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A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE ARCHITECTURE FOR NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS AND THEIR ROLE IN ALLEVIATING POVERTY IN ZIMBABWE: THE CASE OF MWENEZI DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY



BY
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**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
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FORT HARE**

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NOVEMBER 2014

DECLARATION

I, **ELVIN SHAVA** hereby declare that, this dissertation entitled “**A critical evaluation of the administrative architecture for Non-Governmental Organisations and their role in alleviating poverty in Zimbabwe. The case of Mwenezi District municipality**”, is my own work in design and in execution and it has not been submitted for a degree at any university. All material contained therein has been duly acknowledged by way of appropriate references and citations.



Elvin Shava
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28.10.2015
.....

DEDICATIONS

I dedicate this work to my late parents Major and Jane Shava for raising me up so well. Your determination, perseverance and vision for the future upon my life was so bright and it has been fulfilled. I wish you were here today to share this success with me. You are the best parents ever; wherever you are I know you are proud of me.



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AGRITEX	Department Agricultural Technical and Extension Services
BASE	Backward Society Education
CAMPFIRE	Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
DA	District Administrator
DoSD	Department of Social Development
EMA	Environmental Management Agency
EA	External Audit
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FBM	Food Basket Monitoring
FLTRP	Fast Track Land Reform Programme
GoZ	Government of Zimbabwe
GNU	Government of National Unit
HDI	Human Development Index
INTRAC	International NGO Training and Research Centre
IMF	International Monetary Fund
NANGO	National Association for Non-Governmental Organisations
NEDPP	National Economic Development Priority Programme
NDI	National Democratic Institute
NFI	Non Food Item

NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NPOs	Non-Profit Organisations
MERP	Millennium Economic Recovery Programme
MDTC	Mwenezi Development Training Centre
MDC	Movement for Democratic Change
MRDC	Mwenezi Rural District Council
M & E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
MTP	Medium Term Plan
MERP	Millennium Economic Recovery Programme
NERP	National Economic Recovery Plan
NEDPP	National Economic Development Priority Programme
PDM	Post Distribution Monitoring
PVO	Private Voluntary Organisations
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PWDs	People With Disabilities
SLA	Sustainable Livelihood Approach
STERP	Short Term Economic Recovery Plan
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UNICEF	United Nations International Children Emergency Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WFP	World Food Programme
ZANU PF	Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front
ZBB	Zero Based Budgeting
ZHRF	Zimbabwe Human Rights Forum
ZimAsset	Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation
ZIMSTATS	Zimbabwe Statistics Agency
ZIMVAC	Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee

ABSTRACT

The study set out to evaluate the administrative architecture for Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and their role in alleviating poverty in some vulnerable communities in Zimbabwe. The study evaluated the institutional or organisational structures of NGOs such as capacity building, accountability, strategic planning and transparency and monitoring and evaluation structures among others, to see if they are able to alleviate poverty in rural areas. Five NGOs: Plan International, CARE, Christian Care, Aquaculture Zimbabwe and Mwenezi Development Training Centre operating in Mwenezi District were chosen as ideal case studies due to their roles in alleviating poverty in the district. The study adopted a qualitative approach whereby interview schedules and secondary analysis were used to collect data. The main purpose of conducting semi-structured interviews was to get an in-depth inquiry on the nature and administrative structures of NGOs. As a result, NGO field officers and programme managers were interviewed as key informants since they possess intimate knowledge on how their respected organisations operated in rural areas. Findings from the study were categorised into themes which flow according to research questions. The results indicated that NGOs face critical challenges in trying to revamp their administrative structures. There was lack of capacity building, poor governance, and lack of financial sustainability, corruption, lack of monitoring and evaluation officers which inhibit effective service provision in rural communities. It has been noted also that political interference hampered NGO activities since the government passes stringent measures to regularise NGO operations. In rural areas it was noted that people respond slowly to NGO development projects since they often question their legitimacy. On that note, NGOs were on record as implementing pre-conceived projects which were not compatible with the poor people of the rural areas. This was due to lack of or inadequate research culture in NGO institutions. Moreover, NGOs fail to maintain good relations with donor agencies which result in limited funding on development projects. The study concluded by recommending NGOs to improve the monitoring and evaluation of development projects. Conclusively, there is a need to decentralise their services thus increasing field workers as a way of improving service delivery.

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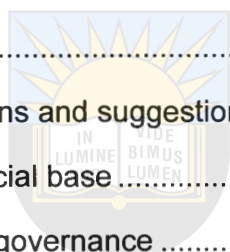
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION, BACKGROUND AND SETTING OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Zimbabwe is a landlocked and an independent state in Southern Africa, formerly known as Southern Rhodesia named after the famous 14th-century stone-built city of Great Zimbabwe, located in the southeast. The country exercises separation of powers through three tiers of government namely national, provincial and local level. Local Government in Zimbabwe is divided into eight provinces and the cities of Harare and Bulawayo have provincial status. Each of these units is governed by a provincial council. The powers of the provincial administrations are closely circumscribed by the central government. Beneath the provincial councils are various district councils, rural councils, town councils, and municipal councils. At the lowest level of administration are village development councils and ward development councils (Mafu, 2011).

This study has focused on the administrative architecture for Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and their role in alleviating poverty in Mwenezi District in Zimbabwe. The study has explored the historical situation of NGOs in Mwenezi District, the nature of the district municipality, its agrarian history, climatic conditions and the causes, effects and nature of poverty which explains the intervention of NGOs to assist the government in reducing higher levels of poverty in the district.

According to Muchara (2010:8) Mwenezi District is one of the nine administrative districts of Masvingo Province in Zimbabwe. It is located at about 130km South of Masvingo town, along the Harare-Beitbridge highway. The author based his argument on the dominant temperature, rainfall and altitude, in which Zimbabwe found itself divided into five agro-ecological regions. Region I is found in the Highveld, with high rainfall of above 1000mm per annum, while Region II receives 750-1000mm per annum. Following are regions III, IV and V, which receive 650-800mm, 450-650mm and less than 450mm respectively.

From the above criteria, as Muchara (2010) & Mafu (2011:4) alluded, Mwenezi District is located in agro-ecological region four, with an average rainfall of 540mm per annum

and highly abnormal temperatures above 25 degrees Celsius in the hot summer period. The Natural region IV is a semi-extensive farming region covering about 38 percent of Zimbabwe. Rainfall is low and periodic seasonal droughts and severe dry spells during the rainy season are common. Farming in Mwenezi district is mainly based on livestock production since crop production is risky except in certain very favourable localities, where limited drought resistant crops are grown. Mwenezi District has a total land area of 1,339,657 hectares, made up of Communal Areas (CA), Intensive Conservation Area (ICA) for wildlife, large and small scale commercial farms and old resettlement areas (Muchara, 2010). The total population of Mwenezi East is about 54 777 of which 25 815 are males and 28 962 are females. The proportion of male to female is 47% and 53% respectively (Census Report: 2002).

The Parliament Research Department of Zimbabwe (2011:3) states that Mwenezi District is divided into two constituencies namely Mwenezi West and Mwenezi East. The study was conducted in Mwenezi East Constituency which consists of 8 wards where the Shangani and Karanga people live (Census Report: 2002). The economic, social and political activities of the district are run by a local government council popularly known as (MDRC) Mwenezi Rural District Council with an administrator (municipal manager) as the head of the council (municipality). This is in accordance with the Constitution of Zimbabwe (2013) which mandates the local municipality to spearhead political, economic and social development in its area of jurisdiction. The district municipality is situated at Neshuro Growth Point which serves as an administrative centre). They are more than 16 NGOs in Mwenezi East focusing on a diverse range of development activities, however only five of them were part of the study.

The deteriorating climatic conditions of Mwenezi District, led to large-scale decline in subsistence farming and food security became a threat as the majority of people went hungry. This led to a mass exodus of economically active population to neighbouring South Africa and Botswana in search of greener pastures. Several NGOs such as Red Cross Zimbabwe, CARE ZIMBABWE, World Food Programme, Lutheran and Christian Care among other humanitarian organisations started offering aid in form of food packages to most rural communities which were hit by the severe droughts and at point

of starvation. Some NGOs as Plan International, RED CROSS ZIMBABWE, Christian Care and CARE began to offer assistance in the form of school fees to school children, developmental projects such as gardening, cooperatives, borehole sinking were rendered to poor communities based on the wards they live in according to council registers. The Fast Track Land Resettlement Programme (FTLRP) in 1998- 2000 by the Zimbabwean government, in which citizens grabbed land from white settler farmers by force, led to decline in food security which saw NGOs signing contracts with the government as a way of complementing government failure to supply aid to several affected rural communities of the district. According to Raftopoulos (2009:212) demands for land reform were driven by the 'long-standing grievances' of a vast, landless rural populace.

The early 2000s saw spontaneous peasant land acquisitions increase under the guidance of the war veterans association, and the FTLRP saw the regime first support and eventually co-opt these early struggles for land reform into a government led policy initiative, forcibly re-allocating white-owned, commercial farm land to landless black peasants (Moyo, 2001). The NGOs which were operating at the time failed to eradicate poverty and boost food security due to weak administrative structures. Also political tensions between political parties discourage NGO aid as government of Zimbabwe announces stiff regulation under Private Voluntary Organisations Act, of 2002 which gives the government significant power to control NGOs (Human Rights Watch, 2012).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Currently, most rural areas in Zimbabwe particularly in Mwenezi District have been hit by hunger and starvation due to long years of dry spells. The poor climatic conditions of the district and prolonged droughts pose a serious threat to food security and other development activities hence NGOs emerged to uproot the persistent poverty. The district is marred by poor infrastructural development characterised by poor roads, few bridges, few clinics, schools, and hospitals which inhibits service delivery. There is inadequate food security, and higher illiteracy rate which have led to stock theft and illegal gold panning in main rivers as an alternative means for survival. The Zimbabwean government failed to address the hunger situation due to insufficient

human and financial resources. The deepening poverty attracted the attention of various NGOs, which brought various aids in the form of food packages, and mostly development projects to poor rural communities. However, for many years NGOs have been playing a critical role in reducing higher levels of poverty but their efforts failed to sustain due to weak administrative architecture of these NGOs. The organisational structures of the NGOs revealed numerous loopholes because of their projects which are usually imposed on the poor rural communities. There is lack of accountability, transparency monitoring and evaluation of NGO projects. NGOs have a tendency of facilitating preconceived development projects without proper consultation as to what the rural people need to improve their livelihoods. It seems NGOs are taking advantage of the powerless communities to experiment with them for instance implementing projects which are not sustainable in the long-term. Despite the fact that NGOs sought to tackle problems of poverty, massive inequalities, government corruption and poor economic development, to a larger extent they are failing due to inappropriate organisations structures. This study seeks to come up with a comprehensive report on the evaluation of the administrative architecture of NGOs and their role in development in Zimbabwe and give suggestions on how best the organisational structures of NGOs can be improved to enable their capacity to deliver services in rural areas.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

- To evaluate the administrative architecture of NGOs and their role in alleviating poverty in Zimbabwe.
- To assess the extent to which the administrative architecture of NGOs is capable to deliver services to rural areas.
- To establish the challenges faced by NGOs in their administrative architecture for rural service delivery.
- To suggest suitable recommendations to NGOs as a way of improving their administrative architecture for service delivery in rural areas.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study is guided by the following research questions:

- How can we evaluate the administrative architecture of NGOs and their role in alleviating poverty in rural areas?
- To what extent is the administrative architecture of NGOs capable to improve service delivery in rural communities?
- What are the challenges being faced by NGOs in their administrative architecture and how are they affecting service delivery in rural communities?
- What initiatives can be put forward as recommendations to NGOs on how they could improve on their administrative architecture for rural service delivery?

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The recognition of this study by leaders of various NGOs operating in Mwenezi District will bring about positive change on how they should structure their organisations to effectively deliver service in rural areas. The study will be unique since many scholars such as (Mpofu, 2012 and Manganga, 2011) who have written on NGOs and poverty reduction failed to elucidate why NGOs projects fail in rural areas? The study will answer the question by critically reviewing and giving in detail the reasons for failure which lies in the administrative architecture of NGOs. Most NGOs lack proper accountability, transparency, monitoring and evaluation of development projects which are key components in the demise of several projects in the rural areas. This study seeks to educate the leaders of NGO projects to effectively exercise accountability and transparency in the running of development projects so as to improve on food security and other development work in Zimbabwe. There is a need for NGOs to review their organisational structures to ensure that they are enabling in order to enhance rural poverty alleviation. Also clear administrative structures facilitate growth and expansion of NGOs in their line of work. The study will be important since suitable recommendations will be given to NGOs indulging in development activities in Mwenezi District to re-evaluate their organisational structures as way of maintaining sustainability in the district and the country at large.

1.6 METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Babbie and Mouton (2002:5) stated that research methodology focuses on the research process and the kind of tools and procedures to be used. Carrier (2000) admitted that research design is the strategy, the plan, and the structure of conducting a research project. Mouton and Marais (1993:32) define a research design as “the plan or blueprint of the study”. This includes the who, what, where, when and how of the subjects under study. This research will use a qualitative research design since the researcher seeks to know descriptive data. A qualitative research is an umbrella term covering an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning of naturally occurring phenomena in the social world (Welman, Kruger and Mitchell, 2005).

1.7 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

In terms of the diverse forms and sources of data, the study will be both descriptive and analytical. The descriptive approach will make use of qualitative data gathering covering the general nature of the administrative architecture of NGOs and their role in development. Archival information will be used since it is readily available and dependable. The analytical part will employ the review of primary sources of data such as NGO documents, progress reports, and policy statements from these NGOs so as to evaluate the progress they have made in implementing development in poor rural communities of Zimbabwe. Secondary sources such as library materials, internet, newspapers, journals and periodicals give current reports on NGO performance in Zimbabwe and Africa at large. This information from these sources will help in evaluating the organisational structures and capacity building of NGOs in service delivery in Zimbabwe.

The advantage of using secondary sources as data collection technique is that they have a relatively low cost. They are more affordable as compared to a comprehensive study and are non-reactive unlike surveys or experiments where respondents are conscious of being studied. Secondary sources are an inaccessible subject since the researcher does not need to personal contact with respondents (De Vos *et al.*, 2005). These sources suffer from incompleteness since statistical records, reports and

historical documents are often incomplete meaning it is difficult to close the gaps left. They are prone to bias since documents not intended for research purposes are used which can influence the objectivity of the documents.

1.7.1 In-depth Interviews

Boyce and Neale (2006:3) define an in-depth interview as a qualitative research technique that involves conducting intensive individual interviews with a small number of respondents to explore their perspectives on a particular idea, program or situation. In this study, semi structured interviews are going to be conducted with five managers of the selected five NGOs operating in Mwenezi District to get an in-depth knowledge on the administrative architecture of NGOs and their role in development in rural areas. However, in-depth interviews are time consuming, prone to bias, and the interviewer must be appropriately trained in interviewing techniques.

1.8 SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

This part of the study will use purposive sampling technique to select respondents from the selected five NGOs. Purposive sampling is when a researcher uses special knowledge or expertise about a specific group to select subjects who represent the population (Berg, 2004). The rationale behind using purposive sampling lies behind the idea that not all subjects know about the administrative architecture of NGOs and nature of NGOs therefore, the selected respondents will have intimate knowledge on the strategies used to alleviate poverty in rural areas under study.

1.9 DATA ANALYSIS

This research will be conducted on the basis of a critical analysis of the literature related to the review of the administrative architecture for NGOs and their role in development activities. Various schools of thought on these issues will be reviewed as well as available evidence mostly found in academic documents, NGO documents and government documents. The researcher will use content analysis to bring order, structure and meaning to the mass of data collected. Jose and Lee (2007) define content analysis as a technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically

in identifying specialized characteristics of messages. Content analysis will allow the researcher to discuss the common themes from the thick descriptions of the nature of the administrative architecture of NGOs and their role in poverty alleviation in rural areas of Zimbabwe. For semi-structured interviews, data will be transcribed to verbatim and the field notes will be organised, with the transcripts and the notes will be read several times by many researchers in order to avoid bias which may occur if one researcher analyses the data. Finally, the data will be coded and categorised according to the information that the researcher would have gathered (Holloway & Wheeler, 2002).

1.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

De Vos and Strydom (2005:57) define ethics as a set of moral principles which are suggested by a group and are subsequently widely accepted. It is important to take note of ethical considerations in research as they promote the aims of the research, such as knowledge, truth and avoidance of error such as prohibitions against fabricating, falsifying, or misrepresentation. The researcher will adhere to all ethical principles of research. This will be done by seeking permission from the District Administrator and Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) of the selected five NGOs. Sensitive issues which can be revealed by respondents will be treated with confidentiality, no identities of respondents will be revealed. Participants will be fully informed on the nature of the research and will participate voluntarily. No harm will be imposed on the participants during and after research process.

Since this research will largely depend on document analysis there are various ethics to be considered also. Bak (2004) stated that any research that involves people must show an awareness of the ethical considerations and an agreement to conduct research in accordance with ethical procedures. For document study honesty in the reporting of results is needed. The researcher should avoid falsification and misleading reporting results (Welman *et al.*, 2005). The information gathered will be used for academic purposes only.

1.11 PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW

1.11.1 NGOs Accountability

One of the key aspects of NGOs in their administrative architecture is accountability which is an important tool in delivering services. Backer (1998) cited in Dhakal (2006) conducted a study of an NGO called Backward Society Education (BASE) in Nepal and analysed the issue of NGO accountability. The research focused on the role of NGOs with management and accountability perspectives (Backer, 1998:14-15). The study was successful through observations of BASE's activities, interviewing held with the CEO and other members of the NGO. Empirical evidence from the study indicated that the management capacity should be strengthened for maintaining accountability. It can be possible by inculcating the functional and formal training. As BASE was found running as an organized anarchy or ad-hocracy, the downward accountability capacity should not be ignored, which could also require considerable adjustments, for the cooperation climate based on trust and confidence such as allowing for a learning by doing process. From the study it was indicated that research on accountability as an administrative structure for delivering services was not fully explored (Dhakal, 2006).

1.11.2 Legitimacy and NGOs

It is imperative to note that legitimacy is one of the key components forming the administrative architecture of NGOs in poverty alleviation. However, recent research is indicating that NGOs in Zimbabwe and worldwide have been receiving intense criticism over their inability to turnaround and break the circle of poverty in communities where they operate. Despite their need to prove their legitimacy to the poor communities, the claims against them stated that NGOs lack legitimacy, transparency, representation, and accountability and performance management. This criticism against NGOs emanate from their close ties with aid agencies rather than the communities where they worked. Failure by these organisations to have a clear organisational structure impacted heavily on the demise of several development projects hence incapability to deliver services (Anderson, 2007).

Ronald (2010) disputed the lack of legitimacy in NGOs. He stated that NGOs re-emerge to fulfil and close the legitimacy gap formed as a result of government actions and other

multinational corporations, even though legitimacy became a major criticism for NGOs. In view of Najam (1996) NGOs take advantage of rural areas powerlessness to implement their programmes since there is no mechanisms present to local communities to dispute NGO involvement. Several communities are swallowing bitter saliva from NGO involvement and have become hostages to particular projects planned or implemented by NGOs (Werker and Ahmed, 2008).

1.11.3 NGOs and Capacity Building

According to Sahley (1995, in Dement, (2001:516) capacity building has been adopted by NGOs as a tool to escape from the old system of donor recipient relationship. The author argued that the main emphasis of NGOs on capacity building reflects changes in development thinking away from the simpler transfer of skills and resources towards building autonomy and self-reliance. Fowler (1996) viewed organisational capacity building as promoting effective development and realization of the NGO mission. This is the main shortfall of NGOs operating in Zimbabwe. Several of them lack proper organisational structure capable of spearheading development and this resulted in failure of many developments projects targeted towards poverty alleviation. Capacity building can be in form of technical assistance, staff advice, provision of technical resources and organisational assistance such as in management and training and strategic planning (Sahley, 1995 in Dement, 2001). These factors help improve NGO effectiveness and sustainability. Also lack of transparent concepts of capacity development contributes to problems for NGOs when delivering services (Fowler, 1996).

1.11.4 Governance and management issues of NGOs

According to Lekorwe and Mpabanga (2007:6) good governance is one of the key components underpinning the organisational structures of NGOs. He argued that effective management of an NGO's resources should be done in transparent, accountable, equitable and responsive manner to cater for the needs of the people. The main aim of NGOs is to sustain in the long-term so good governance is very critical to its existence. It has been noted that several NGOs operating in third world countries of

which Zimbabwe is no exception suffer from institutional capacity and inadequate resource base to spearhead their operations. Moreover, mismanagement of donor funds has for a long time crippled development projects of NGOs and this negatively impacted to poor rural communities. On that note, accountability is the key factor in good governance; however the unanswered question which has haunted researchers for so long is to whom do NGOs account? Critically analysing the question it seems simple to answer since one may think the obvious answer is for NGOs to account to the funders of resources. However, the most critical issue is several NGOs lack the accountability structures in the organisational organograms which make it more difficult to exercise transparency and accountability (Lekorwe and Mpabanga, 2007).

1.11.5 NGOs and development in Zimbabwe

According to Chakwarika (2011:11) NGOs play a vital role in development in Zimbabwe in various sectors of the economy from advocacy, empowerment, environment conservation and micro-financing. In Merrington as quoted in David (2005) NGOs enjoyed many advantages such as good communication and mobilization of the poor. Secondly they employ participatory, bottom-up-approaches in project planning, implementation monitoring and evaluation. These factors are effective in helping the poor to participate in matters affecting them and as a result gaining control over the quality of their lives. It should be noted that NGOs capability to promote public participation emanates from their formed partnerships relations with the communities they serve. Thirdly NGOs conduct their business in an effort to strengthen and empower weak local institutions.

Stromquist (2002) noted three major functions for NGOs in service delivery for instance (relief, welfare, basic skills); educational provision (such as basic skills and often critical analysis of social environments); and public policy advocacy as this is the case with NGOs in Sub-Saharan Africa. However, Baccaro (2001) indicated that particular NGOs can promote the organisation and empowerment of the poor, particularly poor women, through a combination of micro-credit, awareness-raising, training for group members, and other social services. Empowerment is the ability of individuals to gain control

socially, politically, economically and psychologically through access to information, knowledge and skills; decision making; and individual self-efficacy, community participation, and perceived control (Rappaport 1987; Zimmerman and Rappaport, 1988).

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

In any scientific studies of similar nature, the researcher experienced time and financial constraints since the study was conducted across international boundaries. There was limited funding to reach all the intended respondents. Secondly, the researcher faced resistance in interviewing the targeted respondents due to sensitivity of research topic and the nature of the highly politicised environment in the study area. Some NGO program managers were not at liberty to disclose some confidential information regarding their organisations due to suspicions. Since the study also made use of secondary data, there was a possibility that the researcher might generalise findings, since the use of reports and official documents can be dubious concerning research findings hence the results can be biased.

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1.12 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The focus of this research was on selected NGOs operating in (MDRC) Mwenezi District Rural Council in Zimbabwe. The district municipality is a government entity located at about 130km south of Masvingo Province along Masvingo-Beitbridge Highway. There are more than 16 NGOs in Mwenezi District focusing on poverty alleviation. The extent of this work covered selected NGOs namely CARE Zimbabwe, Aquaculture Zimbabwe, Plan International, Christian Care and Mwenezi Development Training Centre. These humanitarian organisations employed diverse strategies towards poverty alleviation in Mwenezi District. Such a reduction in issues of focus made the study more manageable. Mwenezi District was chosen as an ideal case study due to its nature and high levels of poverty. The conditions are attributed to poor rainfall patterns and low agricultural production, limited opportunities for income generation

enhancement, increasing break down of family and community structures, together with adverse effects of the HIV/ AIDS pandemic (UNDP Poverty Report, 2013).

1.13 CLARIFICATION OF KEY CONCEPTS AND TERMS

1.13.1 Public Administration

The UNDP (2003) defined public administration as having two closely related meanings

- a) The aggregate machinery of policies, rules, procedures, systems, organisational structures, personnel and so forth) funded by the state budget and in charge of the management and direction of the affairs of the executive government, and its interaction with stakeholders in the State, society and external environment
- b) The management and implementation of the whole set of government activities dealing with the implementation of laws, regulations and decisions of the Government and the management related to the provision of public services.

1.13.2 Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs)

There are various controversies around defining the term NGO since they came in many shapes and sizes. Some scholars referred to NGOs as Voluntary Organisations (VOs), Non Profit Organisations (NPOs), Private Voluntary Organisation (Rahman, 2003:44). NGOs can be referred to as any organisations on condition they have autonomy from government control, not seeking to challenge governments either as a political party or by a narrow focus on human rights, non-profit making and non-criminal. The nature of NGOs should portray basic characteristics including non-governmental, voluntary, non-commercial, accountable and non -political (2003:55). However, in this study NGOs should be viewed in line with Tvedt (1998:2) who states that NGOs are private non-profiting organisations that are publicly registered (legal status) whose principal function is to implement development projects favouring the popular sector. The source of their support is almost always non-government organisations themselves based in industrialised countries.

1.13.3 Administrative Architecture/Structure

According to *Reverso Dictionary* (2014) administrative architecture/structure may also be referred to as management of the affairs of an organisation such as business or institution usually by an administrator. It can mean a body of people who administer an organisation. With reference to Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in this study, administrative architecture refers to the structural, organisational and management characteristics of NGOs. These characteristics involve capacity building, accountability and transparency, legitimacy, financial sustainability, networking and having code of conduct for NGOs. The researcher seeks to review these structures to see if they are enabling in implementing poverty alleviation strategies in rural areas.

1.13.4 Evaluation

Fundsforngos (2013) defines evaluation as time specific and it's performed to judge whether a project has reached its goals and delivered what expected according to its original plan.

1.13.5 Poverty

According to the (UN Statement, June 1998 – signed by the heads of all UN agencies in Gordon, (2005) poverty is a denial of choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It means not having enough to feed and cloth a family, not having a school or clinic to go to, not having the land on which to grow one's food or a job to earn one's living, not having access to credit. It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities. It means susceptibility to violence, and it often implies living on marginal or fragile environments, without access to clean water or sanitation". For the purpose of this study ZIMSTATS (2013:15) refers to poverty as the prevalence of households or people in households whose consumption expenditures per capita below the poverty datum line. In view of Gordon (2005:4) poverty is a denial of choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It means not having enough to feed and cloth a family,

not having a school or clinic to go to; not having the land on which to grow one's food or a job to earn one's living, not having access to credit.

1.14 PRELIMINARY FRAMEWORK FOR THE RESEARCH

Chapter One The chapter introduces and outlines the setting and background of the study. The chapter provided the problem statement, research questions, research objectives, and significance of study, definitions of key concepts, acronyms, research methodology and delimitation of the study.

Chapter Two is a review of relevant literature underpinning this study. Various terms underpinning this research and theoretical framework were equally addressed. The chapter critically analysed the organisational structures of NGOs in development work in Zimbabwe to see they are enabling in delivering services to poor rural communities. The legislative frameworks related to the administrative architecture of NGOs in Zimbabwe are also reviewed in this chapter.

Chapter Three outlines the research design and methodology that were used in this research. The research used a descriptive and analytical approach hence triangulation of qualitative research methods. The chapter also discussed ethical issues applicable to the study, and finalised by outlining the data analysis techniques suitable for the study.

Chapter Four focuses on the presentation of collected data and discussion of the results. Thematic content analysis was used to present secondary data. For semi-structured interviews, data was transcribed to verbatim and the field notes were also organised, with the transcripts and the notes will be read several times by many researchers in order to avoid bias which may occur if one researcher analyses the data. Finally, the data will be coded and categorised according to the information that the researcher would have gathered.

Chapter Five contains the conclusions and give scientific recommendations based on the research findings.

1.15 CONCLUSION

This chapter introduces the research topic was and the rationale behind choosing it. The chapter focused on the background setting and the problem statement underpinning the study. The objectives, research questions and significance of the study were also addressed. The chapter concluded by giving an organisation of the study. The next chapter will focus on review of relevant literature on the organisational structures of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO)s in their development work in rural areas of Zimbabwe.



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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Webster and Watson (2002:13) defined literature review as one that creates a firm foundation for advancing knowledge and facilitates theory development, closes areas where the plethora of research exists, and uncovers areas where research is needed. This section critically examined the administrative architecture of NGOs in Zimbabwe and assessed its capability in service provision in poor rural communities they operate. The literature related to the organisational structures, mechanisms and roles of NGOs in development work has been extensively reviewed. The section further analyses poverty alleviation gaps and mechanisms used by various NGOs and attempts to offer alternative solutions to NGOs as a way of increasing service delivery. NGOs as Suharko (2007) categorises them, have a comparative advantage in delivering services to poor communities than government due their flexibility nature and massive funding.

2.1.1 Defining Poverty

Poverty is a complex, multifaceted and multidimensional concept. Rajasekhar (2004) pointed out that is not a static phenomenon, and it changes over time, it changes across the regions, changes within individual economic groups and at various economic levels within a country, including at household level where there would be considerable difference in the perceptions of women and men. Greenberg (2005:14) defines poverty as a lack of material as well as lack of representativeness in politics. This definition again is unique in the sense that it further mentions the relationship between poverty and lack of access to technology and information.

Saifuddin (2006:1) advanced the definition of poverty when he defines poverty

“.... as hunger. Poverty is lack of shelter Poverty is being sick and not being able to see a doctor. Poverty is not having access to school and do not know how to read. Poverty is not having a job, is fear of the future, live one day and at a time. Poverty is losing a child to illness brought by unclean water. Poverty is powerlessness, lack of representation and freedom. Poverty has many faces, changing from place to place and

across time, and has been described in many ways". In this study poverty should be understood as lack of basic necessities i.e. water, clothing and mostly importantly food insecurity which explains the presence of NGOs to implement development projects in rural areas under study, which would help reduce food shortages and improve living standards among the rural people.

2.1.2 Evaluation

UNICEF (2013) defined evaluation as the process which attempts to determine to determine as systematically as possible and objectively as possible the relevance, effectiveness, efficiency and impact of activities in the light of specified objectives. It is learning and action oriented management tool and organisational process for improving current activities and future planning, programming and decision making.

McCoy, Ngari and Krumpe (2005) describe evaluation as the episodic mid-term and end term project assessment of an on-going or completed project to determine its actual impact against the planned impact (strategic goal or objectives for which it was implemented which are efficiency, sustainability and effectiveness. Evaluations should be systematic and autonomous (Uitto, 2004). The author further ascertains that evaluation is an assessment of an on-going or completed project including its design, implementation and results. The main aim lies is assessing the relevance, effectiveness, efficiency in implementation stage, and the impact and sustainability of the project (Uito, 2004).

The significance of assessing an on-going project rests on the justification of continued pooling of resources into the project. NGOs should be able to withdraw or diversify their resources elsewhere if a project performs below standard. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development OECD (2002) in Judy and Ray (2004) supports the above verdict and recommends that evaluation should disseminate coherent, appropriate and vital information which should be integrated into decision making by project managers or donor agencies that financially back the project.

2.1.3 Poverty alleviation

Riddel and Robinson (1992:12), define poverty alleviation as an intervention aimed at a sustained improvement in the economic status of the poor, by raising incomes and creating new opportunities for employment, which in turn bring about increased consumption, savings and investment. Greenberg (2005) describes poverty alleviation as any process which seeks to ease the level of poverty in a community, or amongst a group of people or countries. It is important to note that, in this study poverty alleviation relates to all intervention mechanisms or strategies adopted by government and NGOs to alleviate poverty in the area under study.

2.1.4 Defining NGOs

Many theories were proposed and some dismissed by scholars in an attempt to define the term NGO. The definition depends on who uses the term and for what purpose hence it can be understood in different dimensions. Arguably the term embraces various organisations which indulge in non-profit or voluntary work especially on humanitarian grounds. The World Bank (2013) describes an NGO as a citizen-based association that operated independently of government, usually to deliver resources or serve some social or political purpose. NGOs can be either operational which primarily focus on development projects, or advocacy NGOs which are primarily concerned with promoting a cause. Kegley and Blanton (2014:147) define NGOs as all non-state and non-profit making organisations that operate as intermediaries to build transnational bridges between those with resources and a targeted group. Thus it is also customary to think of NGOs as inter-societal organisations that contribute to negotiations between and among states in the hope of reaching agreements for global governance on nearly every issue of international public policy. However, for the purpose of this study, NGOs should be understood as all non-profit organisations that voluntarily offer relief, rehabilitation, advocacy, development projects using money acquired from donor agencies, multinational corporations and relevant stakeholders, who are independent in every region they operate to spearhead development to poor rural communities.

2.1.5 General Origins of NGOs

According to Gilmurray (1979) Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) originated back to the end of the Second World War, around the 1950s to the 60s. The general premise behind their formation was to rejuvenate and reintegrate the ailing economic, social and political status of Europe torn apart by the war. Initially NGOs sought to provide welfare services which included psychological counselling meant to minimise social trauma caused by the war. Later their thrust expanded to include the state and community relations, that is, NGOs took up advocacy on behalf of the marginalized. Women and children were the most conspicuous categories of the marginalised groups targeted by these non-state actors, although later NGOs diversified their areas of operations and beneficiary base to integrate other marginalized groups among them the aged, chronically ill and ethnic minorities.

Mostashari (2005:2) proposes that the term “non-governmental organisation” was first used in 1945 due to the need for UN to differentiate in its Charter between participation rights for inter-governmental specialised agencies and those for international private organisations. He maintains further that all types of private bodies are regarded as NGOs by the UN. The main argument is that all NGOs should be autonomous from government control in order to lobby for the people (advocacy) or should be non-profit making to enhance development to poor regions.

2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.2.1 Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA)

This research is based on the sustainable livelihoods approach to rural poverty alleviation. The theory is believed to have evolved from the late 1980s through to the 1990s and still evolving. Many researchers such as Robert Chambers and Gordan Conway contributed much on rural livelihoods with the Oxfam and World Bank on characterising the poor in rural areas (IFAD, 2014).

The sustainable livelihoods approach (SLA) is a strategy to understand the livelihoods of poor people. It provides an insight into the main factors that affect poor people's livelihoods and the typical relationships between these factors. It can be used in planning new development activities and in assessing the contribution that existing activities have made to sustaining livelihoods. Two key components underpinning SLA are a framework that:

- (i) helps in understanding the complexities of poverty
- ii) has a set of principles to guide action to address and overcome poverty.

According to IFAD (2014) the SLA framework places the rural people at the centre of a web inter-related influences that affect how these people create a livelihood for themselves and their households. Closest to the people at the centre of the framework are the resources and livelihood assets that they have access to and use. These can include technologies, natural resources, their skills, knowledge and capacity, their health, access to education, sources of credit, or their networks of social support. The extent of their access to these assets is strongly influenced by their vulnerability context, which takes account of trends (for example, economic, political, and technological), shocks (for example, epidemics, natural disasters, civil strife) and seasonality (for example, prices, production, and employment opportunities). Access is also influenced by the prevailing social, institutional and political environment, which affects the ways in which people combine and use their assets to achieve their goals. These are their livelihood strategies (IFAD, 2014).

The SLA is based on seven guiding principles which are adaptable and flexible to diverse local conditions which make it an ideal model to use in evaluating roles on NGOs in rural poverty alleviation. The guiding principles are:

Be people-centred - SLA begins by analysing people's livelihoods and how they change over time. The people themselves actively participate throughout the project cycle.

Be holistic -SLA acknowledges that people adopt many strategies to secure their livelihoods, and that many actors are involved; for example the private sector, ministries, community-based organisations and international organisations.

Be dynamic- SLA seeks to understand the dynamic nature of livelihoods and what influences them.

Build on strengths-SLA builds on people's perceived strengths and opportunities rather than focusing on their problems and needs. It supports existing livelihood strategies.

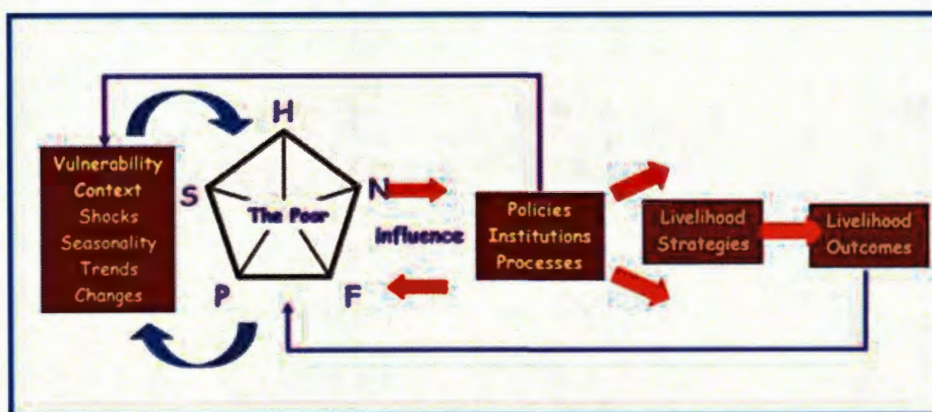
Promote micro-macro links- SLA examines the influence of policies and institutions on livelihood options and highlights the need for policies to be informed by insights from the local level and by the priorities of the poor.

Encourage broad partnerships-SLA counts on broad partnerships drawing on both the public and private sectors.

Aim for sustainability- Sustainability is important if poverty reduction is to be lasting.

SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOOD APPROACH (SLA)

Fig 2.1



(Source: IFAD, 2014)

The diagram presents in schematic form key elements of SLA and their relationships. It tries to provide a critical way of thinking about livelihoods of poor rural people that will stimulate debate and reflection about the many factors that affects livelihoods, the way they interact and its relevance to a given setting (IFAD, 2014).

2.2.2 Meaning of Livelihoods

According to Krantz (2001) the term 'livelihoods' means activities, entitlements and assets by which people make a living. In a similar vein a 'livelihood' is a source of revenue or income or a source of living. A 'livelihood' constitutes assets, activities and capability. "Assets therefore, are defined as not merely natural or biological (land, water, common property resources, flora, fauna), but also social (networks, participation, empowerment) and human (knowledge, creation by skills and physical roads, markets, clinics, schools, bridges) (Haida, 2009). The International Institute of Sustainable Development defines Sustainable Livelihoods (SL) as being concerned with people's capacities to generate and maintain their means of living, enhance their wellbeing, and that of future generations (Balgis, Nagmeldin, Hanafi and Sumaya, 2005).

The sustainable livelihoods approach as (Balgis et al., 2005) observed, has gained recognition as the framework for understanding the multiple and dynamic dimensions of livelihoods among development practitioners and policy makers alike. Krantz (2001), states that SLA does not relegate the principle of responsive and community participation since it emphasis on active participation of the poor, identifying and addressing livelihood priorities. Sporton and Thomas (2002) conclude by stating that SLA is a community-centred since it promotes local development, skills development, capacity building and sustainable development to the poor rural people.

2.2.3 Relevance of Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA)

Sustainable livelihood approach draws attention to the multiplicity of assets that people make use of, when constructing their livelihoods. The approach produces a holistic view on what resources or combination of resources are important to the poor, including not only physical and natural resources, but also their social and human capital (Solesbury, 2003). The approach facilitates a comprehension of the underlying causes of poverty by focusing on the variety of different sectors at different levels that directly or indirectly

determine or constrain poor people's access to resources or assets of different kinds and thus their livelihoods (Solesbury, 2003). The approach gives a tangible and more realistic framework for evaluating the causes of poverty in rural areas hence NGOs can adopt it as an effective strategy towards sustainable development and poverty reduction in the area under study and other poor rural communities.

2.2.4 NGOs IN ZIMBABWE

The attainment of independence by the people of Zimbabwe in 1980 brought freedom but in need of economic development. The nation was robbed of many years of economic, social and political development which led to the emergence of numerous NGOs to spearhead social and economic development in rural areas of Zimbabwe. Since then, NGOs have undergone tremendous transformation in Zimbabwe in the last three decades with regard to their legal and organisational form, the content of their work and strategies and the nature of their constituencies. This transformation was in response to the ever changing socio-economic and political environment in which they operate. Moyo (1995) gives an account of the changing forms and nature of NGOs in Zimbabwe during the colonial period and beyond. They note that the pre-independence era was conducive to the development of only those NGOs that were promoted and initiated by settlers through their governments. The designated white run NGOs were led by large Christian church denominations such as the Lutheran and the Roman Catholic Churches (Moyo, 1995).

2.2.5 Nature of rural poverty

In Zimbabwe poverty grew unambiguously during the first half of the 1990s due to the ineffectiveness of economic policies of the World Bank and IMF (World Bank, 2002). A research conducted by the Poverty Assessment Study Survey (PASS) in Zimbabwe revealed that poverty in Zimbabwe was prevalent in the rural areas, communal areas and among female headed households. At district level, Mwenezi had the second highest percentage of households in absolute poverty with 92 percent (Human Development Report, 1998).

In rural areas of Zimbabwe poverty rates differ from place to place depending on the climatic patterns, ownership by the rural population and the remoteness of the place. Within the rural population, there is a particularly severe concentration of poverty in communal farming areas (Kinsey, 2010). These contain half of Zimbabwe's total population but three-quarters of the poor and over 80 per cent of the very poor (GOZ, 1998) cited in Kinsey (2010). In addition there are higher rates of poverty in the resettlement areas, the former commercial farming areas that were purchased for the relocation of peasant farmers from the communal areas Kinsey (2010). Zimbabwe is one of the poorest countries in the world and rank 151 of 177 countries in the Human Development Index (HDI) according to the UNDP (2008) as cited by Basilwizi (2010). In 2006, the life expectancy stood at 35, 5 with half of the population surviving on less than \$US 1 a day (UNDP, 2006) as cited by Basilwizi (2010).

2.2. 6 TYPES OF POVERTY IN THE STUDY UNIT

2.2. 7 Absolute Poverty

Prior to the World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen in 1995, more than 117 countries adopted a declaration and programme of action which included commitments to eradicate "absolute" and reduce "overall" poverty. There are various conflicting definitions of absolute poverty, however for the purpose of this study absolute poverty is defined as *"a condition characterised by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. It depends not only on income but also on access to services"* (Gordon 2005). These characteristics mentioned are prevalent in the study area due to poor economic conditions and changing weather patterns hence this explains the sprung of NGOs to help the vulnerable people.

2.2.8 Overall Poverty

Gordon (2005:1) argues that overall poverty takes various forms. He defines the forms as involves *"lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments and social discrimination and exclusion"*. He further contends that absolute poverty is also characterised by *"lack of participation in decision*

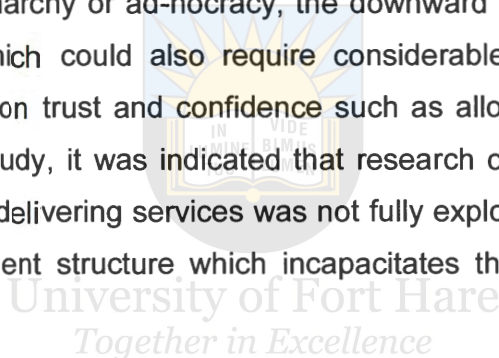
making and in civil, social and cultural life. It occurs in all countries: as mass poverty in many third world countries, pockets of poverty amid wealth in developed countries, loss of livelihoods as a result of economic recession, sudden poverty as a result of disaster or conflict, the poverty of low-wage workers, and the utter destitution of people who fall outside family support systems, social institutions and safety nets” (UN, 1995). For the purposes of this study levels and types of poverty should be viewed in line with the above definition since, most rural communities in the study area falls within the mentioned categories.

2.3 REVIEW OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE ARCHITECTURE FOR NGOs IN ZIMBABWE

2.3.1 NGOs Accountability

According to Leat (1988) as cited in Cavill and Sohail (2007:232) accountability means different things to different people depending on the context and the purpose for which accountability is sought. It is arguable however, that definitions, usually refer to ‘the right to require an account’ and the right to impose sanctions if the account or the actions accounted for are inadequate. In this sense of evaluating accountability of NGOs in Zimbabwe, accountability can be used as a goal in itself, or as a political weapon, or as a strategy or device to improve the ineffectiveness of development projects and the economy at large. Oliver and Drewry (1996:13) view definitions of accountability as frequently made by the way of contract with the term responsibility. The authors claim that the difference between accountability and responsibility is blame: responsibility is having a job to do and taking the blame when things go wrong, whereas accountability is accepting responsibility for a wrong doing and be willing to make amendments. Cavill and Sohail (2007:233) further argue that unlike governments for instance, NGOs are accountable rather than responsible in their efforts to alleviate poverty and reduce social inequalities in countries they operate. Whereas other established NGOs do account to governments and funders, a backlog in accountability is still prevalent among growing NGOs which often hinder development in areas they operate.

Dhakal (2006) argued that one of the key aspects of NGOs in their administrative architecture is accountability which is an important tool in delivering services. Backer (1998) conducted a study of an NGO called Backward Society Education (BASE) in Nepal and analysed the issue of NGO accountability. The research focused on the role of NGOs with management and accountability perspectives (Backer, 1998:14-15). The study was successful through observations of BASE's activities, interviewing held with the CEO and other members of the NGO. Empirical evidence from the study indicated that the management capacity should be strengthened for maintaining accountability. It can be possible by inculcating the functional and formal training. As BASE was found running as an organized anarchy or ad-hocracy, the downward accountability capacity should not be ignored, which could also require considerable adjustments, for the cooperation climate based on trust and confidence such as allowing for a learning by doing process. From the study, it was indicated that research on accountability as an administrative structure for delivering services was not fully explored. There were many loopholes in the management structure which incapacitates the organisation to fully deliver its services.



According to Adeh (2004:2) the Director General of the World Trade Organisation Mike Moor proposed in 2001 a code of conduct that enabled NGOs to establish transparent and accountable structures. The idea behind his campaign was simply to encourage NGOs to deliver their mandate by exercising transparency, accountability and honesty in service delivery. Ramesh (1996:8) claimed that transparency is an indispensable aspect of accountability. The author claims that effective accountability requires a statement of goals, proper relationships and effective decision making. It also requires honesty reporting of resources use and achievements as a way of enhancing efficiency at a workplace. Clear accountability structures and access to timely and relevant information in NGOs help external stakeholders to be acquainted with activities relating to NGO operations.

Adeh (2004) and Moor (2001) added further that NGOs need to be transparent and honest in their operations to avoid political isolation from governments. For instance, in

Zimbabwe newspapers often gave NGOs bad publicity. For example it has been common to read in newspapers headlines such as “Unholy alliance: Washington finances anti-government NGOs” (The Chronicle 9/17/02). Such criticism being leveled against NGOs have sparked public mistrust. An informal interview held with an observer at an NGO exhibition conference in Harare in October 2002 showed the extravagancy and unaccountability nature of NGOs at their utmost. NGO top managers were seen parking 4x4 vehicles outside an exhibition mall which did not only expose them but raised public and funders eyebrows as to where NGO money was going. The observer lamented over the increase of NGO resources but there was little or no development going to the people on the grounds who are supposed to be the recipients of this development (Chronicle: 2002). Failure by NGO to have clear administrative structures could have led to this situation where the rich get richer and the poor get poor. NGO involvement in poverty alleviation has in fact created economic and social disparities. In some way, one can be reminded of the Marxist scholarship as to be reinvented when the capitalists or (bourgeoisies) rich land owners are oppressing the (proletariats) who are workers to get richer. Other critical thinkers such as (Adeh, 2004; Moor, 2001) that the increased resources have left more problems than solutions, public disgust and discontent. In Zimbabwe, the public is swallowing bitter saliva from NGOs in rural areas, and they have encouraged them to show accountability, honesty and transparency in their operations since their presence now seems to be a curse than a blessing (Adeh, 2004; Moor, 2001).

Ebrahim (2003) claims that the scholarship on NGO accountability has multiplied and has become sophisticated. He analysed various mechanisms of accountability along multiple dimensions. In Miltin *et al.*, (2007:1700) despite several incremental revisions “we are arguably no clearer now concerning questions of effectiveness, accountability and successful routes to scaling-up than we were when these questions were raised over a decade ago”. Ferguson (1994) and Mosse (2004:643) realised that the second type of NGO scholarship has a critical approach and unmet expectations towards NGOs. Other think tanks view NGO functionality in a diverse perspective. The development and planning practices, in which NGO activities are grouped, are regarded

as reproducing power relationships, bureaucratic control and patterns of authority between states and societies. The authors alluded further that NGO development interventions, intentionally or unintentionally are reproducing hierarchies (i.e. scientific over indigenous knowledge, developer over to be developed (Ferguson; 1994 and Mosse, 2004).

Critical scholars on development such as (Opoku-Mesah and Lewis, 2006:670) view development as representing domination to be resisted (Mosse, 2004). The authors realise that NGOs are seen not as intermediaries or representatives of the poor but as part of a 'new colonialism' which in fact is seen as a new way to effect control over communities. Some schools of thought want to argue that this is an anti-NGO judgment. In light of Miltin et al., (2007:1703) the perspectives against NGOs as vehicles of neo-liberal governmentality are growing rapidly such as criticism from (Manji and O' Coill, 2002; Townsend et al., 2002). Miltin et al., (2007) described NGO accountability together with favorite phrases of instrumental scholarship which is scaling up, or expanding projects from one place to the other. These have a connection to the re-agency or the intersection of identity, and resource transfer. Escobar (2004) is of the view that criticism leveled against NGOs is still increasing because of their close relationship with social movements that could challenge the government and proposes new ideas towards development. This alone cause NGOs to fall by the axe of vehement criticism.

2.3.2 NGO accountability and Resource allocation

More so, critical scholarship dismissed the views that NGOs as unaccountable institutions which are not able to help the poor or reduce higher levels of poverty in the marginalised and impoverished areas they operate. On one hand, critical perspectives failed to reveal NGO accountability in detail; as a result new approaches have been invented for studying NGOs (Hearn, 2007; Miltin *et al.*, 2007; Opoku-Mensah & Lewis, 2006). In view of Hearn et al., (2007) there have been inadequate research conducted to determine the work of NGOs because the positionality of researchers was too close to the development aid system and NGOs in particular (Hearn et al., 2007). Similarly, case based normative studies proved to lack much in theory and a sense of historical

backgrounds; instead they danced according to policy changes. It remains a challenge to researchers in the academic field and other research institutions to introduce new approaches which will force and spearhead NGO accountability, to improve development to poor regions (Hearn et al, 2007). The main reason being the fact that accountability helps in improving the functioning of the administrative structures of NGOs in service delivery.

2.3.3 Why should NGOs account?

Cavill and Sohail (2007) argued that the question of legitimacy and governance of global corporations and government forced several NGOs to prove their legitimacy. Wallace (2004) stated that NGOs have lost their radical origins. Such criticism from the press and international actors in development circles, condemn NGO behavior in line with abuse of funds through corruption and abuse of authority over poor people. Typical examples involve the demise of Children' Aid Direct, one of the biggest humanitarian NGO in Britain due to allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse of refugees by humanitarian workers in West Africa. NGOs should account because of the concerns centered on the quality of development practice they rendered. Cavill and Sohail, (2007:233) affirm that accountability as a tool helps an organisation to increase on its performance management. On that note, greater accountability enables NGOs to meet donor demands as part of professional governance standards particularly in line with reporting and communication systems coupled with more participatory and client-centred funding proposals. It is noteworthy that NGOs should account to funder or donors for them to receive continuous funding at the same portraying principles of good governance in their administrative structures.

2.3.4 To whom do NGOs account?

The question of accountability seems to be an easy but once again a difficult question to answer. Cavill and Sohail (2007) indicated that NGOs are typically accountable to various stakeholders both globally and local levels. Lekorwe and Mpabanga (2007) supported this view; they state that NGOs should account to funders of projects or relevant stakeholders. However, Cavill and Sohail (2007) distinguished the different forms of accountability as to which NGOs should account as follows:

- ***Upward accountability***

NGOs should account to funders, donors, boards of trustees and host governments. These stakeholders are given feedback in which they should see the progress, value of their money and evaluate to see if the NGOs are meeting their required targets.

- ***Downward accountability***

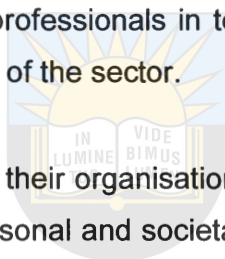
NGOs should account to partners and those to whom they provide services or on whose behalf they speak. This is significant since clients hardly had any connections with donors who finance services.

- ***Horizontal accountability***

This is done to peers and fellow professionals in terms of meetings shared values and standards to uphold reputation of the sector.

- ***Inward accountability***

This is done by NGO managers to their organisational mission and values and work procedures in accordance with personal and societal norms and expectations (Cavil and Sohail, 2007).



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2.4 CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT AND NGOS

Ulleberg (2010:20) alluded that the majority of NGOs view themselves as catalysts for change and as actors affected by external changes such as the capacity development turn in the development discourse. In some words, capacity development reorients NGO action in terms of types of activities as well as concerning the recipients of NGO efforts. She argued further that traditionally the recipients of capacity development efforts have been on NGOs which is the civil society itself through a focus on community empowerment. However, it seems the state has been the focus of capacity development by most relevant actors in development circles. To enhance sustainable development change, action and intervention need to be transformed. One author had to endorse that capacity development implies radical changes in NGO approach for instance “leading to a significantly diminished role in problem identification, design and implementation of interventions and greater emphasis on facilitation, strategic inputs and supporting processes aimed at strengthening developing country capacity”. Gordijn (2006:14) maintained that it functionally means a move away from NGO projects to

investments in developing country programmes and less reliance on expatriate technical assistance. In a similar vein Uvin, Jain and Brown (2000:1414-1417) pointed out that NGOs can reorient and expand their action by implementing their skills and knowledge in activities ranging from training, information sharing, consultancy as well as advice as a way of promoting change in other institutions whose duties are to provide support services to government.

IFUW (2007:6) claims that apart from the changing role of NGOs in capacity development, the tools for capacity development are rapidly changing from “hard” to “soft” from a focus on technical cooperation, equipment provision and constructing facilities such as schools, the focus is increasingly turning towards less tangible but perhaps more significant tools. It is imperative to note that such tools are important in improving knowledge management and skills capacity, social capital, communication and correspond to basic definitions of capacity development as given by one study conducted by UNESCO (IFUW, 2007:6). According to Horton et al., (2003:41) NGOs perceive capacity building as the process through which a society or (organisation) changes its rules, institutions and standard of behaviour, increases its level of social capital which enhances its ability to respond, adapt and exert discipline on itself. NGOs and donor agencies share the soft tools of capacity development thereby reflecting a growing awareness which facilitates resources and inputs alone which usually do not last in improving organisational performances. It is the crucial capacities which reside in management practices and systems that allow the organisation to acquire resources and use them effectively (Horton et al., 2003).

2.4.1 NGOs and Financial Sustainability

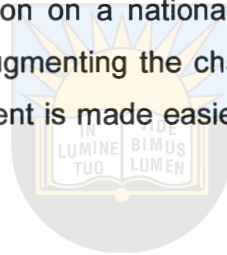
Layton (2006:2) asserted that the nature of dependability on donor funding has been regarded as one of the critical factors impacting on effective management and financial sustainability of NGOs. He endorses further that financial sustainability as a concept cannot be entirely divorced from NGOs since they are intertwined. NGOs often use it as a legal status thereby, pronouncing it a “non-profit” institution located at the mercy of donor funders whose inconsistency funding priorities remain the biggest threat and

stumbling block to NGO's financial and operation future and status (2006:2). According to Viravaidya and Lekorwe (2007) NGOs should be able to generate own income in order to be sustainable. This is a strategy to navigate away from the dependency syndrome amongst NGOs. For a long time NGOs have been depending on aid from donor institutions and multilateral and multinational corporations such as Commonwealth Secretariat, United Nations, World Bank, European Union, and regional organisations such as African Union and Southern Africa Development Community (SADC). It is crucial to note that most NGOs are failing to generate own funding as well writing clear proposals to donors. This is supported by (Kihato and Rapoo, 1999; Smith and Bornstein 2001; Overseas Development Institute, 1995) who state that civil society organisations often complain of not receiving funding from donors they were attached to. Due to the increase in NGOs in the globalized world donor funding has fast become scarce, highly competitive and demanding hence it remains a challenge to most NGOs to remain financially stable (Aldaba, 2002; Kihato and Rapoo, 1999). Critics have raised concerns that donors themselves lack finance at times since they account to boards and government ministries which in turn limit their capacity to fund NGO projects. NGOs need to establish fundraising board in their administrative structures which foresee organisation' fundraising activities which can be useful in supplementing NGO funds (Mpabanga and Viravaidya, 2007).

2.4.2 Government response to NGO growing involvement

In Sub-Saharan Africa of which Zimbabwe is no exception, NGOs are turning to public sector planning and management activities since the governments are becoming more and more open in spite of initial skepticism on the side of government and NGO camp (Ulleberg 2010:23). The *Newsday Zimbabwe* (2013) published an article in which the Resident Minister of Masvingo Province, was on record pleading with the NGOs to actively intervene and help the government in the recent blizzard, which affected the then resettled families at Chingwizi Transit camp in Mwenezi communal farm who were left homeless following the flooding of the Tokwe-Mkosi dam a government initiated project South of Masvingo Province. Recently partnerships were formed between NGOs and government which have led to the emergence of various modalities and levels of

capacity development. It should be noted that, governments have largely appreciated the vital roles of NGOs in providing services to vulnerable and marginalized communities. Governments tend to be slow in recognising the pivotal role of NGOs in various sectors of the economy such as education, food security and health. The large-scale intervention and active participation of NGOs have boosted the capacity development of governments and strengthened legitimacy of public and social policies. Chakawarika (2011) pointed out that, it is difficult to turn a blind eye on NGO involvement in the economies of countries since this has resulted in improved upward and downward accountability of the public sector. Downward accountability is improved by ensuring civil society representation on a national or local level whereas upward accountability is improved through augmenting the chances of reaching internationally set policy level. This typical involvement is made easier due to earlier experiences and contacts (Ulleberg, 2010).



Furthermore, previous experiences of NGO involvement in development sector of poor economies saw NGOs heavily collaborating with local authorities, government officials or local institutions when engaging in project activities such as project setting, updates to ministry about their activities and participation in local meetings (Clayton, 1998; and Ulleberg, 2010). Capacity building on government agents has been regarded as a side product or an implicit learning process symbolizing an informal collaboration with authorities about service delivery. Miwa (2003:247) stresses out that other countries that have formalised non-formal education provided by NGOs, have established mutual relationships with governments which implies the blurring of boundaries between educational activities of the government and those of NGOs, thus underscoring the increasingly complex and significant NGO-government relations.

Ulleberg (2010) argues further that, the concept of capacity development has promoted close cooperation between government and NGOs that is informal contact, formalisation and the outsourcing of service delivery activities to NGOs. These kinds of cooperation have contributed much future relations between the two parties. However, mutual resentment or mistrust can hinder this cooperation. For instance, the Mozambican NGO

Progresso and its Canadian counterpart CODE confirm that the staff and members of the Progresso have long formed personal relationships to the structures of the Ministry of Education and Culture and other government departments, though it also has confidence that cannot be taken for granted and must be constantly nurtured and earned (Sequeira, 2007:38). A study was conducted by USAID in (2002) to research on partnerships in education between governments and NGOs which emphasizes the complexities of NGO- government relationships. Results from the study revealed that in least collaborative cases governments react to NGOs involvement as trespassing and an affront of government legitimacy. On one hand, NGOs accuse governments of being stumbling blocks in implementing their self-appointed mandates or missions (USAID, 2002).

In countries such as Zimbabwe, Zambia and Malawi, governments positively welcome the involvement of NGOs in education provision than in capacity development activities since this is the most critical sector for human and capital development in these countries (Ulleberg, 2010). Also capacity development countries may be regarded as too political for instance a highly politicised country like Zimbabwe, which could endanger the government monopoly on other important economic sectors such as education (Chakawarika, 2011). The USAID (2003:3) supported the problem of conflict in capacity development which may emerge in event NGOs decide to undertake seriously capacity development and go beyond the expected limits. An example is found in education if NGOs embark on training teachers, developing the curriculum or learning equipment. In that regard public officials regard policy participation of NGOs as off limits. In Zambia, the participation of NGOs as policy partners is a good example of NGO involvement disregarded by many governments. Norad (2004:24) and other external agencies also support NGO extensive involvement in local affairs though it is in contrary with most government policies.

It is crucial to note that failure by NGOs to participate in policy formulation greatly affect the implementation of development projects in areas they operate as well as their administrative structures. For example in Uganda NGOs remain isolated in policy and

technical dialogue (Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs/DAC, 2003:80). Similarly, Kadzamira (2002:16) observes that in Malawi the Ministry of Education Science & Technology viewed NGO activities and roles as overlapping; instead they should stick to their historical mandates of providing aid in vulnerable communities where the government is not able to reach. The argument behind this is that NGOs should be innovators and implementers of service delivery, which act as complementary roles to government failure. In Zimbabwe as a way of curbing increased involvement of NGO activities a harsh repressive law was passed called the NGO Bill of 2002 amended in 2004 which inhibits NGOs to expand beyond their capacity unless they operate in a more partisan way which again crippled the government growth in capacity development. It is important to note that active participation of NGOs in policy formulation and implementation processes can help make improvements in the administrative architecture of NGOs since they can influence policy makers to enact realistic legislation which will see the public benefitting hence playing an advocacy role (Human Right Forum, 2013).

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2.4.3 Democratic regimes & NGO involvement

In Sub-Saharan Africa, the legitimacy of an NGO largely depends on the nature of the government in power, since for a record most governments in Africa are under a one party state with characteristics of authoritarian nature. The type of regime and political culture as Ulleberg (2010:25) asserts, heavily influence the relationships between NGOs and ruling governments. In Zimbabwe, Mavhinga a Senior Researcher for Zimbabwe and Southern Africa, Africa Division at Human Rights Watch, was quoted in *Newsday Zimbabwe in May (2014)* saying *"the civil society including NGOs is a highly misunderstood phenomenon further complicated by Zimbabwe's polarised environment"*. The author argued that the ZANU PF government has entrenched their often wrong perceptions frequently reflected in state media and this confusion of NGOs has hit the streets showing the sour relations between the government and NGOs which have continuously led to harassing of NGO agents by the state. This harassment of NGOs portrays the nature of the ruling government which has a greater impact towards NGO operations, capacity building and development towards rural communities in

Zimbabwe. Political interferences greatly hampered the administrative structures and capacity of NGOs to deliver services in vulnerable communities. For instance, the board of directors may be intimidated or forced to adopt some government policies which may be inconsistent with the way they intend to render development. Their decision making body can be forced to make decisions which are not popular with the beneficiaries or stakeholders (Ulleberg, 2010).

Following government interferences in NGO work, a research was conducted by UNESCO (2001) to determine whether democratic regimes strongly correlate in a transparent manner towards NGOs or not. The study reveals that in Nepal NGOs have been operational dating back to the 1950s when the feudal regime was officially banned, at the same time the role and significance of civil societies declined. However, beyond that dark horizon of political turmoil towards NGOs in the 1990s a new space for civil society was established parallel to the democratisation and liberalisation of that country (UNESCO, 2001:16). The majority of third world countries still possess that gruesome hostility towards NGOs with a few opening up over the recent years. In the recent past, China and Indonesia have expressed a positive attitude towards NGO involvement in their countries. In the Middle East and Asian countries governments have been trying to integrate NGOs as potential clients by creating an organisation called the GONGOs (governmental NGOs). In some of these countries, the NGOs themselves have tried to work in contrary with independent development oriented NGOs (Martinussen, & Pedersen, 1999:167).

2.4.4 Impact of capacity development on NGOs in Zimbabwe

Majority of scholars believe that capacity development of NGOs in Zimbabwe has not been successful due to various conflicting reasons. Berg (2003:3) was on record saying *“virtually all the major instruments devised by donors over the past 20years to strengthen state capacity have turned out to be ineffective, and few remedies have been done to solve the crisis”*. Research suggested that NGOs engaging in capacity development proved to be a failure despite other external factors. Clayton (2000:15) is of the view that there is currently little evidence to measure the successes or failures of NGOs to act as catalysts in improving public sector management through engaging the

state and other relevant stakeholders in the implementation of service delivery. However, USAID (2002:71) disputed the claims stating that NGOs despite them being significant in promoting service delivery in the third world countries, they fail to effectively improve other sectors of the economy for instance in Zimbabwe poverty eradication proved to be a stumbling block due to weak accountability structures.

2.4 GOVERNANCE AND MANAGEMENT OF NGOs

According to Lekorwe and Mpabanga (2007:6) good governance is one of the key components underpinning the organisational structures of NGOs. They argued that proper management of an NGO's resources should be done in a transparent, accountable, equitable and responsive manner to cater for the needs of the people. The main aim of an NGO is to sustain in the long-term so good governance is very critical to its existence. It has been noted that, several NGOs operating in third world countries of which Zimbabwe is no exception suffer from institutional capacity and inadequate resource base to spearhead their operations. There is increased, mismanagement of donor funds which has crippled development projects of NGOs and this negatively impacted to poor rural communities. It remains a challenge to NGOs to improve on their administrative architecture since proper management of resources and good governance help promote their sustainability and effective service delivery in regions they operate.

Lewis (2005) maintained that accountability is the key factor in good governance; however the unanswered question which has haunted researchers for so long is to whom do NGOs account? Critically analysing the question it seems simple to answer since one may think the obvious answer is for NGOs to account to the funders of resources. However, the most critical issue is that several NGOs lack clear the accountability structures in the organisational organograms which make it more difficult to exercise transparency and accountability. Usually NGO staff employees are not elected but appointed so it remains an uphill task to ordinary people or fellow employees who have no mechanisms to bring them to account for their actions. This is

not the fact with governments who have clear accountability structures defined by constitutions so the elected public officials are held accountable, most usually escape this through violence and political intimidation. NGOs the world over, lack accountability structures as a result there is no clear monitoring and evaluation of staff and how they use funds (Lekorwe and Mpabanga, 2007).

Strong criticism against accountability of NGOs has been an overwhelming problem recently. Wood (1997) cited concerns about a franchise state in Bangladesh in which key services were increasingly being delegated to local NGOs with unclear guidelines on how to account to the public. Kaldor (2003) stated that NGOs impose their own agendas, becoming self-interested actors at the expense of the people they seem to support on paper. Kaldor in Lewis and Kanji (2009:34) further suggested that other NGOs seem to have become the end-points of domesticated social movements that have lost their political edge. Poor accountability in NGOs emanates from weak administrative structure which does not provide the platform for NGO staff to account for their actions.

Moreso, to improve good governance, capacity building and management of operations NGOs should adopt several measures such as stating their vision, mission, values and objectives clearly and ensuring closer monitoring and evaluation administrative structures. On that note, NGO staff should undergo human resource development and training which will enable them to exercise sound financial management, proper budgeting and accountability systems. However, for such systems to be effectively implemented there is a greater need for staff commitment and leadership within the NGO administrative structures. Since NGOs are at the helm of delivering public services in poor countries the implementation of such measures could be time consuming and costly since NGO work is quite demanding to deliver quality services with the available scarce resources (Lekorwe, and Mpabanga, 2007). The civil society should evade the popular belief or concept of the governments that, they are a Western moralising tool and a product of a specific, Western culture imposed on the rest of the world. Having

clearer and strong monitoring of development projects will increase NGO legitimacy in areas they operate (Kaldor, 2003: 9; Islamoglu, 2002).

2.5.1 Political interference and NGOs

In countries like Zimbabwe where in the past years NGOs have been given sole responsibility of delivering services and development to poor communities, the burden has been so much for them due to limited time constraints. Schiavo-Campo (2001) is of the view that NGOs suffer from insufficient time, full involvement with communities and technical expertise to effectively manage all their funded projects. At some point, for instance in Zimbabwe political interference from the government inhibit proper implementation of NGO projects in rural communities since the government views donor aid as Western driven and aligned with opposition parties to oust the present government. This on its own has become a drawback to NGO administrative capacity deliver services in rural communities they operate (Schiavo-Campo, 2001; Chakawarika, 2011).

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In view of Lewis (2005:13) the management of various NGOs is not an explicit priority rather NGOs are often pre-occupied with a focus on short term details rather than on longer term horizons and strategy. The problems faced by NGOs rest within their administrative structures which is inability to decentralise decision making. It is rare to find true collaboration or partnership with other agencies. The view that individual agendas are often imposed on the overall NGO organisational remit, have led to insecure funding climate which incapacitates proper planning and organisation. It has also ultimately produced a tendency for NGOs to stick to a grant mentality instead of expanding in size in attempt to mobilize resources on a wider scale. These poor managerial competencies within the NGO frameworks pose a threat to sounder financial accountability and advocate for the wholesale importation of private sector quick fix managerial techniques. It is imperative to note that, NGO studies helped in the administrative architecture, management and development of NGO in enhancing service delivery to poor communities (Lewis, 2005).

2.5.2 NGOs and human rights

Moreover, NGOs globally are playing a critical role in good governance through the promotion of equality and human rights, education and training, legal services, employment generation schemes and social, economic and political empowerment. In most third world countries such as Zimbabwe, Zambia and Mozambique NGOs continue to shine in these developing societies since they assist citizens to participate in local affairs as well as influencing public policies and proper management and governance mechanisms of various governments (Lekorwe, 1999). Civil societies are instrumental in decision making from both central and local government levels in most countries. By definition civil societies refer to the realm of organised social life that is voluntary, self-generating, self-supporting, and autonomous from the state and largely bound by a legal framework or a set of shared rules (Diamond, 1994 in Lekorwe, 1999:87). According to Chakawarika (2011:5) non-governmental organisations have been playing a critical role in pushing for protection of human rights at the international level. Their existence is proving to be a necessity than a luxury in societies throughout the modern world. In Zimbabwe and other third world countries NGOs emerged to fill market gaps left by the government (Gaist:2009 in Chakawarika, 2011). The inefficiencies of the state led to the sprung of NGOs in the world in an effort to redress market inadequacies and social and economic shortages. The increase of NGOs is one of the remarkable features of modern day international politics.

2.5 MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF NGOs

For every organisation to be successful there should be monitoring and evaluation structures to measure efficiency and effectiveness. According to Casley and Kumar (1987:2) in INTRAC evaluation is a periodic assessment of the relevance, performance, efficiency and impact of the project in the context of its stated objectives. It usually involves comparisons requiring information from outside the project in time area of population. On one hand, UNICEF (2013) referred to monitoring as a periodic oversight of the implementation of an activity which seeks to establish the extent to which input deliveries, work schedules, other required actions and deficiencies detected. In NGOs' administrative architecture monitoring is useful for the systematic checking on a

condition or set of conditions such as following the situation of women and children. NGOs in Zimbabwe poorly monitor development projects in rural areas. Most of the projects have since lost their significance due to mismanagement and ignorance from project coordinators (Chakawarika, 2011).

2.6.1 INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL AUDITING

NGOs also engage internal and external auditing as part of evaluation techniques in their administrative architecture for service provision. Terry (2012) defines an audit as an independent examination of records procedures and activities of an organisation, resulting in a report on the findings. There are two types of auditing done in NGOs these are internal and external audits. Internal auditing is done within an NGO for the benefit of the people inside the organisation for instance board of trustees or management. External auditing is mainly conducted for the benefit of those outside the organisation such as stakeholders and donor agencies. Lewis (2012) ascertains that the audit should reflect a positive experience though some members within an organisation fear it. Some think tanks suggested that the audit should be viewed as an opportunity to receive feedback on the advantages and weakness in systems. The auditor should suggest proper ways of improving the administrative systems of an NGO such as accounting systems and procedures.

In NGOs an internal audit consists of a structured review of systems and procedures as stipulated by the board and managers. This is meant to maintain effective and efficient practices. Usually internal auditing is done to increase internal capacity building and improve other administrative systems within an NGO. The report of the internal auditor should reflect and suggest recommendations to spearhead action wherever needed. It is sometimes conducted by a responsible authority with auditing skills or an outsider hired by an NGO to carry out the internal audit. A range of checks are included in an internal audit as part of the independent review and these are i) financial accounting systems and procedures ii) management accounting systems and procedures iii) internal control mechanisms (Terry, 2012).

2.6.2 Internal Auditing

Terry (2012) alluded further that the internal auditor analyses the sufficiency of the design of the systems and procedures and checks to see if they have been properly implemented. The governing board of an NGO expects the internal auditor to present the report with findings so that they can take corrective decision which may include introducing training and development of staff members among others. The internal auditor in making the report takes into consideration the three E's which are Economy- paying no more than necessary for the resources needed, Efficiency- getting the greatest benefit with the fewest resources, and Effectiveness- how successful we are at meeting objectives or 'doing the right thing'. These three E's are necessary in improving the administrative architecture of NGOs in poverty alleviation.

2.6.3 External Auditing

Lewis (2012) defined external auditing (EA) as an independent examination of the financial statements prepared by an organisation. In most NGOs and other organisations EA is carried out for statutory purposes (in accordance of the law). The main aim of EA is to verify that the annual accounts provide a true and fair picture of the organisation's finances; and that the use of funds is in accordance with the aims and objects as outlined in the constitution of the organisation. Critics tend to argue that an external audit is not geared towards detecting fraud though external auditors can unintentionally stumble upon it. Auditors in most organisations are regarded as 'watchdogs not bloodhounds'. It should be noted that external audits can be conducted as either part of the annual review of accounts or as a special review by a donor agency. Usually EA is conducted by a firm of accountants with recognised professional qualifications. In many organisations, Auditors are appointed by the Board of Trustees (or Annual General Meeting) or by a donor for a special audit. The Auditors should be independent of the organisation that employs them to avoid bias or misrepresentation of auditing reports.

2.6.4 Why are audits conducted in NGOs?

Various NGOs around the world conduct auditing since it helps them to demonstrate their commitment to transparency and accountability and bring credibility to the NGO. On that note, auditing act as a legal requirement in most countries to have the financial statements reviewed by an independent auditor once a year (Terry, 2012).

2.7 CONTROL SYSTEMS IN NGOs

For every organisation to succeed in its operations, it is supposed to have strong internal controls in its administrative systems which guard against inefficiencies, corruption amongst other factors. Broadly speaking internal controls can be referred to as policies, processes, and procedures which are implemented by people to ensure that all internal processes, designed to modify risk, work the way the organisation want them to in order to achieve goals and objectives. According to the White Paper on Internal Control in Chinese Listed Companies (2010) every organisation NGOs included have many internal controls such as authority, account reconciliations, duties, authority delegations, restricted physical access, budgets, plans etc. Internal controls in NGOs involve the control environment. By definition a control environment of an organisation refers to an overall attitude and awareness of the importance of control done by management and workers. There are various factors influencing the control environment of NGOs there are:

- ✓ Management philosophy and operating style
- ✓ Administrative architecture of an organisation
- ✓ Human resources practises and policies
- ✓ Fundraising strategies

2.7.1 Management philosophy and operating style

In NGOs management philosophy and operating style involve the establishment, maintaining and monitoring of an organisation's internal controls and management responsibility. If not properly checked the management philosophy and operational techniques of NGOs can compromise the quality of internal controls (Zhu, 2009). Below are indicators of good management philosophy needed in NGOs:

- ❖ Excellent managerial and risk taking approach in making business decisions.
- ❖ Pure management attitude and clear accountability i.e. financial reporting.
- ❖ Management attitude towards information dispensation and accounting functions and personnel (Zhu, 2009).

In view of (Ozaki, Matida, Li, 2008; Japan Association of Corporate Directors, 2009) controls vary and encompasses long-term arrangement for overall supervision of NGO staff, review of financial regulations, arrangements and safeguarding of assets. It is argued that, management controls involve instructions from superiors, updating reviews and checks through internal auditing, financial regulations, and budgetary control systems, financial monitoring, monitoring of income and expenditure. Meanwhile, some schools of thought have undertaken to assess whether some control mechanisms by NGOs do affect profits or cause losses. It is noteworthy that for NGOs to survive in the long term, they should implement some control mechanisms such as financial controls, non-financial controls, managerial oversight and behaviour.

In most organisations the establishment of internal controls is tantamount to ensure clear reliability of the accounting systems and effective administrative structures of any institution. Staff members in various organisations hate internal control systems due to the fact that they expose management and staff incompetence. Ngwenya (2013:1) claims that NGOs in Zimbabwe execute internal control measures in their work. Internal controls are significant since they ensure authenticity on financial reporting and accountability. This helps to assure stakeholders that no harm will affect their investments hence a reliable financial reporting portray characteristics of good governance in NGOs.

On one hand, Ngwenya (2013) realised that some NGOs in Zimbabwe do not have adequate internal control systems which make their administrative architecture weaker. There have been multiple loopholes and pressures in the internal control systems displayed by management. This greatly affected the credibility of internal controls and the internal evaluation systems. Some staff members were found unaccountable since they fail to report to stakeholders and funders and that led to sour relations between the

two. In most NGOs internal control and financial reporting are tools used to measure reliability and effectiveness of an organisation through rendering irrefutable doubt to organisations sustenance since assets and integrity of the institution are highly protected.

2.7.2 Physical Controls

In some NGOs physical controls are implemented as measures to ensure the safety of assets. This relates to a partial list relating to protection of cash which shows the diversity of opinions, a safe requirement to lock cash in safe, the restriction of access to a safe and its contents. NGO managers implement physical controls as part of their responsibility for protecting cash and recording of cash disbursements and receipts. All these can be called controls depending on the circumstance or event in which an institution wish to implement (Yuan Min, 2008).

In organisations such as NGOs and other multi-national corporations physical controls can be discussed among other activities as:

- ✓ One exit or entrance to the premises, where a security guard can be placed.
- ✓ Storerooms having locking facilities with adequate control over keys, alarm facilities, and restrict entry to high value items.
- ✓ High volume cash should be kept to a minimum by regularly banking (Yuan Min, 2008).

2.8. NGOs, HUMAN RESOURCE POLICIES AND WORK PROCEDURES

Schartmann (2010) argues that in any organisation the effective implementation of quality of control largely depends on the quality of human resource staff operating the system. For NGOs in developing and developed countries to enjoy good human resource outputs they should adopt various personnel policies ranging from recruitment, inducting, training and promotions. They should further include monitoring and evaluation, hiring, compensation and taking remedial action. In hiring labour for

instance, NGOs need to search for standards whereby they hire qualified personnel with extensive working experience and knowledge and should show ethical standards for a particular job. This is significant since most NGOs in Zimbabwe have been on record for hiring unqualified staff which contributes to the fall of development projects and mismanagement of NGO institutions.

NGOs are required to run background checks on previous employee positions before hiring since organisations differed in principle and in operation. The Green Paper Audit Policy Lesson from Crisis (2010) and the White Paper on Internal Control in Chinese Listed Companies (2010) assert that NGOs need to exercise post-employment controls which involve internal and external auditing. Control in the words of The Institute of Internal Auditors is “any action taken by management board and other parties to enhance risk management and increase the chances of achieving the established objectives”. It is noteworthy that control is one of the key tools in enhancing the effective administrative architecture of NGOs in poverty alleviation.

2.8.1 Authorisation and approval

Guoping and Dengmei (2011) stated that in every NGO it is the responsibility of authorities to safeguard the assets of the organisation, which requires that transactions are entered into only once they have been authorised by the appropriate individual, and that each transaction conforms to the terms of its authority. Messier, Glover & Prawitt (2008) argued that authority ensures that approval of transactions is conducted by responsible officials within regulatory limits that are all financial transactions should require the authorisation or approval of an appropriate responsible person. Also there should be an authorisation limit to how much spending each responsible person can approve. For example, management or administration can be allowed to release cheques valued up to R 70 000 or \$ 7000 without seeking permission from the board and any amount over that figure a board member has to counter-sign the cheque(s). This is an effective control measure in NGOs to avoid and wasteful expenditure hence the organisation can achieve its objectives by using finances responsibly.

2.8.2 Supervision

In various NGOs, supervision remains one of the greatest aspects in achieving effective control systems for effective administration. NGO employees should be properly supervised on daily basis. This is in most organisations the mandate for management which they perform as means for routine check-up compliance in accordance with relevant work procedures (Sun, Stewart, and Pollard, 2009:229) These procedures entails what, how, why and where and when any set of actions is going to be undertaken (Yuan Min, 2008).

The procedures implemented by NGOs include monitoring which stipulates rules and regulations which are in fact designed as control procedures ensure that every employee carried out delegated duties as required. The produces include:

- Analysis of errors detected by the ICS and taking of remedial action to further similar errors from occurring.
 - putting into consideration the changes to the ICS in situations where weaknesses are have become apparent as a result of errors.
 - Conducting surprise counts of assets and compare with the corresponding records.
- As the NGO sector has expanded in terms of funding and functions, there has been a growing concern with the issues of professionalization (Organisational development and capacity building) and accountability (financial probity and transparency) (Yuan Min, 2008).

2.8.3 Monitoring controls

Zhu (2009) pointed out that NGOs indulging in poverty alleviation should increase their monitoring controls since this helps improve the administrative architecture. Monitoring controls are important for realising that duties of an organisation are conducted in an efficient and effective manner. Monitoring controls make sure that orders are given in line with the chain of command, duties executed to achieve organisational objectives. NGOs are required to observe principles of good control enquiries in three aspects underlying any transaction and these are:

Monitoring guidance builds on the two following fundamental principles:

- On-going and/or separate evaluations enable management to determine whether the other components of internal control continue to function over time, and
- Internal control deficiencies are identified and communicated in a timely manner to those parties responsible for taking corrective action and to management and the board as appropriate. The monitoring guidance further suggests that these principles are best achieved through monitoring that is based on three broad elements:
 - Establishing a foundation for monitoring, including (a) a proper administrative hierarchy at the top; (b) an effective organisational structure that assigns monitoring roles to people with appropriate capabilities, objectivity and authority; and (c) a starting point or “baseline” of known effective internal control from which on-going monitoring and separate evaluations can be implemented;
 - Designing and executing monitoring procedures focused on persuasive information about the operation of key controls that address meaningful risks to organisational objectives; and *together in Excellence*
 - Assessing and reporting results, which include evaluating the severity of any identified deficiencies and reporting the monitoring results to the appropriate personnel (Zhu, 2009).

2.9 STRATEGIC PLANNING IN NGOs

Strategic planning forms the basis of the administrative architecture of NGOs. Broadly speaking strategic planning refers to a disciplined effort to produce decisions and actions that guide and shape what the organisation is and what it does. A strategic plan is a tool used to plan the future work of an organisation in a realistic and achievable manner (Progressio.org, 2014). In view of Shapiro (2014) the plan need to map out the organisation's work for a minimum of three to five years. In that sense the strategic plan organises the work into different levels so that it is clear how all the work is linked and what will be done to achieve the mission of the organisation. The Progressio.org, (2014) stresses out further that strategic planning and long range planning occur in several

years, with strategic planning helping the organisation to focus its attention on the crucial issues and challenges. In that capacity therefore, strategic planning should be responsive to the environment it seeks to address. Notably donor agencies are demanding strategic plans before they may fund an organisation. Shapiro (2014) concludes by stating that a strategic plan must enable the NGO Board and management to acquire a better understanding of the critical issues and choices that they are facing in the given period, often three to five years. This encompasses goals, critical success factors, timing of achievements, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.

The Progressio.org (2014) declared that a strategic plan is a disciplined process for making key decisions and agreeing on actions that will shape and guide what an organisation is, what it does, and why it does it. In most NGOs planning remains an important aspect of strategic thinking and management. It is arguable that through strategic planning a team can achieve the following:

- Brainstorm about the focus and direction of the organisation's work.
- Strengthen team approaches by defining together a clear focus and direction
- Develop plans and network with other organisations, stakeholders, beneficiaries and other organisations.
- Develop a framework for monitoring progress and learn from experience and implement important adjustments as a way of improving efficiency in an organisation.
- Lastly utilize human and financial resources available through sound decision making.

Various organisations implement strategic planning differently and NGOs in Zimbabwe that have been long in operation determine their priorities in accordance with their available financial resources. Other smaller and newer financially secure organisations tend to implement annual team work plan that is more realistic and effective (Progression, 2014).

2.9.1 Importance of a strategic plan in NGOs

According to Progressio.org (2014) a strategic plan in NGOs will:

- Ensure that the analysis and proposals are accessible to the team and others with whom the organisation works.
- Serve as a basis from which to develop an annual team work plan and annual budget and against which to measure progress.
- Form the basis for decisions on allocation of resources (financial and human) strategic planning will help in the continuity by providing new staff with a reference point and all staff with a reminder when looking at successes and challenges.

Patel (2005:5) claims that effective strategic planning enables NGOs to sustain and contribute positively towards the environment. In some sections of NGOs great efforts have been achieved leaving strategic planning at the risk of collapsing. Some NGOs seem to be failing to respond to the trends or challenges both in the micro and macro environment. In times of economic depressions for instance in Zimbabwe some NGOs fail to cope which result in their downfall in the development sector. Lawson (2000:19) observed that local NGOs tend to be weak in terms of strategic management since they fail to plan effectively especially financially which contribute to ineffective poverty alleviation strategies.

According to Aviles (2012:24) there are various steps in formulating a strategic plan in NGO and these are:

STEP 1. Identify the key issues and questions

In formulating a strategic plan, NGOs managers are given an opportunity to step back and look into the bigger picture of their organisation. Some of the questions which can be posed are: do we want to and are we ready to grow? If so, how much and what type of growth is manageable? Or it may be a situation that in the implementation of youth projects funders may plan to withdraw funding or contributions. In such a scenario, NGOs should refocus and re-strategise their operations on projects that are imperative to their mission

STEP 2. Give your NGO a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats)

NGOs need to revisit and reassess their daily operations and assess their strengths, weaknesses opportunities and threats. This is referred to as SWOT analysis. For NGOs to have an efficient and effective SWOT board members, staff and key volunteers need to conduct this analysis. These people are well acquainted with the organisation's environment. In event that resources are available NGOs managers are required to get external input from project funders, organisational partners and volunteers. They can do this by using surveys, interviews, community meetings and focus groups.

In this regard a SWOT analysis helps in identifying key issues facing an organisation, and make wise decisions on how to address them. SWOT analysis also enables NGO staff aspiring for growth and expansion to realise that the internal systems does not have the capacity to grow so is the staff members.

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STEP 3. Hold a meeting to discuss the findings of the SWOT analysis and make decisions about priorities, goals and objectives.

Once NGO managers have completed SWOT, they should be prepared to set relevant and realistic goals for the organisation. The goals should be based on the SWOT analysis for instance public views need to be taken into consideration and for strengthening the internal systems –through improving management structures and providing more training for staff and their project implementation.

STEP 4. Prepare a final strategic plan.

After conducting an analysis NGO managers need to write down the results and prioritise in a final document that serves as the NGO strategic plan. It does not have to be elaborate or lengthy. Most NGOs prepare simple one- or two-page documents that present the NGO's values, vision, mission and main goals. Others are more thorough and include the findings of the SWOT along with detailed objectives for each goal.

STEP 5. Share the plan with your stakeholders

Prior to conducting SWOT and obtaining results, the NGO strategic managers should then despatch some copies to funders and partners. The managers can also conduct mass meetings with relevant communities to present the plan to the constituency. NGO managers need to further make special efforts to give project participants who provided input for the plan the opportunity to comment and make suggestions. Encouraging public participation often leads to the success and acceptance of the strategic plan. NGOs can as well publish all useful information on the strategic plan on their organisation's website or send newsletters with that plan to all relevant stakeholders.

STEP 6. Carry out and monitor the plan.

An NGO's board, staff and key volunteers all need to work together to make sure the final plan gets implemented. The executive director sees to it that all of the NGO's projects and activities are aligned with the plan and that staff understand its goals and organize the work around it. The board of directors also needs to align its priorities with the plan. If the plan calls for a project that needs new resources and expertise, then the board might need to set objectives for raising additional funds and recruiting new board members with the needed expertise. At a minimum, the board should formally review the plan once a year to assess progress (Aviles, 2012:24).

2.10 THREE LEVELS OF STRATEGY IN NGOS

According to Robson et al, (1997:7-10) they are three main levels of strategy use in most organisations including NGOs and these are:

2.10.1 Corporate strategy

According to Campell, Stonehouse and Houston (2002:20) corporate strategy gives a direction on which the entire organisation and its businesses organisations should engage in. At this level only the global objectives, and the general orientation in order to achieve them, are defined. These are likely to be growth, stability or retrenchment. In most organisations, a corporate strategy is often expressed as the answer to the question 'what business (es) are we in?' it is usually the duty of top management to decide on the levels of strategies. The executive management determines an organisation's comparative advantage and focus on achieving sustainable competitive

advantage and affects the entire organisation on a long term basis (Campbell et al., 2002).

2.10.2 Business strategy

It focuses on the single Strategic Business Unit and how it is managing its industry environment. If properly done it can contribute to the corporate business strategy. Silbiger (1999:301) explains that a business strategy should have an identifiable and definable product range, market segment and competitor set. Business strategies are either cost leadership or differentiation of products. They may comprise of an entire market or be focused upon a particular segment of it. In summary, business strategy deals with how the organisation will compete.

2.10.3 Functional strategy

Silbiger (1999:302) claimed that for each business unit there should be a set of functional strategies. The main aim of these strategies is to ensure that the available resources are utilised for the benefit of a business strategy. Also, the operational methods and value adding activities that management chooses for its business should enable the business to realise profits in the long term. Functional strategy therefore; describes the way in which an organisation operates.

Smillie and Hailey (2001:92) stated that in NGOs three corresponding levels of strategy have been identified and these range from an overall strategy for the NGO divisional strategy (i.e. for the rural development or health program). However, the above levels may not be different practically, given the nature of small organisations such as several local NGOs. It is crucial to note that the three levels of strategy cannot be divorced from one another hence they are integrated, interrelated and interdependent. Fowler, (1997:10) asserted that it is significant for the three levels to work in a cooperative manner since decentralization of tasks is crucial towards developing a strategic plan or working towards a strategic direction.

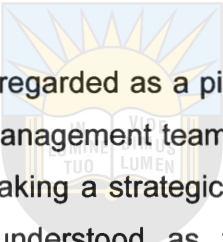
2.10.4 Significance of strategic planning in NGOs

Strategic planning helps an NGO to remain relevant and responsive to the needs of its community. It brings focus and common purpose to its leaders. NGOs should carry out strategic planning every three to five years. Some may find at the end of three years that the plans of the organisation are not being achieved, the environment is stable, and they just need to keep doing what they have been doing. Others might find that things have changed. Maybe the NGO has new staff and board members, who do not share a common vision, or perhaps other NGOs are doing similar work and competition for funding is greater. In this case, it would be helpful for the NGO to go through the in-depth planning process again and develop a new plan. Sometimes, NGOs face major threats or unexpected opportunities such as the loss of a grant or a change in the political environment before they reach their three-year goals. When that happens, an NGO may need to change course quickly. Once an NGO has its strategic plan, it will need to do project planning (Lewis, 2012).

2.10.5 Leadership accountability

In NGO context leadership refers to strategic management that is to be carried out by the members of the governing body and the chief executive officer. Writers maintain that leadership describes a process of establishing direction and influencing others to follow that direction. It is the mandate of the governing bodies to strategise on the direction organisations should take, and the overall management and programme priorities. It should be noted that good leadership tends to develop a clear vision and mission for an organisation, and conducts planning that determines the goals needed to achieve the vision and mission. Often the leadership style adopted, for example, autocratic, democratic, and participatory or *liassez faire* depends on the situation that prevails and the life cycle of the NGO. In most organisations effective leadership requires vision, commitment and individuals who start NGOs require both. For an NGO to sustain in the long term, it is important that institutional power and leadership are decentralised such as separation of powers to avoid autocracy (Centre for African Family Studies, 2001; Odiome, 1969; Greenberg and Baron, 1997).

The Centre for African Family Studies (2001) explained that accountability is fast a common phenomenon receiving high attention. NGOs are becoming transparent and accountable to beneficiaries as well as funding agencies, contrary to the belief of many scholars who view NGOs as unaccountable institutions. On one hand, donor agencies are increasingly mounting pressure on NGOs to be more accountable for their actions. NGOs are now required to formulate clear governing policies, benchmarks and most importantly standards for services rendered to beneficiaries. It is worth noting that, increasing accountability by NGOs help a lot in improving their administrative structures at the same time increasing legitimacy in their conduct of work.



In most NGOs accountability is being regarded as a pillar in defining the administrative architecture of NGOs. The strategic management team in NGOs treat accountability as one of the important aspects when making a strategic plan. In the context of strategic planning accountability should be understood as the final responsibility for the successes or failures of an organisation. This final accountability rests with the governing body, which delegates this function to the chief executive officer (Centre for African Family Studies, 2001). Accountability can also be regarded as the relationship which comes into existence when a task is delegated by one party to another. The reporting may be implicit or explicit (The World Bank, 2000). For an NGO, to be seen as accountable it should be able to clearly demonstrate regularly that it uses resources wisely and that it does not take advantage of its special privileges to pursue activities contrary to its non-profit status. Wyatt (2004) observed that an accountable NGO is transparent, readily opening its accounts and records to public scrutiny by funders, beneficiaries and other stakeholders.

In as far as the above scholars supported NGOs as accounting institutions; Zadek (2003) tends to differ when he maintained that NGOs, in contrast to elected governments and owned businesses, lack an adequate, clearly defined basis on which they can be held to account. He argues further that the critical challenges facing NGOs holds Michael Edwards, as quoted in Zadek (2003), indicated that they can put into practice the accountability principles that they campaign for in others. A minority of

NGOs are obliged or voluntarily chosen to publish systematic, externally audited accounts of their performance. Their senior management and board members are seldom challenged by supporters and rarely stand for election or other form of external scrutiny except for when financial fraud has been uncovered. Zadek (2003) added further that NGOs accountability to beneficiaries on the one hand tends to be informal and to funders, on the other, too bureaucratic, yet personalised and archaic. On a different note, resources to NGOs are awarded, more often than not, on the basis of personal relationships rather than on the past and future performance of NGOs (Zadek, 2003).

2.10.6 Limitations of strategic management

Smillie and Hailey (2001:10) maintained that in NGOs strategic planning is not actually an answer to their challenges though majority of writers believed so. In a study carried out by these authors in South Asian NGOs, results showed that five out of nine NGOs operated for almost ten years in the absence of a formalised strategic planning process. Two of the organisations survived for more than twenty years without any strategic plan. From the study, the authors' concluded that failure by these NGOs to have strategic plans in place does not necessarily mean they are not important. However, it implies that the volatile financial and political environments in which many Southern NGOs work can quickly render formal strategies obsolete. After having established core values, highly effective leadership and formal and informal systems for adapting to change may be more important than strategic plans alone (Smillie and Hailey, 2010).

Moreover, NGOs that survived in the past three decades conducted their business with a passion and commitment to a set of values that exclude strategic plans (Brok, 2001:21). Meanwhile, as Fowler (1997:47-49) observed the merits of strategic management in NGOs should not be exaggerated. His argument stemmed from the fact that, for NGOs to enjoy resounding successes, they should embark on a paradigm shift from strategic planning to strategic management. He claims further that, if NGO managers concentrate much on strategic planning as a substitute for managers with strategic perspectives, the NGO may lose its mark or fail to achieve organisation' goals and objectives.

2.10.7 The role of donor agencies in strategic planning

According to Vivian (1994:167), in strategic planning donor agencies play a critical role in providing enough resources to NGOs since most local NGOs depend on donor funding for their sustainability. The majority of NGOs are not in a position to self-finance their own strategic planning processes hence donors intervene to fund them to achieve their goals and objectives. Also donor agencies often insert their agenda into an organisation's strategic planning process through directing NGOs to focus on areas they intend to fund. These at times create tensions between NGOs and funders often since they often differ in principle and implementation of programmes.

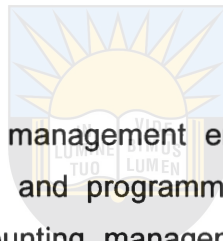
For instance, in a local NGO in Tanzania, Cameron (2001:70) observed that donor involvement in that NGO led to the wrong implementation of programmes which were not compatible with the needs of the community. In other words the project implemented was to serve donor interests instead of the relevant community. This eventually contributed to the demise of that local NGO. He further noticed that donor agencies have a habit of imposing their overambitious goals on NGOs which often works against the strategic plans of NGOs. As if it not enough Harding (1994:34-35) illustrated that donor agencies are not capable to fund NGO's strategic plans in the long-term ie they do not fund administration costs but projects only. Scholars tend to believe this had reduced the capacity of local NGOs in implementing strategic plans.

2.11 FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT OF NGOs

NGOs in Zimbabwe give financial management a low priority, which is usually coupled with poor financial planning and ineffective monitoring systems. NGOs today operate in a highly globalised and ever-changing environment which requires strategic mechanisms to survive. NGO managers are supposed to devise efficient models which enable the strategic use of available financial tools (Jacobs, 2012).

Jacobs (2012:1) ascertained that good financial management in NGOs is important since:

- ✓ It helps managers to establish effective and efficient systems to facilitate the use of scarce resources to achieve organisational objectives and stakeholder fulfilment.
- ✓ NGO managers become more accountable to donor agencies and relevant stakeholders.
- ✓ NGOs obtain confidence and respect of funding agencies, stakeholders and beneficiaries.
- ✓ It enables NGOs to become competitive in search for scarce resources.
- ✓ NGO are able to improve on their long term financial sustainability (Jacobs, 2012).



Alin (2006) illustrated that financial management encompasses all or part of the processes and functions of planning and programming such as financial planning, budgeting, budget execution and accounting, management control, financial monitoring audit and evaluation. These principles are efficient tools in practising good principles of financial management in NGOs of Zimbabwe and worldwide.

2.11.1 FOUR BUILDING BLOCKS OF GOOD FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

According to Jacobs (2014) and Lewis (2012:11) every organisation needs money to execute proper management styles for the development of the organisation. Both authors declared that NGOs in Zimbabwe should exercise good financial management which involves four building blocks as follows:

- Record keeping
- Internal control
- Budgeting internal control
- Financial reporting

2.11. 2 Record keeping

The keeping of records in NGOs involves accounting of basic records that describe the earnings and spending. This consists of the contracts, letters, receipts and invoices

which were used. All these basic records indicate each and every transaction which has taken place. They are regarded as cornerstones of good accountability in financial management. NGO financial managers need to make sure that these documents are kept in a safe place possibly in cashbooks.

2.11.3 Internal control

This type of control is one of the most significant aspects in achieving financial accountability in NGOs. Control mechanisms are often adopted by various NGOs, and the most important control strategies implemented involve:

- Keeping cash in a safe place (ideally in a bank account).
- Making sure that all expenditure is properly authorised.
- Following the budget.
- Monitoring how much money has been spent on what every month.
- Employing qualified finance staff.
- Having an audit every year.
- Carrying out a 'bank reconciliation' every month - which means checking that the amount of cash you have in the bank is the same as the amount that your cashbook tells you that you ought to have (Jacobs, 2012).

2.11.4 Budgeting

According to Financial Management Essentials (2012) to enhance good financial management NGO managers need to prepare accurate budgets so that they know how much money is needed to carry out their work. It is arguable that a sound budget is only useful if it is worked out carefully, forecasting how much an NGO wishes to spend in implementing development projects. The managers can begin by preparing a good budget as a way of identifying the appropriate objectives they wish to achieve with the budget. This involves listing objectives, plans, costs etc.

2.11.5 Financial reporting

The fourth building block is writing and reviewing financial reports. The NGO finance managers need to compile a financial report that summarises the income and expenditure of the organisation over a certain period of time. The financial reports are created by adding together similar transactions. For example, this might mean adding together all the money you spent on fuel, new tyres and vehicle insurance and calling them "Transport Costs". In NGOs financial reports are used to summarise the information held in the cashbook. This is normally done using a system of codes, to allocate transactions to different categories. These categories might often be defined by donors (Jacobs, 2012).

2.11.6 Financial monitoring

Financial monitoring in NGOs helps in exercising good financial management. Some NGOs in Zimbabwe indicated that their financial monitoring techniques are very poor which cause funders to lose confidence in them. NGOs are supposed to submit management accounts report as part of internal control systems. This is imperative since financial managers and internal auditors use these reports to compare organisational progress against the budget and make amendments or decisive decisions about the future of the current state of the organisation. For example Plan International in Zimbabwe once implemented financial monitoring through internal auditing to see if their organisation was not abusing any financial resources. This was a reasonable move which other NGOs should adopt to sustain in the long term (Sayer, 2003).

More so, NGOs should submit quarterly, mid-term and annual reports of financial statements to both internal and external auditors for scrutiny, as a way of exercising and demonstrating transparency in the use of NGO funds which is a fundamental initiative in achieving good financial management. In addition controls, checks and balances (internal controls) in financial management are essential tools in safeguarding the assets and manage risk within an organisation. They facilitate opportunistic fraud or theft; detect errors, omissions in the accounting of organisation's records. Effective control systems

as (Wolf, 2001; Alin, 2006) alluded serve to value and protect those who are handling the financial affairs of the organisation.

2.12 THE SEVEN BASIC PRINCIPLES OF FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

Lewis (2012) in the Handbook of NGO Financial Management Principles, clarified that NGOs need to identify various practices of good financial management to improve the standards of their operations. The principles involve a high level guide for trustees and senior managers to help them make sure that their organisation is using funds effectively and to assess if the staff are working appropriately.

Lewis (2012) expounded further that NGOs should view the principles of good financial management below as essential in achieving the goals of the organisation:

2.12.1 Consistency

The NGO financial policies and systems should be consistent over time since this helps in promoting efficiency and transparency in operations particularly in financial reporting. However, organisational systems may be changed to match the trends in organisational operations. Lewis (2012:9) explained that inconsistent approaches to financial management could be a clear indication that the financial situation is being manipulated.

2.12.2 Accountability

Lewis (2012:9) defined accountability in the context of financial management as a moral or legal duty placed on an individual, group or organisation to explain how funds, equipment or authority given by a third party has been used. To achieve effective financial accountability NGOs need to explain how they used their resources and what has been achieved in a year to stakeholders as well as beneficiaries. The funders, donor agencies or stakeholders have the right to know how their funds and authority have been used. In addition, NGOs have an operational, moral and legal duty to explain their decisions and actions, and submit their financial reports to scrutiny.

2.12.3 Transparency

NGOs must be open concerning their work and operations in communities they offer development aid. They should give equal access to beneficiaries and stakeholders about their activities and plans. This involves the preparation of accurate, complete and

timely financial reports and making them accessible to stakeholders and beneficiaries. In event NGOs are not transparent; they portray doubts and suspicions about their organisations hence difficult to achieve legitimacy in areas they operate (Lewis, 2012).

2.12.4 Viability

For NGOs to remain in operation they need to be financially viable through maintaining the organisational expenditure in the balance or in check in proportion to incoming funds both at the operational and the strategic levels. Lewis and Jacobs (2005) admitted that viability is a measure of the NGO's financial continuity and security. They contended that the trustees and managers should prepare a financing strategy to show how the NGO will meet all of its financial obligations and deliver on its strategic plan.

2.12.5 Integrity

Organisational integrity is one of the essential tools in NGO administrative structure in Zimbabwe (NANGO, 2006). In view of Lewis & Jacobs (2005) individuals in NGOs should on a personal level exercise honesty and propriety in their work. For instance, managers and board members should lead by example in following policy and procedures through declaring any personal interests that might conflict with their official duties. It is important that the integrity of financial records and reports is dependent on accuracy and completeness of financial records. By preserving the integrity of an NGO institution donor agencies will have enough evidence hence sponsoring various projects being undertaken by these NGOs.

2.12.6 Stewardship

In their administrative architecture, NGOs should exercise stewardship-which is a strategy to safeguard the financial resources they are entrusted with and ensure that they are used for the intended purpose which is referred to as financial stewardship. It is the duty of the governing body particularly the Board of Trustees to exercise an overall oversight or responsibility over organisation's financial assets. Broadly speaking for NGO managers to practically achieve good financial stewardship, it is only through careful strategic planning, assessing financial risks and setting up appropriate systems and controls.

2.12.7 Account standards

Most NGOs indulging in poverty alleviation and any other related development work are expected to conform to international standards. Lewis (2012) pointed out that the system for keeping financial records and documentation must observe the international accepted accounting standards and principles. He further asserted, that any accountant from anywhere around the world should be able to understand the organisation's system for keeping financial records.

2.13 TOOLS IN FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT OF NGOS

Lewis (2012:12) in reference to financial management tools maintained that they are other tools which NGO managers can use which does not really mean they are financial but are interrelated in achieving effective financial management. The tools are:

2.13.1 Planning

In financial management planning as a tool to the management process include the preparation of future plans and goals. NGO managers in formulating a plan consider various possible alternatives make a number of choices and decisions. Proper planning must be shown in the success of an organisation. The tools which may be used by NGO managers when planning are strategic plan, business plan, and activity plan and feasibility studies. These tools help NGO in sourcing funds from donor agencies since they have a clear cut plan and method of achieving a certain goal. In their administrative structures, NGOs should have a committee involved in the planning and gathering of resources so that the goals of an institution are realised.

2. 13.2 Organising

As part of good financial management organising entails that the resources of the organisation be co-ordinated to ensure implementation of the overall plan. In organising financial plans, NGO managers need to be clear on their activities and responsibilities and state how they are going to be undertaken, when and by whom. The tools which can be used by NGOs involve the constitution, organisation charts, flow diagrams, job descriptions, Finance Manual and budget.

2.13.3 Controlling

In NGOs this entails a system of controls, checks and balance, procedures and resources during programme implementation. Tools used include budgets, delegated authority, procurement procedure, reconciliation, internal and external audit, fixed assets register, vehicle policy and insurance.

2.13.4 Monitoring

This involves producing regular and timely information for managers and stakeholders for monitoring purposes. Monitoring involves comparing actual performance with plans to evaluate the effectiveness of plans, identify weaknesses early on and take corrective action if required. The tools used by NGOs involve evaluation reports, budget monitoring reports, cash flow reports, financial statements, project reports, donor reports, audit reports, evaluation reports (Lewis, 2012:13).

Moreover, it is imperative to note that in the financial management function the responsibilities of management include:

- The preparation of a preliminary budget.
- Monitoring of expenditure within the budget during a fiscal year.
- Preparing financial statements.
- Drafting of financial management policies and procedures.

In that same vein, the board bears responsibility for:

- ✓ Finalising and approving the budget;
- ✓ Approving expenditure outside the authorised budget;
- ✓ Approving financial statements;
- ✓ Approving financial management policies and procedures, and
- ✓ Ensuring annual audit of NGO accounts (Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, 2002 as cited in Aviles, 2012).

2.13.5 Financial accountability

Naidoo (2000) affirmed that NGOs fulfil a number of functions in areas which tend to be neglected by the private and public sectors. In the recent past, NGOs as non-profit or voluntary sectors in different parts of the world have experienced a growth in the interest around their legal, fiscal, regulation and self-regulation status. Various internal challenges were encountered by NGOs mainly around NGO professionalism, NGO finances and broader sustainability challenges of the NGO sector. Many cases of NGO misconduct in advocacy, misappropriation of funds, and bad governance illuminate, interrogating the NGO's legitimacy and congruency with social values and expectations.

It has been realised if not common that other NGOs have given a cold shoulder towards accountability on their performance to various stakeholders. That is why Naidoo (2004) repeatedly advocated for NGOs to design accountability structures in order to take responsibility for their administrative structures, operations, policies and activities (Naidoo, 2003).



According to the Department of Social Development (2001) NGOs are referred to as civil society organisations (CSOs) in South Africa, and they adopt various accountability strategies to account to funders. These tools involve for instance, standards of public reporting which are determined in some countries by national legislation. Many CSOs have undertaken an initiative to adopt these principles on voluntary basis. Naidoo (2003) confirmed that they are various tools used for dispensing information in NGO's administrative structures, financial status, operational structures and work. These structures can be in form of mid-term and annual reports, organisational or project evaluations, strategic plans based on external assessments, and regular communications such as newsletters, updates, among others.

The DoSD (2001) added further that non-profit organisations (NPOs) should carefully strategise and use their scarce resources wisely, since they do not have own resources. It is also mentioned that it is the duty of the state, donor agencies and other well-wishers to fund NGOs; hence NGOs need to exercise proper financial management despite their size and nature.

2.14 BUDGETING IN NGOs

Various definitions have been given by scholars concerning budgeting. It has been described by (Pauw, Woods, Van der Linde, Fourie and Visser, 2002; Odgers and Kneeling, 2000) as a process that matches resources and needs in an organised and repetitive way so those collective choices about what an entity needs to do are properly resourced. A budget is also reviewed as an estimate of expected income and operational expenses over a set period of time.

McCaffery and Jones (2001) established that when donors review a budget usually, they compare it with the organisational statement of need and planned programmes. Cook (2002) observed that it is through such comparison that donors can decide to channel their funds on cost-effective and meaningful programmes.

Cusworth and Franks (1993:396) described budgeting as a process that brings together estimates of anticipated revenues and proposed expenditures for the budget period and from these estimates the activities to be undertaken and the means of financing can be inferred. Van der Waldt (2007:87) added further that a budget is a financial plan for a specific period in which specific amounts of money are allocated for specific purposes.

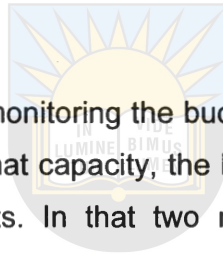
In the words of *J. Edgar Hoover* "A budget tells your money where to go; otherwise you wonder where it went." It is against the background of this statement that NGOs in Zimbabwe create budget to plan the way forward on how to use their finances. Mango (2012:28) argued that budgets are used by different people for different purposes.

In the opinion of Aviles (2012) in operating an NGO the Board of Trustees requires the NGO's overall budget since it has to be formally approved and monitored in term of progress. The NGO Chief Executives need budgets to keep track on the progress of the entire organisation and the funding situation. Project managers need budgets to oversee the implementation of their project activities. Meanwhile fundraising committee requires budgets to accompany funding applications. The finance managers also need budgets to ensure that there are adequate funds in the bank to cater for anticipated expenditure. The donor community also needs budgets to see the way an NGO wants to spend its grants. Lastly, community partners also ask for budgets so that they plan on

the use of NGO funds, or raise funds for community development projects (Aviles, 2012).

Ott (2001) explained that after a budget has been adopted by a body of trustees, it further performs two important purposes:

- It serves as a governance and accountability tool for the board and the executive director, and
- It acts as a management tool that provides an executive direction and the management staff with discretion such as the freedom to run an organisation with flexibility (Ott, 2001).



Wolf (2001) endorsed further that in monitoring the budget the board of directors needs to establish a reliable procedure. In that capacity, the board will need two people to be included in the process of payments. In that two men team, one should be well acquainted with organisation's budgeting procedures and the appropriate expenditures which should approve the payments. In most NGOs such a person is usually a director or his/her representative. It is also the duty of the other member to write cheques and monitor all the organisation's expenses on behalf of the board of trustees.

2.14.1 TYPES OF BUDGET IN NGOS

Jacobs (2012) discovered that they are basically three main types of budgets in NGOs which are:

- The Capital Budget
- The Income and Expenditure budget
- The Cash flow Forecast

2.14.2 The Income and Expenditure Budget

This type of budget sets out the anticipated running costs also known as recurrent costs of the organisation, which shows the source of funds to cover the costs. Usually the

annual income and expenditure budget is divided into shorter periods/phases ie quarterly or monthly to assist in the monitoring of progress.

2.14.3 The Capital Budget

This type of budget lists the expenditure an NGO intend to make for the coming years on capital projects and once-off items of equipment that will form part of the organisation's fixed assets. The capital budget usually involves major expenditure and non-recurrent costs hence they should be listed and monitored separately. Examples of capital expenditure include office furniture and equipment, vehicles, building construction, computer equipment, and major renovations works. Jacobs (2012) argued further that income and expenditure budget implications are seen on the running costs for vehicles. A separate capital budget is not required if only one or two capital items are to be purchased. In this case it is sufficient to incorporate the capital items in a separate section of the income and expenditure budget. This is most common in a project budget (Jacobs, 2012).

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2.14.4 The Cash flow Forecast

In financial management having enough cash reserves is essential since they are times when grants are delayed or unexpected expenses occur. On that note, the cash flow forecast (or cash budget) will help NGO managers to identify past occurrence of cash deficit. This enable the managers to predict cash flow which goes in and out of the organisation throughout the year by breaking down the master (or overall) budget into smaller time periods, usually one month. On one hand, the income and expenditure budget helps to see if the organisation is covering its costs over the whole year. Also the cash flow forecast indicates whether an NGO has sufficient cash in the bank to meet all of its obligations needs as they arise (Jacobs, 2012).

Jacobs & Lewis (2012) stated further that cash flow forecast helps NGOs to identify cash deficits and allow avoiding action to be taken such as requesting donor grants early, negotiating a temporary loan facility at your bank, delaying payment of certain invoices and delaying some activities. NGOs need to exercise extra caution since they

may be negative consequences if some of the stages are not followed. For instance, delaying payments could affect your relationship with suppliers, delaying activities will affect the communities you work with and your ability to implement the programme as agreed with your donor, borrowing money from the bank will attract bank charges and interest. The cash flow forecast is also useful where the organisation maintains substantial cash reserves which need to be invested wisely to maximise investment income (Jacob and Lewis, 2012).

2.14.5 BUDGETING TECHNIQUES

Terry (2012:32) stated that there are two main approaches of constructing a budget in NGOs that is incremental and zero base. When making a budget NGO managers need to adopt the approach that works best for them, considering their expertise and time available. The two approaches have been advanced further in the next section.

2.14.6 Incremental budgeting

This budgeting technique focuses on any year's budget on the previous year's actual or sometimes budgeted figures with an allowance for inflation and known changes in activity levels. This approach is credited for being a fairly simple and quick and easier to implement. It is important for organisations where activity and resource levels change little from year to year. Scholarly criticism on this approach claims that it failed to give room for innovative think tanks, and may perpetuate existing inefficiencies. The other loophole is that it is difficult to justify the figures to donors since the original calculations may be long forgotten hence it's inefficient and often leads to inevitable inaccuracies (Terry, 2012).

2.14.7 Zero-based budgeting

Terry (2012) remarked that this is an alternative approach which starts with a clean sheet zero base. The (ZBB) Zero-base budgeting ignores previous experience and starts with next year's targets and activities. The writer of ZBB budget is required to justify all the resource requirements. This process may suit organisations undergoing a period of rapid change and those, like NGOs, whose income is activity-based. Siswana

(2007:118) added further that ZBB tends to grossly overestimate on administrative capacity to calculate programme effectiveness and vastly underestimate the importance of political and technological constraints. It is often reported that zero-based budgets are more accurate because they are based on the detail of planned activities rather than on mere speculation. The main weakness of this approach is that it does impose a much greater workload on managers than incremental budgeting.

2.14.8 Activity based budgeting

In most organisations, this type is a special form of zero-base budgeting and is frequently used in the NGO sector to create project budgets and is favoured by many donors.



2.15 GOVERNING STRUCTURES OF NGOS

2.15.1 Body of Trustees

In every organisation a statutory body of Trustees performs various functions despite its legal status. According to Section 21 of the (PVO) Private Voluntary Act (2007) an NGO's Constitution should have a clause on how a new member is to be elected onto the Board either due to an old member's incapacitation, death, resignation, disqualification or maladministration. The body serves as an administrative structure to see if the organisation is properly run and also ensure that funds are used for the intended purposes. Some of the ways the body of Trustees see if the organisation conforms to the principles of running a non-profit institution is through a:

2.15.2 Constitution

According to Lewis in the Financial Management Essentials (2012:6) the way that an NGO is structured and registered will therefore have an impact on its legal status, accountability and transparency. It is a requirement of any NGO to be in possession of founding documents such as a Constitution or Memorandum and Articles of Association. In Zimbabwe all NGOs operate in accordance with the principles of (NANGO) National Association of Non-Governmental Organisation. Every registered NGO's Constitution should disclose its governance principles. According to NANGO

(2006) Section 1.3 of this chapter outlines some of the principles of good governance. There may be others such as to not prejudice or compromise the interests of society of which the NGOs are meant to benefit. Management, which reports to the Board, should adhere to these key principles of good corporate governance, which include fairness, accountability, transparency, discipline, independence and social responsibility.

Moreover, such type of NGO documents specify among other things:

- the name and registered address of the NGO
- the objects of the organisation and target group
- the system of accountability shows who is the governing body, its powers and responsibilities show it raises its funds (Lewis, 2012).

2.15.3 The governing body

In NGOs the governing body is legally responsible and accountable for governing and controlling the organisation. If the NGO is affected by mismanagement the legislation or law came into full force against the members of the governing body. This body is called by several names depending on the organisation. Some call it Board of Directors, Council, Board of Trustees, Executive or Governing Body. In The governing board performs several functions which range from the responsibility for deciding on policy and strategy, the custodianship or safeguarding of the financial and other assets of the organisation, the appointment and supporting of (CEO) Chief Executive Officer as well as representing the interests of stakeholders. In some NGOs the governing body is often organised with a series of sub-committees such as Accounting, Finance, Personnel or Project sub-committees (Jacobs, 2012).

2.15.4 Board Members

Jacob and Lewis (2012) commonly agree that in NGO board members are usually volunteers not directly paid from salary and are known variously as trustees, committee members, directors or council members. If board members were to benefit financially from their membership of the board, there could be a conflict of interest.

There are also Honorary Officers those who are elected or appointed to specific positions on the board such as Chair, Treasurer and Secretary. They oversee the execution of board decisions and often sign legal undertakings. The chairperson in an NGO is usually the main point of contact for the Chief Executive Officer (CEO), and usually fulfils an important public relations role for the NGO.

Moreover, the role of the Treasurer is to oversee the finances of the organisation. In some growing NGOs which have limited funding, the Treasurer may take on a more active role and act as bookkeeper, but where there are paid staff the Treasurer assumes more of a supervisory role. Apart from playing a supervisory role i.e. in the accounting process and preparing reports themselves, the board members must still be sure that everything is in order. It should be noted that in an NGO organisational structure the board members are ultimately responsible for the financial affairs of the organisation and they cannot escape this duty except by resigning from the governing body (Jacobs and Lewis, 2012).

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2.16 ORGANISATIONAL SET UP IN NGOS

2.16.1 History of the organisation

Every NGO has a historical description which explained inter-alia its formation, origins, heritage, direction and administrative structures. All these characteristics are significant in understanding the evolution and the associated drivers of the organisation. The history of an organisation also includes any information related to the original vision of the organisation as well the associated forces i.e. how the organisation came into existence and developed over years and its past activities. The Zimbabwe NGO Corporate Governance Manual, (2006) ascertained that the historical description should be able to illustrate the progression of activities and programmes in way they occur. The history of an NGO is vital in explaining the nature or approach of its administrative structures. It also entails the way the organisation has been operating (Zimbabwe NGO Corporate Governance Manual, 2006).

2.16.2 Vision of an NGO

According to Zimbabwe NGO Corporate Governance Manual (2006) every NGO is mandated to state its vision which entails its desired situation which the organisation wishes to achieve in a generation or so. It is argued that the vision can be in form of an image or description of what the organisation is working towards in future. In that capacity the vision should be supported by values and philosophy behind the organisation. The Catholic Institute of International Relations (2005 in Aviles, 2012) concurred when it pointed out that NGO values, and mission is its compass. These direct every decision making an NGO makes and its actions. The advantage of putting a vision in writing is that, when launching an NGO it should be known across the globe and communicates with donor agencies and other relevant stakeholders on what the organisation meant and stands for or meant to achieve.

In addition, the vision answers the question: If we could create the organisation of our dreams and have the impact we most desire, what would it look like? Or, if we could bring about the desired change in society, what society would we like to have? One vision is about the desired state of the organisation and the other is concerned with the desired state of the beneficiaries. The majority of NGOs in Zimbabwe do have the vision centred on achieving effective poverty alleviation in most vulnerable parts of the country and to expand in service provision (Zimbabwe NGO Corporate Governance Manual, 2006).

According to John (2005) and Thomas (1999) creating a vision is the duty of the executive director in an NGO. The executive director is entitled to create a clear vision which is shared with others in an attempt to provide unity within their organisation's administrative structures. The vision should be singular to inspire fellow co-workers and keep them motivated and enthusiastic about their jobs. This comes hand in hand with understanding the mission of the organisation. However, a mission statement differs from a vision in two ways it may be created by the board of directors rather than the executive director, and it encompasses what an organisation's purpose is and what

activities they partake in rather than what is going to be implemented in the future. Thomas (1999) alluded further that the executive director should avoid “mission drift” a situation whereby a director diverts from the crucial programmes and activities by partaking in activities that do not directly fulfil his purpose. Moyers (2006) defended the verdict when he argued that the executive director should follow and stay committed to the mission of an organisation helps the executive director stay on track with the vision and allows him/her to more effectively accomplish future goals.

2.16.3 A mission of an NGO

According to Zimbabwe NGO Corporate Governance Manual (2006) in an NGO a mission statement states the purpose of the organisation and what it seeks to achieve. Every NGO in its administrative architecture have a mission to achieve hence a mission statement serves to express how the organisation plans to improve a social situation through its work.

A mission statement in most cases covers the following aspects:

- A broad description of what an organisation does; with/for whom it is done?
- The organisation’s distinctive competence; and why it has been done.

The Catholic Institute for International Relations (2005:8) added further for an NGO to be regarded as having a clear mission statement with various characteristics which shows that:

A mission statement is the internal and personalised organisation’s strategic concept.

A mission statement is a broad based strategic statement which portrays the attitudes, goals, orientation and general nature of the organisation.

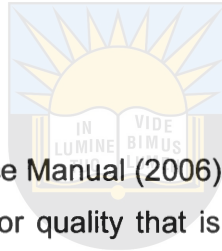
- In some NGOs it is regarded as a focal point used as a benchmark to motivate others to conform to the organisations values and purpose.
- It is a short and straightforward statement of intent.
- It differentiates the organisation from others

- It shows future long term plans of the organisation (The Catholic Institute for International Relations, 2005).

It is imperative that a mission statement should be reviewed in a dynamic environment which is aligned to the vision of the organisation. Also questions which should be asked involve:

- What has changed in the operating environment?
- Do these changes have a significant effect on our mission?
- If yes, what is it that needs to be adjusted in the statement?

2.16.4 Values of an NGO



Zimbabwe NGO Corporate Governance Manual (2006) asserted that in an NGO a value is regarded as a standard, principle, or quality that is considered worthwhile. It is the requirement of every NGO to have values that stipulate the code of conduct in the world of business. Stakeholders should be part and parcel of the defining process of these values. Values are different depending on an organisation however; they should be formed towards achieving organisational goals and objectives. For instance, in an organisation the values can be described as:

- People centred development which means people should be able to benefit from the values of the organisation since the main role of NGOs is to deliver services to poor communities.
- Respect for indigenous knowledge
- Commitment to action and impact, and
- Pan African (NANGO, 2006).

2.17 FUNDRAISING STRATEGIES IN NGOs

In NGOs there are various sources of funding income which can be categorised into two broad classifications which are:

- Restricted or unrestricted-an indicator of flexibility

- Shorter or long term- an indicator of continuity (Mango, 2010).

In NGO's funding strategies, unrestricted funds are accessible funds that an NGO can acquire without any restriction on how they are used, on condition they are used for the purpose of fulfilling the objectives of the organisation. It is common that grants or funds from donor community are restricted funds which come with attached conditions and terms on how the funds should or should not be used for. Funds which fall in an unrestricted category are those the NGO generates for itself for example fundraising events, general donations, membership fees and bank interest. It is arguable that "free money" provides greater independence, flexibility and security to an NGO and that is why it is crucial to a financing strategy (Mango, 2010).



TABLE 2.1 FUNDING MATRIX

	Unrestricted		
	General fundraising	Core fundraising	
Short-term	Project funding	Programme funding	Long-term
	Restricted		

(Source: Mango, 2010:1)

2.17.1 General Fundraising

As the name suggests this is short-term and relatively unrestricted income, for instance once-off fundraising events and public donations. This type of funding is important in

building up reserves and for gap funding (i.e. where a project funding agreement fails to cover 100% of costs) but not for long-term commitment (Mango, 2010).

2.17.2 Project funding

According to Mango (2010:2) this type of funding is needed by NGOs in the short term and it is a relatively restricted income, generally from institutional donor agencies. Being project-specific, these funds generally last for 1-3 years and are difficult to extend further leading to a loss of project continuity. This is the most common form of NGO financing.



2.17.3 Programme funding

NGOs in development work need this type of funding to sustain in the long term though it has some restrictions. Such types of funds are presented by funding partners where a strong working relationship has been established and where grants are based on programme themes. This point emphasis on the importance of networking, or having good working relations with other institutions in the same category since NGOs will assist each other in times of financial crisis (Mango, 2010).

2.17.4 Core financing

In NGOs this type of income can be relied upon as regular and flexible, which makes it a more suitable source of income most likely to be used to finance NGO's core operations. This type of financing fulfils Norton's definition of financial sustainability when he states that "The organisation and its core work will not collapse if external funding is withdrawn". It can be broadly argued that NGOs to sustain in the long term require this type of funding to achieve organisational objectives (Mango, 2010:2).

2.17.5 Figure 2.1 Sources of funding for NGOs



Adapted from: Davis and Etchart, 1999 as quoted in Glaser, 2004: 25

The discussion below explored on some of the sources of funding as illustrated in Figure 2.2

There has been huge funding from international donor agencies in Sub-Saharan Africa due to increasing poverty levels in many developing countries. It has been noted in the recent past that international aid comes in different forms. For instance, the source of funding is voluntary funding organisations such as missions, aid agencies, charitable organisations and other groups both religious and secular. Most of them are based in

the North, Europe, North America and Australia. Furthermore, International Aid organisations consist of United Nations Agencies such as World Health Organisation (WHO), United Nations International Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO), the European Commission (EC), the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank. Alin et al., (2006) pointed out that these sources of funding are likely to be available via national umbrella bodies. Also foreign embassies such as the Dutch Embassies among other countries specialises in funding small-scale development projects due to limited funding. NGOs can request funding from these organisations to enhance their operations in needy countries.

2.17.6 Problems of donor funding

According to Mango (2010:2) institutional or external donor funding mainly from multilateral and international aid agencies such as USAID, UN agencies and DFID are the main sources of funding for NGOs. Whilst external funding is appreciated in NGOs they are various challenges associated with it. Across various NGOs in Zimbabwe and internationally, it has been noted that there is excessive demand for external funding. On that same note, donor agencies or governments are also affected by severe shortage of funds due to increased domestic problems. At some point any available funds can be switched to other beneficiaries at short notice thereby causing immediate changing of policy initiatives. Another problem is that there are various quality conditions attached to donor funding and these are:

- External donor funding is claimed to be favouring large NGOs those who are regarded as safe bets for effective use of scarce funds
- Donor funds tend to reflect external socio-political trends such as prioritizing donor country at the upper most level and may interfere with local strategies
- External donor funding have created political tension in countries such as Zimbabwe since the donors channelled their funds to NGOs other than national government
- Donor funding or external finances can contribute to political, social and economic dependence leaving governments as “political pawns” of foreign

interests. This is usually the case with donor funding especially in Sub-Saharan Africa most government are now dependent on donor agencies to supplement their hungry populations. This kind of kind of dependency syndrome can explains the underdevelopment in the third world.

- External financing depends largely on bilateral agreements that dictate terms to beneficiaries for instance only used with specific target or regions.
- External financing is mostly in the form of time bound projects with specific grants of which there will always be a need to return to donors for additional financing. Also external financing can cause a shortage in cost efficiency and over-ambitious programmes. Lastly extreme dependency on donor funding create distractions in projects implementations particularly in related cost ie recovery, effectiveness and sustenance of programmes.

Fundraising has been described as a marketing or exchange process requiring an understanding of the total potential support market constituencies and what turns them off (Department of Social Development, 2001). In Zimbabwe, NGOs sources of funding vary in predictability controllability, linkage to organisational activities, and the range and amount of management effort they require (Gronbjerg, 1993). In view of Cook (2002), fundraising proved to be a proactive in raising funds for long term programmes in an organisation. It is a planned, systematic, ongoing and integrated into an organisation's programmes and administrative tasks. Only a limited number of NGOs have dedicated human resource, and vibrant fundraising strategies. Alin et al., (2006) realised that establishing an NGO fundraising capacity needs the development of a fundraising policy and regulations. It also requires a standing fundraising committee which is well grounded with specific job titles and monitoring and evaluation techniques to spearhead fundraising activities.

It should be borne in mind that a successful fundraising strategy comprises such components such as (i) creativity-NGO managers should be able to utilises the available scarce resources to implement their programmes, and they should be risk takers and be able grab opportunities as they arise. (ii) Sustainability–includes

developing own fundraising strategies. NGOs should enjoy their autonomy through self-financing themselves which increased their control and decision making over available resources. Diversification is needed in fundraising. NGOs need various fundraising activities which bring in different sources of funding (Alin, 2006).

2.17. MANAGEMENT CAPACITY IN NGOs

Odgers and Kneeling (2000) stated that in NGOs, management is referred to as the process of administering, planning and coordinating resources in an attempt to achieve the goals and objectives of the organisation. In order to enhance proper management, NGO managers need to combine their human, material and financial resources into a productive system suitable to achieve organisational objectives. The previous years saw NGOs seeking to achieve management capacity. Just like in any other organisation the term “management” has been given a broad meaning which in one way refers to activities related to three generic functions which are:

2.17.8 Organising

- NGO managers need to organize human, financial and material resources to achieve the goals and objectives of the organisation. This is a core function that ensures that plans are being coordinated properly for them to succeed.

2.17.9 Planning

- In NGOs managers should plan, identify goals, objectives methods, resources, responsibilities and dates for completion of tasks.

2.17.10 Controlling

- According to Center for African Family Strategies (2001) NGO managers should perform various duties such as controlling and co-coordinating the organisation’s systems, processes and structures to effectively and efficiently achieve the goals and objective. This also includes on-going feedback, monitoring, and adjusting systems and structures accordingly.

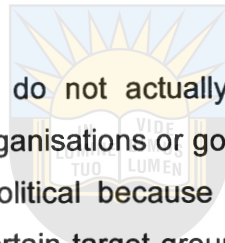
To effectively achieve the above NGO managers need to establish effective organisational structure, policies, systems and qualified and committed staff in

conjunction with an institutional environment in which staff can function at optimal level (Center for African Family Strategies, 2001).

2.18 PUBLIC POLICY MAKING AND PARTICIPATION IN NGOs

The Institute of Public Policy as cited in Aviles (2012) agreed that NGOs in most countries are invited by governments to participate in the policy formulation and implementation processes. Also citizens and business representatives are incorporated so is media to help reach out to broader audiences. It is argued that media sometimes play a negative role through publishing conflicts and controversies in the policy making processes.

Vasilev (2001) admitted that NGOs do not actually make public policies but they influence policies followed by other organisations or governments. He further elaborated that NGO activities are inherently political because NGOs often engineered certain social changes in certain areas for certain target groups. They do this through a policy development process as discussed below:



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2.18.1 Policy development process

Anderson and Vasilev (2001) discuss the five stage cycles of policy development process as which consist of:

2.18.2 Agenda Setting- This is the process in which organisations face issues and problems they need to deal with.

2.18.3 Policy formulation- This is the process in which organisations prepare policy variants.

2.18.4 Decision making- the process in which organisations set on a specific action or non-action path.

2.18.5 Policy implementation- it is the process in which organisations actually affect policies

2.18.6 Policy Evaluation- this is the process that policy outcomes are monitored by governmental and non-governmental organisations; this process might lead to re-formulation of policy problems and preparation of alternative solutions.

2.18.7 NGO policy making and capacity building

In view of Simmons (1998) NGOs engaged in various activities such as agenda setting, negotiating outcomes, promoting legitimacy and providing alternative solutions. Townsend, Mawdesley and Porter (2002) added further that NGOs support civil societies through social capital provision, promotion of advocacy, empowerment and informing policy. NGOs increasingly influence policy making process in national governments, multi-lateral institutions and corporations thereby conferring legitimacy. In view of Vassilev (2001) there are two types of legitimacy conferral that NGOs might make: (a) conferring legitimacy to actors in general, such as building confidence in, and support of, the United Nations or its subordinate bodies such as checking public and political support for certain policies and actions taken by UN Development Program; (b) secondly conferring legitimacy to particular policies such as poverty-eradication policies and to policy-making processes such as the consultation procedures at the World Bank. Legitimacy is significant for NGOs indulging in poverty alleviation since the public should accept and understand the nature of development rendered to them as beneficiaries.

In some countries, NGOs are involved in the development of environmental policies, as a way obtaining information and conflict resolution. Under the social development process in South Africa NGOs participate in policy making to suits the needs of the public and winning public support (Department of Social development, 2002). Similarly, in Zimbabwe NANGO (2006) illustrated that NGOs such as CAMPFIRE embark on environmental awareness campaigns to conserve the environment. The policies of this NGO are centered on the preservation of the beauty of surroundings hence they are often classified as developmental NGOs.

According to Galubovic (2010:2) citizen participation in NGO activities is important in shaping and implementing public policies which is a critical ingredient of participatory democracy. He pointed out that participatory democracy is not meant to replace

representative democracy; instead it seeks to supplement it and make it a better function. To that end, public participation serves various significant functions such as:

- Providing an opportunity and creates conditions necessary for citizens to engage in political life regularly and not only during elections.
- Creating a framework for citizens to advocate for their legitimate interests and thus contributes to the development of a vibrant democratic society
- Making the work of public authorities more transparent and closer to their constituencies.
- Contributing to the quality of adopted public policy and its smooth implementation. If all stakeholders participate in the process, their legitimate interests will presumably be protected and the costs of implementation of such a policy will be reduced, as they will be less inclined to resort to judiciary and other remedies to protect their interests. Results from a study referenced in the Public Hearings Manual, published by the Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), revealed that that citizens are ready to embrace public policy when they are given an equal opportunity to participate in the formulation process in the process inserting their input.
- Facilitating NGO watchdog role in the implementation of adopted policies (Gabusolic, 2010).

2.19 SERVICE DELIVERY SYSTEMS

This discussion seeks to assess the administrative systems of NGOs to see if they have the capacity to deliver services or not. Most NGOs in Zimbabwe have been struggling to deliver services in most poor communities they operate. Relevant literature suggested that the administrative systems need to improve; NGO should devise new models or approaches towards service provision, of which they can adopt the Batho Pele Principles a brain child of the South African government to improve service provision. The principles provide some guidelines on how to adhere to principles of good governance which is part of the core mission of NGOs indulging in poverty alleviation.

2.19.1 What is Batho Pele Principles?

This is a framework for the transformation of public service delivery introduced by the South African government; to promote this notion of “putting people first” hence it is called *Batho Pele*. This notion was expanded in the White Paper on Transforming the public service, also known as the *Batho Pele White Paper*, which provides a policy framework to ensure that *Batho Pele* is woven into the very fabric of government. The Batho Pele Handbook argues that *Batho Pele* is an initiative to get public servants to be service orientated, to strive for excellence in service delivery and to commit to continuous service delivery improvement. It is a simple, transparent mechanism, which allows customers to hold public servants accountable for the type of services they deliver (Batho Pele Handbook, 2010).

The *Batho Pele White Paper* signalled very strongly government's intention to adopt a citizen-orientated approach to service delivery, informed by the eight principles of consultation, service standards, access, courtesy, information, openness and transparency, redress and value for money. NGOs can adopt the principles to improve their administrative structures to enhance effective service delivery in rural communities they operate. The principles provide a realistic analytical framework which NGOs can use since they include good principles of good governance. Below are the Batho Pele Principles which NGOs can use:

2.20 THE EIGHT PRINCIPLES OF BATHO PELE PRINCIPLES

2.20.1 Consultation

The Batho-Pele Handbook state that citizens need to be consulted about the level and quality of public services they receive and, wherever possible should be given a choice about the services that are offered. This is important in NGOs since consulting encourage public participation in the planning and implementation process. The public need to air their views on the nature and type of projects they need in their communities, instead of NGOs to impose development on them.

2.20.2 Service standards

Citizens should be told what level and quality of public service they will receive so that they are aware of what to expect. In NGOs as well the recipients of development projects need to be informed thoroughly before hand the significance of the service they are likely to receive. This helps NGOs in receiving legitimacy from the general public.

2.20.3 Access

All citizens should have equal access to the services to which they are entitled. The same applies in NGOs the public should be able to derive benefits from NGO projects since they are obliged to receive them.

2.20.4 Courtesy

Citizens should be treated with courtesy and consideration. The main purpose of NGO aid is people first. NGOs should prioritise the needs of the people due to the fact since they exist for that mission-to help alleviate poverty in vulnerable communities.

2.20.5 Information

Citizens should be given full, accurate information about the public services they are entitled to receive. In NGOs information dissemination remains one of the significant factors for its survival. The beneficiaries need to be informed about the level of service they will receive. NGOs should dispatch field workers to conduct mass meeting with the public to inform them about their vision, mission and strategic values they wish to accomplish.

2.20.6 Openness and Transparency

Citizens should be told how national and provincial departments are run, how much they cost and who is in charge. In NGOs this principle advocates for public accountability. NGOs have been often accused as unaccountable institutions which misuse donor funds. In that regard NGOs need to account to funders of projects, stakeholders and the beneficiaries. Accountability and transparency are the most important aspects in achieving an effective administrative architecture in NGOs. At the same time it increases the legitimacy and sustainability of NGOs.

2.20.7 Redress

If the promised standard of service is not delivered, citizens should be offered an apology, a full explanation and a speedy and effective remedy; and when complaints are made, citizens should receive a sympathetic, positive response.

2.20.8 Value for Money

Public services should be provided economically and efficiently in order to give citizens the best possible value for money (The Batho-Pele Handbook, 2010).

2.20.9 Value of Batho Pele Principles to NGOs

Given the nature of Batho Pele Principles one thing should come in mind-good governance. The principles provide a tangible and much more realistic and analytical framework for assessing the administrative architecture of NGOs to see if the NGOs have the capacity to deliver services in rural communities of Zimbabwe. Despite the fact that the principles have been used in the public sector, they can also be used in the private sector since NGOs are often used by governments as vehicles of providing public services since governments lacks the capacity to do so.

2.21 ROLES OF NGOs IN DEVELOPMENT WORK IN ZIMBABWE

The definition of the term NGO is a problematic phenomenon, and yet there is no generally acceptable definition in literature. Broadly speaking NGOs are meant to be non-profit development agencies which are autonomous from the state (Nyajeka, 2004). On that note, Teegan, Doh and Vachani (2004:466) supported the above belief when they describe NGOs as private, not-for-profit organisations that aim to serve particular societal interests by focusing advocacy and/or operational efforts on social, political and economic goals, including equity, education, health, environmental protection and human rights.

Failure by the majority of scholars in the development circles to come up with a comprehensive definition of the term NGO forced writers such as John Clark (1991) to group NGOs in six categories according to their types which are:

- i) Relief and Welfare NGOs

- ii) Technical and innovative
- iii) Public service contractors
- iv) Popular development agencies
- v) Grassroots development organisations
- vi) Advocacy groups and networks (Clark, 1991:40-41).

In view of Ashman (2001) the majority of African NGOs and third world fall in the above mentioned category though it is subject to controversy from other scholars such as Cherret, O' Keefe, Heidenreich & Middel et al. (2010), Jordan and Tuijil, 2000).

According to Cherrett, O'Keefe; Heidenreich and Middlebrook (2010:26) NGOs represent a diverse range of interest, activities and perspectives on development issues. The authors are of the view that NGOs often associate themselves with the people (citizen centered development) however not all NGOs share the same view and commitment to this cause. In fact, the substantial majority of NGOs that indulge in community development towards the poor, are engaging in reducing higher levels of poverty thereby ignoring to the inadequacies of economic and rural development in areas they operate hence lacking foresight or long term vision. Teegan *et al*, (2004) maintained that in most academic literature, NGOs have been categorised as membership or club NGOs and social purpose NGOs. Membership NGOs tend to promote the material, social, or political interests of their own members. (Putnam, 2002: 11), in Allard & Martinez (2008) argued that club NGOs have exclusively social (including human rights and environmental) agendas (Teegen *et al.*, 2004: 466).

In Zimbabwe, it is wise to discuss the roles of NGOs in development work in rural areas according to their nature due to the difficulty in defining the term NGO. Cherrett *et al.*, (2010) realised that there is no suitable definition for NGOs; however other scholars agree that NGOs can be divided broadly into grassroots and professional organisations. Some are community based while others are professional development NGOs which tend to be intellectually created. These usually focus on establishing particular jobs, and they reflect the weak working structures of the civil society. For those with a more

2.21.1 VARIOUS TYPES OF NGOs IN ZIMBABWE

The Zimbabwe NGO Corporate Governance Manual (2006:4-5) claims that they are generally three accepted types of NGOs in Zimbabwe which are Relief/ Welfare NGOs, Development NGOs and Advocacy NGOs. These types of NGOs prevail in the early 90s to serve different purposes in Zimbabwe. However, relevant literature suggests that NGOs have made a paradigm shift from these three types to suit the contemporary situation in Zimbabwe. For the purpose of this study, six types of NGOs have been discussed to assess how through their administrative structures, have succeeded in alleviating poverty in most vulnerable communities of Mwenezi District. The types will be discussed as follows:

2.21.2 Advocacy NGOs

In Zimbabwe the primary focus of these organisations is to influence public policy. Examples are AZTREC and Christian Care which are advocacy NGOs in Mwenezi District which usually lobbies and represents the interests of the people (Parliament Research Department, 2011). Advocacy as it is practiced by NGOs, is a systematic, democratic, and organised effort by NGOs to change, influence or initiate policies, laws, practices and behaviour so that disadvantaged citizens in particular or all citizens general be benefited (Holloway, 2009). In Coates and David (2002:530), Jordan and Tuijil (2000:2065) these advocacy NGOs seek to improve the access of the disadvantaged people to enjoy state services. These NGOs give the marginalized people an opportunity to voice their concerns, to influence public policies and their implementation. They seek to challenge the status quo through addressing social injustices, economic inequalities, to defend human rights abuse and most importantly promote democracy. Usually these NGOs did this by influencing public policy making which concern the poor people. They devise various strategies to influence the policy making process and control development projects (Suharko, 2007).

Ibrahim and Hulme (2010) are of the view that civil society organisations (CSOs) can promote poverty reduction through pushing for macro-level structural adjustments by advocating, lobbying the state for policy change at national level and directly offer services to the impoverished people at grassroots level. Because of the roles being

Ibrahim and Hulme (2010) are of the view that civil society organisations (CSOs) can promote poverty reduction through pushing for macro-level structural adjustments by advocating, lobbying the state for policy change at national level and directly offer services to the impoverished people at grassroots level. Because of the roles being played by civil societies, Anheier (2004:3) in Ibrahim and Hulme (2010) had to refer to such institutions, organisations or individuals located between family, the state and the market in which people associate voluntarily to advance common interest as suitable to eradicate poverty in communities. NGOs are therefore included in the civil society context (Ibrahim and Hulme, 2010).

Cherrett et al., (2010) believed that they are two distinct strategies mainly in South Africa and common features are seen in countries such as Kenya. In South Africa, the strategy until now has been mainly confrontational, using direct action and the media to embarrass the government. This reflects their reference point: the mass democratic movement and community-based organisations. Their aim is transformation. In the rest of Africa, advocacy groups (as are some in South Africa) are driven by the need to achieve legitimacy among current policy makers, and their reference group tends to come from academia and government.

2.21.3 Conservation and environmental management NGOs

O'Keefe et al. (2010) noted that these types of organisations are involved in the implementation of projects and programmes in the field. Examples are Christian Care and CARE Zimbabwe which are part of the study. These NGOs have become increasingly sensitive to the need for mechanisms to link them with the communities they serve and to the challenges caused by the lack of proper organisational structures in the very communities they operate. As a way of increasing development, these NGOs advocates for the need for grassroots training and redefining their focus on sustainable development rather than 'the environment', and as sustainable land-use rather than sustainable agriculture. Moyo et al., (2000) affirms that these types of NGOs focus on poverty alleviation, natural resources conservation and management. Another example is of an NGO called CAMPFIRE which had projects implemented by the Zim Trust and was adopted by seventeen districts in Zimbabwe including Mwenezi District. NGOs

such as CARE and Lutheran World Federation supported conservation of land and animal life to avoid extinction. CARE supports the environmental cause by disseminating valuable information on environmental issues through high profiles media channels, but has rarely affected positively (Moyo et.al, 2000. The major source of funding for these organisations is Northern NGOs, despite the fact that most professional NGOs are already implementing bilaterally-funded projects and are increasingly being sought by major donors to execute their policies (Cherret et al., 2010).

2.21.4 Relief and Welfare NGOs

In Mwenezi NGOs such as CARE Zimbabwe, Christian Care, and CADEC are liberators in times of emergency like floods, for instance the fierce Cyclone Eline of 2002 which destroyed homes of people, an earthquake or a war this may be characterised as humanitarian assistance (Ellwood, 1995). They provide relief aid in form of food packages, training, funding community development projects (Moyo.et. al, 2000). In Mwenezi NGOs are involved in food distribution during drought and in all wards. The pivotal role being played by NGOs in disaster management have made them popular though their projects are failing to promote sustainable development hence some argue their aid is leading to an ever-increasing dependency syndrome.

2.21.5 Grassroots/Community Based NGOs

According to Cherret et al., (2010:7) these types of NGOs in the past have been involved in a political struggle which has tended to express itself through organising for confrontation and protest. In Zimbabwe these types of NGOs are aimed at promoting sustainable development in communities they operate. Examples of such community based NGOs are Mwenezi Development Training Centre and Zimbabwe Red Cross which seek to achieve gender awareness, small and medium growth of businesses, organisational skills training and development, primary health care, community based rehabilitation and community based health. In some words these NGOs are the face of grassroots development in Zimbabwe rural areas (Parliament Research Department, 2011:10).

Nyajeka (2004) stated that in the rest of Africa, community-based organisations can be divided into two groups. The first are those which have emerged from a more traditional 'welfare' background. Their social base tends to retain welfarist attitudes of deference to authority and a level of passivity concerning the instruments of power. Their funding comes from Northern NGOs or occasionally national government. The second group is more explicitly transformative, community-based organisations. These reflect a practical coalition between the grassroots and professionals. To date, their funding sources have been Northern NGOs, although bilateral are beginning to talk to them.

2.21.6 Church/Religious /Faith based NGOs

Nyajeka (2004) realised that NGOs have different contexts since some of these institutions are church based and some non-religious. These NGOs range from large formal professional, bureaucratic, small informal and voluntary pressure groups. They offer a wide range of activities such as self-help, service provision, and assistance to members, launching campaigns at domestic and global level. They are active in education, health systems, agriculture, human rights, gender awareness, environmental and industrial issues. Examples are Christian Care, DACHICARE, Roman Catholic Church, and Lutheran World Federation. According to Mushuku, Achii, Chitongo & Mamhova (2012:14) these organisations enhance rural development through service provision in form of food packages, clothes, school uniforms to the poor and disabled people. Such services facilitate rural development since they enhance education, human development and energy to the local people. These NGOs also encourage citizen participation in development projects and programmes implemented by these organisations as a way of promoting economic empowerment and rural sustainable development.

2.21.7 Conservationist NGOs

Cherret et al. (2010:29) admitted that these types of NGOs have been initiated with private-sector funding and their operational model is that of business. However, in many senses, they are the classic environmentalist NGOs. They look to close collaboration with governmental, multilateral, and major bilateral agencies as they argue traditional

forms of organisation have lost their relevance. Increasingly, community leaders and activists have come to see the need to organise around development. Examples are church or religious organisations such as Christian Care, Lutheran etc. In Zimbabwe these NGOs usually collaborate with government for a common cause in particular reference to poverty alleviation.

2.22 GENERAL ROLES OF NGOs IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN ZIMBABWE

2.22.1 NGOs and women empowerment

According to Desai (2005), in Zimbabwe NGOs are playing a critical role in supporting women, men and poor rural households as part of poverty alleviation to help the poor improve their standards of living. The roles of NGOs are multidimensional; they range from counselling, support services, awareness raising and advocacy, legal aid as well as micro-financing. Baccaro, (2001) argued that the various means through which this goal can be achieved is through funding projects, engaging in service provision and capacity building, contributing to awareness, and promoting the self-organisation of various groups. Liebenberg (2000) regarded NGOs as catalysts of the development process aiming to produce participation, empowerment and sustainability in terms of the development process). Desai (2005) believed that these services help the people to achieve their ability, skill and knowledge thereby taking control over their own lives and finally becoming empowered. NGOs function as effective agents of development in areas where government is not so effective hence NGOs have a very crucial function to play in the course of development (Liebenberg, 2000). This is significant especially in Zimbabwe where the state does not make provision for such services. There is an argument that NGOs are today still seen as possible alternatives to government in addressing the needs of communities which are not reached by official development programmes (Desai: 2005).

2.22.2 NGOs and International recognition

According to Willets (2000); Crowe (1998); & Nyajeka, (2004:66) NGOs are cooperating closely with United Nations agencies in the development process. NGOs have become

very popular in problem solving, deteriorating social conditions and economic inequalities in Africa through strengthening African alternatives to the current crisis. On that note, Hutchful and Schimitz in Nyajeka (2004) praised NGOs for the pivotal role they play in service provision especially in areas where neither governments nor multilateral organisations could make impact. They were seen taking a leading role in micro-enterprising, lending and investing in Africa towards the poor in an attempt to promote small business enterprises. Nyajeka (2004) concurred that NGOs were seen engaging in various developmental activities in Africa such as service provision, personnel, technical, financing and most importantly community development. It is arguable that in the international arena, NGOs often create and institutionalize new norms in the societies where they operate. Keck & Sikkink, (1998); Lawrence, Hardy, & Phillips, (2002) argue that NGO's neutral position as non-state actors made them gain prominence which triggered their influence in politics of developing countries adding to their partnerships and close cooperation and recognition from the United Nations.

Various scholars such as (Lewis, 1998; Swift, 1999; Rifkin, 1995 & Nyajeka, 2004) ascertain that the failure of development approaches by several states in the early 70s and 1980s resulted in NGOs gaining popularity than the governments. The incompetence of various African governments in service provision appeared to have presented the opportunity on a 'silver plate' to NGOs which increased their popularity since the majority regarded them as less bureaucratic, grassroots oriented public participatory and contributing to sustainable development of grassroots communities (Fowler, 1991; Best and Brown, 1990; Mitullar 1990; and Tandon, 1991 in Ndegwa 1996:20; cf Edwards and Hume, 1996; OECD, 1998).

Moreover, NGOs continue to shine in the eyes of United Nations and they will continue to evolve due to their ability to reach grassroots levels. Chakawarika (2011) realised that their encounters vary from within big international organisations like the UN to a household in rural communities of Zimbabwe. The argument behind, is that NGOs undertook various programmes that functions and support community empowerment and sustainable development. Tengende (2005) claims that NGOs have managed to

gain more popularity among writers and development practitioners. NGOs have proven to be agents of economic and social and political change in the development process in most third world countries, since their work in humanitarian, relief, political advocacy and environmental conservation cannot go unnoticed. In a different vein, NGOs are being regarded as providing governments with channels or alternative means for development assistance in needy countries of which Zimbabwe and Malawi are no exceptions.

In view of Streeten (1997) NGOs enjoy several advantages as stated below:

- i) They are good at reaching and mobilising the poor and remote communities.
- ii) They help empower poor people to gain control of their lives and they work with and strengthen local institutions.
- iii) They carry out projects at lower costs and more efficiently than the government agencies.
- iv) They promote sustainable development (Streeten, 1997).

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Moreso, Nyajeka (2004:54) discovered that the World Bank also prefer to collaborate with NGOs in terms of development in poor countries. The World Bank (1992) provided the following reasons as to why it should collaborate with NGOs:

The World Bank is a powerful development agency in the world so it has strong influence on governments and populations of the world's poorest countries. Due to its influential position, NGOs have to maintain a relationship with the World Bank. On one hand, NGOs need the World Bank as a source of funds. The Bank needs knowledge that NGOs have on grassroots and their expertise on improving the quality of the poor.

As a result of this mutual dependency, the NGOs and the World Bank have to rely on each other despite operating on different dimensions. Fowler (2000) claims that the term partnership by the Bank is not premised on solidarity but on building relations in order to improve lending performance. The point is that NGOs have not actually participated in several of World Bank projects (Muchunzi and Milne, 1995).

The World Bank (2002) in Chitongo and Kufakunesu (2013:626-627) ascertained that NGOs have managed to convince and capture the hearts of the people since they proved to be effective agencies for the needy people in rural areas. Globally NGOs have proven beyond reasonable doubt that they are key agents in the development sector since they help a lot in distributing inputs, money to individuals and organisations in third world countries. The UNDP (2010) supported this and stated that the Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZIMVAC) praised NGOs for promoting community empowerment and individuals towards sustainable development through agriculture. On that note, Besley and Cord (2007) endorsed that ZIMVAC emphasised on the role of NGOs such as service provision (i.e. income generation, aid, provision of farming inputs and sustainable development) for rural livelihoods (Chitongo and Kufakunesu, 2013).

2.22.3 NGOs as steam engines of economic growth

The (WFP) World Food Programme (2008) regarded NGOs as steam engines since they are accelerating rural economic development as part of poverty alleviation strategy in rural areas. In Zimbabwe this is a living testimony since public work programmes sponsored by WFP (i.e. bridges, dam constructions) in exchange for food are rife. Besley and Cord (2007) indicated that mass poverty in the world is manifesting itself in rural areas of which 75% of rural population reside in deep poverty, and rely on subsistence and partly commercial farming. A study was carried out in Gutu District of Zimbabwe on a project called Takashinga Green Gardens sponsored by CARE International to determine the effectiveness of NGOs in development work. Results from the study reveals that the NG stood the test of time, and to that end has proven to be a messiah to the needy people when it drill boreholes, dug wells and increase water supply in effort to address the dry spells which have marred the region and cut down water supplies. Makumbe (1996) on that note stressed out that NGOs are making a positive contribution to rural areas of Zimbabwe by sponsoring selected development programmes to the poor. NGOs have become vehicles of progressive change in improving rural livelihoods, redistributing wealth both capital and human resources. All over the world, NGOs have been regarded as integral and institutional reform civic institutions meant to promote rural development and economic development. Wallace (2001) supported this verdict when he pointed out that NGOs have become

cornerstones of the development sector. They pioneered various development projects which saw rural people prospering through efficient allocation of resources.

Lewis and Kanji (2009) on Non-Governmental Organisations and development discovered that, NGOs are not only involved in equitable share of resources from one party to another but they are also responsible for generating ideas and methods to improve the way of development, and to motivate the public for development of their country. A research carried by Nikkah and Redzuan (2010) to determine the role of NGOs in economic development indicated that NGOs helped in micro-financing in the process giving power to community members to generate their own income. The communities become self-dependent utilising their own resources to enhance economic development. Furthermore, Seidemann (2011) conducted a study to determine the functionality of NGOs in the area of agriculture advancement in Sub-Saharan Africa. Empirical evidence from the study suggested that in the early period of time NGO's in Sub-Saharan Africa are not taking a leading role in development of agricultural sector, mainly because at times they are no active donors ready to finance their agricultural projects. NGOs were found to be playing a twin role (i.e. giving out various types of services such as information on land rights, and research and verbal support towards those rights). The research showed that NGOs should be encouraged to support small scale farmers by giving them credible information such as awareness regarding legal advice, accounts and duties. NGOs can also provide information on insurance, loaning facilities and linking farmers to relevant bodies to enhance agricultural growth. Enyioko (2012) claims that most rural development practices depend upon agriculture, industry health and human resources development. NGOs are believed to be playing a critical role in rendering such development to enhance effective rural development.

Kanipakam (2014) indicated that in India the term NGO is not familiar since many of these organisations are working towards rural development. To him rural development involves the stability of economy, uplifting of living standards of rural people through social service delivery. A research carried out by Kanipakam (2014) focused on the essential role of NGOs for getting the target of economic stability. Results from her

research indicated that development of rural areas largely depend on the share of rural people in terms of their effort since they are most familiar with their language, culture and tradition. The researcher strongly believes that until and unless village council becomes heavily involved in the development, their economic conditions cannot be improved.

2.22.4 NGOs and disabled people

Kandyomunda, Dube, Kangere & Gebretensay (2010) stated that NGOs in Zimbabwe have a role to play in the development of disabled people because government aid caters for the majority failing to take into consideration the different types and needs of people in the society. The People With disabilities (PWDs) are often marginalised in terms of rural and economic development. Kandyomunda *et al.*, (2010) argued that NGOs have grown in numbers over the past years and has also widened their scope of work in all aspects of human need. Whereas scholars have questioned the role of NGOs on disabled people as degenerating Bennet, (1997) argued that the wide range of development by NGOs has greatly influenced the status quo in favour of people centred approach to development. This has in turn promoted greater participation of (PWDs) and their families which have led to an increased understanding of the ways in which disabled people are isolated and segregated from the mainstream society. NGOs in Zimbabwe have been seen actively promoting positive attitudes towards empowering the disabled and vulnerable groups of people in the society (Bennet, 1997).

Critical scholars such as (Chakawarika, 2011) have written that in the past, Zimbabwe has been regarded as a poverty ridden country, with unequal distribution of wealth and large-scale deprivation of many disabled people as a result of the political antagonism, weak government administrative structures, poor rehabilitation programmes and no clear economic or monetary policies, disabled children, women and men are often left out in the cold of the national health care programmes. Choruma (2007) conducted a study on disabled people in which in the results showed an unfortunate image, that in Zimbabwe there are no or few national programmes specifically targeting the disabled people. She states that most counselling and testing centres are failing to deal with

disabilities such as visual impairment. However, to their rescue from what one may call government ignorance, abandonment or negligence are local based NGOs such as Jairos Jiri Association and Council for the Blind and the Deaf Society of Zimbabwe among others. These disabled based local NGOs attempt to meet the needs of the disabled through skills development and training. They provide services such as aid appliances, therapy or counselling, promote advocacy, credit schemes, home based care, educational, vocational rehabilitation and capacity development. However, some services are widely duplicated in certain communities due to past conflict of interest and competition for scarce resources which cause clashes among humanitarian organisations (Kandyomunda *et al.*, 2010).

2.22.5 NGOs and HIV/AIDS in Zimbabwe

Chevo and Bhasatara (2012) discovered that the Zimbabwean health system has been in perpetual decline for more than a decade, which resulted in poor healthcare service delivery mechanisms. USAID (2011) endorsed that one in every five Zimbabweans lives with HIV/AIDS and about 3, 000 people die from it weekly (Meldrum *et al.*, 2008 cited in Chadambuka *et al.*, 2012). Maybe this is why Mazzeo (2011:407) calls HIV/AIDS Zimbabwe's "most serious public health problem". The (NDI

National Democratic Institute for International Affairs (2004:14) claimed that HIV/AIDS pandemic continues to have disastrous effects on the political, economic and social well-being of developing countries, draining poor nations of the workers and leaders necessary to sustain development. Many countries including Zimbabwe and South Africa with high incidences of HIV/AIDS are grappling with deepening poverty and diminishing government capacity to provide goods and services to citizens, which explains the intervention of NGOs to help struggling governments.

In an effort to address these woes in Zimbabwe *avert.org* (2012) stated that NGOs, religious and academic organisations play a vital role in preventing the spread of HIV virus. NGOs such as Christian Care among others provide ARVs to local hospitals to help HIV/AIDS patients. These NGOs also provide free testing to anyone who wishes to know his or her HIV status; in fact they have helped a lot in the reduction of mortality rates in the country. NGOs launch awareness campaigns on HIV/AIDS using posters,

placards, television dramas, radios and community groups. UNICEF and the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture in Zimbabwe initiated an in-service training scheme of primary and secondary school teachers in HIV and AIDS life-skills and counselling as way of supporting the education system in Zimbabwe. PLAN International distributed textbooks to students, pay school fees etc. NDI (2004:19) concluded by encouraging parliamentarians to take a leading role in influencing public opinion on HIV/AIDS related matters.

2.22.6 The role of state in supporting NGOs

The majority of scholars who have conducted studies of NGOs in Zimbabwe generally agree that the government have a negative attitude towards the involvement of NGOs. Instead of acknowledging NGOs for their good work newspapers are often flooded with headlines attacking NGOs hence their legitimacy is received with mixed feelings. FAO (2006) noted that the government of Zimbabwe to the surprise of many critics applauded the work of the Catholic Agency for Development of a local NGO, as to have provided a lasting solution to problems of Honde Valley in Manicaland province in the Eastern part of the country. An irrigation project initiated by this NGO saw women participating in vibrant horticulture and the standards of living of the local people were greatly improved. The government agreed that the financial sustainability of these people was remarkably uplifted. However, in the same cloud of NGO glory the government lambasted NGOs as creating a dependency syndrome in which people no longer self-sustain themselves but stretch their hands for donor aid. This might be true given the low agricultural productivity in some resettled farms of Mwenezi District and other existing localities.

In Zimbabwe, NGOs moved into development work, as part of government transition development plans. Such work included providing support to resettled people, agricultural skills in rural areas, and programmes for the advancement of women through local income generating projects, natural resources management as well as the integration of disabled people into communities. This may be referred to as the second generation type of NGOs which contributed much to the infrastructural development in terms of construction of dams, clinics and schools. A lot of international NGOs also

came to Zimbabwe to assist in the development of the newly independent state (NANGO, 2009).

Strom (2002) asserted that they are three major functions for NGOs such as service delivery for instance (relief, welfare, basic skills); educational provision (such as basic skills and often critical analysis of social environments); and public policy advocacy as this is the case with NGOs in Sub-Saharan Africa. However, Baccaro (2001) indicated that particular NGOs can promote the organisation and empowerment of the poor, particularly poor women, through a combination of micro-credit, awareness-raising, training for group members, and other social services. Empowerment is the ability of individuals to gain control socially, politically, economically and psychologically through access to information, knowledge and skills; decision making; and individual self-efficacy, community participation, and perceived control (Rappaport 1987; Zimmerman and Rappaport, 1988).

Critical scholarship claimed that Non-Governmental Organisations seek to improve the people's access to services provided by the state (Suharko, 2007). In countries where government lacks public services, NGOs play a significant role in the direct provision of social and economic services. As a result, NGOs emerged and play a role of providing services. Therefore NGOs help the poor to move out of poverty as pointed out by (Suharko, 2007).

Smillie, (2003) illustrated that NGOs are creditable for their long endurance and engagement with the rural poverty. From the onset, NGOs were established to respond to the ill-being of the poor. The long engagement with the poor makes them to gain more experience and knowledge in dealing with complex and structural problems of poverty. Such experience and knowledge gained lead to the formulation and implementation of genuine and innovative strategies and approaches to poverty reduction (Smillie, 2003). With the appreciation of the complicated nature of poverty and by large unsuccessful results of aid, multinational and bilateral agencies have lately given renewed promises to NGOs whose existence is legitimised by the presence of

poverty (Guler, 2008). Therefore, on a more different note, Michael (2002) tends to argue that there is no discussion in poverty, equality or development is complete without considering the role of NGOs today.

Moreover, in the long term, NGOs in Zimbabwe aim to promote sustainable community development and alleviate poverty through activities that promote capacity building and self-reliance. According to Langran (2002:36) NGOs through capacity building help to sustain community development and assist government in the provision of basic social amenities. NGOs are often created in order to expand the capacities of people and government there by breaching the gap of poverty (Korten, 1990). In addition, NGOs are praised for promoting community self-reliance and empowerment through supporting community-based groups and relying on participatory processes (Korten 1990; Clark 1991; Friedmann 1992; Fowler 1993; Edwards and Hulme 1994; Salamon 1994). In Sub-Saharan Africa for instance, where survival for daily bread is a major hurdle, NGOs have been seen as liberators of human suffering as evidenced is in Sierra Leone were sixty percent of citizens survival dependent upon donors and in Zimbabwe recently at the Chingwizi Transit camp in Mwenezi District following flooding of Tokwe-Mkosi dam (Herald; Newsday Zimbabwe, 2014)

The literature suggested that, NGOs play an important function in promoting sustainable rural development which strikes a balance between environmental concerns and development objectives, while simultaneously enhancing local social relationships. Sustainable communities meet the economic needs of their residents, enhance and protect the environment, and promote more human local societies (Bridger and Luloff, 1997). In rural areas of Zimbabwe NGOs are seen as whistleblowers (ie in advocacy) and in alleviating poverty through promoting local economic development to the rural people. They also play an advocacy role such as preservation of human rights. For instance Christian Care in Zimbabwe has undertaken such an initiative in child protection especially girl child protection. To a larger extent NGOs seem successful though their strategies are failing to sustain in the long term economic development.

2.23 GOVERNMENT OF ZIMBABWE POVERTY ALLEVIATION STRATEGIES

The pivotal role being played by NGOs in poverty alleviation has been highly appreciated however; it appears to be a complete injustice to fail to acknowledge the efforts of the Zimbabwean government in trying alleviating poverty in the country's most vulnerable provinces. The extent of the discussion below will cover the government's strategies from the period (2000-2014) as indicated below:

2.23.1 The Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP of 2000)

In an effort to revive its waning support and fulfil the revolutionary promises the Zimbabwean government in 1998-2000 launched the Fast Track Land Reform Programme-a plan meant to resettle many landless families. This programme was a brainchild of the land reform initiative which was a revision of the 1983 Land Acquisition Act of 1992. The programme existed to address the social and economic imbalances of land distribution patterns which were inherited at independence from the former Rhodesian white regime. The main objective of the FTLRP was to increase land access, reducing population pressure in rural areas, improve and extend the small holder farmer agricultural productivity. It seeks to utilise vast pieces of unused lands into productive land. This strategy has its own loopholes since it partially succeeded in eradicating poverty through agriculture. This was due to lack of human and financial resources (i.e. subsidies and tractors) from government and inadequate machinery to use on the land, as result other policies came into effect to complement the weaknesses of FTLRP (Government of Zimbabwe, 2000).

2.23.2 Millennium Economic Recovery Programme (MERP) of 2001

The Zimbabwean government launched the Millennium Economic Recovery Programme (MERP) in August 2001 to address the continuous decline in economic performance through price stabilization, exchange rate stabilization and protection of the vulnerable groups. The implementation of the Millennium Economic Recovery Programme (MERP) failed to yield any positive results since the plan could not rejuvenate the economy from the deep mud of economic recession. The main challenge was that the MERP failed to strike a macro-economic balance owing to poor budget

planning and lack of sound fiscal and economic policies. Just like any other policy implemented by government since independence, the MERP lost its purpose leading to the establishment of NERP OF 2003.

2.23.3 The National Economic Revival (NERP) 2003

In February 2003, the National Economic Recovery Plan (NERP) was launched to serve among other things, humanitarian support in relief to counter the severe long term droughts. The policy was meant to improve the agricultural sector and boost food security. The policy serves to complement the land reform and distribution programme to landless people. However, critics argued that the policy never succeeded since no significant progress was witnessed in the agricultural sector or in the resettlement farms. This was because the government failed to fund agricultural activities through subsidizing seeds and farming inputs except in other few parts of the country.

2.23.4 The Macroeconomic Policy Framework 2005–2006 “Towards Sustained Economic Growth”

Following the FTLRP of 2000, and subsequent failure of MERP (2001) and NERP (2003) the GoZ embarked on the formulation of economic policies which seek to steer the economy into a direction of economic prosperity. The Macroeconomic Policy Framework 2005–2006 “Towards Sustained Economic Growth” came into effect to address the failures of the above mentioned policies. This policy framework was regarded as the national development plan that provides the national platform for redressing the socio-economic imbalances of the past. It was regarded as supporting the medium term goals of Zimbabwean government which are to alleviate poverty and create equal economic opportunities for every citizen (Zwizwai, 2007). Just like the FLTRP the policy failed to turn around the economy as per expectance hence it was abandoned.

2.23.5 National Economic Development Priority Programme (NEDPP) of 2006

In an attempt to solve the meltdown of the economy, reduction of hardships and improve socio-economic standards of citizens, the GoZ launched the National Economic Development Priority Programme (NEDPP) in April 2006 as its short term result based economic programme. It was seen as an action-oriented and economic programme

expected to implement 'quick win strategies' that will restore investor confidence, economic empowerment, rehabilitate and develop infrastructure, reduce both domestic and external debt to sustainable levels, and restore a positive image of the country. This policy was later complemented by the 2007 Budget statement and end 2006 Monetary Policy Statement. However, the policy on its own failed to pave a clear roadmap on how the government was supposed to address these challenges. Failure by this policy to give a sound approach to solving crisis puts the government in jeopardy as the policy loses its credibility. In the wake of rising unemployment and socio-economic disparities, the GoZ should have formulated a credible, comprehensive and influential policy reform framework which would have designed an enabling platform for the government to reduce the increasing poverty levels (African Development Bank, 2007).

2.23.6 Short Term Economic Recovery Programme (STERP) of 2009

The formation of the Government of National Unity (GNU) in February 2009 between ZANU PF and MDC saw the new government battling to revive and stimulate the already worn out economy through other strategic macro-economic policies. STERP was an emergency short term stabilisation programme, whose key goals were to stabilize the macro and micro-economy, recover the levels of savings, investment and growth, and lay the basis of a more transformative mid-term to long term economic programme that was supposed to turn Zimbabwe into a progressive developmental State. The policy was implemented as part of the Global Political Agreement that seeks to address the key issues of economic stabilisation and national healing, whilst at the same time laying the foundation of a more comprehensive and developmentalist economic framework to succeed the same. The primary focus of STERP were; Political and Governance Issues (constitution and the constitution making processes, media and media reforms, legislations reforms) intended at strengthening governance and accountability, promoting governance and rule of law and promoting equality and fairness, including gender equality (Bonga, 2014). The policy partially succeeded due to disunity and mistrust between the GNU partners; hence it paves way to the Medium Term Plan of 2011-2015.

2.23.7 Medium Term Plan (MTP) 2011-2015

This policy was formulated by the Zimbabwean government with the aim of revamping the economy following the failure of the Short Term Economic Recovery Programme (STERP) in 2009. It responded to the mandate set out in Article III of the Global Political Agreement to support restoration of economic stability and growth in the country. This policy modifies the foundations laid by the STERP (2009) and the three year Macro Macroeconomic Policy and Budget Framework (STERP II). The MTP seeks to guide all other Government policy documents and sets out the national priorities and investment programmes for the five year period 2011-2015. The main goal of MTP is to transform the economy, reduce poverty, create jobs, maintain macroeconomic stability and restore the economy's capacity to produce goods and services competitively. It is expected that the MTP will build upon the gains achieved since the launch of STERP in March 2009. It's primarily target is to ensure that the economy remains on a sustainable growth path. The Plan is targeting an average growth of 7.1% for the period, 2011-2015. The MTP calls for the private sector to take a leading role as an engine for economic recovery. This can necessitates far-reaching initiatives and reforms to reduce the risk for investors and make Zimbabwe an attractive investment destination. The success of this policy lies in good governance which is an integral aspect to the successful implementation of the MTP. Also cooperation among civil society organisations, the private sector and the government is essential to ensure strong institutions and effective service delivery. By the time of this study the policy has not yet achieved its anticipated purpose though there is time for it, to turn around the economy (Denmark–Zimbabwe Partnership Policy, 2013-2015).

2.23.8 Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimAsset) October 2013- December 2018

ZimAsset is the most recent blueprint and a new trajectory initiated by the government of Zimbabwe to stimulate economic growth and wealth creation. The policy was established to ensure sustainable development and social equity anchored on indigenization, empowerment and employment creation which will be largely propelled by the judicious exploitation of the country's abundant human and natural resources.

This economic policy act as a Results Based Agenda built on four strategic clusters that will enable Zimbabwe to enhance economic advancement and reposition the country as one of the strongest economies in the region and Africa. The four strategic clusters identified are: Food Security and Nutrition; Social Services and Poverty Eradication; Infrastructure and Utilities; and Value Addition and Beneficiation. Critics argue that given the persistent economic crisis ZimAsset implementation was ill timed, the policy itself failed to revamp industrial growth and create employment. National media such as (*Standard Newspaper and Newsday: 2014*) felt that the problem with the policy is that it is a self-serving propagandist initiative meant to benefit loyalists of the ruling ZANU PF government and spearhead election campaign (Government of Zimbabwe, 2014).

The media, political analysts and social commentators argue that what the drafters misconceived when formulating the document is the fact that they forgot that elections were going to be over and Zimbabwean population expect food on the table and not empty promises. In drafting the ZimAsset the Zimbabwean government seems short sighted since it underestimates the economic challenges such as rising unemployment, socio-economic inequalities etc which may hinder the implementation of this policy (Newsday: 2014). Critics argue that ZimAsset was an overambitious economic policy driven by hunger and eagerness to secure election victory which is impossible to implement even though the nation was Zimbabwe and the party ZANU PF. Bonga (2014) deduced that for the policy to succeed there is need for collaboration of economic agents and various economic sectors. All government ministries and agencies are called upon to work hand in hand to spearhead the implementation process. The Office of the President and Cabinet should play a central role in coordinating and overseeing the implementation process to ensure attainment of set targets of the plan.

2.24 COMMON CHALLENGES FACING NGOs IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN ZIMBABWE

In developing countries including Zimbabwe common challenges facing NGOs in poverty alleviation, range in sizes and severity depending on country and desire of governments to take full control of NGOs. In various third world countries there are

many quasi-governmental NGOs which survive based on the governing regime. Mukasa (2002) declared that the decision making processes is one of the most significant issues for NGO operations. He was convinced that in most NGOs tension often occurred between senior management and staff due to exclusion of staff in decision making processes affecting the organisation. Governance has been a challenge in most NGOs as well as internal relations between board members and staff (Mukasa, 2002).

According to Vilain (2002) most NGOs are believed to have weak organisational structures including poor staffing for career development. Staffing problems they face encompass recruitment, assignment and layoff, administration, human resource development and day to day monitoring of staff. The argument behind this statement is that some NGO employees are just volunteers or paid staff members which are lowly paid in contrast to private sector commercial employees. Most of these employers lack organisational knowledge, professional skills, technical expertise which all derail NGO progress in rural poverty alleviation.

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Most NGOs in Zimbabwe suffer from institutional capacity since some staff members of NGOs are incompetent to deliver. Lack of managerial and leadership skills deprive NGOs from strategic planning and sustenance. It is arguable that various NGOs lack strategic plans, annual operation plans to direct their routine tasks. Communication among NGOs has been another hindrance. NGOs found it hard to trust and work confidently with one another so is with the donor agencies and sponsors. Inadequate financial resources coupled with institutional capacity compromise structural growth and expansion of the organisational structures of NGOs. The large scale proliferation and limited financial resources have caused NGOs to scramble and compete with one another which created tensions and poor service provision in areas they operate. Mukasa (2002) concluded by stating that keeping good relations with the government has been a common challenge among NGOs. They often went into loggerheads on the way to implement development. The approaches to poverty alleviation differ a lot hence the connections of NGOs with other governmental organisations are always a difficult task to accomplish.

2.25 Criticism for NGOs in poverty alleviation

It is often argued whether NGOs are able to alleviate poverty in rural areas or not. According to Raftopolous and Jazdowska, (1997:37) the collective body of NGOs, the National Association of Non-Governmental Organisations (NANGO), is regarded as both unrepresentative and ineffective,' illustrative of the very narrow and individualistic perspective that is typical of many of the NGOs in Zimbabwe, to the extent that NGOs have sought to retain independence from the state, they too have found however, the Zimbabwean government has moved to exert control over the NGOs movement by passing the (1996) Private Voluntary Organisations Act, which empowers the government to control or close NGOs. NGOs are reportedly seen as restricting themselves largely to the alleviation of poverty, unable or unwilling to address its causes. They are also seen as pursuing their own agendas and hence as not very interested in consultation with civil society. In Zimbabwe that is when political interference hindered donor funding since the government argue that, aid should be in line with government policies (Raftopolous and Jazdowska, 1997).

2.26 LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORKS THAT GOVERN NGOs in ZIMBABWE

2.26.1 NGO BILL OF 2004

In Zimbabwe various pieces of legislation govern NGO operations in their development work. During the pre-independent Zimbabwe the Welfare Organisations Act (1967) was the main legislation used to register NGOs. This instrument was repealed by the Private Voluntary Organisations Act ("PVO Act"). According to NGO Consultancy Africa (2008), Zimbabwe has a hybrid system of laws that have been set in place to limit the rights of NGOs. Civil liberties in Zimbabwe are regulated and which means that NGOs have to operate in a highly legalized environment. For example, the 2004 NGO Bill which is quite similar to the Private Organisations Act (PVO) further introduced more stiff regulations to the operations of NGOs. The bill increases government representation on the NGO Council, and requires that NGOs re-apply annually, with each NGO submitting a three year activity plan when applying for registration (Moyo, 2005).

In view of Elone (2007) the NGO Bill of 2004 practically gives the government supreme authority and as one of the regulations, the government is able to cancel the registration certificate and ban any group that violates the conditions of registration. This is similar to the Ethiopian Proclamation that established a regulatory agency with virtually limitless powers including the authority to revoke the registration status and dissolve organisations which it suspects of “misconduct or mismanagement” or participating in “unlawful purposes” which are contrary to national or public interest. Despite the stiff regulations of NGOs in Zimbabwe they have managed to adapt to the environment and continue to work with government ministries who keep an eye on their operations from the ground.

2.26.2 Private Voluntary Act (PVO) of 2007

The (ZHRF) Zimbabwe Human Rights NGO Forum (2010) asserted that, after the repealing of the old Welfare Organisation Act of (1967), the PVO Act of 2007 published in April in government gazette became instrumental. NGOs could register and operate under this act. For example, NGOs could register as non-profit making or charity organisations, trusts and common law universitas. The ZHR, NGO Forum has been operating as a common law universitas meaning the term universitas originated from common law practice of recognizing an organisation which has members, constitution and activities that entirely benefits its members. Such an entity is excluded from registering under PVO Act but under universitas, therefore the forum does not fall under this act.

Under The PVO Act (2007) PVOs are defined as anybody or association of persons, corporate or unincorporated, or any institution, the objects of which include or are one or more of the following that provides for the provision of all of the material, mental, physical or social needs of persons or families, the rendering of charity to persons or families in distress the prevention of social distress or destitution of persons or families; the provision of assistance in, or promotion of, activities aimed at uplifting the standard of living of persons or families; the provision of funds for legal aid; the prevention of cruelty to, or the promotion of the welfare of animals. Many organisations in Zimbabwe including the Forum exist under many identities and carry out work under the PVO Act.

Examples are organisations registered as institutions under the Health Professions Act or under the Psychological Practises Act 58 of 1979, but offering help to persons in distress in the form of medical counselling for victims of torture or organized political violence (Zimbabwe Human Rights NGO Forum, 2010).

Due to the legal basis of such organisation government has often condemned them, the Forum being one of the victims when its director was formally charged with violation of PVO Act Chapter 17(5). The PVO Act is viewed by critics as draconian and outdated; *“there is good reason to consider that certain provisions of the PVO Act, which was passed in 1966 at the height of apartheid, are unconstitutional”*. It can therefore be noted from the NGO Forum case that the establishment and registering of NGOs in Zimbabwe is at the whims and caprices of the State officials who can use the existing legislation to yield undesired effects. Whether an organisation is or is not operating as a PVO and then ought to register hinges on the matter of interpretation. This is a serious infringement on the freedom of association and other related freedoms, which requires that interpretation of the Bill of Rights should be less strict to promote enjoyment of human rights (Zimbabwe Human Rights NGO Forum, 2010).

2.26.3 Constitution of Zimbabwe 2008 Article XVI Section 16 (as Amended)

In Zimbabwe the Constitution of Zimbabwe was amended in 2008 to include NGOs in humanitarian work to assist millions of poor citizens. It states that all NGOs involved in humanitarian work and food assistance shall do so without discrimination on the grounds of race, ethnicity, gender, political affiliation and religion and in doing so shall not promote advance the interests of any political party or cause.

On section16.4 In this regard the Parties hereby agree:

(a) that in the fulfillment of its obligations above, the Government and all State Institutions and quasi State Institutions shall render humanitarian and food assistance without discrimination on the grounds of race, ethnicity, gender, political affiliation or religion;

(b) that humanitarian interventions rendered by Non-Governmental Organisations, shall be provided without discrimination on the grounds of race, ethnicity, gender, political affiliation and religion.

(c) that all displaced persons shall be entitled to humanitarian and opposition members and tight control of electronic media and food assistance to enable them to return and settle in their original homes and that social welfare organisations shall be allowed to render such assistance as might be required.

(d) that all NGO`s rendering humanitarian and food assistance must operate within the confines of the laws of Zimbabwe.

2.26.4 Constitution of the Republic of Zimbabwe (2013)

This is the latest democratically driven constitution ever made in Zimbabwe. In fact its establishment witnessed the unprecedented transformation from the former British rule, and principles into a more democratic dispensation in the modern Zimbabwean state. According to Zimbabwe Human Rights, Rule of Law and Democracy Annual Report (2013), the position of NGOs and respect of civil liberties including freedom of speech, freedom of press and respect of political rights, elections and political participation were partially addressed. The report claimed that despite the lowering of cases of politically motivated murders, abductions, disappearances intimidation, the situation relating to civil liberties was still far from perfect. The new Constitution of Zimbabwe (2013) seemed to have failed to address the ongoing and widespread abuse of human rights which include massive corruption selective application of law, abductions and persecution of journalists. In fact the new constitution failed to retain the privileges of NGOs as enshrined in the 2008 amended Constitution of Zimbabwe. The NGO question is still on parliamentary table for debating though recently NGOs are operating in Mwenezi on the Chingwizi Transit Camp where villagers were displaced due to flooding of Tokwe-Mkosi Dam South of Masvingo Province (*Newsday Zimbabwe: 2014*).

2.27 LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORKS FOR NGOs IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.27.1 Non-Profit Organisations Act of 1997 (Act 71 of 1997)

This is the major policy framework governing work of NGOs in South Africa. The government in appreciating the significance of NGOs as part of legal framework

enacted this policy to create an enabling environment for non-profit organisations. The primary focus of this legislation was conceived as a project meant to transform society, and it came into existence following extensive debates with the government and civil societies. The desire to have legislative reforms made the two parties reached a conclusion. The policy gave a leeway to the Department of Social Development (DoSD) to establish an administrative and regulatory framework which nonprofit organisations (NPOs) can conduct their affairs through provision of a voluntary facility. The DoSD is the implementer of the Act of 1997(Act 71 of 1997), which gave provisions for non-profit organisations to register under the legislative framework as part of regulatory processes.



According to the Department of Social Development (2012:3) the current legal framework on nonprofit organisations is rooted in the fundamental human rights culture of our Constitution. The right to freedom of religion, belief and opinion; of expression and; of association as contained in the Bills of Rights is essential for the civil society formations. The NPO Act is the entry point on the legal framework to regulate the nonprofit sector.

The nonprofit sector, also commonly referred as the third sector after the private and government sectors, is characterised by different organisations of different sizes, shapes and scope of operation across all development and social formations. It has been established that the nonprofit organisations operate both in the formal and informal sectors of the country's economy and that those in the informal sector are poorly resourced and less formally structured (DoSD, 2012).

2.27.2 LESSONS LEARNT

Many conclusions have been drawn from the Nonprofit Organisations Act of 1997 (Act 71 of 1997). Its implementation in South Africa has its own challenges since stakeholders failed to agree on some of the provisions of this act which culminated into the National Summit of 15-17 August in 2012. It has been deduced also that key among the challenges on this policy was its failure to point out issues related to transparency and accountability. It failed to adhere to principles of constitutional democracy which are

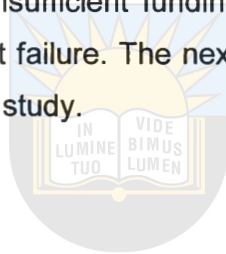
free and open to all societies within the socio-economic context of South Africa. This policy provided a roadmap for the foundation on the drafting of a new non-profit organisations legal framework which will see non-profit sector being regulated. It has also been learnt that further discussions resulted in the introduction of a risk-based approach in managing the compliance requirements on organisations which will be implemented without compromising the required standards of governance for nonprofit organisations (Department of Social Development, 2012).

In addition, critics argue that the '*one-size fit all*' approach is inconsistent with the heterogeneous nature of the South African nonprofit sector. Instead, there is a greater need to encourage self-regulation among organisations as a way of enhancing accountability and transparency within the nonprofit sector. It will therefore be imperative to strike a balance between the mandatory regulatory provisions and the self-regulation requirements so as to preserve the soundness and integrity of the nonprofit sector. This policy framework as a whole is consistent with the NGO Bill of 2004 in Zimbabwe in terms of provisions. It is noteworthy that it differs in terms accountability and transparency, it seems this Act calls for increased NGO accountability in their activities whereas the NGO Bill in Zimbabwe strictly expect NGOs to render development in line with government expectations. Also this act emphasised on a "one size fits all approach" which makes it more rigid since development in communities differs by place and time hence it has its own loopholes (Department of Social Development, 2012).

2.28 CONCLUSION

This chapter has focused on the review of literature related to the administrative architecture of NGOs and their role in development work in Zimbabwe. Comparisons have also been drawn from the Nonprofit Organisations Act of 1997 (Act 71 of 1997) in South Africa and the NGO Bill of 2004. It has been deduced that various NGOs in Zimbabwe suffer from poor strategic management, inadequate accountability, transparency, governance, monitoring and evaluation systems, control systems and capacity development among other factors. In development work, NGOs lack sounder

and strategic financial and human resource management plans worsened by corruption of project leaders. NGOs are mainly externally funded thereby failing to deliver their mandate but their 'masters'. The main weakness is that most NGOs lack a research culture which led to failure and improper implementation of projects due to limited knowledge on the needs of the poor in rural areas who are the mainly intended recipients of donor aid. On one hand, the political climate in Zimbabwe is not enabling and the environment seems hostile and not conducive for NGOs since they are politically monitored or accused of imposing western driven agenda and sowing divisions in the people. However, the government tried to alleviate poverty in rural areas though its efforts were drowned by insufficient funding and manpower, hence NGOs rejuvenate to complement government failure. The next chapter will focus more on the research methodology suitable for this study.



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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter described the research design and methods suitable for this study. The research design presented the methodology, research approach and research instruments that were used to collect the data. The research design enabled the researcher to use proper data collection techniques that answered the research question. The section discussed the ethical considerations, population, sampling techniques, and limitations of the study and finalised by discussing how the collected data will be analysed.

3.2 METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN



According to Babbie and Mouton (2002:5) research methodology focused on the research process and the kind of tools and procedures to be used. Research design occurs at the beginning of the research project and it involves all the steps of the subsequent project (Babbie and Mouton, 2001:97). In view of Carrier (2000) research design is the strategy, the plan, and the structure of conducting a research project. Fouche (2002:271), Hagan (2000:68), Huysamen (1993:10), Marshall and Rossman (1989:78), as well as Mouton and Marais (1993:32) define a research design as “the plan or blueprint of the study”. This includes the who, what, where, when and how of the subjects under study. There are two main types of research design namely qualitative and quantitative research design.

3.2.1 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH

Bless and Higson (2002:86), stated that quantitative research method quantify data to record aspects of society. The collected data is reduced to same numerical representation of what is being measured. According to Neuman (2003:331) quantitative research is an exploration that describes the phenomena under study in numbers and presents results using statistics and makes references about the population. The raw data from quantitative research will be reorganised into a form

which is suitable for computers and was presented in a chart and graph, interpreted to give meaning or results. In conducting a research data can be quantified on the basis of gender, age, highest qualifications and marital status. Babbie and Mouton (2001:49) pointed out that the best way to measure the properties of phenomena is through quantitative measurement, which is by assigning numbers to the perceived qualities of things.

3.2.2 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH

This research design has been adopted because the researcher sought to know descriptive data. Patton (2002) noted that in a qualitative research there are no rules for sample. Sample size depends on what the researcher want to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what the stake is, what will be useful, what will have credibility, and what can be done with the remaining time and resources. Qualitative research design explained and gave an in-depth understanding on the administrative architecture of NGOs in Mwenezi District since NGO programmes managers were interviewed to acquire detailed information on the organisational structures and functioning of NGOs in poverty alleviation. Gilham (2000:11) maintained that qualitative research allows the researcher to gain an insight into a field where little is known. Leedy and Ormrod (2010:94) added that qualitative research design is used to answer questions about the complex nature of phenomena, more often with purpose of describing and understanding the phenomena from the participant point of view. Qualitative research is an umbrella term covering an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning of naturally occurring phenomena in the social world (Welman et al, 2005).

3.3 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

David and Sutton (2004) asserted that data are what the researcher actually receives from the respondents, be it social or physical. Layder (1993:54) identified various instruments which can be used to collect data such as questionnaires, interviews, attendance records and documents and surveys. Bernard (2002) is of the view that data gathering is crucial in research, as the data is meant to contribute to a better understanding of a theoretical framework.

3.3.1 Primary and Secondary sources of data

In terms of the diverse forms and sources of data, this study will be descriptive, analytical as well as exploratory. Babbie and Mouton (2001:80) indicated that exploratory studies would ask questions like what the case is and what key factors are. The authors stated further that exploratory studies usually lead to insight and comprehension rather than the collection of detailed, accurate and replicable data. Saunders et al, (1997:133) stated that exploratory studies are a valuable means of finding out what is happening, of seeking new insights, of asking questions and of assessing phenomena in a new light. The descriptive approach made use of qualitative data gathering covering the general nature of the administrative architecture of NGOs and their role in development. Archival information was used since it was readily available and dependable. The analytical part employed the review of primary sources of data such as NGO documents, progress reports, and policy statements from these NGOs in order to evaluate the progress they have made in implementing development in poor rural communities of Zimbabwe. Secondary sources such as library materials, internet, newspapers, journals and periodicals gave current reports on NGO performance in Zimbabwe and Africa at large. This information from these sources was used in evaluating the organisational structures and capacity building of NGOs in service delivery in Zimbabwe.

The advantage of using secondary sources as data collection techniques was that they have a relatively low cost. They were more affordable as compared to a comprehensive study and are non-reactive unlike surveys or experiments where respondents are conscious of being studied. Secondary sources are an inaccessible subject since the researcher does not need to personal contact with respondents (De Vos *et al.*, 2005). These sources however, suffered from incompleteness since statistical records, reports and historical documents are often incomplete meaning it is difficult to close the gaps left. They are prone to bias since documents not intended for research purposes are used which can influence the objectivity of the documents.

3.3.2 In-depth Interviews

Boyce and Neale (2006:3) defined an in-depth interview as a qualitative research technique that involves conducting intensive individual interviews with a small number of respondents to explore their perspectives on a particular idea, program or situation. Lisa, David, Diehl & McDonald (2014:1) explained further that in-depth, qualitative interviews are excellent tools to use in planning and evaluating extension programmes since they use an open-ended, discovery-oriented method, which allows the interviewer to deeply explore the respondent's feelings and perspectives on a subject. They are various characteristics of in-depth interviews such as open ended questions, semi-structured format, and recording, telephonic interview, and face to face interviews. In this study, semi-structured interviews were drawn from Aquaculture Zimbabwe, Mwenezi Development Training Centre, Christian Care, Plan International and CARE Zimbabwe to get an in-depth knowledge on the administrative architecture of NGOs and their role in development in rural areas of Mwenezi District. According to Leedy and Omrod (2001) in a structured interview, the researcher asks a standard set of questions and nothing more. However, in-depth interviews are time consuming, prone to bias, and the interviewer must be appropriately trained in interviewing techniques.

3.3.3 STEPS TO ENSURE VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Struiwig and Stead (2001:136) asserted that validity is the extent at which a research design is scientifically sound or appropriately conducted. De Vos (2002:166) concurred with the sentiments when he stated that validity refers to the degree to which an instrument is doing what it is intended to do. In this study the researcher remained as unbiased as possible throughout the data collection process. The researcher avoided mixing data with own perceptions, ideas and previous knowledge of the subject to obtain fair results. Ritchie and Lewis (2010:270), stated that reliability concerns the replicability of research findings and whether or not they would be repeated in another study, using the same or similar methods and obtaining similar results. Therefore, reliability means sustainable and validity means well-grounded and these are of relevance in research since they help to define the strength of the data. In view of

Kothari (2004:111) the reliability of research instrument can be tested by finding out such things about who collected the data and the level of accuracy which as desired.

3.4 SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

Sampling is one of the most important endeavours in social research process. Babbie and Mouton (2001:202) are of the view that sampling is used to make generalisations to people and events that have not been observed. They defined a sample as a specific subset of a population observed in order to make inferences about the nature of the total population itself. Kumar (2005:144) referred to sampling as the process of selecting a few people from a bigger group to become the basis for estimating or predicting the prevalence of an unknown piece of information, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group.

There are two types of sampling designs namely probability sampling and non-random sampling technique. Babbie and Mouton (2001:173) argued that a basic principle of probability sampling is that a sample will be representative of the population from which it is selected if all members of the population have an equal chance of being selected in the sample. Burger and Silima (2006:658) state that non-probability is not based on determining the probability of an element being included in the sample. It is often seen as more appropriate, economical and less complicated. These types of designs are often associated with qualitative research where the primary aim of the researcher is to obtain an in-depth description and understanding, rather than quantity of understanding (Burger and Silima, 2006). Non-probability sampling a sampling procedure whereby the odds of selecting a particular individual are known to the researcher because one does not know population size of the members (De Vos *et al*, 2005:201).

This part of the study adopted a purposive sampling a non-probability sampling technique to purposively select respondents from the selected five NGOs which were the key informants. In this form of sampling the researcher relies on his or her expert judgement to select units that are a representative or typical of the population. Ritchie, Lewis and Elam in Ritchie and Lewis (2003) admitted that the purposive sample is not intended to be statistically representable but rather to be theoretically representative and suitable to small scale, in-depth studies. These NGOs namely Christian Care,

CARE Zimbabwe, Mwenezi Development Training Centre, Aquaculture Zimbabwe, and Plan International were purposively chosen because they have been operating in Mwenezi District for quite some time hence they fall under the category of relief/welfare or developmental NGOs. Purposive sampling is when a researcher uses special knowledge or expertise about a specific group to select subjects who represent the population (Berg, 2004). The rationale behind using purposive sampling lies behind the idea that not all subjects know about the administrative architecture of NGOs therefore, the selected respondents (i.e. program managers) possessed intimate knowledge on the strategies used to alleviate poverty in rural areas under study.

3.4.1 TRANSCRIPTION

In this study all the interviews were transcribed by the researcher. Kvale and Brink (2009:178) alluded that researchers who transcribe their own interviews will learn much about their own interviewing style, to some extent they can have the social and emotional aspects of the interviews situation present or reawakened during transcription and will already have started analysing the meaning of what was said.

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3.5 TARGET POPULATION

De Vos *et al*, (2005) stated that a research population refers to the total set from which the individuals or units of the study are chosen. Babbie (2007) defined population as the theoretically specified aggregation of study elements. Welman *et al*, (2005) viewed population as a group of potential participants to whom you want to generalise the results of the study. He further regarded population as the study object that consists of individuals, groups, organisations, human products and events, or conditions to which they are exposed. It is a full set of cases from which a sample is taken (Welman *et. al*, 2005). This study's population involves all the sixteen NGOs that operating in 8 wards of Mwenezi East and all the people in Mwenezi East Constituency.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

Mouton (1996) described data analysis as involving 'breaking up' the data into manageable themes, patterns, trends and relationships. The purpose of analysis is to reduce data to an intelligible and interpretable form so that the relations of research problems can be studied tested and conclusions drawn. Results from this study were

analysed qualitatively. Patton (2002) writes that qualitative analysis transforms data into findings. This involves reducing the volume of raw information, sifting significance from trivia, identifying significant patterns and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal.

This research was conducted on the basis of a critical analysis of the literature related to the review of the administrative architecture for NGOs and their role in development activities. Various schools of thought on these issues were reviewed as well as available evidence mostly found in academic documents, NGO documents and government documents. The researcher used thematic content analysis to bring order, structure and meaning to the mass of data collected. Hofstee (2006) stated that content analysis studies closely examine the content of preserved records which are nearly always written documents even though videos can also be used. The main purpose of content analysis research is to discover the non-obvious meaning contained in the record. Denzin and Lincoln (2000) believed that content analysis allows for thick description in the analysis of data since the themes will then ground the arguments presented in the discussion.

In addition to that, Leedy and Ormrod (2001:155) defined content analysis as “a detailed and systematic examination of the contents of a particular body of materials for the purpose of identifying patterns, themes, or biases”. Jose and Lee (2007) asserted further that content analysis is a technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically in identifying specialized characteristics of messages. Content analysis allowed the researcher to discuss the common themes from the thick descriptions of the nature of the administrative architecture of NGOs and their role in poverty alleviation in rural areas of Zimbabwe. The other part of the research was carried out using semi-structured interviews, in which data was transcribed to verbatim and the field notes were also organised, with the transcripts and the notes were read several times by many researchers in order to avoid bias which may have occurred if one researcher analyses the data. Finally, the data was coded and categorised into themes according to the information that the researcher had gathered (Holloway & Wheeler, 2002). Qualitative data analysis in this research sought to help answer questions, or to confirm knowledge,

to address issues and shape thinking for future action or non-action. Qualitative research takes an in-depth approach to the phenomenon it studies in order to understand it more thoroughly (Nicholls, 2011).

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In this study the researcher observed the ethical principles governing research. According to De Vos (2005:7) ethics are a set of moral principles which are suggested by an individual or group, are subsequently widely accepted, and offer rules and behavioural expectations about the most acceptable conduct towards respondents.

3.7.1 Voluntary participations

In view of Babbie (2004:64) the principle of voluntary participation calls for participants to voluntarily took part in the research without any form of coercion. In this study respondents were fully informed about the research and were asked to participate voluntarily and to withdraw at any moment if they want to.

3.7.2 Informed Consent

Before conducting and collecting data in the study the researcher informed the program managers of NGOs and Mwenzi District Administrator (see appendix) about the research to be conducted thereby exercising an informed consent.

3.7.3 Deception of respondents

Babbie (2001:474) stated that deception involves deliberately withholding information, or offering incorrect information to ensure participation of subjects who would otherwise possibly refuse. The researcher used an informed consent form to describe the goals of the study and confirmed that the information would be solely used for the purpose of the study.

3.7.4 Privacy, Confidentiality and anonymity

The researcher avoided the use of pseudo names to avoid violation of privacy, anonymity and confidentiality in the duration of the study. Chapman (1993:60) argued that ethics is concerned not only with distinguishing right from wrong but also with the commitment to do what is right and acceptable in research.

3.7.5 Competence of the researcher

The researcher presented letters from the University of Fort Hare Ethics Research Committee (UREC) to Mwenezi District Administrator' Office to ask for permission to conduct research on NGOs operating in the district. On that particular note, the respondents were asked to sign consent forms given by the researcher. The copy of the consent form has been attached as appendix C.

3.7.6 Avoidance of harm and awareness to the respondents

According to Strydom (2002:58) the respondents should be thoroughly informed beforehand about any potential impact of the investigation. Such information offers the respondents wide choice to withdraw from the investigation if they wish to. This is done to avoid after-harm which is usually a problem in conducting qualitative research (Strydom, 2002:73). This research did not harm the respondents in any way since there was room for withdrawal in event they did not want to participate.

Since this research also used document analysis there were various ethics considered by the researcher. Bak (2004) stated that any research that involves people must show an awareness of the ethical considerations and an agreement to conduct research in accordance with ethical procedures. For secondary analysis of data honesty in the reporting of results was observed. The researcher avoided the falsification and misleading of report results (Welman *et al.*, 2005). The information gathered was used for academic purposes only.

3.8 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The focus of this research was on selected NGOs operating in Mwenezi District (MDRC) Mwenezi District Rural Council (Zimbabwe). The district municipality is a government entity located at about 130km South of Masvingo Province along Masvingo-Beit Bridge Highway (Muchara, 2010). There are more than sixteen NGOs in Mwenezi District focusing on poverty alleviation. The extent of this work covered selected NGOs namely Mwenezi Development Training Centre, Plan International, Christian Care, Aquaculture Zimbabwe and CARE (see table 3.1). These humanitarian organisations employed diverse strategies towards poverty alleviation in Mwenezi District. Such a reduction in issues of focus made the study more manageable. In this study, Mwenezi

District was chosen as an ideal study site because of its nature, vulnerability and high levels of poverty. The conditions are attributed to poor rainfall patterns and low agricultural production, limited opportunities for income generation enhancement, increasing break down of family and community structures, together with adverse effects of the HIV/ AIDS pandemic (UNDP Poverty Report, 2013).

TABLE 3.1 NGOs OPERATING IN MWENEZI EAST

NGO	FIELD OF OPERATION
INFORMAL SECTOR TRAINING AND RESOURCES NETWORK	Training and Advocacy
Lutheran World Federation	Development Education, Environmental Conservation, Poverty Alleviation
MWENEZI DEVELOPMENT TRAINING CENTRE	Gender Awareness, Business Management And Organisational Skills Training
ZIMBABWE REDCROSS	Primary Health Care, Community Based Rehabilitation, Training Activities, Community Based Health
DACHICARE	Child Welfare, Sustainable Poverty Alleviation Through Training, Food Security
HEIFER PROJECT INTERNATIONAL	Distribution Of Livestock And Other Related Material
PLAN INTERNATIONAL	Growing Up Health Programmes, Early Childhood Learning.

CARE	Relief, Dam Rehabilitation, Training Of Agri-business, Supplementary Feeding
ZIMBABWE/EU MICRO PROJECT PROGRAMME	Project Appraisal, Monitoring And Evaluation
CADEC	Watsan, Gender And Development Education, Housing
CHRISTIAN CARE	Drought Relief, Livestock And Pasture Development Programme Advocacy, Small dam rehabilitation
ZIRRCO	Tree Planting, Assist Income Generating
UNICEF	Education, Child Protection
SNV	Education
ACQUACULTURE ZIMBABWE	Fisheries
AZTREC	Lobbying For Advocacy On Natural And Environmental Issues, Poverty Alleviation

3.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter explained the research methodology, introductory and background frameworks which were essential when conducting his scientific research. The chapter further discusses the reliability and validity of the research instrument. The discussion was concluded by giving the research outline which will specify the chronological order

on how the researcher undertook the research. The next chapter focused on the presentation, discussion and analysis of data obtained from secondary sources and mainly semi-structures interviews.



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CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This section of the study is a presentation of research findings and data analysis. A total of five interviews were conducted with programme managers who were the key informants in the study. The list of key informants will be presented below table 4.1. The other part of this study presented data from secondary sources using thematic content analysis. The data was organised into themes and analysed in a descriptive and analytical manner. The descriptive part covered the general nature of the administrative architecture for NGOs and their role in poverty alleviation. The analytical part assessed the relevance of literature related to the administrative structures of NGOs to see if the capacity building structures are enabling to alleviate poverty in the area under study.

TABLE 4.1 LIST OF KEY INFORMANTS INTERVIEWED

KEY INFORMANTS INTERVIEWED	ORGANISATION	YEARS WITH THE ORGANISATION
FIELD OFFICER	CHRISTIAN CARE	14YEARS
PROGRAMMES OFFICER	PLAN INTERNATIONAL	9YEARS
PROGRAMMES SUPPORT MANAGER	MWENEZI DEVELOPMENT TRAINING CENTRE	3YEARS
FIELD OFFICER	ACQUACULTURE ZIMBABWE	1YEAR
HUMAN RESOURCES AND ADMINISTRATION OFFICER	CARE ZIMBABWE	4YEARS

NB: Key informants were preferred to be addressed by their positions at work rather than names for professional and identity protection reasons.

4.2 FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

4.2.1 The mission, vision and values of NGOs

The organisations interviewed by the researcher all agreed that they have accurate vision for their organisations to grow. They all state that the main aim of establishing these organisations was a vision of seeing poverty being reduced in Mwenzi District and the country at large. They all have mission statements which clearly stipulates their intended actions in the near and long term future. This is important in NGOs since a mission statement clearly steers the organisation into the direction it wishes to go. The researcher also found out that in all the five organisations, there was a recognisable observance of values and good ethical conduct in the way they operate in development work. Three out of five of the organisations claimed that in their administrative architecture, they established some departments which deal with good ethical principles, which in fact observe the values of the communities they operate as well as values of NANGO and other recognised NGO boards. It is the vision mission and values which help in identifying the administrative structures of NGOs and measure their capability and sustainability in poverty alleviation.

4.2.2 Effective administrative structures to ensure effective management

There was an overwhelming response from the NGO participants when they agree that their organisations established clear administrative structures to ensure effective management. These structures can be categorised into three levels which are national, provincial and district level. At national level there is Chief Executive Officer/Director/Head of Programmes. On top management most NGOs interviewed state that, they have the executive management team which is the operational arm of the organisation. This team involves the CEO of the organisation with clearly assigned roles, functions and responsibilities, should manage an NGO. NANGO (2005) pointed out these roles and responsibilities are defined and executed determine the power relations, balance of authority and the extent to which an organisation will be run smoothly, effectively and professionally. Furthermore, the NGOs admit that the executive management team combines human resources, material resources and

financial resources into a productive system in which organisational objectives are attained (Odgers and Keeling, 2000). This calls for transparent organisational structures, policies, systems and qualified and committed staff together with a facilitating institutional environment (Field Work Research, September 2014).

The respondents further claim that at provincial level they have a provincial chief/administration officer with a regional committee. At this level, plans are made and then delegated to the district level following the bureaucratic structure, and this committee foresees activities performed at district level. At District level all the grassroots development and implementation of NGO projects is conducted. There are field officers, project officers, and finance and administration officers. The community is also considered as part of planning process. This is done to ensure that programmes implemented in rural areas are not duplicated and are best suited for the particular communities.

In an attempt to achieve clear and sound administrative structures, the majority of NGOs under study agree that they have monitoring and evaluation departments which play a critical role in evaluating development projects they implement in rural areas. The respondents pointed out that their organisations were properly governed since they put some measures in poverty alleviation when they established a Productive Asset Creation which is mainly funded by the World Food Programme (WFP). This technique acts as a monitoring and evaluation tool to encourage self-reliance among rural households. According to WFP (2014) Productive Asset Creation (PAC)/Cash Food for Asset (CFA) in Zimbabwe emerged after the government and other stakeholders raised concern over the continuation of food assistance without conditions since it promoted dependency syndrome and household food insecurity among rural residents. The PAC or CFA strategy was meant to empower vulnerable communities to divert from a dependency syndrome perspective of “free” food assistance and create own assets, livelihoods and survival strategies that can enable them to cope in terms of future disasters such as droughts and floods (WFP, 2014).

4.2.3 Achieving Legitimacy

The respondents from the five interviewed NGOs agreed that their organisations were fully legitimate since they were all registered in line with the government laws and NANGO regulations. According to the NGO Bill of (2004) all NGOs in Zimbabwe were supposed to be registered under the bill and had to follow its provisions in their operations. All NGOs declared that they signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) which is a government way of assessing their credibility, loyalty and the code of conduct. This is supported by a paper sponsored by CIVICUS authored by Pratt (2009) who argued that for an organisation to successfully claim legitimacy, it must strive to meet the demands of a range of different stakeholders with competing claims. In this case, the government can be regarded as a competing stakeholder probably this explains why it required all NGOs to sign a MoU. Pratt (2009) asserted further that claiming legitimacy is easier especially when the membership is clear and prioritised and more difficult for other groups where competing claims may undermine strategy and hence legitimacy. So it should be realised that legitimacy is crucial in NGO operations since the public will quickly understand their mission and actively participate in NGO projects as a way of sustaining their living standards.

4.2.4 Accountability, transparency & management

The majority of respondents interviewed agreed that their organisations were having clear accountability and transparency structures in place to ensure effective implementation of development projects in communities they operate. These structures included internal and external auditing structures which are usually conducted at the end of each financial year. Various departments such as Human Resources, Accounting, Administration and Finance department do account for their actions particularly how they used the organisational finances during the course of the year. One respondent out the five NGOs interviewed claimed that his organisation struggled to conduct internal auditing every year due to lack of experienced staff since the NGO was at its infancy stage. The respondent asserts further that, due to lack of experts and insufficient funds the organisation could not hire external evaluators which contributed to the organisation operating without any form of evaluation. Four out five NGOs interviewed ascertained that they conduct both internal and external auditing every mid

and end of the year. They maintained that such form of auditing has helped them to grow since problems were detected early i.e. misappropriation of funds hence this spearheaded effective implementation of projects in communities they operate. The internal and external audits were conducted so that the leadership of the organisation can make a comprehensive report to the funders or shareholders since the NGOs were externally funded.

Furthermore, three of out of the five NGOs interviewed claimed that as part of enhancing effective accountability and transparency in their operations. They state that their organisations were in possession of project documents which illustrate what is required by the stakeholders and the field officers and project officers were supposed to act accordingly. At grassroots level the organisations were having counsellors and headmen/kraal herds who helped in informing the people about the projects brought by NGOs. The respondents admit further that their field officers visited communities and conduct meetings with the beneficiaries' who are the people. The respondents elaborated further that the field officers allowed the public to list the type of projects they want to be implemented in their communities. The NGOs conducted monthly meetings with sub-committees to inquire on the progress and implementation of development projects. This is an important control measure in ensuring that administrative structures at grassroots level are functioning effectively to achieve organisation's objectives.

In addition the three participants claimed that on development projects they implement, they exercise accountability through immediate evaluation. This type of evaluation is done prior to implementation of a project to see if it can take off on a solid ground or people have accepted the projects for it to be implemented. This is followed by Baseline Evaluation Assessment which is used to provide an information base against which to monitor and assess an activity's progress and effectiveness during the implementation and after the activity has been completed. It is followed by mid-term evaluation. NGOs are evaluated to see if their administrative architecture is still intact and efficient enough to spearhead development. This is significant on the part of development projects NGOs implement in rural areas because this evaluation measures the mid-term

successes of the project. If they are errors efficient remedies can be implemented to address the situation. As part of accountability mechanism the majority of the NGOs agreed that they are audited annually first by an internal auditor within the organisation being followed by an external auditor to avoid bias and obtain fair results.

4.2.5 Ensuring Capacity building

The majority of respondents from the five NGOs commonly agree that their organisations conducted programmes to ensure sufficient capacity building and service delivery. They maintained that their organisations conducted orientation, induction, training and development of staff as a way of equipping their employees with the necessary job skills since the field of development is ever-changing. One manager out of the five NGOs stipulates that his organisation conducted Programme Side Seminar Management whereby development projects are monitored on site by project managers to see how effective they are. The manager added further that his organisation employed people who are highly qualified to enhance effective capacity building programmes i.e. training of staff. Another programmes officer from the NGOs interviewed by researcher remarked that *“we have vocational schools here to train the local people on how to run development projects and be able to sustain themselves”*. She went on to say that *“we teach them skills such as carpentry, brick laying, knitting, weaving, farming, boiler making, and bee keeping among others”*. The empowerment of local people through skills development is a fundamental obligation for NGOs since development in impoverished areas is spearheaded in event the people are well capacitated and able to ignite their own form of development.

The researcher also found out that some NGO staff members undergo training programmes to improve on their skills in delivering services to rural areas. Lessons were offered on how to implement development projects and how to manage people. For instance, Mwenezi Development Training Centre formulated a staff development budget that was directed towards: facilitating training workshops and seminars as part of improving technical expertise and efficiency among the NGO staff members. However,

in one of the NGOs interviewed the program manager stated that his organisation does not have capacity building programmes since it was still growing and the organisation rely heavily on staff sent from the head office or those that breakaway from other existing organisations. The respondent pointed out that inadequate funding from donor agencies inhibited them from conducting staff training and development. This proved to have negative effects since several development projects were crippled due to lack of skilled personnel that can monitor and evaluate progress in development projects. This is corroborated with the views of ACPD (2000) which endorsed that the programmes the NGOs were implementing with the help of Local Government Ministry were a success, and eager to have a civil society which is aware of its rights and duties which cannot be suppressed. The point illustrated the pivotal role played by NGOs in poverty alleviation in the absence of external interferences.

4.2.6 Monitoring and evaluation of development projects

The majority of respondents from the interviewed NGOs indicated that their organisations often conduct monitoring and evaluation of development projects. Firstly they conduct site monitoring whereby a project is monitored at its place of implementation right from the time it is launched. This resembles a pilot study to see if the project will ascend from the ground or not. Also site monitoring was important in familiarising the project with the recipients. On that note any problems which appeared were quickly addressed.

Secondly in distributing food to vulnerable rural communities, NGOs such as CARE, Christian Care illustrated that they conduct Food Basket Monitoring (FBM) and Post Distribution Monitoring (PDM) concurrently. Food basket monitoring involves the random selection of numbers of families at the distribution site, weighing their rations and comparing the results with the planned ration and the family size mentioned on the ration cards. Soon after the distribution they conduct a Post-Distribution Monitoring. The UNHCR (2011) clarified that post distribution monitoring (PDM) is an ex-post monitoring and evaluation of a location and time specific Non-Food Item (NFI) distribution conducted independently from the NFI distribution exercise itself. The aims of

conducting a PDM are to collect information at the household level on the quantity of food received, the use of food aid, and its acceptability as well as quality.

The respondents elaborated further that the duration for conducting a PDM is usually two weeks after a monthly distribution. Two out of the five NGOs programmes officers mentioned that they conduct PDM as part of monitoring and evaluation exercise of development projects. However, in three NGOs the researcher could not find PDM and the respondents argued that it was time and cost intensive exercise which the NGOs do not have capacity to handle. This explained the quick demise of NGO projects in rural areas under this study since NGOs lack proper evaluation techniques resulting from inadequate information dissemination.

4.2.7 Insufficient financial resources

The respondents from all NGOs commonly agree that shortage of financial resources is a challenge affecting them in conducting monitoring and evaluation (M&E). The NGOs did not have enough funding to execute M & E which contributed to little funds they acquired, to be channelled towards implementation of development projects. Monitoring and evaluation were regarded as expensive exercises which required excessive funding to undertake hence the three organisations chose to ignore on grounds of poor revenue base. It is evident that the shortage of funds crippled the NGOs' capacity to hire external evaluators which may have emptied the already bleeding NGO accounts. In the same vein, the shortage of technology (i.e. computers) and technical expertise amongst NGOs employees proved to be a serious challenge in implementing monitoring and evaluation strategies. The respondents from all NGOs openly state that a huge number of NGO staff were technologically inefficient, of which they suggest that the NGO top management were supposed to initiate training programmes which will equip their staff with the necessary skills to cope in the dynamic technological environment.

4.2.8 Coalition building and Networking

From the five organisations interviewed the researcher found out that all of them networked with other organisations in the study area on issues of common interest though they differ in some respects. For instance the NGOs admitted that they partnered with Mwenezi Development Training Centre (local NGO), National Parks &

Wildlife Authority, Environment Management Agents (EMA), Mwenezi Rural District Council (MRDC) and (DA) District Administrator Office, World Food Programme (WFP) and Department of Agricultural Technical and Extension Services (AGRITEX) on issues related to development in the district. The majority of the NGOs interviewed by the researcher asserted that they all conduct coalition building and networking with other civil society organisations on issues of common interest. The World Food Programme management board in (2008) supported coalition building and networking, when it states that NGO activities are of great significance since NGOs are continuing and accelerating economic development and this a route to alleviating poverty. This is manifested by food for work programmes implemented by NGOs to alleviate poverty in rural areas.

4.2.9 Common challenges in networking, coalition building and partnerships

Across all the NGOs interviewed by the researcher, respondents agreed that while networking remains a critical issue in ensuring sustainability and effective service delivery, some challenges have emanated from such actions. Firstly the problem of diverse working cultures, some NGOs did not have history of working in close partnerships with others. They often operate as islands. In most cases, they boast or perceive themselves as more superior than others which reduce the chances of working in a coalition with others. Secondly, the NGOs commonly agree that communication has been a barrier despite the fact that partnerships and good communication between or among organisations with diverse communication approaches and language, different cultures, should prevail. The NGOs state that to eradicate this challenge, interpreters were often hired with two or more reports of meetings compiled for various audiences in the coalition which can also inhibit the participative processes.

Thirdly, power relations were cited by respondents as one of the biggest challenges affecting NGO networking. This resulted from many factors such as gender representation since each subsector does want to be dominated by another. On that note, some NGOs found it difficult to cooperate due to their diverse backgrounds for instance Christian NGOs involved in food aid find it difficult to engage NGOs that focus on maintaining aqua-life and fisheries (fish farming). The two NGO are both aimed at

poverty alleviation programmes but on different ground using different strategies hence networking was regarded as a barrier. NANGO (2006) Section 2.3.3 specify that in order to experience good partnerships NGOs were supposed to be reciprocal in transparency and accountability meaning NGOs who were partners should account to each other. Partners are supposed to conduct joint decision making as well as having clear and regular communication. This is important because clear mechanisms are able to facilitate collective ownership, trust and openness. This also helps in the fair distribution of costs and benefits since NGOs claimed that this was one of the factors which caused disputes in partnerships. Some partners were reluctant to pull weight resulting in finger-pointing. Moreover, the respondents reckon that conflict resolution strategies should be established collectively in order for every partner to abide by them. If NGOs were to understand one another coalition building and networking could have been a success in rural poverty alleviation.

4.2.10 Principal agent problems

This response came from the five NGOs interviewed by the researcher, which all claim that the principal agent problem largely contributed to the fall of development projects in communities they operate. The respondents insisted that the separation of governance and management from the communities they serve greatly hampered project implementation, information dissemination and oversight of the organisation. Wyatt (2004) supported this, when he argued that NGO top management (CEOs/Country Directors) should be close to the field or often visit district offices to see how field officers are operating in communities. One field officer interviewed complained that *"I am currently working in 5 wards in the district in all the community development projects offered by my organisation. The projects I should administer are so many to the extent that I spend close to a month without visiting some of them to see how they are going. I need to conduct mass meetings with communities to hear what they like to be done in their communities. The work is just but too much for me. I have already told my bosses to add more field workers but they have since not responded to my request"*. A critical analysis along these views led the researcher to conclude that NGOs need to decentralise or narrow top management and increase officers in the field to improve service delivery since this help NGOs in poverty alleviation to realise their dreams.

These findings discussed below came from the other part of interviews with NGOs on their role in poverty alleviation in rural communities they operate in Mwenezi District.

4.3 Lack of public participation

From, four of the five organisations interviewed, the researcher found out that public participation in development projects was so high. The interviewees stated that public participation was people oriented. People willingly participated in land conservation programmes especially in issues related to climate change. In most communities these organisations operated, people proposed their own form of development for instance they announced that they need certain projects such as fisheries, gardening and dry farming projects to help them supplement their food supplies. Some of the people worked in projects in what was called “food for assets” meaning they work in a certain project rendered by an NGO in return for the outputs that came from such a project. The majority of respondents claimed that communities were involved in all levels of planning (community level participatory and planning). Meetings were conducted by field officers with the relevant communities the NGOs intend to serve. On the agenda of the mass meetings issues discussed were related to the type of projects they want to be done in their areas and feedback on the previous projects. This was indeed an efficient and strategic way of avoiding the implementation of irrelevant or preconceived projects to communities without gathering proper knowledge about what the community wants.

4.3.1 Effectiveness of poverty alleviation strategies

Various strategies were used by some of the NGOs interviewed by the researcher to alleviate poverty in rural areas in the study area. The researcher found out that NGOs use conservation farming, small livestock rearing, and small dam rehabilitation, bee keeping and nutrition gardening. These programmes were meant to help people to survive on the hard climatic conditions of Mwenezi district and to mitigate food security. A significant number of development projects have been successful in Mwenezi District particularly small dam rehabilitation since many small dams were rehabilitated to increase access to water for both domestic consumption and livestock. Strategies, successes and challenges faced by NGOs are deeply addressed below:

4.3.2 Small dam rehabilitation

Through interacting with some programmes managers in NGOs under study, the researcher discovered that some NGOs such as Mwenezi Development Training Centre and Christian Care were sponsoring projects such as small dam rehabilitation in Mwenezi East, Ward 2 and 3 in areas such as Rata and Shazhaume. This project is essential in supplementing water supplies since Mwenezi District is a dry region due to periodic drought spells. Also Christian Care engaged on financing smallholder irrigation schemes in Ward 3 in Chief Mawarire. The NGO provided drip kits for drip irrigation to communal farmers in the ward. Farmers and some unemployed youth embraced the pivotal role being played by Christian and MDTC in reducing poverty among rural livelihoods. The farmers appreciated the fact that the drip kits sponsored by the NGO have been useful to farmers since they were economically efficient in saving water. One field officer reported that farmers in the rural areas they operated appreciated the significant role played by Christian Care in Ward 3. The lives of people were greatly transformed since the drip kits were used in their gardens making their job much easier. The manager claimed further that the people in that ward generated income from selling the produce. He added further that his organisation went an extra mile and sponsored the people with barbed wire and security fence to protect their gardens from roaming animals". This was a positive step in improving the livelihoods of the local people.

4.3.3 Conservation farming

This is largely implemented by Christian care in rural communities. Conservation farming is an adoption of several husbandry practises that together comprise a complete farming system. These strategies enable farmers to plant a large area since they are not moving or turning over the soil before they plant. This also saves money and time. Soon after harvesting farmers began preparations to plant early once rain falls. Labour is spread across the year hence farmers are flexible. In drought prone regions like region five under case study, conservation farming minimises crop loss in drought years and improves food security, this strategy have been helpful in the past and is still one of the best poverty alleviation tool NGOs ever used in rural areas of Mwenezi prior to declining weather patterns and persistent droughts.

4.3.4 Fish farming and Aquaculture

From an interview conducted by the researcher with a field officer from Aquaculture Zimbabwe an NGO which sought to alleviate poverty through fisheries and conservation of aquatic life, it has been discovered that communities greatly enjoyed several rewards coming from aquaculture projects. The local people were sponsored with boats, nets and technical expertise on how to fish in major dams such as Manyuchi Dam the biggest dam in Mwenezi District. Produce (fish) from this project were sold to local markets and some even exported beyond international boundaries. In this study, aquaculture is the farming of aquatic organisms, including fish, molluscs, crustaceans and aquatic plants. FAO (2006) explained that farming implies some form of intervention in the rearing process to enhance production, such as regular stocking, feeding and protection from predators. Farming also implies individual or corporate ownership of stock being cultivated. This project as a poverty alleviation technique was very successful since the communities benefited a lot and food security was greatly improved. The field officer interviewed claims that *“the day we launched the fisheries project many villagers became eager to join the fishing clubs within our project. The fisheries project was flooded since many people saw the benefits that were going to come out this project. Food security greatly improved as the produce (fish) was sold to the local markets and some exported at highly competitive prices. The project members were able to sustain their families and send their children to school”*. Such a project has also led to the regeneration of employment and uplifting of the standards of living for rural people using the available scarce resources on the land.

4.3.5 Livestock rearing/ Cattle Ranching

This is one of the greatest strategies used by NGOs in Mwenezi District to alleviate poverty. Previously an NGO called Heifer International used to provide people in various wards such as Ward 1, 2, 3, 5 with cattle popularly known as Heifers due to their magnificent sizes. These cattle were meant to breed and after giving birth, they were then passed on to the next person. By doing this in rounds each villager got the equal opportunity to have livestock. In the same vein, Christian Care supplied livestock such as goats and chickens to poor households as way of empowering them in livestock rearing. However, critics interrogated the awaiting period of passing the livestock to the

next person, since at times due to dry spells in Mwenezi District the cattle die before breeding which is a drawback to the NGOs in achieving their objectives. As a poverty alleviation strategy NGOs in this regard are credited for empowering local communities through livestock rearing.

4.3.6 Bee keeping

Notably NGOs in Mwenezi have partnered with government in providing sustainable livelihoods to the people of Mwenezi particularly in Chitanga area in Ward 1 of Mwenezi East. A quantitative study carried out by Chazovachii *et al.*, (2013) on Livelihood Resilient Strategies through Beekeeping in Chitanga Village, pointed out that the people of Chitanga village in Mwenezi District benefited from this project since they acquired honey, food income, scenery creation suitable for tourism, medicines and various income generating projects through construction of hives, and growing of trees with citrus fruits which attracts bees. The role played by NGOs in transforming rural livelihoods should not be underestimated since standards of living of people greatly improved.

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4.3.7 Nutrition gardening

Some NGOs implemented Nutrition gardening whereby children and mothers were provided milk and other nutritious foods to improve their health standards. In the same vein, Christian Care sponsored irrigation schemes to some wards, which was a positive contribution towards improving food security in the communities since the district was often hit by dry spells.

4.3.8 Education empowerment and Child protection

NGOs such as Plan International promoted education system in the district through paying school fees and sponsoring textbooks, school uniforms, and holiday trips to schools such as (Mwenezi, Government High School, Budirirai High School, and Guiding Star Secondary Schools etc). Vulnerable children especially the orphans and those in child headed families who were left by their parents due to death from HIV/AIDS and natural deaths benefited from these programmes since many of them were able to continue with school. On the other hand, Christian Care in complementing the role of Plan International offered supplementary feeding to various primary schools and pre-

schools in the district. Most, importantly the organisation introduced child protection policies to protect children of school going age especially the girl child since they were the most vulnerable to abuse, ill-treatment and persecution from parents or guardians. Child protection has been recently part of the government agenda to lessen cases of girl child abuse emanating from religious sects and some barbaric cultural practises. Christian Care is touring Mwenezi District launching educative campaigns to stop abuse of women and children since this has led to psychological trauma and early deaths due to suicides or natural deaths. The role played by these NGOs has been successful since most children in marginalised backgrounds were able to attend school and improve their standards of living. The children were able to attend school safely since the government has established laws to protect them from harm and other forms of physical and emotional abuse.

Furthermore, a respondent from Mwenezi Development Training Centre stated that her organisation established a vocational school which is used to train the local people to equip them with the necessary skills to self-employ themselves and sustain in the impoverished region. The school is legitimate since it is registered under the Ministry of Higher Education Sport and Culture in Zimbabwe. A recent success of NGO operations were witnessed in Chingwizi Transit Camp in Mwenezi where various NGOs such as Christian Care, CARE and Mwenezi Development Training Centre played a pivotal role in assisting the flood victims. The victims were given supplementary feeding which was a resounding success. However, recent criticism questions the living conditions of the villagers since many are crowded in the few sponsored tents. Some sources have recently reported on the outbreak of diseases due to poor sanitations. Prostitution and school dropouts have been on the increase since no measures have been taken yet by government to address such problems. Despite the aid being rendered by NGOs, it is advisable that they should do more since they have the resources to help improve the lives of the isolated villagers.

4.4 Overstaffing on top management

Four of the NGOs interviewed agreed that they face numerous challenges in their administrative structures which inhibited effective service delivery. The organisations'

organograms have a top heavy bureaucratic structure. The respondents argued that there is overstaffing at head offices. The main argument was that the people who work as administrators in head offices exceed the number of people working on the ground (field workers). The interviewees complained that the worst part was that organisations in remote areas which were coordinated from the main offices were poorly funded due to poor budgeting strategies at national level. This is attributed to the problem of principal agent problem which is the separation of ownership from business. This is a scenario where the directors usually abroad or in major cities delegate decisions or work to agents which act as field workers to spearhead development in areas they are operating. The principal agent problem to a larger extent has culminated into the demise of several development projects in rural areas as a result of poor monitoring strategies.

4.4 1. Problem of political interference

Majority of NGOs in Mwenezi District enjoyed good political relationship with the government despite various arguments that they were under persecution. NGOs under study often collaborated with the government on common issues of development. All NGOs were required to sign a memorandum of understanding (MoU) with the government in which they agree on the path to development. Other NGOs in Mwenezi District who seems to defy government policies were whatsoever affected to the extent that they had to stop working. For instance in 2013 the provincial governor of Masvingo announced a ban on NGO operations which was a nightmare to some NGOs though some resume operations. NGOs with religious background such as Christian Care and Mwenezi Development Training Centre which has grassroots origins never ceased operations since the government regarded them as people centred and apolitical humanitarian institutions. Adeh (2014; Lewis and Kanji, 2009) argued that government's attitude towards NGOs often varies from place to place and tend to change with successive regimes. On that note, given the hostile nature of the Zimbabwean government rising from 2000 elections, in which the opposition and international community widely criticised the flaws and widespread voting irregularities which disrupt NGOs activities. Given the nature of the high polarised environment, the government implemented stringent measures to curb controversial NGO activities in the name of control and financial mechanisms. It should be noted that the anti-NGO policies

including the dynamic economic conditions stood against NGO progress in rural development process.

4.4.2 NGOs and a code of conduct

The majority of NGOs interviewed claimed that their organisations possessed a code of conduct which is a set of rules or code of ethics which they use to execute their duties. Two of the five NGO professed ignorance when asked about the code of conduct. They narrated that they operated according to the way they seem fit and no one bothered to ask, since there was no top management to monitor them. Most NGOs state that they were happy to have a national code of conduct, created by (NANGO) National Association of Non-Governmental Organisations. This code has been followed by many NGOs in the development sector since it conforms to good ethics when dealing with humans.

4.4.3 Slow public response to development projects

Three out the five NGOs interviewed complained that in an effort to render development projects, many communities take time to respond to newly established development. This is derailed more by the high capacity gap especially in information technology. The majority of community participate in development projects after they had witnessed the successes elsewhere. This can also be attributed to low publicity of NGO projects in rural communities due to poor telecommunications networks. However, by the time of this study information dispensation had improved greatly with the wide increase in cell phones, radios and other means of communication. Also the launching of awareness campaigns greatly helped communities to understand the nature and purpose of NGO projects.

As a way of addressing these challenges all the respondents from all NGOs asserted that they all have monitoring and evaluation departments which existed to measure and evaluate performance management in development projects. About three respondents claimed that they had developed a website to introduce and inform the world and relevant communities about their organisation, and available poverty alleviation projects they were offering. With the increase in technology in rural areas this was a recommendable step since anyone can browse on any NGO website to acquire an in-

depth information and understanding of development projects going on in their area. Furthermore, the majority of NGOs agreed that they all established good relationships with the media which means that in the execution of their duties, they would receive positive publicity which made them legitimate hence grow and expand in the communities they operate.

One respondent argued that people themselves were a problem to development. This was because some people in the rural areas tend to question the legitimacy and authenticity of NGOs hence they want to maintain their status quo in the way development should be conducted. This was regarded as a biggest challenge to NGOs since development projects often fail due to human attitude, reluctance to participate which exacerbates sabotage. The argument here is that people do not change their attitudes towards NGO driven development, most rural communities still continue to lag behind development despite NGO operations for a long period of time.

In summary, respondents from all organisations came to consensus that to improve on the administrative architecture of NGOs in poverty alleviation, there should be a serious downsizing of employees in NGOs top management since this has compromised budgeting expenditures. Also NGOs should decentralise their offices since the delegation of duties from the head office at times compromised service delivery in rural communities. The respondents argued that more people should be deployed in the field other than at head offices since much of the work was on the ground. This could help NGOs to achieve their goals of alleviating poverty in rural areas, since more fieldworkers can help in the monitoring and evaluation of development projects. The respondents asserted further that the top management of NGOs should embark on wellness programmes to enhance employee satisfaction. For example most field workers in NGOs are deployed in deep remote rural areas sometimes with harsh or unfavourable climatic conditions. These people need benefits such as bush allowances and other incentives to motivate them to carry out their mandate.

4.5 DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

The findings of this study in which Christian Care, Aquaculture Zimbabwe, Mwenezi Development Training Centre, Plan International and CARE Zimbabwe, have unmasked many challenges that force NGOs to carry out poverty alleviation programmes in Mwenezi District as part of complementing government failure and assisting the vulnerable population out of their deep poverty. Evidence from this study indicated that they are internal and external challenges which affected the administrative architecture or organisational structures of NGOs in poverty alleviation programmes in the district.

The shortage of enough financial and strategic management initiatives, capacity building programmes in some organisations has crippled many development projects in rural areas. Evidence from this study has shown that some NGOs in their administrative structures lack skilled personnel such as human resource officers, accounts managers, proper governance and management initiatives, proper accountability and transparent structures which all worked against enhancing effective service provision in rural communities they operate. On that same note, financial problems have largely contributed to demise of several development projects especially in growing NGOs such as Aquaculture Zimbabwe which heavily deals in fisheries as a poverty alleviation tool. Lack of finances emanated from poor fundraising strategies and poor budgeting techniques plans owing to lack of qualified finance officers in some NGOs.

Legitimacy and political interference from government have been two major problems for three of out five NGOs interviewed by the researcher. The three organisations despite signing a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU), still find it hard to please the government since they were often regarded as spearheading regime change or implementing western agenda. This is evidenced by a ban imposed on NGOs in Masvingo Province in 2013 by the Provincial Governor (*Newsday 2013*). In the case study area, NGOs such as Mwenezi Development Training Centre and Christian Care resumed operations since they were regarded as grassroots and Christian centred organisations respectively. The highly polarised environment scared some NGOs such as Plan International and CARE to the extent that they could not distribute

supplementary feeding in distribution centres in comfort. These NGOs were seen as supporting the opposition parties hence it was difficult to prove their legitimacy even in development projects, people mistrusted them due to their 'so called' bad publicity from government and national media at large.

Networking and coalition building has greatly improved among Zimbabwean NGOs, since the majority seeks partnerships locally and internationally rather than only with northern and western countries. NGOs have been collaborating on issues related to development in rural areas and this was a positive step in reducing the duplication of development projects. It is imperative to note that various NGOs in Zimbabwe have been very innovative, developed models and new ideas on how to render rural poverty alleviation strategies. The NGOs have also been active in seeking locally minded NGOs within the region to share information and identify issues of common interests. NANGO has also been active in organising consortiums for NGOs where they table issues to developed new frameworks new ideas and share experiences.

In development work evidence proved that NGOs have been playing a vital role in the development of new initiatives, programmes, approaches, mechanisms and components of programmes to address poverty related issues in rural communities. They have been seen at the forefront of several innovations that have led to construction of new models that have been adopted by various stakeholders in developmental circles. Due to their generally flexible organisational or administrative structures and characteristics such as organisational autonomy, participatory structures, NGOs have added value to development projects since they have abundant time to engage relevant stakeholders such as community members to discuss and teach them the nature and way to development. This has greatly led to institutional improvements. It remains a challenge to all NGOs indulging in development to improve on the administrative structures of their organisations since the majority of donor agencies require such capabilities in appraising and formulating NGO development projects

4.5.1 SUMMARY: LESSONS LEARNT

Various sources criticised the way NGOs dealt with challenges emanating from donor agencies, clients and other stakeholders. Problems of inadequate funding, poor

fundraising strategies and control measures, communication and accountability and transparent structures affect work of every NGO in Zimbabwe. From the research findings and analysis of data, the researcher learnt that NGOs in Zimbabwe still have a long way to go in rural poverty alleviation. There is a greater need for NGOs to improve on their administrative architecture especially on monitoring and evaluation systems, control mechanisms and fundraising capacities since this can help NGOs' sustenance in the long term. NGOs should learn to self-sustain themselves since their entire dependence on external aid led to donor syndrome and kills the spirit to innovate new ideas and new models which can help in spearheading development projects in vulnerable communities. Also NGOs should decentralise authority and narrow their span of control since, labour shortages have been realised in the communities whereby field officers are understaffed at district level. NGOs are encouraged to have a unified code of conduct for its staff to minimise corruption and mismanagement issues.

4.6 SECONDARY ANALYSIS OF DATA

This section of the research presented, discussed and analysed data. The information obtained from documents was analysed using thematic content analysis and filtering techniques. In terms of the diverse forms and sources of data, the study used both descriptive and analytical approach. The descriptive approach made use of qualitative data gathering covering the general nature of the administrative architecture of NGOs and their role in development. Administrative structures such as governance, monitoring and evaluation, control, budgeting and fundraising structures have been reviewed. The analytical part employed the review of primary and secondary sources of data such as NGO documents, progress reports, and policy statements from these NGOs in order to evaluate the progress they have made in implementing development in poor rural communities of Zimbabwe. Secondary sources such as library materials, internet, newspapers, journals and periodicals gave current reports on NGOs performance in Zimbabwe and Africa at large. This information from these sources helped in evaluating the administrative architecture and capacity building of NGOs in service delivery in Zimbabwe. Below is thematic content analysis which was used to analyse secondary data in this study.

4.7. OBJECTIVE 1

To evaluate the administrative architecture of NGOs and their role in alleviating poverty in Zimbabwe.

4.7.1 Theme 1: Evaluation of the administrative architecture of NGOs

Evidence from the field notes revealed that all NGOs have administrative structures in place to ensure effective management. These administrative structures encompass the following departments: Human Resources (HR), Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E), Accounting, Purchasing and Supply, Finance and Administration (Field Notes, 2014). These administrative structures were efficient in ensuring effective implementation of poverty alleviation programmes in rural areas. Evidence suggested that while some of the NGOs possessed clear accountability and transparency structures in place some did not have. This was because some NGOs were still growing as a result they lack enough funds to hire the needed administrative staff to execute their work.

It is fundamental to realise that accountability structures have been influential in the success of NGO operations in Zimbabwe. Most NGOs have established administrative structures in place to ensure effective governance of their organisations. On one hand, it is a pity that, some NGOs do not have proper accountability structures to enhance effective rural poverty alleviation. Their reasons are many ranging from inadequate finance, poor fundraising strategies, lack of control and governance mechanisms. Edwards and Hulme (1995) argued that accountability should be viewed as a complex challenge for NGOs since they have multiple constituencies which need to be accounted for in a diverse manner to different groups and stakeholders. The ever-increasing lack of attention rendered by various NGOs to questions of accountability has paved way to over accountability to government or donors at the expense of 'downward' or sideways' accountability to beneficiaries and clients (Lewis and Kanji, 2009:28). In Zimbabwe this has been a growing problem given nature of the laws such as NGO Bill of (2004), PVO Act of (2007) and other policy requirements particularly the Memorandum of Understanding (MoU). Critical scholarship argued that NGOs seem to have become obedient to governments to escape bans or disruptions. The failure of some NGOs to account has led some scholars to dubb them Achilles heel of the NGO

movement meaning NGO have followed the trends and reputation of other NGOs in which they are often referred to unaccountable institutions(Lewis and Kanji, 2009).

4.7.2 Theme 2: How is capacity building in NGOs? Is it enabling to deliver services?

Literature suggested that NGOs in Zimbabwe have been trying to promote capacity building in various ways. Some NGOs offered staff training and development to their employees in areas such as human resources management, accounting, finance, monitoring and evaluation workshops and seminars (Lewis, 2005; Mpofu, 2012). These programmes were meant to increase and facilitate skills development in NGOs as part of improving the organisational structures of these NGOs. Also it is imperative to note that, NGOs extend capacity building to communities they serve. From the Field Notes (2014) NGOs in this study offered training programmes to community members as a way of increasing self-reliance, technical know-how and skills development. The main areas they train people include brick laying carpentry, farming, weaving, knitting, credit, and gardening and poultry projects. These skills were meant to eradicate the dependency syndrome among rural people so that they self-employ themselves rather waiting for donor funding. IFAD (2001) concurred and pointed out that NGOs often have the capacity to touch the segments of people in rural communities which the government neglects or do not offer top priority. NGOs often penetrated into deep rural areas and pinpoint the marginalised segments of rural areas deliberately looking for those people who are excluded in the development process due to their isolation and lack of assets. It can be well argued that NGOs in Zimbabwe tried to enhance capacity building as a way of improving the administrative capacity of their organisations in delivering services to rural communities.

4.7.3 Theme 3: Governance and NGOs

Lekorwe and Mpabanga (2007b) claimed that management and governance are key issues in achieving an effective administrative architecture in the NGO movement. Various NGOs who were not properly governed collapsed due to corruption, mismanagement of resources, poor capacity building structures. In this study, for instance it has been recognised that NGOs in the study area does not have proper

organisational structures to spearhead development projects in rural areas. They do not exercise proper accountability on how they use a NGO funds. In rural areas field officers often abuse or divert NGO projects to areas they saw fit and they is no-one to monitor or do a follow-up. This is a challenge attributed to the principal agent problem where Directors or funders of development projects are not in close touch with the events on the ground. Cavil and Sohail (2007b) in response to this, argue that the problem for NGOs is where to account. On that note, Wallace (2004b) believes that NGOs in Zimbabwe seems to have lost their radical origins. He ascertains further that, some NGOs are poorly governed to the extent that one cannot differentiate the difference between a programmes officer and field officer in development project. This at times led to communities and the government to question the legitimacy of NGOs. Some cases of NGOs also duplicating development projects probably due to lack of research culture in NGOs could have led to repeated or poor implementation of development projects in rural areas. Good governance in poverty alleviation is important to NGOs since their roles will be emulated by the government, recipients and the international community at large. NGOs in Zimbabwe are encouraged to have sound administrative structures which define the roles of individuals in the organisation. This is significant in realising effective service delivery and poverty alleviation in rural communities. From the analyses of relevant literature it can be deduced that in reference to objective one, NGOs have the capacity to improve on their administrative architecture. There is a greater need for establishing good administrative structures with experienced people who are well groomed in governance and management issues.

4.8 OBJECTIVE 2

To evaluate the extent at which the administrative architecture of NGOs is capable to deliver services to rural areas.

4.8.1 Theme 1: Benefits of having clear and efficient administrative structures of NGOs in rural service delivery.

NGOs in Zimbabwe have been struggling to prove their legitimacy especially in times of political unrest. The government at some point accuses NGOs of being masters of western imperialism who seek to implement regime change through developmental aid.

If NGOs can have clear administrative setups which have proper accountable and transparent structures they will enjoy operating in rural communities. Various scholars accuse NGOs of being unaccountable institutions which does not give feedback to the people on the activities or projects they are implementing. These allegations often cause NGOs to loose legitimacy in front of the public and the government. Aviles (2012) clarified that NGOs need to clearly illustrate their vision, mission and values of their organisation. These principles help in identifying the purpose and reasons for the existence of such an organisation. As a point of analysis, it can be deduced that the general public quickly responds to NGO which are well structured which indicate their strategic plans, mission statements etc.

The advantage of having clear administrative structures in NGOs is that, since it enhances legitimacy in the eyes of government, stakeholders and the beneficiaries. Ngwenya (2013b) indicated that NGOs should have clear control systems whereby top management supervise, audit, monitor and evaluate the activities of junior staff. The NGO employees need to adhere to authority and other principles of good conduct. He claims further that it is a requirement for NGOs to have clear financial controls such as budgeting, record keeping, planning and financial monitoring. These help in keeping the financial stability of the organisation. Layton (2005b) on that note added that, NGOs in their administrative architecture should have fundraising committees or structures which is an innovative framework able to raise money for the organisation through fundraising activities. Thomas (1999b) argued that in NGOs it is the duty of the body of trustees to appoint such committees which ensure that the organisation functions with adequate finance. So it can be realised from this discussion that objective 2 can be achieved in event NGOs revamp their administrative systems and introduce new efficient mechanisms which ensure effective management of their institutions.

4.9 OBJECTIVE 3

To assess the challenges faced by NGOs in their administrative architecture for rural service delivery.

4.9.1 Theme 1: Challenges faced by NGOs in their administrative architecture

From relevant literature, it has been noted by (Lewis 2005; Dhakhal 2006; Lekorwe and Mpabanga, 2007) that NGOs in Zimbabwe and abroad faced challenges in their organisational structures which inhibit effective service delivery. The authors discovered that NGOs lack proper accountability, transparency, capacity building and legitimate structures to deliver their mandate. This has resulted in many defunct projects they implement in rural communities. This is corroborated from the field notes in this study which states that some NGOs lack clear administrative structures such monitoring and evaluation department, research departments which contributed to the duplication of development projects and improper implementation since the needs of the communities were not in alignment with the projects implemented by NGOs. On the other hand, it should be noted that in relation to the administrative architecture of NGOs literature suggested that there is a greater need for improvement in the governance, strategic management, financial management, monitoring and evaluation and capacity building structures since unclear and incompetent administrative structures have cultivated seeds for the failure of many NGO projects in rural areas. NGOs need to restructure their organisations in a manner that promotes proper accountability and smooth running of the organisation. This can be done by introducing controls and checks mechanism such as internal and external auditing, midterm and annual reporting to stakeholders, funders or to beneficiaries. These control mechanisms help NGOs in practising the principles of good governance since accounting to those groups of people portray their transparency in their conduct of work. It is worth noting that this objective is still in the process of being achieved since NGOs in Zimbabwe are regularly questioned on their legitimacy in service delivery programmes as well as especially in times of elections by the government. The media in Zimbabwe often criticise the government for accusing NGOs of destabilising the country in the form of developmental aid plans, vision and mission, whereas the former tends to oppose this thereby proposing a governmental way of delivering services. In times of droughts in Mwenezi District supplementary feeding in the form of food packages took time to be delivered to depots due misunderstanding between the two parties.

4.9 2 Theme 2: challenges faced by NGOs in development work

Ferguson (2011:5) affirmed that political interference has been a stumbling block to poverty alleviation and successful implementation of policies and development projects aimed at reducing poverty. This point corroborated with the findings of (Chakawarika, 2011; Mpofu, 2012) who stated that the harsh political climate in Zimbabwe discouraged civil society operations since they were often persecuted and labeled traitors who impose western driven agenda. The World Summit on Social Development (1995) stated that lack of political will among government has hindered the expansion and growth of NGOs in developing countries. In Zimbabwe, the government often interfered in the work of civil society for instance NGOs are required to sign a MoU which is a paradigm shift from the NGO Bill of 2004 which force NGOs to be registered and operate in a way the government deems necessary. To a larger extent, this objective has been partially achieved since the government in Zimbabwe has full control of NGOs, and operations bans are sometimes imposed such 2013 ban of NGOs in Masvingo (*Newsday; Herald*, 2013).

4.9.3 Theme 3. Lack of financial sustainability

Financial sustainability has been a growing problem working against NGOs in poverty alleviation. Most NGOs in Zimbabwe as Layton (1995) puts it depend entirely on donor funding which has impacted negatively on their operations in communities they serve. NGOs rely on donor agencies such as World Bank, Common Wealth and European Union. In the wake of highly competitive globalised world of corporate affairs, donors' institutions themselves lack the required capital to finance NGOs in developing countries hence this has led to the fall of some NGOs since they fail to sustain due to liquidity crisis (Aldaba, 2002; Kihato and Rapoo, 1999). Another issue is the funders or donors usually account to boards of directors and ministries, so they are required to exercise transparent and openness on how they manage their finances. It is a challenge for NGOs to remain viable and relevant in the development sector, they should be able to self-sponsor themselves so as to sustain in the long term. It has been realised that some NGOs cease operations due to internal problems ranging from corruption, improper accountability and transparent structures, lack of monitoring and evaluation and financial mismanagement owing to poor planning processes. Kihato and Rapoo,

(1999) echoed the sentiments when they agree that foreign investors or donor agencies have increasingly improved their funding standards since they check the administrative structures of NGOs mainly accountability, organisational capacity, proper financial management, accounting procedures in order to supply funding. The increased demand for accountability by the donor community came as nightmare to some NGOs in Zimbabwe especially those NGOs that were still growing. Upcoming NGOs, although they want to claim their legitimacy in the private sector, they lack adequate necessities such as finance and proper administrative structures to facilitate effective service delivery in rural communities. Lack of proper fundraising techniques also led to demise of development projects in rural communities.

Similarly a study conducted in South Africa by Hendrickse (2008) revealed that for NGOs to survive in the long term they need to use different fundraising strategies since donor resources available to NGOs continues decreasing as donors worldwide has shifted and arrowed funding into specific, highly political or publicly popular regions of the world. The study further pointed out that donor agencies have shifted their funding towards specific markets and the mushrooming of NGO a globally has strengthened completion among NGOs as a way of increasingly limiting funding. From the researcher's Field Notes (2014), it has been recognised that donor agencies often ran short of funding due to the wide bureaucratic nature of accountability to the funder, stakeholders or boards and government ministries. Such a factor works against sustenance of NGO projects in rural communities since many development projects die in their infancy or fail to take off due to inadequate funding.

4.10 OBJECTIVE 4

To suggest suitable recommendations to NGOs on how to improve their administrative architecture for service delivery in rural areas.

4.10.1 Theme 1: Recommendations and suggestions

In terms of the challenges analysed on the above objectives, it came as an eye opener that NGOs cannot achieve poverty alleviation alone instead it should partner with the government, other corporations and all relevant stakeholders to deliver their mandate. Ferguson (2011) argues that for NGOs to expand in poverty alleviation there are three

specific areas which require closer attention. These areas encompass financial, political and technical. He states further that participation is one of the main elements for reducing poverty especially on those people whose lives have been affected by decisions either from NGOs or government. It is only in an enabling free political environment can public participation is enhanced (2011:8).

4.10.2 Theme 2: Improving financial base

Upon realising the diminishing rate of NGO projects in rural communities due to poor funding, the researcher came to a consensus that NGOs should strive in their administrative capacity to create diverse funding base constructed on a firm ground. NGOs must have a fundraising committee or a delegated fundraiser to administer fundraising activities. In this study, it has been noted that internal or self-financing is the key and viable solution to NGO funding. Also a sustainable balance should be realised in relation to NGO income and expenditure. The practice of good financial management in NGO is proportional to achieving organisational objectives. NGOs are encouraged to fully implement financial controls and financial monitoring techniques to safeguard their organisation funds from misuse. *Together in Excellence*

4.10.3 Theme 3: Practicing good governance

NGOs in Zimbabwe and the world over have the mandate to practice good governance in their execution of development work. Good governance established at the outset encourages organisational stability and balanced decision-making. Walt (2004) asserted that good governance involves many characteristics such as participation, rule of law, transparency, responsiveness, consensus-orientated, equity and inclusiveness, effectiveness and efficiency, and accountability. Van der Walt (2004) claimed that participation in the context of an NGO can be direct where staff provides feedback on the formulation and implementation of organisational policies. In that regard, good governance requires fair organisational policy frameworks that are enforced impartially. Also transparency and openness in turn implies that decisions are taken and their enforcement is done in a manner that follows rules and regulations.

As part of enhancing good governance practises, information pertaining to the organisation should be available and directly accessible by stakeholders. Also quick

response is required in an organisation whereby all parties (internal and external to the organisation) are served fairly and within an appropriate timeframe. NGOs should prioritise community needs which is customer oriented decision making. To enhance sustainable human resource development NGOs should exercise equity when obtaining resources externally. The most important issues are that NGOs should account to the public and their respective stakeholders. This objective still runs a long way to be achieved by NGOs in the case study since it appears that NGOs impose their own agendas, becoming self-interested actors at the expense of the people they seem to support on paper. Kaldor in Lewis and Kanji (2009:34) further suggested that some NGOs seem to have become the end-points of domesticated social movements that are being used as political pawns in developing countries.

It is essential to note that good governance is the key to ensuring effective adjustments to changing circumstances within non-governmental organisations. According to Camay and Gordon (2000:3-4) in Hendrickse (2009) maintained that good governance is the key to ensuring effective adjustments to changing circumstances within CSOs and the environments in which they operate.

The authors argued that sound governance is a key determinant of effective management and performance. Regular self-assessment of the organisation led by the board with participation from all stakeholders is an important mechanism to monitor both governance and performance against measurable indicators. They maintained that where such assessment does not occur, management and governance tends to coast along, eventually resulting in crises, which could have been avoided. Assessment against rules and standards imposed from the outside, for example, by government or by an appropriate umbrella organisation, is another way to measure sound governance.

Moreso, the Centre for African Family Studies, (2001) pointed out that governance has become an issue of worldwide importance. The efficiency and accountability of organisations is a matter of public and private interest. Critical scholarship argued that the significant increase in the number of NGOs, funding and other collaborators have identified governance as a key issue in organisational effectiveness and efficiency.

Camay and Gordon as cited by Hendrickse (2008) realised that NGOs should take responsibility for effective, accountable and democratic internal governance, which will enhance its credibility, legitimacy and impact on its constituents. The authors explained further that governing bodies in the form of a board of directors play a crucial role in organisational governance as evidenced by a number of authors.

Moreover, NGOs generally require a governing body to provide strategic direction. Most NGOs refer to governing bodies as either boards, trustees, executive committees or councils. In various NGOs governing bodies are vested with executive or advisory powers. In some instances, boards are accountable to a wider constituency while, in others, accountability of the board is not defined. NGOs which have a membership will conduct annual general meetings where representatives to the governing boards are selected. Criteria for appointment to a board may range from integrity, skills, commitment, availability, personal qualities and so on. Legislation in some African nations governs the operation of boards (Centre for African Family Studies, 2001).

To enhance good governance in NGOs several boards of directors need to use committees to carry out their duties. In larger NGOs committees would deal with finances, programmes and recruitment of board members and specific staff positions (Centre for Family Studies, 2001). In firms, boards utilise audit, compensation and nominating committees to assist it in its functions. The board of directors in a number of instances fulfills an auditing, supervisory, coaching and steering role

4.11 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, data was presented, interpreted and analysed using two different qualitative techniques. Data from interviews was transcribed to verbatim and the field notes were also organised, with the transcripts and the notes into themes that were read several times by many researchers in order to avoid bias which may occur if one researcher analyses the data. Secondary data was analysed using thematic content analysis and filtering techniques. The problems being faced by NGOs in their administrative architecture in Zimbabwe were answered in the next chapter for recommendations so as to improve in service delivery in communities they operate. The

next chapter provided conclusions drawn from the discussion of findings. Recommendations were given to NGOs and other relevant actors in the development circles in Zimbabwe.



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CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of the study was to critically evaluate the administrative architecture for NGOs and assess it to see if the organisational structures and characteristics such as capacity building, accountability, strategic, governance, fundraising, monitoring and evaluations structures were able to alleviate poverty in Mwenezi District in Zimbabwe. In this study data was collected from five NGO programmes managers and field officers using a semi-structured interview guide. The researcher employed this technique to get an in-depth inquiry on the nature and roles of various administrative structures used by NGOs in delivering services in rural communities they operate. Also, the study used secondary data which was acquired from various literatures related to the administrative architecture for NGOs and their development work in Zimbabwe. The information was categorised and analysed into themes and subthemes using thematic content analysis and filtering techniques as a way of answering research objectives. This chapter summarises the major findings in this research and render alternative recommendations to NGOs engaging in poverty alleviation in Zimbabwe to improve on their organisational structures which proves to be lacking in enhancing development work. The primary objectives of the study were:

- ❖ To evaluate the administrative architecture of NGOs and their role in alleviating poverty in Zimbabwe.
- ❖ To assess the extent at which the administrative architecture of NGOs is capable to deliver services to rural areas.
- ❖ To establish the challenges faced by NGOs in their administrative architecture for rural service delivery.
- ❖ To suggest suitable recommendations to NGOs as a way of improving their administrative architecture for service delivery in rural areas.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions and recommendations were based on major findings from the study which emanated from the semi-structured interviews conducted with NGO managers in Mwenezi District and from the analysis of relevant literature from secondary sources.

- The NGOs interviewed by the researcher were found to have clear administrative structures such fundraising committees, governance and management structures, monitoring and evaluation structures and management structures ie Human Resources, Finance and Accounting Departments whereas some did not have. The main reason why the other NGOs did not have clear organisational structures was because of poor management styles such lack of organisational philosophy, control systems and poor budgeting techniques etc. For instance some NGOs complained that to have a fully established administrative structure the NGOs have to increase its capacity against the available resources. The shortage of funding crippled NGOs in fully executing development activities due to lack of proper management structures for ensuring accountability and directive orders.
- The NGOs in Mwenezi District were found to be struggling to prove their legitimacy to the general public and the government. The researcher found out that NGOs were required to sign a memorandum of understanding (MoU) with the local government for them to operate. NGOs were also required to conform to the code of conduct for NGOs as contained in NANGO legal framework. Despite the fact that NGOs signed these memorandums they were still limited in their activities by some government legislation which in essence was a government way of dictating development to NGOs. In this study, NGOs were found to be under pressure not only to account to government but to the donor agencies or funders of projects. Some NGOs faced numerous challenges in development work since some of the projects they implemented in rural areas were not familiar with local people which often caused tension as NGOs were accused of experimenting with the people by implementing pre-conceived projects.

- Moreover, political interference from government was one of the main stumbling blocks to NGO advancement in poverty alleviation. NGOs were required to comply with the provisions of the NGO Bill of 2004 which require them to register and operate in accordance with the legislation. The government and NGOs were often at loggerheads, with the government accusing NGOs of destabilising the country and sponsoring opposition parties under the mask of developmental aid. The national media was often flooded with bad publicity about NGOs since the government wanted them to operate in a more partisan way to support their agenda. Notably NGOs in Masvingo Province were once slapped with a ban on their operations due to various allegations leveled against them by the government, besides the political environment in Zimbabwe just before the elections was very hostile which made NGO work difficult to execute. In Mwenezi District few NGOs which were regarded as grassroots organisations resumed operations while the rest were given an immediate ultimatum to cease operations. It is noteworthy that the persistent government interference in NGOs hindered development projects and supplementary food programmes in rural areas since NGOs struggled to achieve legitimacy and their objectives of alleviating poverty in rural communities.
- It is imperative to note that NGOs in Zimbabwe NGOs failed to sustain financially as evidence suggested that most of them were not successful due to lack of funding. Most NGOs in Mwenezi District still depend on donor agencies for funding; they do not have the capacity to self-finance themselves due to the nature of their organisations. Evidence have shown that some NGOs in poverty alleviation are still growing hence they still need strong external economic powerhouses to champion their financial coffers. Lack of funding has led to the collapse of several developmental projects implemented in rural areas. Some critics questioned the dependency syndrome among local NGOs as detrimental to societal development. The point here is that donor agencies, multi-lateral organisations and relevant stakeholders themselves are often hit but financial crisis to sponsor NGOs in the developing world. This is coupled by the high level of bureaucracy since the donor agencies have to account to boards of directors and government ministries hence

releasing funds is a time consuming exercise which requires huge paper work. Across all NGOs financial instability was a continuous problem which needs serious intervention either by government or other stakeholders so that development is realized in most rural communities served by NGOs.

- The NGOs in this study were faced with serious challenges emanating from bad governance and resource mismanagement. Scholars such Lekorwe and Mpabanga (2007) advocated for accountability and transparency in NGO operations since these factors are essential in enhancing good governance. The researcher discovered that the majority of NGOs in Mwenzezi District have governance and management structures in place however; the structures were abused by those at the helm of power. There evidence indicated that there were widespread corrupt tendencies in the management whereby funds meant for projects were sometimes diverted or were never used for empowering communities as they were intended to. The public is not informed about the dealings of the organisations. The accountability mechanism seems dead hence no one seems to care about it. For upcoming NGOs evidence proved that, they lack clear governance mechanism such as strategic management and financial management practices to ensure effective accountability in development projects. This has impacted negatively to development in rural areas under study, since community development projects collapsed due to underfunding and close monitoring and evaluation.
- Some NGOs under study were found to lack capacity building mechanisms to ensure effective management. Capacity building in NGOs is a crucial factor in improving service delivery in rural communities. They lack training and development workshops and seminars. Evidence suggests that there was lack of human resource development initiatives since staff members were not undergoing training to improve their performance at work. These NGOs cited lack of finances as hindering factors behind failure in having capacity building programmes. Out of the five organisations studied two of the NGOs do have capacity development programmes aimed at increasing staff performance in implementing their duties. These NGOs established

vocational schools to train the local people to have skills in technical fields ranging from carpentry, farming, building, weaving among others. These programmes were meant to empower local people to be self-reliant in the face of high unemployment in the country. It should be realized the number of NGOs implementing capacity building programmes were limited hence they is need for NGOs to improve since this help them and the communities they render development aid.

- It has been realised that networking and coalition building is a growing phenomenon significant for NGO growth and expansion. Majority of NGOs in the study area were found to be forming partnerships and networking with other NGOs on issues of common interest. Usually they met at seminars or workshops organised by the local government office to discuss development issues affecting the district. However, there were several challenges associated with networking with other organisations; these are diverse working cultures, communication and power relations. Most NGOs operate from different ideological and geographical backgrounds hence the way to spearhead development differs. NGOs failed to reach consensus on common development since they operate in diverse project, using distinct techniques, hence this was a common challenge which inhibits NGO networking. Also information dissemination among NGOs operating in the same developmental arena proves to be a challenge. For instance NGOs indulging in poverty alleviation such as Christian Care and CARE could not pass information properly to one another to avoid duplication of development projects in rural areas. In addition power relations just like in politics affected the networking of NGOs. Questions were raised as to who would chair the meeting? What should be on the agenda? Whose idea should we follow? NGOs themselves battle for supremacy which is serious challenge which can affect development in rural areas.
- Overstaffing on top management has been a common problem found across all the NGOs under study. The NGOs agreed that they have greater number in administrative positions particularly the executive as compared at district level where few field officers are deployed to facilitate development. This challenge affected

some projects in areas where NGOs render development for example food distributions were done late to due to shortage of programmes and field officers due to the huge population of vulnerable people in the district. NGOs do not decentralize their offices which are again a hindrance to delegation of authority since there are communication barriers at times. At district offices field officers take order from provincial offices following their chain of command. This bureaucratic system of governing delays progress of NGOs and often leads to poor accountability systems.

5.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

Basing on the above research findings, the following recommendations were made by the researcher to help the NGOs operating in Mwenezi District to improve on their administrative architecture through ensuring that their organisational structures such as accountability, monitoring and evaluation, capacity building structures are efficient and effective enough to improve service delivery in rural communities. These proposed recommendations are valid to NGOs under study; however they can be also adopted by other NGOs experiencing similar challenges not only in Zimbabwe but in the globalised world as well. These recommendations can assist NGOs to improve on their organisational structures which would be able to increase service delivery in countries and communities they serve.

- NGOs should establish transparent administrative structures to enhance effective implementation of service delivery in rural areas. The administrative structures should have a clear and shorter span of control to increase accountability of NGO employees since many poverty alleviation strategies failed due to unclear chain of command such as accountability and monitoring structures.
- NGOs should exercise principles of good governance such as accountability, transparency and openness since they are essential in achieving organisational objectives. They are encouraged to have clearly defined administrative structures which play an oversight role in monitoring the activities of employees especially field officers who are responsible for implementing development projects.

- To overcome the challenges associated with networking NGOs should settle their scores and create an enabling environment in which they operate in harmony to achieve a common goal and mitigate challenges encountered in food security programmes and development projects. NANGO the national body governing NGOs should improve on its administrative capacity and improve information dissemination, resource allocation, and operational cooperation in food distributions conducted in similar geographical locations. Furthermore, power struggles among NGOs should be left for politicians instead NGOs should find a common ground to associate with one another and work towards improving the development projects and other forms aid they give to poor communities. NGOs should form partnerships with international financial powerhouses such as UNICEF, World Food Programme and European Aid in delivering aid to vulnerable communities.
- NGOs in Mwenezi District should be heavily involved in relief and increase of social services given the recent tragedy at Chingwizi Transit Camp where villagers were displaced following severe flooding in the Tokwe-Mkosi Basin. There is a greater need for NGOs to collaborate and give as enough assistance as possible to these affected victims. Infrastructural development (ie schools, clinics, roads, houses) is needed by these people. On that same note, in other wards NGOs should avoid being selective when it comes to development since cases of favouritism arose as NGOs were accused of giving proper development project to people they associate with.
- Public participation is the key to effective implementation of NGO projects. NGOs are highly recommended to engage in participatory development since most NGOs in Mwenezi are using the top-bottom approach to development. All NGOs should include communities at all levels such as planning, implementation, monitoring etc. This helps because communities will be able to identify projects of their choice other than letting NGOs propose their own form of development. In food distribution NGOs are encouraged to practise Food Basket Monitoring,

Site monitoring, and post distribution monitoring as alluded in chapter four. These are monitoring and evaluation techniques to measure their successes and objectives against the outcomes of programmes implemented.

- The problem of duplicating development projects has been associated with NGOs in Mwenzi District. Of significance relief is the duty of every NGO however the increased number of NGOs offering same aid discourages development and sometimes created dependency syndrome of uniform aid. NGOs are encouraged to divert from relief and embark on other projects of skills development to empower the local people to be able to support themselves. NGOs should conduct consultative meetings with various stakeholders to discuss issues on how to differentiate development aid to poor communities.
- To overcome the problem of overstaffing on top management and understaffing at lower levels of NGOs should decentralise their offices to shorten the span of control. This is important to NGOs since decision will be made at local offices rather than waiting confirmation from head offices. NGOs should deploy some of the top administrative staff to district levels to increase accountability of programmes manager and field officers. On that same note NGOs should increase the number of field workers to avoid overloading of tasks to few individuals. This will increase efficiency and effective implementation of development projects in rural communities.
- NGOs should increase monitoring and evaluation of development projects implemented in rural communities. Cases of neglect, poor monitoring have been cited in chapter four, hence programmes managers should account for their actions and ensure that projects start and finish in time since this will save human and financial resources of organisation. The NGOs should improve on their internal and external strategies to see if their organisations are not misusing donor funds

- Finally, to improve on their fundraising strategies NGO should not rely on a single funder ie donor agencies, wealthy business people, government or foundations for its sustainability. Instead they should seek a wide variety of funding sources such as foundations, governments, well-wishers, and individuals. On one hand, NGOs should generate own income through selling products or services and community fundraising events. It is essential to note that with diversified form of funding, NGO financial coffers will never run dry since the sources can complement one another. It remains a challenge to NGO to establish a diversified funding base built on collective efforts of NGO staff such as board of directors, managers and volunteers. NGO are encouraged to have a fundraising plan that stipulates its objectives, strategies tasks and timelines. To make the strategic a plan a success board members, community members, staff and volunteers should be integrated in the fundraising process. Fundraising committees need to be erected to coordinate the work and monitor progress.

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5.4 CONCLUSION

The study has revealed various loopholes in the administrative architecture of NGOs which has compromised poverty alleviation in the rural areas of under study. Poor institutional management, poor capacity building, lack of accountability and transparency, legitimacy, governance, financial sustainability and networking have all contribute to failure of NGOs under study to effectively alleviate poverty in communities they operate. It can be deduced from the study that lack of public participation in development project due to poor communication strategies among NGOs. It has been learnt that political interference by government in the work of NGOs also affects poverty alleviation efforts of NGOs. The government need to relax on its stringent measures on NGOs to enhance effective service provision. On their own NGOs are failing to maintain good relations with donor agencies. Cases of corruption and mismanagement of donor funds are often raised which led to limited or no funding from donor agencies. It can be recommended that for researchers who wish to pursue NGO studies and poverty

alleviation, they should interrogate the poor research culture in NGOs since this has largely contributed to NGOs implementing misguided development projects in rural areas which did not last in the long term. Finally, further research should be on how NGOs in poverty alleviation should improve on their institutional capacities since from the study it has contributed to ineffective service delivery in poor communities.



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APPENDIX A: LETTER OF REQUISITION

University of Fort Hare

Together in Excellence

**DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
SCHOOL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND
DEVELOPMENT, FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT &
COMMERCE BISHO CAMPUS
PO BOX 1153, KING WILLIAMS TOWN 5600
SOUTH AFRICA
TEL: (040) 602 2533**



The District Administrator

P.O. BOX 10

Mwenezi, Zimbabwe

25 August 2014

Dear Sir/Madam



This serves to confirm that Mr **Shava Elvin** is a registered student for the Degree of Masters in Administration (Public Administration). As part of the requirements for this degree programme, the student is expected to conduct a research and this research is solely meant for academic purposes only.

We humbly request you to allow the student to conduct the research in your District and to interact with relevant Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) which forms part of his study. We have instructed the student to observe professionalism and ethical considerations by maintaining anonymity of the participants concerned. The student has also been instructed to maintain strict confidentiality in her interactions with respondents. Once the research is complete, it can be availed to your institution and relevant NGOs upon request. We hope that the findings of the research will benefit the NGOs operating in poverty alleviation in your district and all other relevant stakeholders.

Your support in this research endeavour is greatly appreciated. We thank you in advance.

Regards

Prof. D.R Thakhathi

+27795165999

University of Fort Hare

Department of Public Administration

P. Bag X1314, Alice 5700 South Africa

The District Administrator

P. BOX. 10

Mwenezi, Zimbabwe

04 September 2012

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH

My name is Elvin Shava. I am currently studying towards the attainment of a Master's degree in Administration (Public Administration) in the Department of Public Administration at the University of Fort Hare in South Africa. As part of the requirements for this degree, I am undertaking a research study on, "**A critical evaluation of the administrative architecture for Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and their role in alleviating poverty in Zimbabwe. The case of Mwenezi District municipality**".

I kindly requesting for permission to conduct this research study in your district. In conducting this study, I have an obligation to adhere to strict ethical principles governing research conduct at the University. To this end, the NGOs and the respondents to this study are assured that their privacy, anonymity and confidentiality will be strictly observed and guaranteed.

Your co-operation to this academic endeavor will be greatly appreciated.

Yours faithfully

Elvin Shava



APPENDIX B: ACCEPTANCE LETTER



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Correspondence should not be

Addressed to individuals

Telephone: 014-271

Fax :

Email address:



ZIMBABWE



04th September 2014

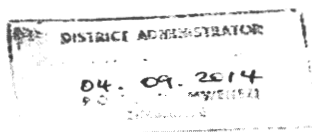
TO ALL NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS IN MWENEZI DISTRICT

This note serves to inform that Mr Elvin Shava, a Masters student in the Department of Public Administration at the University Of Fort Hare in the Republic of South Africa has been granted permission to conduct his research in Mwenezi District on Non Governmental Organisations of his choice as part of completion for his studies.

If you need any clarification, please do not hesitate to contact me.


S. Chamisa

District Administrator - Mwenezi



Reference:

**MINISTRY OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT,
PUBLIC WORKS AND NATIONAL HOUSING
District Administration
P. O. Box 10
MWENEZI**

APPENDIX C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



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ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE
REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number: **THA091SSHAV01**

Project title: **A critical evaluation of the administrative architecture for Non- Governmental (NGO)s and their role in alleviating poverty in Zimbabwe. A case of Mwenezi District Municipality**

Nature of Project: **Masters**

Principal Researcher: **Elvin Shava**

Supervisor: **Prof RD Thakhathi**

Co-supervisor:

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of


- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

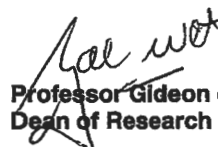
Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- 
- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
 - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
 - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
 - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
 - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to
 - Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
 - In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely



Professor Gideon de Wet
Dean of Research

05 August 2014

APPENDIX D: INTERVIEW GUIDE



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University of Fort Hare
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Excellence in Public Administration & Community Service

School of Public Administration

(SPA)

Faculty of Management and Commerce

My name is Elvin Shava. I am currently studying towards the attainment of a Masters degree in Administration (Public Administration) in the Department of Public Administration at the University of Fort Hare. As part of the requirements for this degree, I am undertaking a research study on, **“A critical evaluation of the administrative architecture for Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and their role in alleviating poverty in Zimbabwe. A case of Mwenezi District municipality”**.

I kindly request your cooperation in responding to questions from this semi-structured interview. Your contribution to this academic endeavor will be greatly appreciated as it will assist the researcher in reaching the objectives of this research study.

Please be fully assured that, the information collected through this interview guide will **ONLY** be used for the purposes of this study. Your privacy, anonymity and confidentiality will be strictly observed, guaranteed and protected, as you are not expected to reveal your names or any personal information that may identify you as a respondent in this study.

Please answer all questions as clearly and honestly as you can.

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR NGO MANAGERS

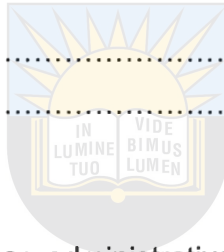
SECTION 1 GOVERNANCE AND MANAGEMENT

1. What is the name of your organisation?

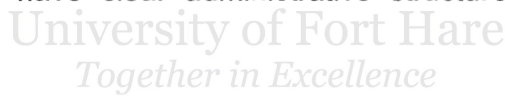
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2. How many years have you been working with this organisation?

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3. Does your organisation have clear administrative structures in place to ensure effective management?



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4. If so describe these structures and show how each work in the governance structure of your organisation.

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5. Does your organisation's governing board conduct a process of self-evaluation as part of accountability? Explain

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6. Good administrative architecture of an organisation depends on the board members' ability to clearly understand their governance roles and responsibilities. Does your organisation have a clear policy governing the roles and responsibilities of board members?

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7. Explain how the board of trustees, staff members and beneficiaries participate in the policy formulation and implementation of a formal, documented and measurable long-range or strategic plan.

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8. In your organisation is it donor agencies or your organisation who determines the procedures for evaluating development projects and activities?

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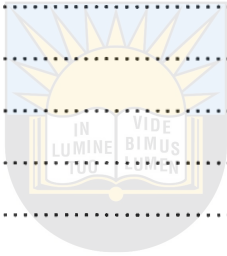
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SECTION 2 STRATEGIC OPERATIONS

9. What is the mission, vision and values of your organisation?

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10. How legitimate is your organisation in Mwenezi District?

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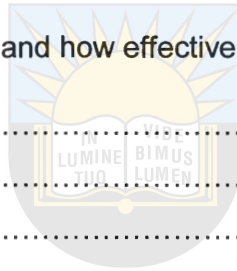
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11. Does your organisation have clear accountability and transparency structures in place to ensure effective strategic management?

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12. If so what are those structures and how effective are they in poverty alleviation?



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13. How is capacity building in your organisation? Is it enabling to deliver services in poor communities?

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14. Does your organisation have structures to monitor and evaluate development projects you implement in rural areas?

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15. If so what are the structures used to monitor and evaluate these projects?

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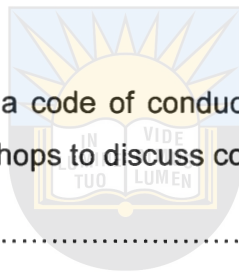
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16. Does your organisation have a code of conduct? Is your organisation networking with other NGOs or conduct workshops to discuss common issues of interest?

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17. How is your organisation funded? And how is the relationship with those funder/stakeholders?

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SECTION 3 BUDGETING, FUNDRAISING & FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY

18. What are your sources of funding in your organisation? Describe in detail

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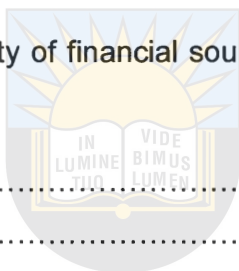
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19. How would you characterise your organisation in terms of financial sustainability

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20. In your opinion, does a diversity of financial sources of income, impact on financial sustainability?



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21. How does your organisation budget funds?

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22. Does your organisation have good practices of good financial management? Explain

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23. Explain and describe the financial controls, policies, rules and procedures that you have in your organisation. Refer to planning, programming and reporting.

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SECTION 4 (QUESTION TO FIELD OFFICERS/PROGRAMMES MANAGERS)

DEVELOPMENTAL ISSUES AND POVERTY ALLEVIATION

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24. To what extent is public participation in development projects. Is the public deriving any benefits in your view?

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25. What strategies do you use to alleviate poverty in rural areas?

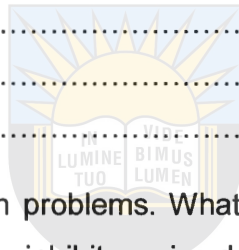
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26. In your view how successful are these strategies in poverty alleviation?

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27. Is the community involved in all the phases of these projects, that is from planning, decision making to implementation, monitoring and evaluation stages?

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28. Poverty alleviation has its own problems. What challenges are you facing in your organisational structures which may inhibit service delivery?

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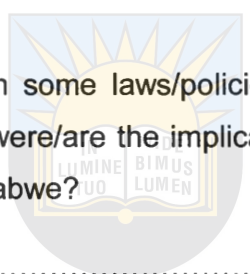
29. How is your organisation dealing with these challenges faced in the implementation of development projects?

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30. What is the nature of your political relationship with the government?

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31. I understand there have been some laws/policies introduced by the government affecting working of NGOs, what were/are the implications of these laws/policies being passed to your operations in Zimbabwe?



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32. Is there anything else you would like to share with me with regards to the administrative architecture of NGOs and in your view what do you think should be done to improve organisational structures to enhance effective poverty alleviation in areas you operate?

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Thank you for your co-operation in this investigation



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