverty (FIP). This index avoids the controversy surrounding the determination of a poverty line, its depth and breadth by paying less attention to monetary aspects. The FIP includes a holistic set of development measures in assessing the well-being of the population. This is primarily through the

use of twelve principle indicators of well-being such as employment, municipal services (such as access to water, access to toilet, and access to electricity for lighting, cooking and heating and also aspects pertaining to refuse collection), type of dwelling, education, income, household size, and access to means of communication (Eastern Cape, 2013).

4.2.4 Rate Of HIV/AIDS By Province

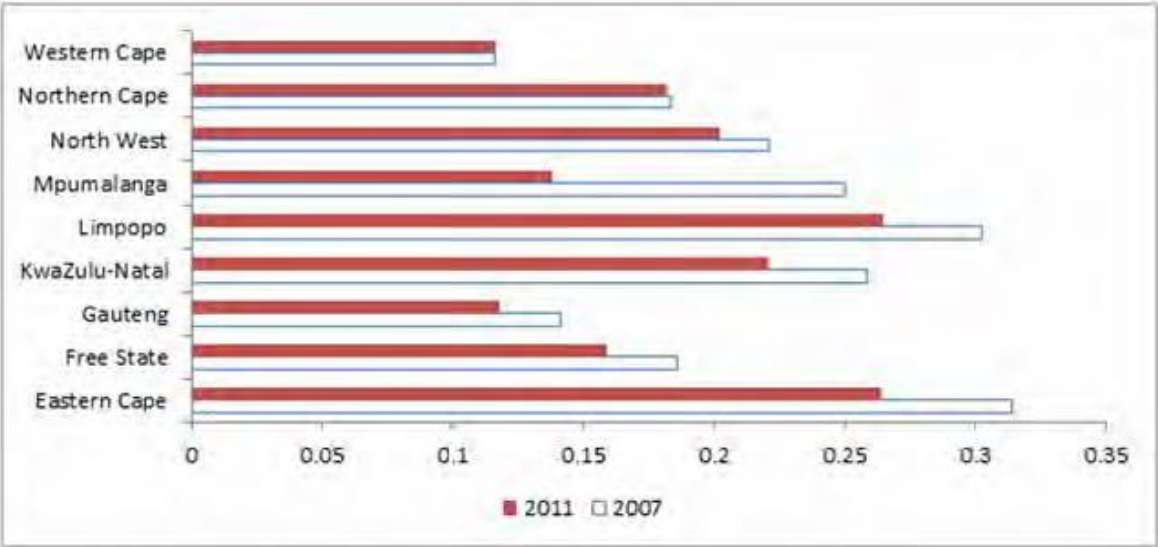


Figure 4.3 (Source: Statistics SA, 2014)

The assessment of development would be vague without evaluating the impact of HIV/AIDS in the Eastern Cape Province. This is a critical area of focus for the Millennium Development Goals (MDG). The province records the third-largest number of HIV-positive people in South Africa (Nicolay, 2008). There has been a constant growth recorded of new infections which double the number of AIDS-related deaths in the province. The Actuarial Society of South Africa’s model shows that 11 percent of the population and one in every five adults are estimated to be HIV-positive, and an estimated 110 000 people were in need of antiretroviral treatment in 2008, with about 44 percent having taken up treatment.

4.3 THE CASE STUDIES

The study worked with Africare, World Vision and Phumalanga as the main NGOs operating in the Nkonkobe region. The selection of these NGOs is primarily based on their efforts in promoting social development in Nkonkobe Municipality.

4.3.1 Africare

Africare was founded by Dr. Joseph Kennedy and C. Payne Lucas during the Sahelian drought of the 1970s (Coles, 2004). It is the oldest and largest African-American founded international NGO which specifically focuses on the African continent (Africare, 2015). The NGO is established as a charitable institution under Section 501(c) (3) of the Internal Revenue Code of United States (Africare, 2005). In recent years, it has majored in assisting families, communities and nations in food security and agriculture, health and HIV/AIDS. Africare has gone further to help in water resource development, literacy and vocational training and micro-enterprise development. In addition, Africare has been involved in the drought ravaged Sahel region of Africa and also in implementing Rural Development programs across Africa.

The vision of Africare is to be a leading NGO committed to addressing African development and policy issues by working in partnership with African people to build sustainable, healthy and productive communities (Africare, 2015). The NGO reaches 27 countries in Africa, including Angola, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe in Southern Africa.

Coles (2004) indicates that Africare has been a pioneer in village based rural development in Africa and has been effective in drought stricken areas through the construction of wells, irrigation systems, bringing safe, reliable water supplies to some of the most isolated communities in desert areas of Africa. Coles (2004) continues to

highlight that in Southern Africa, the work of Africare has been mainly in the area of health; special achievements have been in child survival, river blindness control, malaria prevention, national level pharmaceutical management and HIV/AIDS response at the grass root level.

Figure 4.4 below shows a brief summary of the areas of technical specialties the NGO focuses on, which include agriculture and health. The NGO firmly acknowledges the principles of community engagement, capacity building, locally-driven behaviour change and innovative public-private partnerships (Africare, 2014)

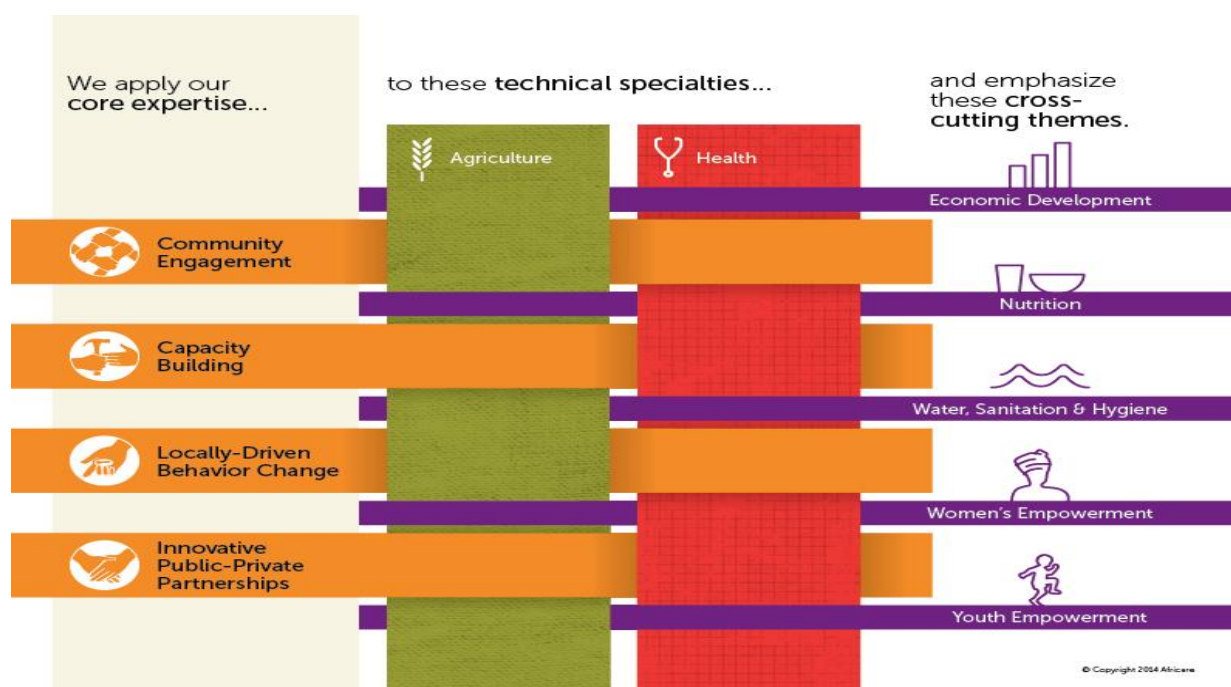


Figure 4.4 Summary of Africare Operations (Source: Africare, 2015)

The NGO has had good financial support from charitable organisations, multinationals corporations and other international agencies. Furthermore, the NGO has invested an excess over \$1 billion in more than 35 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. The Africare (2014) audited fiscal year report shows that 93% of every dollar spent goes to program services in Africa, and only 7% goes to administration (management, general, and fundraising). The NGO maintains a high level of

transparency, and as such, financial records are easily accessible on the NGO website for review.

Africare has been successful in Zimbabwe through the “Man Enough to Care” concept which has promoted the involvement of men in this traditionally patriarchal society, challenging men to take pride in their role in HIV & AIDS prevention, care and support (Hall et al., 2006). The NGO has established a Male Empowerment Project in the rural districts of Zimbabwe to equip men with the training and support necessary to become effective caregivers.

They have been pivotal in this democratic era in South Africa by launching economic empowerment courses to educate and encourage economic awareness such as the Career Development Internship (CDI) Program (Africare, 2005). Agriculture still remains a viable source of income in Eastern Cape, and the Africare has been involved in agricultural production and food security. This has also included teaching and implementing better farming practices in communities. Much has also been done in social development initiatives with regards to HIV/AIDS prevention. This has also included counselling and testing, taking care of people living with AIDS and supporting affected orphans. In Nkonkobe, they have also established the Injongo Yethu AIDS project. The projects goal is to reduce the psycho-social, health, and socio-economic impact of HIV/AIDS on 5000 orphans and 15 000 caregivers (Africare, 2005).

4.3.2 World Vision

The organization was founded by Rev. Pierce in 1950 in response to the needs of orphaned children during the Korean War (Motsomi, 2003). The work of World Vision began with establishment of the Korea Orphan Program in 1953 which was established to assist orphans through monthly contributions from donors and further assisted children in struggling communities with food, education, health care and vocational training (Tripp, 1999). The Orphan Program became successful in Korea and spread to other countries in Asia, Latin America and eventually, Africa (World Vision United States, 2002).

The organisation has grown into a global organisation serving more than 85 million people in more than 80 countries. In Africa, the organisation operates in 25 countries including 10 countries in Southern African Development Community (SADC) such as Angola, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe (World Vision, 2015). Over the years, it has been proponent of social development mainly focussing on children. This includes helping children that have been involved in abuse, traumatised by war, and have been involved in slavery or sexual exploitation.

World Vision identifies itself as an international partnership of Christians whose mission is: “To follow our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ in working with the poor and the oppressed to promote human transformation, seek justice and bear witness to the good news of the Kingdom of God.” (World Vision International, 1996:5)

Furthermore, World Vision International (1996) highlights that the organisation achieves this through a holistic approach based on six main principles which are:

transformational development, emergency relief, promote justice, strategic initiatives, public awareness and witness to Jesus Christ.

Financially, the NGO aims to keep its overhead rate low; in 2014, the organisation used 85 percent of total operating expenses for programs that directly benefit children, families and communities (World Vision, 2015). Figure 4.5 below highlights a summary of the most recent annual report.

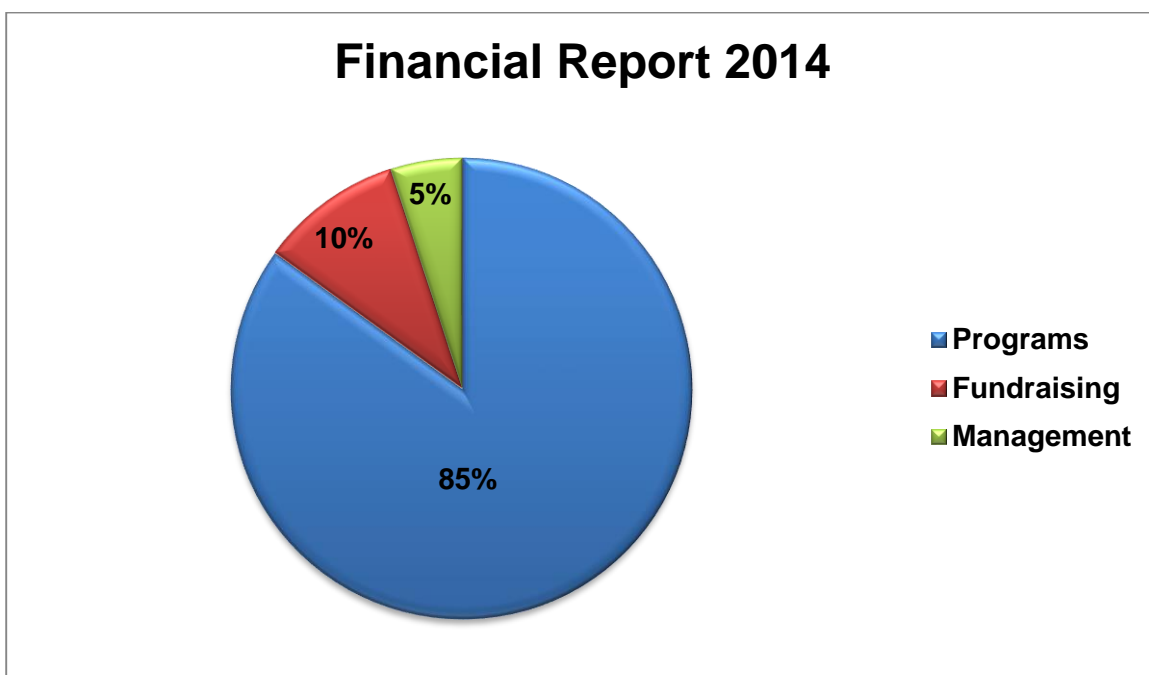


Figure 4.5 World Vision Financial Report (2014)

When it comes to accountability issues of revenue source, the NGO clearly indicates their revenue source (58%) is from private cash contributions, 22% comes from gifts in kind, 19% of their revenue is obtained through public grants and 1% from other sources (World Vision, 2015).

World Vision has operated in poverty stricken regions in a bid to eradicate poverty and injustice. Most recently in 2015, the organization committed to emergency relief by assisting communities affected by conflict or disaster. The most recent example is

the Ebola Crisis in West Africa which left more than 8 200 dead and a large population of plus 20 700 infected (World Vision, 2015). The organization helped by training teams and providing protective gear to bury the dead. This is to help reduce the risk of the disease spreading within communities affected.

In South Africa, World Vision has been involved in development projects called Area Development Programs (ADPs) and Networks of Hope (NOH) projects specific for children to improve their socio-economic welfare. This has been an instrumental national project which has led to the sponsorship of over 54 000 children. Most recently, World Vision has been involved part of the Bicycle Education Empowerment Programme (BEEP) together with Volkswagen and partners Qhubeka, World Vision South Africa, World Vision Switzerland and MTN. The project in South Africa has resulted in 600 bicycles being delivered to 11 rural schools in Nkonkobe, Eastern Cape, thus adding to a total of 1,100 bicycles, following 500 that were delivered to 9 rural schools in Umzimkhulu, KwaZulu-Natal (World Vision, 2015)

4.3.3 Phumalanga Elderly Care

Phumalanga Elderly Care is a local NGO which was conceived in 2003 by Mrs Nkomana as a vision to assist the elderly population of Alice town (Interview, May 2014). Phumalanga is a Xhosa word meaning place of the rising sun. Mrs Nkomana, the director of the NGO, highlighted that the NGO began as her personal vision to provide a shining place for the lonely and abused elderly people to come together so they can relate (Interview, 15 July 2015). The NGO has only one branch in Alice town located in Eastern Cape, and no other branches have been established in other provinces.

The Phumalanga leadership structure is made up of the NGO director - Mrs Nkomana, the director assistant, Miss Agnes and 3 caregivers who assist in cooking and cleaning (Interview, 15 July 2015).

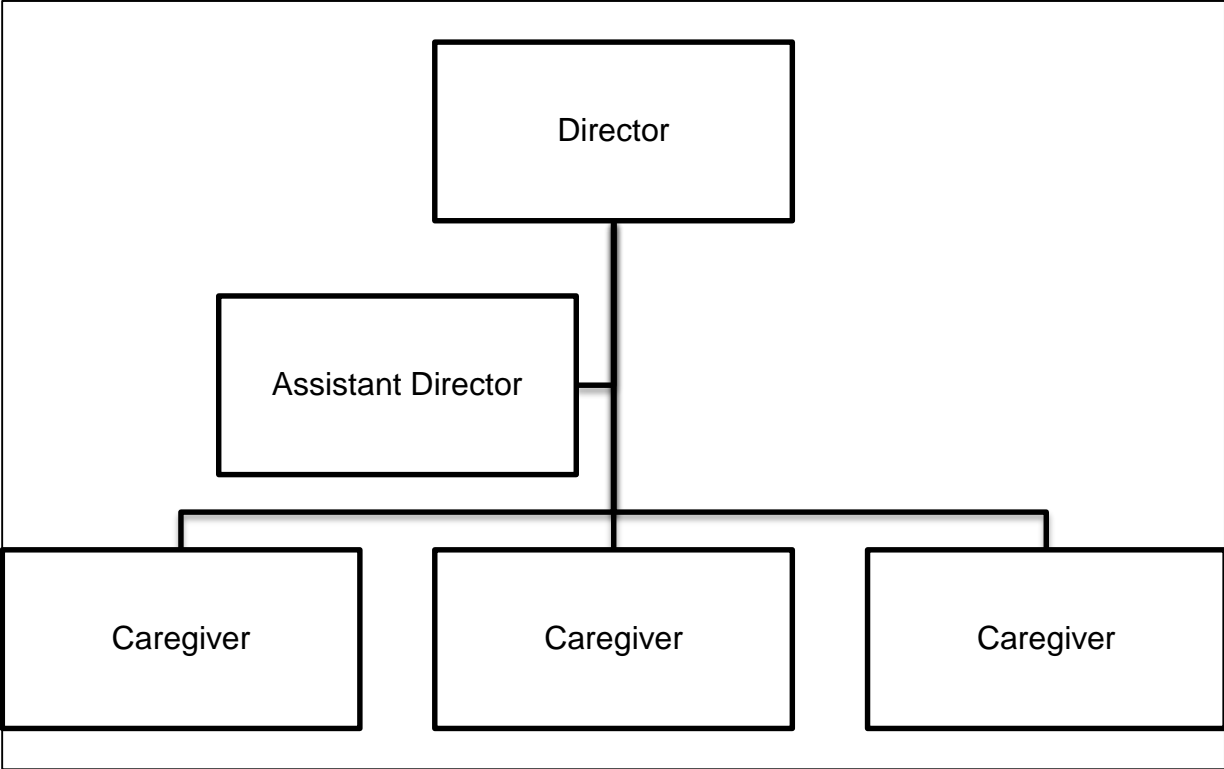


Figure 4.6 NGO Leadership Structure (Source: Interview with Director, 2014)

The services provided assist over 80 registered elderly people around the Nkonkobe area (Interview, May 2014). However, their attendance varies depending on factors such as weather, distance and illnesses.

The NGO is largely sponsored by the Department of Social Development, Alice branch; however, in some instances, other NGOs have embarked on projects to assist the elderly at the NGO (Interview: Social Development, 2014). These include Africare project to provide gardening equipment for their garden project. There are also other local supermarkets such as Royal and Spar which assist in providing food and groceries to assist the organisation. Furthermore, Phumalanga has attracted

several community engagement initiatives, especially from students at the local university, Fort Hare (Interview, 2014).

The center has covered a wide area which includes Ntselamanzi, Golf Course, Hill Crest, Zone 24, Gqumashe etc. They are provided meals twice a day on four week days. The population includes aged people from 60 years and above. This also includes those with any kind of disability, physically or mentally. In spite of the fact that the project is for both men and women, it is chiefly women-dominant (Interview, May 2014). The NGO has no restrictions when it comes to race, language and nationality.

Phumalanga has contributed towards social development through their efforts of solidarity which involves offering parcels of nutritious foods and vegetables, also promoting awareness of the main diseases that attack elderly people (Interview, May 2014). The NGO values elderly people and conduct Human rights programs in which they invite human rights activists to remind the elderly people of their rights in society. The NGO works with the government in other programs such as the Golden Games, which were recently held in Alice town. The majority of the old people who come to Phumalanga have nobody to take care of them; the NGO gives them life skills to be able to take care of themselves at home. The work of Phumalanga has been instrumental in the Eastern Cape Province to reduce the neglect of old people in society (Sagner, 2000).

4.4 LOCATION AND ACCESSIBILITY OF NGOS

The researcher further made an assessment on the accessibility of NGOs whilst conducting the interviews. This assessment was based on the researcher's encounters with the NGOs. The interview at Africare was the most difficult to conduct

as the researcher was turned down in Alice, referred to the East London offices and had to wait for three week after follow up to be allowed just a few minutes of the interview. Photograph 4.1 below shows the offices which are located at the central part of the town. There is a high standard of security as the burglar bars are usually closed. The disadvantage is just that many people pass by and are not aware that Africare exists in Alice.



Photograph 4.1: Africare offices in Alice, Eastern Cape

Phumalanga is located just outside the central area of Alice. The location of the area was more influenced by the fact the elderly people would need more rest and less of the noise and chaos of the central area. The NGO has one building which houses all the necessary functions, including the administration office, kitchen, dining area, sitting room and the toilets. The advantage of having their offices outside of the central area is that they have more land just behind the office area which they often use for agricultural purposes.



Photograph 4.2: Phumalanga offices

In contrast, World Vision has offices located in Gugulethu, a small village in Middledrift town. The major challenge was locating the NGO since it is located in a closed area near the village. In most cases, villagers walk or use bicycles, and public transport is hardly available. When asking for directions, the researcher also noted that many people do not know that World Vision exists in Middledrift. However, despite that challenge, they were more open to the interview.



Photograph 4.3: World Vision Offices Gugulethu

4.5 CONCLUSION

The chapter has provided a brief profile of the Eastern Cape Province by highlighting the major challenges facing the province. There are 5 main challenges, namely: access to piped water, electricity, unemployment, poverty and HIV/AIDS. The study indicated that there are 3 main NGOs that were used to make an assessment of the work of NGOs in the area, namely, Africare, World Vision and Phumalanga. The chapter provided a background of each of the stated NGOs. This background revealed that Africare is the oldest and largest African-American funded international NGO which operates specifically in Africa. Their vision is to help children in the fight against poverty and injustice. The organisation has played a pivotal role in the Ebola crisis in West Africa. Lastly, Phumalanga is one of the few NGOs dedicated towards assisting elderly people in the Nkonkobe area. The chapter concluded with providing an assessment of the location and accessibility of NGOs. This showed that other NGOs such as Phumalanga are easily accessible, but some such as Africare have restrictions. Furthermore in the case of World Vision, the greatest challenge is that their located in the village where many people fail to access it.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION & ANALYSIS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and analyses the data collected in the field. The participants included households, NGOs, Community Leaders and Political Institutions, in particular, the NGOs included World Vision, Africare, Phumalanga and Alice Victim Support Center.

5.2 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Two major themes form the topic of this study, namely, funding and NGO-state political relations. From these themes, other additional themes from the research were formulated, including knowledge of NGOs and programmes, NGO communication with community and more importantly, community participation in NGO programmes.

5.3 THE QUESTION OF FUNDING NGOs

Funding for NGOs is one of the most pressing issues. This is because whilst NGOs want to undertake charitable causes they do not always have enough resources. This is true of both local and international NGOs alike (Gould, 2013:61). It is clear from the interviews conducted that NGOs in both the Eastern Cape and elsewhere depend on funding from a variety of sources and that some of their sponsors might perhaps have a hidden agenda.

Although all NGOs face funding challenges, there is a need for funders to consider both international large scale and small scale local NGOs organisations when they

disburse funding (Hernandez, 2014:410). Thus, one of the challenges faced by NGOs is the screening of both their international and national donors and sponsors.

This issue was presented thus:

“...as NGOs, we have people who donate and would want to take care of child, or children and household...yes because the office provides the link between the sponsor and the child...we have national office in Johannesburg...so everything that goes to the child passes through Joburg to the local offices before it reaches the child...because the child gets the gift we do not want the address of the sponsor because this is a Christian organisation and other sponsors are not Christian so we are afraid of this trafficking of children.

The question of screening funders and donors is something which is not spoken about in the literature on NGOs. Whilst it is known that NGOs are commonly affected by lack of funds, it is interesting to note that moral and social considerations are to be made before accepting any donations or gifts from sponsors. This suggests that despite the disparate need for funds, NGOs cannot afford to be complacent to human right violations (Michalowski, 2012:451), hence the screening of donors and funders by World Vision suggests that the NGO is not willing to accept funding support from any entities or individuals with a questionable moral reputation (Laine, 2015:639).

The Victim Support Centre which is based in Alice is another NGO which was the subject of this study. It is a relatively small civilian organisation which mainly focuses on domestic violence issues. Therefore, this civilian organisation is localist in its orientation. It is for this reason, perhaps, that the Victim Support Centre depends

heavily on the government for financial and other resources for its survival. The centre serves the town and its surrounding villages.

The Victim Support Centre in Alice which has ambitions of expanding its area of operation. The manager of the victim support centre put this point across thus:

“...this is not the only centre (the one in Alice), last year we established one in Sheshego...we have villages that are far from this place, so for a client to take R50 (for travelling) and come for counseling it is a bit expensive because they have no money...Social Development is trying but it is the only funder...”
(Interview, 22 September 2015).

The issue of lack of funding was a common theme amongst the NGOs, including the third organisation in which research was conducted. The manager at Phumalanga stressed the limited participation of local businesses, especially in terms of supporting charitable causes:

“...we need more sponsors to assist us...other supermarkets like Spar have helped to support us with food stuff...I mentioned Africare...Social Development - they try to help financially, but it is not much because they have a burden to support other organisations...” (Interview, 10 August 2015)

The lack of financial independence amongst NGOs compels these non-state actors to turn to the state in search of financial and logistical support. Questions have been asked about whether the lack of operational resources amongst NGOs does not undermine their autonomy. Commentators on the relationship between NGOs and the state hold varied positions and contested positions on this matter.

However, there is discomfort amongst academics and researchers that the growing proximity between NGOs and governments leads the former to comply with the dictates of the state (Blackmore, 2004; Edwards & Hulme, 1997; Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001). In this current local and international environment, the autonomy of the NGOs is at stake. It can, therefore, be said in many instances that the NGOs serve the interests of the local poor.

In order to deal with the lack of resources in their midst, NGOs have turned themselves into service organisations who are paid for their services. Increasingly, governments have shown a willingness to pay for the variety of services which the NGOs provide. Nonetheless, critics have pointed out that the tendency to contract work to the NGOs is, on its own, problematic. Thus, Hodson (1997:186) writes:

“...the rise of the “contract culture” and the apparent loss of autonomy of NGOs. ... Only the strongest organisations, with international reputations, can influence their donors and even then the extent is hardly sufficient to speak of autonomy. One can lament that “he who pays the piper calls the tune.”

Igoe (2005: 142) is even more scathing of the close relationship between the local African NGO leadership and state officials. The author contends that:

“both African officials and NGO leaders use their institutional position to seek rents” from trans-national sources to build loyal client networks.”

Empirical and theoretical studies have indicated the extent of the cynicism and doubt directed at the non-governmental sector. Igoe’s position suggests that the non-government sector is an avenue for attracting transnational resources as well for building local power bases by local elites. In other words, the non-government sector is implicated in the patronage networks involving government workers working in collaboration with international agents. Thus far, the literature I cited above implies

that NGO agenda is largely shaped by funding consideration rather than serving the interests of the local populations.

5.4 POLITICAL RELATIONS BETWEEN NGOs AND THE STATE

The relationship between states and NGOs is often complicated than many commentators are willing to admit. One of the issues causing conflicts between states and NGOs is the fact that in some instances, some state actors such as leaders of countries and other officials occupying senior positions view NGOs with suspicion. These leaders believe that African NGOs are gullible and can easily be manipulated by international agencies. For example, President Thabo Mbeki (Cape Times, 25 October 2005) is reported to have questioned whether NGOs in South Africa are being manipulated by foreign donors. Furthermore, Mbeki queried their desire to be given more representation in the structures of the African Union (AU).

Williams and Young (2009:109-10) observe that the source of the conflict and the mistrust between states NGOs is the disregard, especially by international NGOs and funding agencies that they seem to want to intervene in internal matters of states. Williams and Young put their point thus:

“A wholesale disregard for the idea that there is a realm of internal affairs over which the government should be considered sovereign, and over which external agents, as a matter of principle and a matter of practice, should not have any authority.

Kahn and Cunningham (2013:147) point out that:

“For many states, the largely Western identity and often domineering tone of humanitarian actors also are reminiscent of the colonial era. Aid actors - from NGOs to the UN to donors - have been referred to as exemplifying characteristics of an ‘empire’”.

5.5 POLITICAL PARTIES’ PERSPECTIVES ON NGOs IN THE EASTERN CAPE

In this section, the discussion focuses on the perspectives of three political parties on the role of the NGOs in the society. In order to organise the discussion, the author presents the views of each political party. These perspectives are then interpreted and analysed. This section also discusses the relation between political parties, especially as they operate at a local level, in the communities and how they view the role of NGOs.

5.5.1 Perspectives of The African National Congress (ANC) on NGOS

This section focuses on the views of the African National Congress (ANC), The views presented in this section by the personalities who were interviewed do not necessarily represent the official policy positions of the parties concerned.

In an interview with the local ANC leader, the researcher posed the question relating to the perception of the party towards non-governmental organisations. The response was interesting indeed:

“...aren’t you from the press, who sent you? ...” (Interview, June 2014)

After convincing him that I am a student from University of Fort Hare conducting research and showing him my student card and letter of consent, he then replied:

“The ANC have been the chief organisation promoting transformation and development in South Africa” (Interview, June 2014).

This led to examples which were centered on the Reconstruction Development Programme (RDP) which the interviewee confirmed that the ANC has encouraged transformation in communities, and democratising the state together with society

The response from the ANC seemed not to trust the researcher or even the question on the perspectives of the ruling party on the role of the NGOs. It would seem that at least, at a local level, party officials are careful not to say things to the press which have the potential to ruin their reputation inside the party. At the same time, the representative of the ANC was quick to point out the role which the party has played in bringing about democratic transformation in South Africa. Although the democratic transformation was brought about by many political actors, including NGOs who supported the liberation struggle, the representative of the party hardly acknowledged the role of civil society in the delivery of a democratic dispensation.

In another interview conducted with a councillor in the Alice area, it became clear that the ruling party is not necessarily opposed to NGOs as such. Rather, the party appeared to consider itself as playing an advisory role, especially when it comes to projects that are conducted by the municipality or some other government department. Again, NGOs are considered in this context as being subsidiary to political parties.

5.5.2 Perspectives of The Democratic Alliance (DA) on NGOS

In another interview, the researcher interviewed the representative of the Democratic Alliance (DA). The interview revealed that the DA is still new in the Eastern Cape, and

this issue had somewhat affected their ability to work with NGOs. This view was expressed as follows:

“...our work involves working with all stakeholders...we appreciate the work of NGOs in our communities...unfortunately here in Eastern Cape, we have not yet established strong relations with NGOs...the presence of DA has still left other organisations a bit reserved in terms of working with us...this area has been a ANC stronghold and we still have more to do to ensure NGOs that we are in the Eastern Cape to assist the people...with vision 2029 we plan to work with these NGOs in our communities even more, especially the local NGOs they really need our support...”

It seems that according to the interviewee, the local NGOs operate cautiously ensuring that they are not caught on the “wrong” side of the political divide. Whilst the NGOs are relatively free, according to the DA representative, these NGOs are a bit careful about their political stance. Again, issues of autonomy and independence emerge as being compromised by a political environment in which there is one-party dominance in the political arena.

The reluctance of the NGOs to work with the DA has to be explained. Firstly, the party is often considered as serving white minority interests. Even if the DA has managed to attract the African voters and drafted some of them into leadership positions, the perception remains, at least in the public imagination, that the party represents minority interests (Southern, 2011). The question of how the African community perceives the DA has not escaped the NGOs, hence their cautious approach to the party.

5.5.3 Perspectives of The Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF) on NGOS

Undoubtedly, the NGOs are not apolitical entities. Even in a local community level, the fact that ordinary people remain cautious of associating with the political opposition means NGOs are not regarded by the communities as apolitical organisations. Although the NGOs are independent of the state, it is clear that the work that the NGOs conduct is politicised. A local leader of the EFF explained these issues in this manner:

“...we are also still working on that.. our biggest challenge as a new party in the political arena specially now in the Eastern Cape is that we go through a lot of scrutiny, NGOs think we want to set a political agenda...we have tried to work with local NGOs in villages but there has been poor response...as EFF we have been here before, we started not many people wanted to associate with us so we understand we just have to earn trust to let them know we are here for the people...”

5.6 PEOPLE’S PARTICIPATION IN NGO ACTIVITIES IN THE RURAL EASTERN CAPE

Participation in development is broadly understood and used in various ways. Oakley (1991) and Burkey (1993), noted in Penderis (1996), maintain that participation is primarily an umbrella term for a new form of development intervention and refers to a self-transformation process and proactive ‘learning by doing’. Secondly, Roodt (2001) views genuine participation in development as people having the power to influence the decisions that affect their lives. This view maintains that poor and marginalized people have the power to influence the decisions that affect their lives (Williams, 1995).

The main aim of this section is to explore the work done by three non-government organisations in the study and comment on the extent to which these organisations exhibit or allow for popular participation in the conceptualisation and implementation projects. In order to explore these issues, this section is based on three project activities undertaken by World Vision, Phumalanga and Africare. Based on the findings of these project activities, the study explored questions around the nature of participation by the beneficiaries of project, the extent of that participation in the conceptualisation and implementation of the projects. By doing this, the study sought to bridge the gap between rhetoric and reality in development discussions.

In particular, this section is based on the interrogation of three projects namely, the Bicycle Empowerment Project (BEEP) which was initiated by World Vision. The second project under investigation was the Golden Games undertaken in conjunction with the Department of Social Development. Last but not least, the study also paid attention to the Garden Project which is funded by Africare, an international NGO with local offices in Alice and Johannesburg.

5.6.1 The Bicycle Empowerment Project (BEEP)

The World Vision introduced what is known as the BEEP in order to assist school children living in the rural areas. The project's objective was to provide school going children with bicycles in order to make it easier for the learners to use these for travelling between school and home.

The director of the BEEP Project explained the aim of this initiative as follows:

“...World Vision with Qhubeka formed a partnership to focus on this Nkonkobe area...for these bicycles we focused on High Schools because children are staying far...they are coming late to school and even in going back they arrive late to their home...most of the schools do not even have the transport assistance it is just Primary Schools so we decided to offer bicycles to the High Schools...and even the passing rate is affected because they are missing other classes in the morning. This was a joint project which also included the Department of Social Development...” (Interview, 4th September 2015)

In the light of literature on participation of the beneficiaries in development, one can ask the question: how was the BEEP project introduced to the beneficiaries? The director of the BEEP Project responded thus:

“...what we did is we went to the school and called the SGB to organise the community, which means the parents...we call the parents first and the children of the school...and told them we have this bicycles that can help their children to be early at school and for the passing rate to be high...but now the passing rate is improving, the number of children coming to school early is increasing and children are enjoying coming to school...” (Interview, 4 September 2015)

It is clear that the learners and parents were informed about the aims and objectives of the project. It will be incorrect to suggest that they (parents and learners) also participated in the conceptualisation of the BEEP. It could be argued that the bicycle project also had an empowerment dimension on the target population because it

assisted the learners with an easy and quick way to travel between the school in a distant rural part of the village and the learners' homes.

The interviewee indicated further that the success of the BEEP Project led to a stakeholder forum. The forum came about as a result of the progress with the BEEP as the Department of Social Development established what is known as the Stakeholders Forum, which is a platform for all Departments, NGOs and Community Leaders to come and share ideas.

It would seem that the BEEP Project was well received by the learners and their parents. This is because the initiators of the project allowed the learners to use the bicycles at home as well during weekends. Therefore, it would seem that the beneficiaries of the BEEP Project were both the school children and their respective families.

Where poverty is pronounced, it is difficult for the beneficiaries of NGO services to choose what project they would accept and which they might reject. Therefore, although scholars emphasise that empowerment is about ability of the poor make decisions regarding development destiny, this principle remains an ideal rather than reality, especially in South African rural areas where there are high levels of deprivation. More scrutinised, the BEEP project could be criticised as a top-down initiative. It is an initiative which was heard of from outside communities who benefited. The project was then brought to the community. Although one can argue this is a top-down project, one could also consider the humanitarian benefits of the project before shooting it down.

5.6.2 The Phumalanga Project For The Elderly

The Phumalanga initiative for the elderly is unique in that it is one of the projects which enable the beneficiaries to participate in the activities that are meant to benefit them. What makes this project unique is that there are signs that this project is spiritually and physically fulfilling for those concerned. For example, the project encourages beneficiaries to be aware of their health status by running information and advice sessions on health conditions such as diabetes, arthritis and other conditions that are likely to attack the elderly. The elderly are also encouraged to exercise and participate in physical health by allowing the senior citizens to participate in the Golden Games.

The elderly are also served meals by the Department of Social Development. The Phumalanga centre is important as it is a place of solidarity for the elderly. It is a place in which they are taught about health whilst they enjoy themselves.



Photograph 5.1: Breakfast Before The Meeting

During the advice sessions on health and wellness, the elderly also sing songs often in IsiXhosa. These songs strengthen them to conquer their ill-health whilst fostering the spirit of togetherness amongst them.

The songs are sung in isiXhosa, but the researcher managed to get some of these translated into English in order for an English speaking audience to understand (see next page for the songs). For example, below are some of the songs they sang in Xhosa translated to English.

PRESENTATION 1 : SONG ON DIABETES

Diabetes

In case you are diabetic x3

Arise and prevent it x3

Let's be aware of diabetes x3

And live longer x3

PRESENTATION 2: POEM ON DIABETES

Below, is a Xhosa poem on diabetes which has been translated into English narrated by one of the aged who had a platform to speak on behalf of Phumalanga Elderly. She narrated this song based on her personal experience.

Diabetes, a deadly disease you are;

Where do you originate?

You wiping our beloved ones each day;

We're fed up now!

You walked away with my fiancé;

You walked away with my father:

Am I the next victim?

Not me;

Learned am I;

Ahead of me is the future;

The use of songs and poems was very effective with the elderly because they expressed more freedom during such presentations. There was increased interaction as they could translate the songs from Xhosa into English and as a result, all of them could understand the song or poem. In addition, through these presentations, they demonstrated the ability to read and write - even at such an old age. This confirms the Director's remarks that as an NGO, they have a, *"School day where we teach them to read and write...you know, at this old age, some of them never had the chance to go to school...so we also do such work..."* This was evident during the presentations.

The use of songs and poems was very effective with the elderly because they expressed more freedom during such presentations. There was increased interaction as they could translate the songs from Xhosa into English and as a result, all of them could understand the song or poem.



Photograph 5.2: Presentations On Diabetes

In addition to the information sessions, the elderly also participate in gardening activities. The elderly plant and take care of their own vegetable garden. Once the

vegetables are ready for harvesting, they are removed from the garden and are prepared at Phumalanga in order to feed the elderly.



Photograph 5.3: Phumalanga Garden Project

5.7 KNOWLEDGE ABOUT NGOS (RURAL COMMUNITY)

In Ntselamanzi, the researcher distributed 20 questionnaires asking respondents about their knowledge of NGOs operating within the own communities. The question also required the respondents to identify and demonstrate their depth of knowledge regarding NGOs operating in their area.

Number of NGOs	Ntselamanzi		Seymour	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
One	4	20.0	6	30.0
Two	11	55.0	9	45.0
None	2	10.0	5	25.0
No Response	3	15.0	0	0.0
Total	20	100.0	20	100.0

Table 5.1: Knowledge about NGOs at Household level

Furthermore, respondents were asked to give examples to prove their knowledge. The results shown in Table 5.1 reflect that in Ntselamanzi community, only 2 respondents stated that they do not know any NGOs operating in their area. Then 20% of the responses showed that they have knowledge of at least one NGO within their community. The largest population in responses were those who had knowledge of two NGOs supporting them. In this category, World Vision proved to be popular in this community as 7 out of the 11 listed it as an example. There were 3 respondents in particular who were able to give 3 examples, namely, World Vision, Africare and Phumalanga as NGOs which have been assisting them.

In Seymour, there was a 15% difference as it had a larger number of respondents who stated that they did not know any NGOs operating in their area. The other 45% indicated that they know two NGOs which have been assisting them over the years. None of them could give more than 3 examples of NGOs assisting them. Most of their examples were similar, with Africare, Oxfam and Lovelife being the most frequently listed examples. Africare, in particular, was notable in this area for its ongoing support towards the Injongo Yethu programme aimed at reducing HIV/AIDS transmission between mother and child.

5.8 KNOWLEDGE OF NGO PROGRAMS

A similar procedure was followed to investigate knowledge of NGO programs in the area. As above, 20 questionnaires were distributed in each community. In this case, a bar graph (Figure 5.1) was used to present the data as it was more effective in displaying the data as compared to the table.

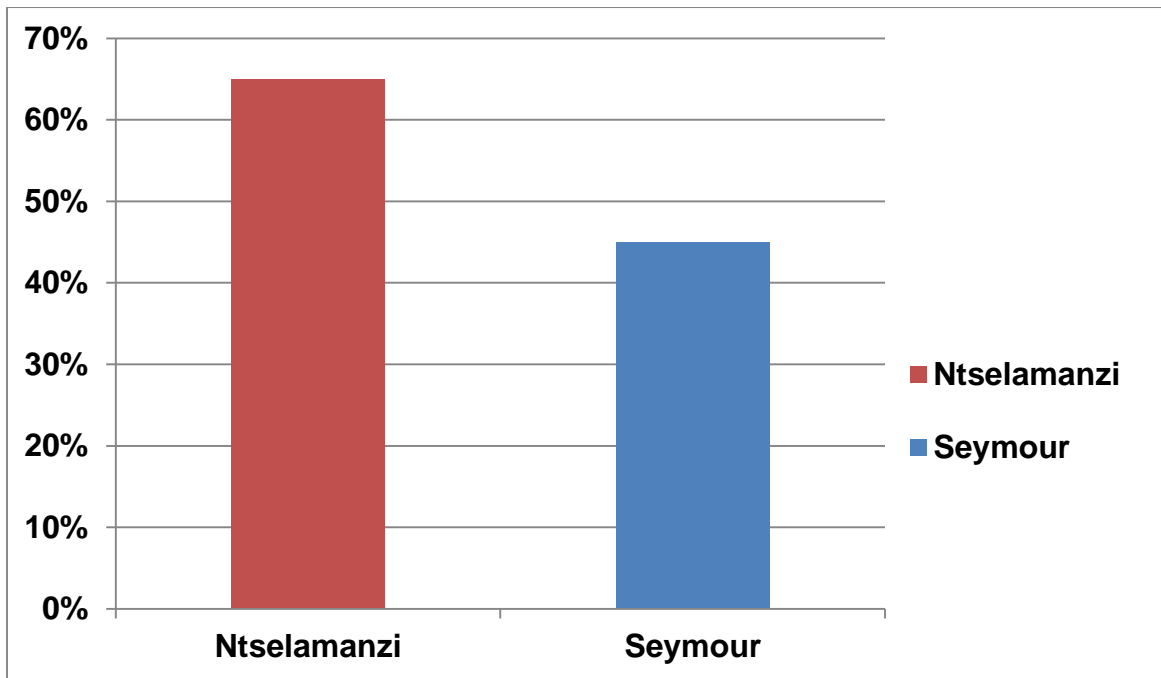


Figure 5.1 Knowledge Of NGO Programmes

In Ntselamanzi, 65% of the population could identify programs that were either completed or currently being conducted by NGOs. The Bicycle Education Empowerment Programme (BEEP) was only mentioned by 50% of the respondents, and the other project mentioned was the Lovelife HIV/AIDS testing campaign. The results showed that 75% of the respondents had a better knowledge of NGOs working in the Ntselamanzi because other than just giving examples, they were also able to highlight the programs that have been initiated by these NGOs.

The situation in Seymour was rather different as only 45% could identify specific programs run by NGOs. The Inyongo Yethu project by Africare was most common being mentioned by 7 out the 9 respondents. The No AIDS campaign was stated by only 2 respondents. The results reflected a 20% variation between the two communities, and fewer respondents in Seymour had knowledge of NGO projects in their community. Most of them confused NGO programs with Government initiatives

such as National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS), National Development Agency (NDA) and RDP housing scheme. The findings also confirm the findings of Dirwayi (2010) who states that there has been less NGO led research initiatives in the Seymour area.

5.9 KNOWLEDGE ABOUT NGOs (URBAN COMMUNITY)

Similar to the previous case in the rural community, the researcher distributed 20 questionnaires in each community. The number of people who responded is reflected under the frequency section while the percentage section provides the percentage. In this section, the researcher asked a question relating to the knowledge of NGOs operating within the chosen communities. The question also required the respondents to identify the number of NGOs they knew which operate in their area.

The population at Happy Rest constituted mainly the working class as a residential area of mostly workers in Alice. The results in Table 5.2 indicate 80% of the population were aware of one or more NGOs operating in Happy Rest community.

Number of NGOs	Happy Rest		Gugulethu	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
One	7	35.0	14	70.0
Two	9	45.0	2	10.0
None	1	5.0	3	15.0
No Response	3	15.0	1	5.0
Total	20	100.0	20	100.0

Table 5.2: People’s knowledge of NGOs

An overwhelming majority of 45% indicated that they could at least identify two NGOs which have offered services in the area. Africare was the most common NGO mentioned by 75% of the population. The other examples included Lovelife,

Phumalanga and Heartbeat. The other 35% were able to identify one NGO operating in their community, and only 5% failed to identify any NGO offering assistance in the Happy Rest area.

The results in Gugulethu showed that 70% of population could identify at least one NGO operating the area. This was largely because one of the NGOs World Vision was located right at the center of the community. The BEEP bicycle project was viewed as having made a visible impact as school children all over the community were seen cycling to the local school. Only 2 respondents could mention more than one NGO in which World Vision and Africare were mentioned in each case. There seemed to be limited knowledge of other NGOs operating in the area.

5.10 KNOWLEDGE OF NGO PROGRAMS

The same criteria and procedure was followed as in the rural community to investigate knowledge on NGO programs in the area. As before, 20 questionnaires were distributed in each community. In this case, a bar graph was used to present the data as it was more effective in displaying the data as compared to the table.

The data in Table 5.2, reflects that despite the fact that 80% of the urban population could identify NGOs in their area there existed a significant weakness in the knowledge of NGO programs implemented in their community. There were only 55% of the respondents that indicated that they had knowledge of programs implemented. Some of the programs that were mentioned included the Lovelife love4life programme which was implemented at local schools to bring awareness of HIV/AIDS.

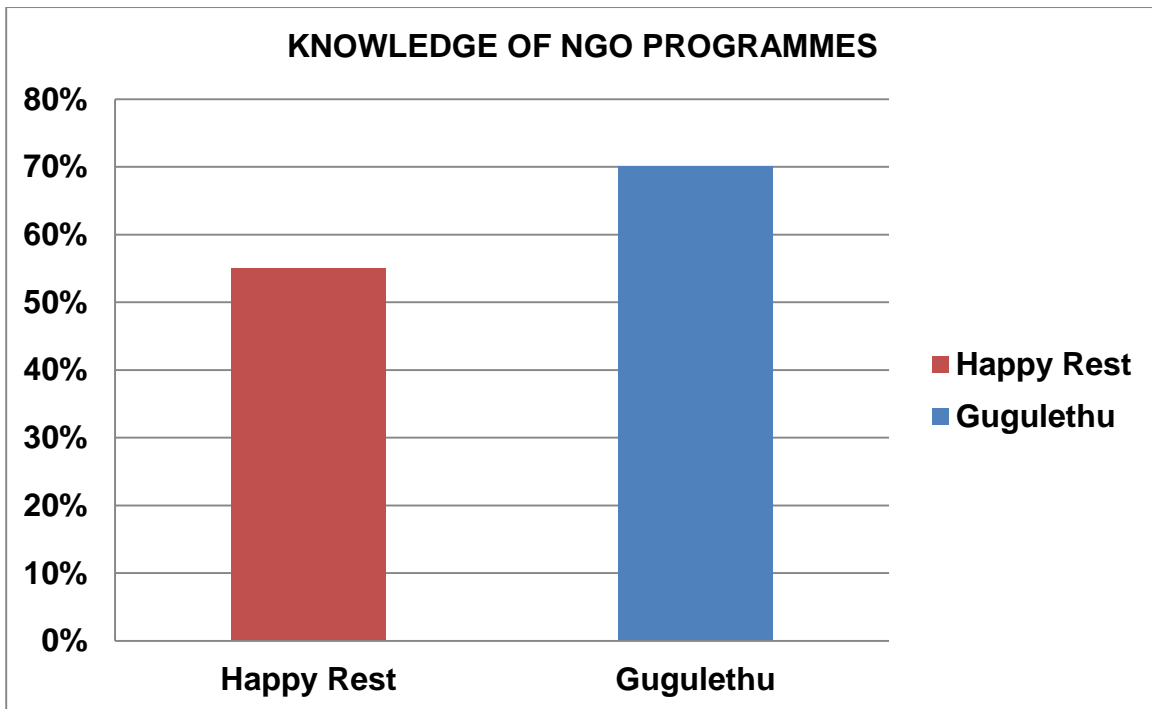


Figure 5.2: Knowledge Of NGO Programmes

Also linked to the above, some respondents also mentioned the tutoring program conducted by World Vision to help schools with no or few teachers. However, of the 75% who mentioned Africare, none of them were able to give an example of any program which has been implemented by the NGO. This is noteworthy, as found before, because the knowledge of NGO programs demonstrates an in-depth knowledge of the work of NGOs in the community.

In Gugulethu, a relative majority of 70% could identify NGO programs that have been implemented in their community. The most frequent program mentioned was the BEEP which had made an impact in the local schools. The other program also mentioned was the World vision scholarship project which was aimed at assisting students from disadvantaged background. Also mentioned was Africare farming

programs in which the NGO assisted with teaching, training and providing farming implements to upcoming farmers.

5.11 LACK OF KNOWLEDGE OF NGOS

The Director at World Vision addressed this issue and stated that in the communities, their biggest challenge was not finances but rather the lack of knowledge of the work of World Vision and current projects. He alluded that there was lack of awareness amongst the community members and parents of children.

This he stated:

“...like parents at times they do not understand when they see children receiving letters from the sponsors...and we are taking pictures every year...sometimes the child might not receive any gift but we still take picture for reporting...so we have to explain to them so that they understand...and the people in the community sometimes the teachers they do not know the extent of work that World Vision is doing because we have many projects...so we sometimes send people in the community to explain what we do, our policies and the projects we run...when we go out we meet the parents first to explain to them...and if they decide they want to take child out of the program they are free to do so...” (Interview, 4 September 2015).

This explanation is vital because it shows that World Vision values accountability of everything they receive. Whether in the form of gifts or money, they make sure reports are compiled and pictures are taken as reference points. Furthermore, the Director showed that the challenge is present but as an organisation, they have made efforts to send field workers who try to explain mainly to the teachers in the local schools about projects World Vision is focusing on. This is mainly due to the

fact that the NGO focuses on children, and schools operate as a medium which attracts more children.

5.12 COMMUNICATION IN RURAL COMMUNITY

During the research, community members highlighted three main modes of communication which NGOs used in their operations. These are community meetings, radio and door-door interaction. The results revealed an interesting trend, that communities close to the NGO made use of community meetings as the principal method.

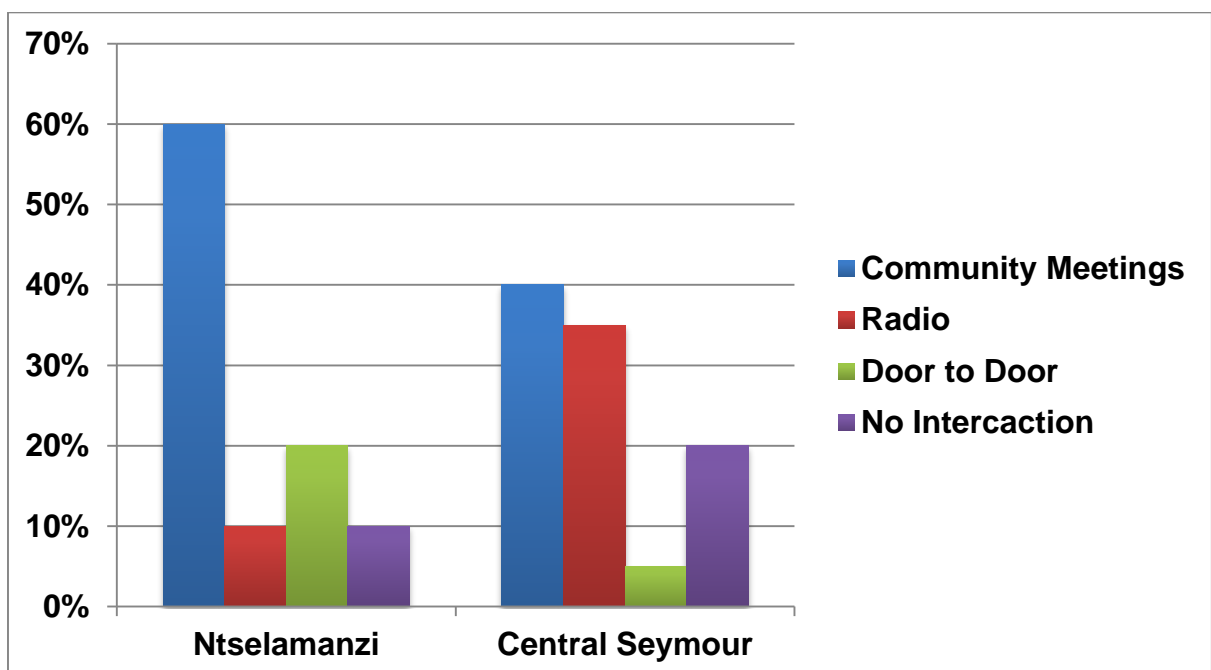


Figure 5.3: Communication In Rural Community

As shown in Figure 5.3 above 60% of respondents in Ntselamanzi, indicated that their interaction with NGOs was through community meetings, and such meetings attracted a much wider audience and helped NGOs to witness and hear the challenges communities are facing.

Alternatively, only 20% reflected that NGOs use door-door visits which are conducted by NGO field workers. This kind of interaction was usually used to follow up to assess

if the projects have reached the set goals within the households. The location of Ntselamanzi is very strategic as the local radio station Forte Radio can reach most communities even in rural villages. The local station reaches all the areas in this study, and their ability to use local languages attracts a larger audience. In this case, 10% of the respondents mentioned that NGOs use the radio for announcements and to update communities on certain matters. The study showed that only 10% of population indicated that there has been no NGO interaction with community.

In Seymour, there was a 10% increase with the population that had no NGO interaction; this population also highlighted that NGOs have rarely communicated with them. The distance between NGOs and community was a major challenge as most of the interaction in this was not directly in contact with community members. For example, only 40% of respondents could identify NGO community meetings as a means of communication; this also was the case with door-door visits which were much less. However, 35% of the communication in Seymour was done using radio. The respondents highlighted that the use of a local language in radio helped to ensure a much wider audience. In particular, Respondent C1 stated that:

“They usually say a lot in meetings, they tell us about programs but we spend few times to tell them our issues. Some issues we raise they just say the government is responsible for that. There are many amagogo (elderly people) who come to meetings and they need more time to understand.” (Questionnaire, May 2014).

This was a vital point because it showed that it is not all about the medium they use to communicate but communication would be much easier if NGOs have more knowledge of the people they are communicating to.

5.13 COMMUNICATION IN URBAN COMMUNITY

The majority of respondents in both communities showed that they interacted most with NGOs through community meetings. In particular, 75% of the population in Gugulethu indicated that they have frequent meetings which are usually delegated by their local leaders e.g. councillors

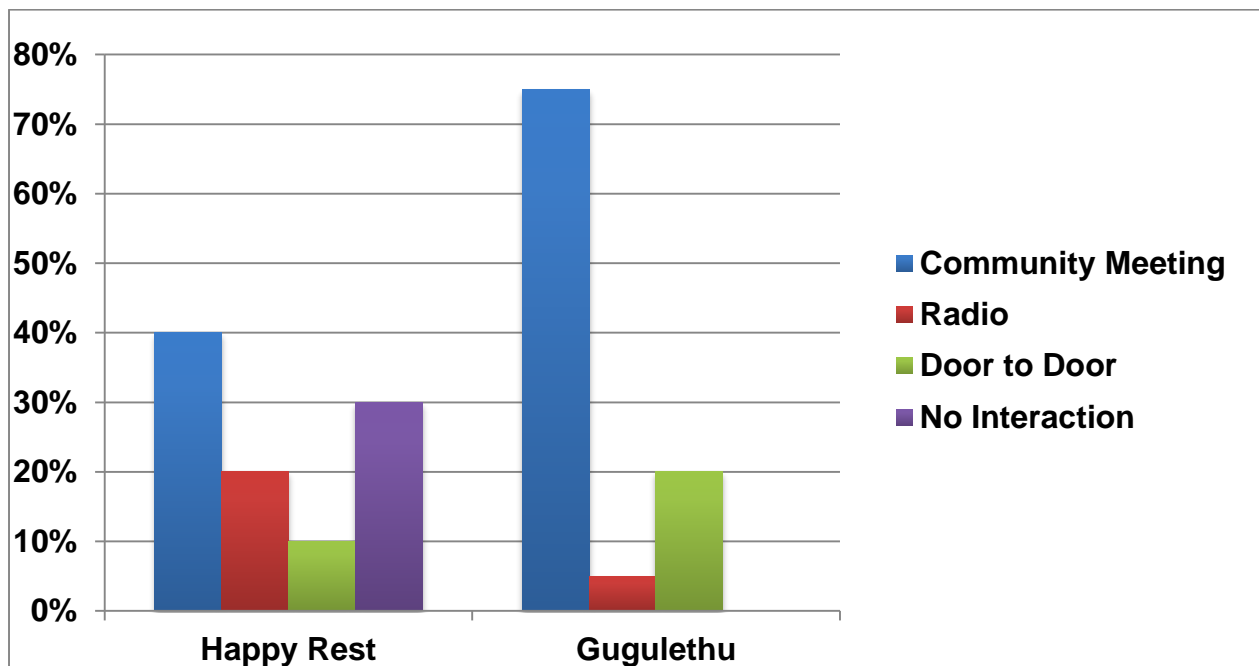


Figure 5.4 Communication In Urban Community

.When NGOs participate in community meetings, they conduct much of their evaluation and project follow up through door-to-door visits. As shown in Figure 5.4 above only, 20% of respondents highlight these visits as a common medium used.

5.14 PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

The same principles used on of issues knowledge of NGO and programs were also applied in terms of participation in the development projects. In this case, 20 questionnaires each were distributed in each community, both representing a rural community which is more distant from NGO offices.

5.14.1 Rural Community

The Table 5.3 below shows the frequency with which community members participate in meetings called by NGOs. Communities can easily become aware of NGO presence through their activities and their frequent visits help build a more permanent awareness.

	Ntselamanzi		Seymour	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Monthly	8	40.0	1	5.0
Annually	6	30.0	11	55.0
Less Often	6	30.0	8	40.0
Total	20	100.0	20	100.0

Table 5.3 Participation in Development Projects

In Ntselamanzi, the results above showed that 70% of population accepted that NGOs have either monthly or annually been involved in the development projects. The majority stated that NGOs have been more frequent in participating in development projects either to initiate or conduct project assessment. NGOs in Ntselamanzi seemed to be more active on a monthly basis, the other 30% of the population showed how NGOs have had annual once-off projects in the community. This is shown as one respondent highlighted that “*NGOs are not recognized, and their work in places we live is not seen.*” Ntselamanzi is located close to both Africare and World Vision offices.

In the case of Seymour, most NGOs have to travel a longer distance when conducting community projects, and community members mentioned that at times, they have to travel a long distance from the village areas to the gathering point. The majority (55%) of participants stated that NGOs had a specific project annually, and often, this resulted in fewer visits. In context, they mentioned the Africare HIV/AIDS

project, which they stated - once it achieved its goals made fewer visits over the years. In contrast, 40% of respondents indicated that NGOs have participated less often in development projects. In response to this, a respondent gave a comment that, *“NGOs are not recognized, and their work in places we live is not seen. We have only seen government helping us build RDP, no help from these NGO.”* Contributing to this issue there were other responses:

Respondent B1: *“Suggest if NGO can have more than one gathering point so that people from far away villages can attend meetings. Usually travel to town to the town hall if there meeting. Also have more Xhosa local people being part of the project, in most cases people from other provinces come to help us, in other cases they are even foreigners. They do not know our culture.”* (Questionnaire, May 2014).

Respondent B2: *“Lack of less assistance in our areas and less contribution. We need help send our children to school; we are farmers and have low monies. We do not have money they must help us, these NGOs must help us. Government has made promises but we never see help.”* (Questionnaire, May 2014).

The responses above highlight that community members see a vacuum that NGOs can assist to fill. Particularly in areas of housing and education, some community members would greatly appreciate it if NGOs can come up with programmes such as the scholarship projects of World Vision to send their children to school.

5.14.2 Urban Community

The response in Happy Rest was totally different as only 5% indicated that NGOs were involved in monthly projects. NGO visits to the area have been very rare, and are only limited to few specific projects. Table 5.4 below shows that NGO participation in this area has been limited to annual projects (50%).

	Happy Rest		Gugulethu	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Monthly	1	5.0	10	50.0
Annually	10	50.0	6	30.0
Less Often	9	45.0	4	20.0
Total	20	100.0	20	100.0

Table 5.4 Urban Community

The respondents also mentioned that there was limited feedback to assess and check if project goals and targets have been met. This was confirmed by 45% of the population which stated that NGOs less often participated in development projects. This shows that NGOs could go for more than a year without focusing on any projects in the Happy Rest community.

5.15. QUALITY OF NGO SERVICES

A total of 20 questionnaires were distributed in each area. The question focused on was: are you satisfied with the quality of service you are receiving from NGOs? They could answer either satisfied, dissatisfied or no response.

5.15.1 Rural Community

It was notable that NGOs still offered quality services in those projects that they were involved in. The two communities (Ntselamanzi and Seymour) only had a 10% percent difference in their response to NGO quality service. In Seymour, as shown in Figure 5.5 below, close to 60% of the participants said that they were satisfied with the quality of NGO services.

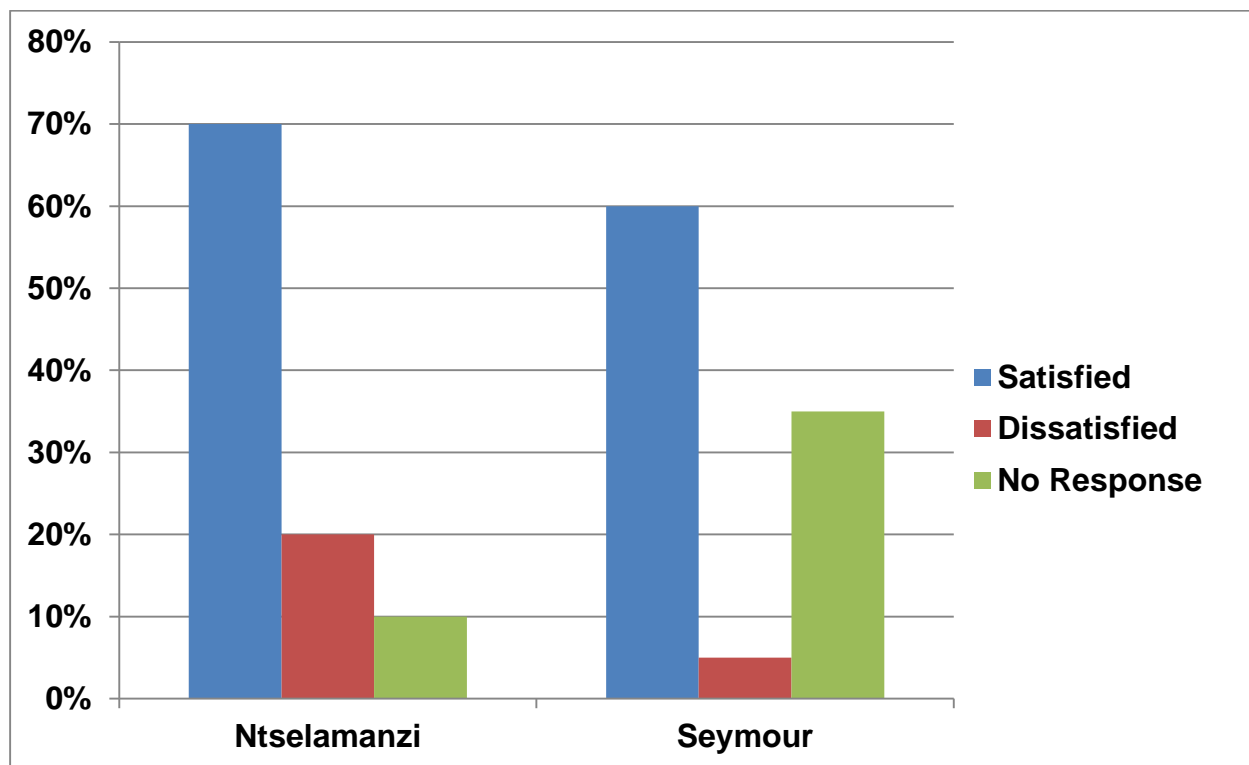


Figure 5.5 Quality Of Services

In particular, the respondents mentioned that Africare has continued to support the Injongo Yethu project, which is the main NGO functional project in their area. This was proven true as only 5% of respondents showed any form dissatisfaction. A response was noted below:

Respondent A1: *“(we) still feel that NGOs are backed by white people to oppress us, they do not care about us. They come to our meetings and tell us*

what we have to do. Sometimes we have to look for our own translator because they say they “can’t speak in Xhosa”. They do not have us at heart.
(Questionnaire, May 2014).

The respondent in the survey did not go on further to explain her views. This is truly significant because it gives us the nature of some of the local meetings. However, this seems to be an isolated case as no other respondent mentioned such an encounter.

In Ntselamanzi, a higher percentage of respondents (70%) indicated that they are satisfied with NGO services. Several examples were given, including World Vision which has introduced mobile clinics in the schools and also the BEEP project which has helped to inspire the education system in Eastern Cape. However, 20% of the participants showed dissatisfaction on some of the strategies currently being used by NGOs, and they advocated for more flexibility in order to improve on the quality.

The use of handouts all the time was their main issue of discontent. This implies that NGOs should use both development and relief strategies to address community problems. For example, with the current economic challenges in Ntselamanzi, they need less of hand outs and more workshops to teach and empower them on how to sustain themselves. They also mentioned that the use of hand outs, at times, appears to be a political tool, especially when political parties are involved.

The second case study focused on the urban community. These communities are closer to the town. The aim was to investigate whether the distance has any hindrance on the quality of NGO services. The researcher distributed 20 questionnaires in each community.

5.15.2 Urban Community

It was notable that NGOs still offered quality services in some of the implemented programs. In particular as reflected in Figure 5.6 below 70% of the Gugulethu population stated that they were satisfied with the quality of services they have been receiving from NGOs.

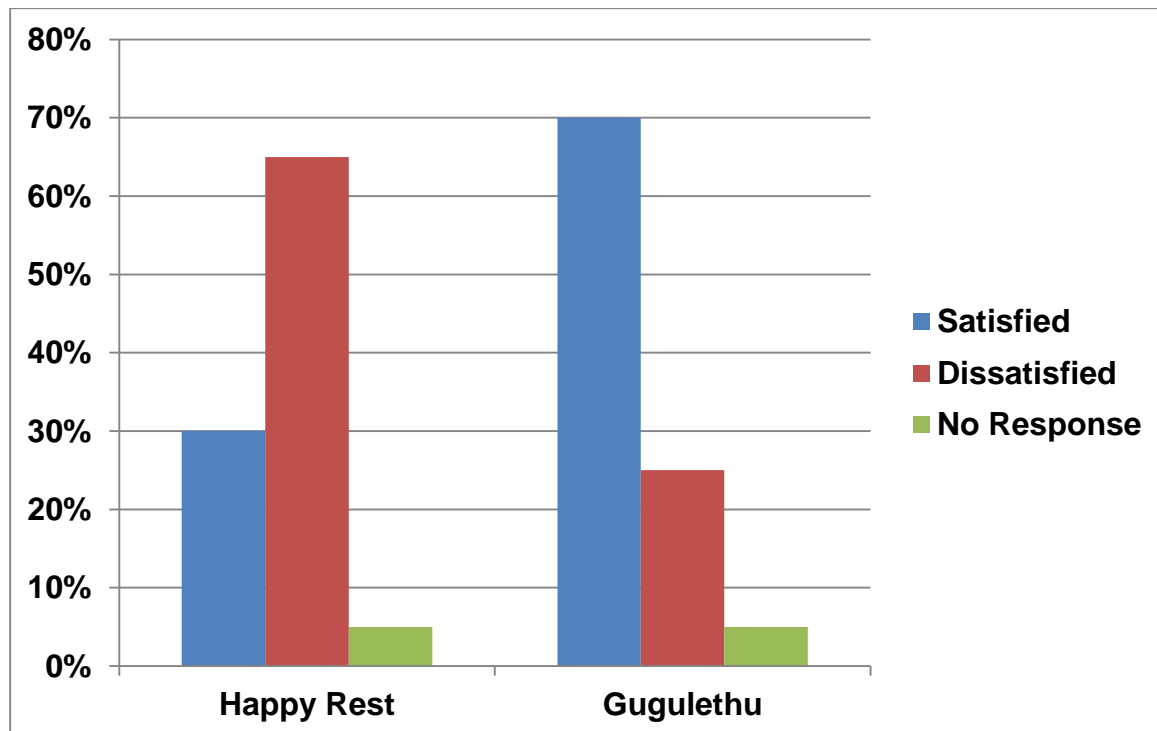


Figure 5.6 Quality Of Services

Ensuring quality of service has been the center concept of the BEEP which makes continuous inspection a priority to ensure the bicycles are kept in good condition. This project alone shows that NGOs in Gugulethu are partnering with other specialists in the field to provide quality services. However, 25% of the respondents were not satisfied and still want NGOs to do more to help the local community. One participant highlighted that NGOs should do more to help the elderly population in the village who have to travel 10km to the closest hospitals. Respondent E1 highlighted that:

“There is no development here. The village is dirty, we have no road, only this dusty and electricity is problem. We have to wait in long lines to get petrol for stoves.” (Questionnaire, May 2014).

A rather different scenario was presented at Happy Rest as only 30% of the respondents showed satisfaction towards NGO programs in that area. There have been few NGO-initiated projects in the community. The results earlier showed that only 52% of the participants had knowledge of any NGO programs taking place. This can only show two possible scenarios, that either the community is ignorant of the work of NGOs in their community or the NGOs have not been functioning effectively in the selected community.

5.16. CONCLUSION

This chapter explored a number of issues. Firstly, the chapter presented the data on state civil society relations. Secondly, it went on to challenge questions around the independence of non-governmental organisations. Thirdly, the chapter also presented work on the participation of project beneficiaries in project conception and implementation. Lastly, it explored the knowledge of residents’ knowledge of NGOs operating in local communities, participation in these initiatives and knowledge projects undertaken by NGOs. The analysis reveals a complex picture in which the state has a benign but paternalistic relation with the people and the NGOs.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research was to assess the role of NGOs in the Post Apartheid era focussing on NGOs operating in the Eastern Cape province in South Africa. This chapter highlights the discussion of findings, conclusions of the study and provides recommendations to show areas to focus on for further research.

6.2. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The main objective of this study was to investigate changing role of non-state actors' relations in post-apartheid South Africa. This was achieved through an analysis of the history of NGOs in South Africa and an investigation of the level of community knowledge of NGOs and their programs. The study found that areas closer to NGO offices such as Ntselamanzi and Gugulethu had more knowledge of NGOs and their programmes. Areas far away from NGOs such as Seymour had 20% less knowledge on NGOs and their programmes. The rural community of Gugulethu demonstrated more knowledge of NGOs and their programmes as compared to the urban population of Happy Rest.

The study showed that knowledge of NGOs and their programmes was essential in that it helped recipients to fully assess the quality of NGOs services. Areas that had more NGO knowledge showed a higher level of satisfaction and dissatisfaction as compared to distant areas such as the case for Seymour. The summary showed that distant areas

had 5% more level of satisfaction compared to Seymour. This was reflected in Chapter 5 (see Figure 5.5) where the rural population indicated that they were more satisfied with the quality of NGO services as compared to the urban population. The main reason for their approval was that World Vision often has community meetings at least once a month where community members discuss their challenges and the NGO listens. The area has a proper leadership structure that improves the channel of communication between NGOs and community. The issue of community structures was the reason of non-NGO participation in the area.

The interviews with community, NGOs and field workers indicated that NGOs have been a pivotal instrument of social development. NGOs have impacted areas such as education through the World Vision's BEEP including HIV/AIDS through the Africare Injongo Yethu program, which has gone further to assist reduce the population of OVCs in the province. NGOs have shown that all members of the population are important to achieve social development - demonstrated through the efforts of Phumalanga. The Department of Social Development endorsed NGOs as their partners toward achieving the goals of development.

The findings also identified some of the major challenges of NGOs. The issue of distance greatly limited some NGOs such as Phumalanga and also meant limited feedback from areas such as Seymour which are distant. Lack of knowledge about NGOs and their work is another challenge that has limited communities from fully participating in projects. The findings also showed that lack of funding is the most common challenge which has hampered NGO growth.

There have been opportunities for NGO growth in this post-apartheid era, mainly through the democratic political environment whereby the government and political parties have approved the work of NGOs. There have been structural mechanisms such as the Non-profit Organisations Act which was formulated to encourage and support NGOs.

6.3. CONCLUSIONS

The findings of the study show that NGOs have contributed towards socio-economic development in Eastern Cape. This stands in agreement with long-standing researchers in NGOs such as Edwards (2008) who acknowledge that NGOs have been involved in the development of Africa through leading efforts against poverty, human rights initiatives and programs targeting global warming. In this study, there was clear confirmation as 58% of household population confirmed that they fully received and benefited from NGO assistance. Secondly, NGOs have been leading projects to improve education performance, HIV/AIDS and promoting agricultural sustainability in the province. NGOs have complemented government efforts by reaching out to communities, villages and areas that the government has found difficult to access. Furthermore, they have built relations with other role players such as Department of Social Development and MTN in BEEP project, thereby reducing the gap between government and private community. The success of NGO programs lies in proper assessment and monitoring of projects by the Department of Social Development. NGOs have presented periodical reports, and frequent feedback from community members and leaders has ensured constant improvement in NGO performance.

The study shows that political philosophy has an impact on society whether it is economy, education, development etc. The diversity in the post-apartheid political landscape has resulted in diverse views on NGOs, others supporting NGOs, others working more with NGOs and others against NGO efforts. According to the study, the post-apartheid political landscape has affected NGO operations.

The study also showed that NGOs do not operate in a vacuum and have been impacted by issues such as racism, economic transformation and land distribution. In other words, this also means that the challenges of this current political system have greatly affected NGO operations. The study highlighted corruption allegations against the government, and linked political parties have affected NGO operations. Such issues include NGO allocated funding and property being misused for personal or political gain. This, in turn, affects other areas such as donor-to-NGO relations. This has resulted in a system which focuses on political gain at the expense of social development in communities. The recommendations established by this study are highlighted below.

6.4. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The study showed how NGOs are partnering with government and private sector, but the researcher recommends that NGOs should also begin to partner amongst themselves. For example, in the study, it could be seen that communities more than 60km from Africare (such as Seymore) were benefiting less from the NGO assistance. Therefore, if Africare can partner with other NGOs closer to Seymour, this can reduce the effects of the distance burden. This will be effective because NGOs will be able to get much feedback from the community.

2. There generally fewer non-governmental organisations focusing on the plight of the elderly especial in South Africa. The situation is perhaps best demonstrated in the rural areas whereby the elderly though playing an important role in taking care of grandchildren materially and emotionally, there seems to be fewer services which are meant to address the needs of the elderly. Non-government do whatever little they can to provide services to the elderly, but more still needs to be done. The call is therefore for funders in the corporate sector and the government to strengthen organisations working on the elderly, to ensure the rural elders are not marginalised. The Phumalanga Centre for the elderly in Alice achieves much with little. Injection mores financial resources can help equip the Centre with the necessary equipment, which in turn can make the life a bit more comfortable especially for senior citizens.

3. In remote areas far from the town the research made clear that government-NGO relations were necessary to enable the state to remain in touch with the people. In an era in which the state is collaborating with non-state actors even more, the research showed that healthy relations between the sectors actually worked to the benefit of the local people. It thus recommended that instead of seeking to compete with each other, government departments and the non-government sector should seek a complementary relationship.

6.5. AREAS OF FURTHER RESEARCH

Considering that there is scant information about NGO operations and programmes in Nkonkobe Municipality, the study recommends that further research be done extensively on the factors that influence NGO programmes in Nkonkobe Municipality. Moreover, the amount of NGO work during the El Nino drought calls for researchers to

examine other fields related to NGOs such as human rights violation during aid distribution.

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APPENDIX A



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

DEPARTMENT OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
SCHOOL OF PUBLIC MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT

Private Bag X1314, Alice, 5700

Tel. 27 40 602 2574, Fax 27 86 231 8103, Cell 076 786 6653

Email rmongwe@ufh.ac.za

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO DO RESEARCH

This is to certify that Mr Raymond Farai Chirowamhangu is a registered Masters student in the Department of Development Studies. He is doing field work as part of the requirements of the qualification, and his area or interest is on the role of non-governmental organisations in development in Eastern Cape, with specific reference to Nkonkobe District region.

As part of the data collection method, the student needs to have interviews with relevant NGOs, community leaders and with people receiving assistance. The student will also need access to libraries and archives Cape Town if any do NGO work in the area.

The research is purely for academic purposes and when the study has been completed, a copy of the thesis can be made available to the organisation on request. Should you need any further clarification, please do not hesitate to contact me on the details given above.

We are looking forward to your kind assistance.

Respectfully,

R. Mongwe (Lecturer and Supervisor)

APPENDIX B



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

**DEPARTMENT OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
SCHOOL OF PUBLIC MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT**

Private Bag X1314, Alice, 5700

Tel. Cell 076 668 2091

Email raychirowa@gmail.com

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

My name is Raymond Farai Chirowamhangu (200902797), a registered final year Masters Student in the Department of Development Studies. I am currently doing field work as part of the requirements of the qualification, and my area of interest is on the role of non-governmental organisations in development in Eastern Cape, with specific reference to Nkonkobe District region.

As part of the research, I will be collecting data in Nkonkobe local area as from the 16th June to 10th of July. As such, I kindly request your assistance during this period. Should you need any further clarification, please do not hesitate to contact me on the details given above.

Looking forward to your kind assistance.

Yours Faithfully,

R.F Chirowamhangu (200902797)

Development Studies Department

APPENDIX C

CONSENT FORM

Terms and Conditions of the Study

1. There shall be no financial or benefits to be gained from participating in this study.
2. Anonymity and confidentiality shall be ensured with utmost good faith.
3. Participants are free to withdraw from the study.
4. Photographs shall be taken, and the information given will be written as notes.
5. Photographs taken will be given to respondents after the study.

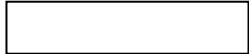
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Instructions

- Complete all questions.
- Tick one answer per question.
- Feel free to ask in case you do not understand the question.

INTERVIEWS: HOUSEHOLDS

1. Do you receive any NGO assistance?
2. Nature of assistance?
3. Quantity or Quality of assistance?
4. How often you receive assistance/NGO visit?
5. Are you satisfied with assistance?
6. AOB



Interview Questions

1. Does your organisation contribute to South African social development in any way? Please briefly explain the answer.

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.....
.....

2. What challenges have you faced in your operations?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

3. Has the South African political system either helped or affected your operations. Or both.

.....
.....
.....
.....

4. Which programs have you managed to do with NGOs since inception? Briefly explain the successes and failures.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

5. In your operations in Nkonkobe community, has the community been open/responsive to your development initiatives?

Yes

No

Please Mark with **X** in boxes and Fill in blank spaces

Questionnaire

1. Which city or town do you originate from?

.....

**2. How many NGOs do you know that operate in your area at the moment?
Give Examples.**

One (1): Example.....

Two (2): Examples.....

More than 2: Examples.....

None:

3. Do you think NGOs are addressing social development issues in your area ?

Yes:

No:

4. Which category has received much NGOs assistance in your area?

Education:

HIV/AIDS:

Rural Development:

Orphans and Vulnerable Children:

None of Above:

5. How often have NGOs participated in development projects in your area?

Monthly:

Annually:

Less often:

6. Do you think politics has affected NGO operations in your region?

Yes:

No:

7. Which other challenges do you think NGOs are facing in this present post-democratic era?

.....
.....

Interview Questions

1. How long have you been operating in Nkonkobe area?.....

2. Which areas or villages does the organisation operate in?

.....
.....
.....

3. What is your target population or category in community?

.....
.....
.....

4. Does your organisation contribute to South African social development in any way? Please briefly explain answer.

.....
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.....
.....

5. What challenges have you faced in your operations?

.....
.....
.....

6. Has the South African political system either helped or affected your operations. Or both.

.....
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.....

7. How many programs have you implemented since inception? Briefly explain the successes and failures.

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8. Which method of programme implementation has proven to be effective?

Use of hand outs

Community engagement

Both

Others that have worked in your NGO.....

9. In your operations in Nkonkobe community, has the community been open/responsive to your development initiatives?

Yes

No

IMAGES OF SOME REASEARCH AREAS



Photograph A: World Vision Located near Gugulethu Village



Photograph B: Golf Course community in Alice