An analysis of 4 South African Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) to determine which internal areas/parts are promoting and inhibiting functioning.

Melika Singh

Student Number: 202500602

Supervised by Dr Abed Moola

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Master of Social Science (Industrial/Organisational Psychology)

School of Psychology, Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Sciences

University of KwaZulu-Natal (Howard College Campus)

Unless specifically indicated to the contrary, this dissertation is the result of my own work.

Date: February 2009

To Whom It May Concern:

I, Melika Singh, do hereby declare that this work is entirely my own, and where it is not it is accurately referenced.

Melika Singh
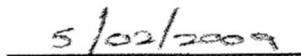
5/02/2009

Date

Acknowledgements

Firstly, I must extend my heartfelt thanks and love to my Creator, you *are* my life. Thank you for giving me the strength, courage and vision. We cannot be separated.

My sincere thanks to my mother, Mrs. Dinah Singh, my family and friends for their patience, love and encouragement.

I would like to express my gratitude to Mr Nelson Mandela and everyone at the Mandela Rhodes Foundation for affording me this wonderful opportunity for personal and professional development.

I gratefully acknowledge the support of my supervisor Dr Abed Moola for his guidance and support throughout this process.

I would also like to thank everyone at the School of Psychology who offered their advice, encouragement and time.

Finally, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the participants. Thank you for allowing me access to your organisations; you are the heroes in our society. This experience has been really beneficial to me. A sincere thank you to all of you.

Abstract

The study analysed four South African non-governmental organisations (NGOs) to determine

which internal areas/parts promoted and inhibited its functioning. In this context, areas/parts

refer to purposes, structure, relationships, rewards, leadership, helpful mechanisms and attitude

towards change. The main objectives of this research were to investigate the different areas of

functioning to determine which ones were hindering and which were helping the NGOs. The

research would subsequently provide feedback and recommendations to the relevant

stakeholders. The research design was quantitative with the Organisational Diagnosis

Questionnaire (ODQ) being used.

The questionnaires were analysed on the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Overall results revealed that the internal areas of leadership, purposes, rewards and relationships

were promoting the organisations' functioning while structure, helpful mechanisms and attitude

towards change were inhibiting the organisations' functioning. The results also revealed the

promoting and inhibiting factors/areas for each organisation. The promoting factors contribute to

the organisations' functioning and the inhibiting factors hinder the organisations' functioning.

Tables

Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

I undertook this research with the belief that industrial psychology has a contribution to make to NGOs in terms of their functioning and consequently, to development. The ultimate aim then of this research is to uncover areas for improvement within NGOs and to then provide them with relevant feedback.

Research indicates that NGOs have made considerable contributions to development and that they have significant potential to face the challenges currently plaguing many countries. However, recently NGOs have been criticised on a number of grounds including accountability, leadership, structure, staff remuneration, clarity regarding goals and purposes, self-perpetuation and adaptability (Cameron, as cited in Van Tuijl, 2000; Edwards, Hulme and Wallace, 1999 as cited in Van Tuijl, 2000). According to Edwards, Hulme and Wallace (1999, as cited in Van Tuijl, 2000) "NGOs do not hesitate to question the legitimacy or conduct of everyone else in the world, but have no adequate answer if their own accountability is questioned. In short, NGOs promise much but have too little to show" (p. 617). If these challenges are not considered and addressed appropriately they will eventually undermine the work of NGOs. It is therefore important that NGOs identify their internal areas for improvement. This can be done through organisational diagnosis and constant evaluation (Weiss, 1998, 1999). In this regard organisational diagnosis and constant evaluation are valuable in the non-profit sector.

This research has been aimed at assisting these organisations to improve their functioning through analysis of their functioning and providing relevant feedback reports. The challenge of making NGOs contribution to development sustainable still remains and the researcher aimed to

assist a few organisations with this challenge to some extent. The argument is that through diagnosis and analysis the organisations would be able to identify their problems, correct them and increase their impact in the communities in which they function.

The main question to be answered was which internal areas were hindering and which were helping the NGO, to provide feedback, and make recommendations to the relevant stakeholders. The research was quantitative in nature. The Organisational Diagnosis Questionnaire (ODQ) was used because it provides insight into the strengths and weaknesses of organisations. It is based on Weisbord's Six-Box Organisational Model. It provides a systematic approach for analysing the relationships among variables that influence organisational functioning (Preziosi, 1980). The data from the ODQ was analysed and interpreted using the literature on organisational and NGO functioning.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Global Overview

The following section will discuss the literature and statistics relating to global poverty, development, the international non-profit sector and specifically, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), their role in poverty alleviation, the criticisms leveraged at NGOs, the Northern NGO sector and the success factors for international NGOs.

2.1.1 Global Poverty and Development

Poverty has been defined in various ways. Kaplinsky (2005) states that poverty has two central meanings namely "The absolute standard of living, reflected in satisfying the minimum basic needs required for survival" and "relative poverty, that is, the gap in incomes between the rich and the poor" (p. 27). Jeffrey Sachs definition of poverty was selected because it is a widely accepted definition and many of the current poverty statistics are based on this definition. Sachs (2005) states that individuals who live in poverty lack a broad range of resources and can be described as being impoverished or poor. Poverty can be categorised as extreme poverty (living on less than $1 per day; $1= R7.27 on 2007-06-12) or moderate poverty (living on less than $2 per day) (Sachs, 2005). Based on Sachs (2005) definition, nearly half the world's population, or 3 billion people, are considered poor (Netaid, 2005).

Some statistics relating to global poverty show that: over 1 billion people around the globe live in extreme poverty and more than 8 million people around the world die each year because of poverty. There are more than 800 million people who go hungry every day. There are over 100 million primary school-age children who cannot go to school (Netaid, 2005). The top 1 percent

of the world's wealthiest people earns as much as the poorest 57 percent. Of the 6 billion world population, approximately 1.1 billion people do not have access to safe drinking water, more than 2.6 billion people lack proper sanitation facilities and more than 2.2 million people pass away every year from illnesses and diseases caused by polluted water and inappropriate sanitation (Shah, 2006; United Nations Development Programme [UNDP], 2001). Eight hundred and seventy six million people around the world are illiterate and two-thirds of them are women.

Development is a broad concept with many definitions. Development refers to "any change that is judged by the people concerned (beneficiaries, target groups) as solving specific issues and improving their lives. Such betterment of peoples' lives does not only include material or economic improvement" (Schmale, 1993, p. 7). The World Bank describes development as economic growth. It could be argued that this definition of development is severely limited as it does not include the human facet of development. In my opinion, Mahatma Gandhi's definition of development as the process of realising human potential is preferable. Development is perceived and articulated differently in the Northern and Southern nations. Northern is a term often used to refer to the developed, industrial nations of the world whereas, Southern refers to developing nations. Leaders of the Northern non-profit relief and development sector claim that they view development as being about increasing human capability and freedom. It could be argued that due to the fact that the North creates the policies and controls the resources, the developing world has little control over its future.

The need for intervention is evident when the consequences of poverty are considered. Poverty impacts upon almost every facet of life and issues linked to poverty include life expectancy, infant mortality rate, health, education, housing, conditions of women and children, hunger and

refugee issues (Bales, 1999). Due to the enormity of world poverty and its consequences, the

role of non-governmental organisations has become increasingly significant.

2.1.2 Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), Development and Poverty

According to Lindenberg and Bryant (2001), NGOs are organisations that

- provide useful supplies or services, thereby serving a particular public purpose,

- are not allowed to issue profits to people in their individual capacities,

- "…are voluntary in the sense that they are created, maintained, and terminated on the basis of voluntary decisions and initiatives by members or a board of directors"

- "…exhibit values-based rationality, often with ideological components" (pp. 5-6)

The World Bank (2001) defines NGOs as private institutions that pursue activities to relieve

suffering, promote the interests of the poor, protect the environment, offer basic social services or

undertake community development. Furthermore, the World Bank (2001) states that the term

NGO can be applied to any non-profit institution that functions independently of government, is

value-based and is characterised by altruism and volunteerism. According to Cameron (2000),

the idealised position for NGOs is as civil society institutions negotiating with market and state

agents to ensure the sustainability of those organisations most conducive to increasing the

certainty of livelihood for the most vulnerable.

Research indicates that since 1970 the international humanitarian and development non-profit

sector has grown substantially. The growth of this sector has been accompanied by the rise of a

new ideology in which volunteerism is seen as a part of the solution to global problems. NGOs

have become increasingly important and prevalent and this may be due to amongst other things, advances in communications which have helped establish global communities between people with similar interests and the increased resources, and employment possibilities and professionalism in NGOs (Robbins, 2002; Gray, Bebbington and Collison, 2006).

In both the developing and developed worlds, global economic changes have produced new economic disproportions as well as changes in the form and depth of poverty. Competitive pressures and local commitments further limit the ability of governments to respond to all of the social and economic demands (Lindenberg and Bryant, 2001). The global non-profit sector has begun filling the void left by nation-states in human services in international relief and development.

An argument for the role and relevance of NGOs in development is that NGOs have certain advantages over government institutions. These include being more adaptable to local requirements and being seen as more trustworthy by the general public (Henderson, 1997).

A major contribution of NGOs to poverty reduction has been the ability to secure donors' acceptance of participatory development. Previously, little attention was paid to two important aspects of poverty reduction namely, that poverty is rooted in powerlessness and that people who are poor have their own needs and preferences. The key to resolving this was increasing the participation of those who were called "beneficiaries" in both project identification and implementation (Lindenberg and Bryant, 2001). NGOs were responsible for firmly establishing beneficiary participation in the social and economic development process and have been influential in furthering the relationships between poverty reduction and participatory

development, often providing handbooks and textbooks on how to organise and manage projects. Examples include *The Oxfam Handbook of Development and Relief* and *Toolkits*.

NGOs have faced a great deal of criticism some of which is outlined below.

Howell and Pearce (2000) and Streeten (1997) identified the following shortcomings of NGOs:

- being weaker than corporations and governments because they are not as financially independent,

- not possessing the political power and resources that other parties have,

- are sometimes too dominant in developing countries,

- are sometimes used as government tools,

- give the impression of neutrality,

- display a lack of financial management,

- lack sustainability,

- are often plagued by management problems,

- have vague objectives,

- sometimes dependent on government support,

- fail to reach the poorest individuals.

Furthermore, the larger NGOs grow the less accountable they may become to their beneficiaries (Cross, 1997). Another concern is the influence of donors and governments on NGOs as it has been found that the more dependent NGOs are on funding the less likely they are to advocate positions that run counter to their benefactors or their governments (Clarke, 1996 as cited in Fisher, 1997).

Fowler (2000) asserts that the challenge for non-governmental development organisations is to "grasp the nettle of their own transformation" (p. 637). Ballon (1997, as cited in Aldaba, Antezana, Valderrama and Fowler, 2000) cites legitimacy and social representation as problems among non-governmental development organisations. Whilst previously NGOs rejected resources devoted to analysis and evaluation as irrelevant, they are now beginning to see the importance of reflection before action. Weiss (1998, 1999) clearly emphasised the importance of evaluation when he said "Rather than rushing to the next conference or emergency, NGO staff and board members should devote far more attention and resources to self-analysis and critical evaluation" (p. 139).

2.1.3 Northern Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and Development: Oxfam

Northern NGOs aim to increase local capacity to meet needs and to manage the resources needed for sustainable development (Brodhead, 1987). There are approximately 5000 international NGOs in developing countries (Picciotto, 1996). Examples of the largest and best-established Northern relief and development NGOs include: Oxfam, Save the Children, PLAN International, World Vision International and CARE. These NGOs are involved in the areas of emergency relief, rehabilitation, long-term development, service delivery and advocacy. Whilst they have their origins in developed nations, they are becoming multinational in that they have simultaneous operations in more than one country.

International NGOs have made contributions to development by ensuring that issues related to poverty such as debt relief are on the public agenda while also working on these issues through projects and programmes (Lindenberg and Bryant, 2001). The following example will illustrate the capacity of NGOs in addressing the challenges that we currently face.

Oxfam International (OI) is a network of organisations involved in tackling the injustices that cause poverty and suffering locally and globally. It works towards sustainable solutions to poverty and other global issues (Borren, 2000). Oxfam is a transnational NGO; it is able to move quickly, has capacities and efficiencies that other organisations do not possess and has demonstrated political/taxpayer support (Smillie, 1999). The Oxfam group sees itself as part of a global movement and therefore, embraces a wide range of development NGOs and social movements, North and South.

Oxfam's most significant poverty-reducing initiative, debt-relief, was launched because it recognised the many ways that debt forgiveness could effectively sever one of the most destructive components in the vicious circles experienced by poor nations. Their role in the debt-relief initiative has been significant and effective because after a decade of work, the major heads of states have pledged to make available $1 billion in debt relief. However, debt relief has not been fully implemented. Oxfam is a key participant in building capacity to monitor progress toward poverty-reduction plans. The objective of this is ensuring that money is used for human development. Oxfam has also developed substantial expertise in economic and political policy analysis.

A second initiative is their work in the International Campaign to Ban Landmines (ICBL). The role of Oxfam in this regard is to pressure governments to ratify the Convention on the Prohibition of the Use, Stockpiling, Production and Transfer of Anti-Personnel Mines and to increase de-mining investments. By December 2000, the treaty had been ratified by 109 countries and signed by 139. However, these countries do not include major industrialised

nations such as the United States of America and the People's Republic of China (Lindenberg and Bryant, 2001). This remains a complex challenge for organisations such as Oxfam.

There is a great deal of controversy surrounding the role of the Northern non-profit sector in the developing world. Critics claim that employees from the Northern non-profit sector do not have an adequate understanding of the local context they operate in. The Northern non-profit sector has also been criticised for being too dominant. Based on these criticisms the following question may be relevant: are international NGOs doing more harm than good?

2.1.4 Global Success Factors

Success factors refer to those factors/elements that aid the functioning of NGOs. The future contributions of development NGOs are linked to their ability to deal with dilemmas and challenges including globalisation, sustainability, governance and economic growth and private enterprise. Re-definition and re-strategising by the whole sector is needed (Tandon, 2000). Questions have been raised regarding the effectiveness of NGOs in the context of advancing globalisation and what they might need to learn to do or 'un-learn' in order to optimise their impact (Eade and Ligteringen, 2001). Kaplan (n.d., as cited in Eade and Ligteringen, 2001) suggests that a shift is needed from a static appraisal to a dynamic, developmental reading of any changes that take place as a result of NGOs.

According to Hulme and Edwards (2000, as cited in Eade, 2000) NGOs may undermine grassroots development efforts because NGOs often find it hard to interact effectively with social, economic, and political forces at the national and international levels. Hence, it can be deduced that a requirement for the successful functioning of NGOs is effective interaction with

political, economic and social forces at national and international levels. NGOs are currently

experimenting with many different strategies to increase the impact of their development work.

At a workshop in 1992 convened by Save the Children Fund (UK) and the Institute for

Development Policy and Management at the University of Manchester delegates aimed to

explore issues with regard to increasing the developmental impact of NGOs. The delegates

examined four main types of strategies for achieving greater impact. These are: "Working with

and within government structures to influence policy and systems, operational expansion,

national and international lobbying and advocacy and strengthening organisations of the poor

(including networking and federations)" (Hulme and Edwards, 2000 as cited in Eade, 2000, p.

45).

Other strategies identified include legal reform, training, alliance-building among NGOs and self-

spreading and self-improving. It was, however, acknowledged that the strategy selected

depended to a large extent on the context. As different types of NGOs play different roles in

development they face diverse issues and consequently will adopt strategies appropriate to their

context in seeking to increase their impact on development.

On a global scale, in order to increase the effectiveness of NGOs in development, it is recognised

that Southern and Northern NGOs should think more imaginatively about the forms of

partnership, the styles and structures of management, and the types of information that will

underpin the new roles they must adopt if they are to take a central position (Hulme and Edwards,

2000 as cited in Eade, 2000). Clearer conceptual frameworks must be developed for the analysis

of relationships between Northern and Southern NGOs. Frameworks to analyse the relationship

between NGOs and grassroots/community organisations should also be developed.

If experience is to contribute effectively to the selection of future strategy, greater priority must be given to documenting strategies and evaluating outcomes. A major challenge for Northern NGOs is to determine how they can contribute to institutional development in the South (Hulme and Edwards, 2000 as cited in Eade, 2000). According to Johnson and Ludema (1997) research shows that the capacity for organisations to address the most important global issues effectively is important for the future of the world. Hence, capacity building is fast becoming a vital part of the strategic focus of many organisations functioning in international development.

It is important that the literature and especially the success factors and critiques be considered in order to increase the impact of the international non-profit sector.

2.2 Regional

The following section includes an outline of recent poverty statistics relating to Africa, the Southern NGO movement and success factors for NGOs in the developing world.

2.2.1 Poverty in Africa

Poverty is a global phenomenon, however, it is much more severe in the developing world. Poverty statistics in the developing world show that:

- in the 1990s average per capita income growth was below 3 percent in 125 developing countries, and negative in 54,

- approximately 80 percent of economically active women in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia work in agriculture,

- of the 49 of the world's least developed countries, 31 receive less aid at present than they did in the year 1990,

- Africa is the world's poorest region (Sachs et al., 2004),

- Africa has the worst health conditions on the planet and is further pressurised by overpopulation, HIV/AIDS and the resurgence of malaria (Sachs et al., 2004),

- Africa is home to five of the fastest-growing economies in the world however, it also contains 34 of the world's 49 poorest countries (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development [UNCTAD], as cited in Debt, Aid, Trade, Africa [DATA], 2006),

- two hundred million people go hungry each day and approximately one million Africans die of treatable diseases each year (DATA, 2006),

- the average life expectancy in Africa is 41 years,

- more than 300 million people do not have access to clean water (DATA, 2006),

- thirty three percent of Africa's population suffers from malnutrition,

- less than 50 percent of Africa's population have access to hospitals or doctors,

- "The annual dairy subsidy in the EU amounts to $913 per cow per year; European Union's (EU) aid to Africa is $8 per African per year" (United Nations Development Programme, 2001),

- during the 1990s the average income per capita decreased in 20 African states,

- in 2000, the nations of the world established a set of Millennium Development Goals to reduce poverty, send children to school and provide families with uncontaminated water. According to African Development Bank (n.d., as cited in DATA, 2006) Africa is the region least likely to meet the Millennium Development Goals.

Poverty in Africa is compounded by the challenges the continent currently faces. These include debt, development, trade, corruption, a lack of action by governments and HIV/AIDS. HIV/AIDS has adversely affected Africa's ability to cope with poverty and if it is not brought under control threatens to push back decades of progress (Cheru, 2002; Akukwe, 2002). Due to its detrimental impact on the labour force, HIV/AIDS has severely impacted on Africa's chances of social and economic development (International Labour Organization [ILO], 2004). Consequently, poverty has worsened and socio-economic conditions have declined.

Statistics relating to sub-Saharan Africa show that:
- it is considered the world's poorest region with almost 70 percent of its population living on less than $2 a day,

- approximately 315 million people in sub-Saharan Africa live in extreme poverty (United Nations Development Programme, 2001). This is expected to increase to 400 million by 2015 (World Bank, n.d. as cited in DATA, 2006),

- it is the lowest-income region in the world (Collier and Gunning, 1999),

- over the last twenty years countries in sub-Saharan Africa have experienced "continuous economic decline, or persistent stagnation, or spurts of growth which have simply proved unsustainable" (Akyuz and Gore, 2001, p. 265),

- over 90 percent of people infected with HIV live in developing countries and over 70 percent of all HIV positive people live in sub-Saharan Africa (Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS [UNAIDS], 2004). This is alarming considering that sub-Saharan Africa contains only 10 percent of the world's population. These figures are expected to increase in countries where poverty, poor health systems and limited resources stimulate the spread of HIV/AIDS.

2.2.2 Southern Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and Development: Grameen Bank

The "Southern" NGO movement refers to NGOs in developing countries. In the developing world, the term NGO refers to organisations involved in development, broadly defined (Fisher, 1998). In developing countries approximately 250 million people benefit from NGOs (Haque, 2002). The number of NGOs in developing countries is estimated at 50 000 (Streeten, 1997).

The Grameen Bank, together with its founder Muhammad Yusuf was awarded the 2006 Nobel Prize for its notable contribution to poverty eradication. The institution implemented the concept of microcredit to enable poor individuals to access credit on a group liability basis instead of any collateral (Wahid, 1994). The following definition of microcredit was adopted at the 1997 Microcredit Summit:

"Microcredit programs extend small loans to very poor people, especially women, for generating income through self-employment" (Elahi and Danopoulos, 2004, p. 645).

According to Elahi and Danopoulos (2004) microcredit has become the most popular approach to addressing poverty in the developing world. The bank has created a model that many countries are trying to replicate. A significant fact related to the institution is that it has been operating with an unprecedented loan recovery rate of 98 percent (Wahid, 1994).

The main objective of the bank is to improve the socio-economic conditions of the rural poor. The bank has achieved this objective to a large extent with research indicating that the bank has significantly improved the socio-economic conditions of its borrowers (Wahid, 1994). According to Wahid (1994) the banks achievements include revolutionising the attitude to women becoming more economically active in rural areas, job creation, increased productivity, income rises for its members and improved nutrition, self esteem and social status among its members. However, more research should to be conducted on the bank, its activities and its long-term sustainability.

It is important to note that Southern NGOs are often viewed with suspicion due to the widespread corruption and instability in the developing world.

2.2.3 Regional Success Factors

The following factors have been cited as important considerations for Southern NGOs:

- a highly egalitarian approach (Fisher, 1993),

- linkages with other organisations,

- reducing dependency on foreign donors in order to increase NGO's long-term sustainability,

- controlling costs and using volunteers to extend the organisations reach and efficacy.

Bratton (1989) suggests that NGOs' impact in Africa should be evaluated holistically i.e not solely "in terms of economic growth and social welfare, but also with regard to the strengthening of civil society" (p. 585).

The NGOs in the developing world face enormous challenges and considering these success factors in their planning may improve their functioning. More research needs to be conducted on regional success factors.

2.3 Local/National

This section focuses on poverty in South Africa, case studies of a few South African NGOs and success factors for local NGOs.

2.3.1 Poverty in South Africa

According to the United Nations Human Development Report (2003, as cited in Irinnews, 2004), the widespread poverty that exists in South Africa continues to hinder social development. Poverty in South Africa can be attributed to colonialism, apartheid and the policies of the new government. Although apartheid and colonialism no longer exist, it could be argued that the industrialised nations continue to exploit the developing world through the implementation of policies that undermine the sovereignty and constitutions of Southern nations. These policies are 'recommended'. However, most Southern nations are compelled to accept them in order to have access to aid. The consequences of these policies include:

- decreased wages,

- reduced public expenditure for social services such as health care,

- reduced government regulation and control,

- increased presence and influence of foreign investors,

- decreased union influence and workers' rights.

It could be argued that these policies undermine the sovereignty and constitutions of developing nations because they severely limit the ability of Southern governments to fulfil their constitutional obligations which includes assisting the poorest sectors of society. The policies can also be viewed as external interference which undermines the sovereignty of Southern

nations. An argument could also be made that the leaders of developing countries are responsible

for the current situation because most of them accept and implement these policies.

South Africa is a paradox because even though it possesses one of the most liberal constitutions

in the world that provides for an array of socio-economic rights and gives legal force to

fundamental human rights, it is characterised by vast inequalities and mass poverty (Achmat,

2004). Poverty and inequality are two of the most pervasive and significant problems affecting

South Africa. Although absolute poverty has declined in South Africa (from 51.1 percent in

1995 to 48.5 percent in 2002) 22 million South Africans are still living in poverty (United

Nations Human Development Report, 2003 as cited in Irinnews, 2004).

Poverty in South Africa is compounded by HIV/AIDS, high unemployment, the skills gap and

worsening socio-economic conditions. The report included statistics relating to the Human

Development Index (HDI). "The HDI is a composite measure of average achievement in three

basic dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life, education and a decent standard

of living" (United Nations Human Development Report, 2003 as cited in Irinnews, 2004, p. 2).

The report confirmed that South Africa's HDI had decreased from 0.73 in 1995 to 0.67 in 2003.

The decline is attributed to a reduced life expectancy.

2.3.2 NGOs in South Africa

There are many NGOs that comprise South Africa's large non-profit sector and the following

NGOs will be explored: the African Gender Institute (AGI), the Nelson Mandela Foundation

(NMF) and the Institute for Democracy in South Africa (IDASA). These examples were

included to present the reader with a brief introduction to South African NGOs and their

objectives. The NGOs were randomly chosen from South Africa's large non-profit sector. Their inclusion will hopefully give the reader some insight into the diversity of South African NGOs. The reader will also have an idea of the various activities that South African NGOs are involved in. Thus far, the reader has been given case studies of international NGOs. Hence, it was important to give the reader examples of NGOs in the South African context. The inclusion of these examples is relevant because the South African non-profit sector was the context for this study.

AGI is a South African based NGO that aims to build intellectual capacity and establish an African resource centre devoted to strengthening and advancing the work of intellectuals, researchers, policy-makers and practitioners committed to gender equity. Furthermore, the goals of AGI include the development of theoretical and practical understandings of gender and its significance in social transformation on the African continent, developing teaching and research in gender studies to advance the pursuit of intellectual excellence, facilitating linkages between and strengthen leadership and intellectual capacity of parties committed to gender equity in Africa and strengthening the intellectual and leadership capacity of those working towards the attainment of gender equity in Africa (African Gender Institute, 2006). The AGI's programmes include the associates programme, the sexual harassment network programme and the organisational transformation project.

The NMF, founded by former president Nelson Mandela, is one of South Africa's largest and most diverse NGOs. It aims to achieve social change and human development. The organisation develops initiatives that advance understanding of social change and human development and

creates critical opportunities that enrich and express democracy, freedom and development

(Nelson Mandela Foundation, 2006). The NMF's achievements include:

- impacting HIV/Aids through research that has significantly influenced policy

  development in government,

- working with traditional leaders regarding HIV/AIDS,

- attempting to advance the quality of education in poor communities.

IDASA is an independent public interest organisation founded in 1986 that aims to promote

sustainable democracy based on active citizenship, democratic institutions and social justice.

Post-1994 IDASA has focused on the creation of a democratic culture in South Africa and

strategic interventions to consolidate South Africa's young democracy. IDASA'S achievements

include:

- contributing to the struggle for democracy in South Africa,

- running programmes that enabled groups from the old and new societies to work together

  to create inclusive, democratic structures in government and civil society (Institute for

  Democracy in South Africa, 2006).

2.3.3 Local Success Factors

For NGOs to function successfully in South Africa various authors and theorists have identified the

following:

- having an adequate number of competent, committed and trained staff,

- having leadership that is supportive, committed, professional, accountable, effective,

  participative and imaginative (Jeppe, Theron and Van Baalen, 1992),

- having adequate finances/cost effectiveness/the ability to operate at low costs,

- active evaluation and feedback of NGOs activities and changes that happen because of the NGO,

- networking and having support networks (Van der Kooy, 1989),

- being in the correct location,

- cooperation/partnership between NGOs and the government (Scheepers, 1992),

- having administrative skills and institutional capacity,

- having participation from beneficiaries/communities,

- being experimental, adaptable, independent/autonomous, transparent and consultative,

- being able to respond quickly,

- having good communication structures (Bonbright, 1990),

- having clear objectives,

- having a democratic structure,

- engaging in participatory decision-making,

- using volunteers to extend the NGOs reach and efficacy,

- engaging in efforts to reduce dependency on foreign donors,

- having linkages with other organisations,

- adopting a people-centred (hence, people-centred planning) and action-oriented approach (Jeppe, Theron and Van Baalen, 1992),

- having a clear vision.

According to Van der Kooy (1989), NGOs may struggle to sustain activities owing to a lack of funds. Hence, NGOs should try to operate at low costs. Conradie (1999) recommends that a common understanding of financial stability for NGOs be agreed upon in order to increase the impact of

development in South African communities. NGOs may fail to make an impact if they operate in

uncoordinated isolation and ignore the larger context thus, it is important that the broader

circumstances are always considered. The following are efficiency indicators for NGOs from a South

African NGO study:

- flexibility in delivery,

- accountability,

- cost-effectiveness,

- achievement of objectives,

- volunteer mobilisation,

- values based driven programmes and methodologies and,

- co-ordination and integration with other work and stakeholders (Motala and Husy, 1997).

Scheepers (1990) emphasises the role that co-operation between the South African government and

NGOs can play in making a significant impact on poverty. Crawford (1989) claims that South African

NGOs require a dynamic management approach in order to function effectively. Paul (1983) states

that strategic management processes are important in NGOs to ensure cost effectiveness and efficient

use of available resources. Strategic planning and management of objectives are important if NGOs

are to function effectively in the long-term.

Plaatjies (1992) suggests that the boards and management of South African NGOs should be

more representative of the country's diverse society. Jeppe, Theron and Van Baalen (1992) state

that NGOs can be more helpful if they work with the beneficiaries/communities. The direct

approach is considered important as it decreases the chances of corrupt governments undermining

relief efforts.

Research indicates that South African NGOs are functioning well for example Motala and Husy (1997) undertook an analysis of selected NGOs in South Africa and concluded that these organisations leverage considerable resources and are able to provide a cost-effective and efficient service.

There is a fairly large body of research relating to South Africa's non-profit sector that the organisations can utilise to evaluate and possibly improve their functioning. Unfortunately, the research dealing with South African NGOs and whether they meet the above criteria for successful functioning is, as far as has been ascertained, limited. Researchers have not probed the extent to which South African NGOs meet the criteria, best fit the criteria and exceed the criteria. It is an important area for future research and it would require a thorough evaluation of the NGOs to determine if they meet or exceed the criteria.

2.4 Theories of Organisational Functioning

2.4.1 The Congruence Model for Organisation Analysis

The Congruence Model for Organisation Analysis was included because, like Weisbord's model, it is a model that could be used in organisational research. The model is only briefly outlined because it was not used in this particular study. This model was included to give the reader an idea of other possible models that can be used.   The Congruence Model for Organisation Analysis is very comprehensive and specifies inputs, throughputs and outputs. In this way the model is consistent with open systems theory (Falletta, 2005). The model is referred to as the Congruence Model because of the fit between the components of the system. The analysis of the congruence between the system parts indicates the level of congruence for the organisation as a whole.

 The model is based on the following assumptions:

- organisations operate within a larger environment,

- organisations undergo changes,

- organisational behaviour occurs at various levels (Falletta, 2005).
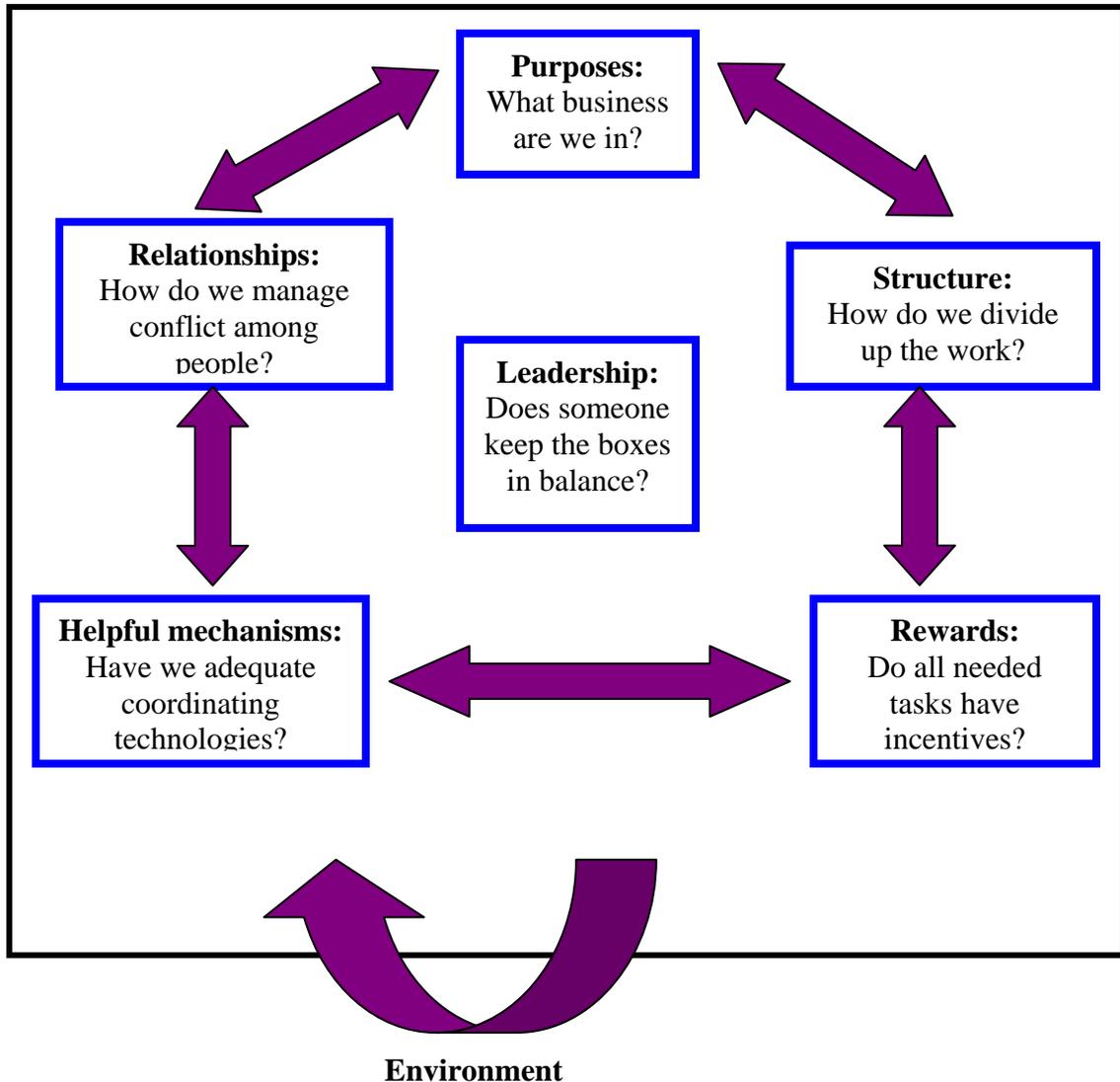
Figure 1. Diagram representing Weisbord's Six-Box Organisational Model (Weisbord, 1976, as cited in Preziosi, 1980).

2.4.2 Weisbord's Six-Box Organisational Model

Weisbord's Six-Box Organisational Model (Figure 1) was applied to this study because it includes important, specific organisational categories namely, purposes, relationships, structure, rewards, leadership and helpful mechanisms. These categories can provide valuable insight into the functioning of organisations.

Weisbord (1976, as cited in French and Bell, 1999) proposes six broad categories in his model of organisational functioning namely, purposes, relationships, structures, leadership, rewards, and helpful mechanisms. According to Falletta (2005) the following two premises are crucial to understanding the boxes in the model:

- Formal versus informal systems: Formal system refers to how things should happen in the organisation and what an organisation claims to do. Informal refers to what is really happening. The larger the gap between the formal and informal systems, the less effective the organisation is likely to be.

- the fit between the organisation and the environment i.e the discrepancy between the existing organisation and the way the organisation should function to meet external demands: external demands are customers, government, and unions.

The organisational categories are outlined below.

2.4.2.1 Purposes

Purposes are the organisation's mission and goals. Weisbord stated that it is important that the purposes and goals of the organisation are in line with the organisation's environment. Therefore, organisations need to align their goals with their environments. Objectives are important as they aid individuals in establishing which types of behaviours are necessary to meet

organisational needs. An organisation's objectives should be specific, achievable and beneficial to employees. It is important that goals have time frames. There needs to be agreement regarding organisational goals as this increases commitment to the organisations needs. This may result in improved organisational performance and is supported by research indicating:

- many organisational members desire more influence over their work, and

- people who feel they have more influence are more committed, interested and involved in their work (Handy, 1999).

It is important to note that conflicting goals do exist and that these occur as a result of power struggles which are inevitable in organisational life. According to Lawler (2003) organisations should adopt and adhere to a specific organisational mission, with goals and values that employees support and understand.

Furnham suggests that management communicate the organisations purpose through mission statements to ensure that staff are aware of and committed to the organisation's purposes. Organisations ought to foster a sense of common purpose (Adair, 2003). Management could involve employees in the organisations goal setting process in order to create inclusivity. Locke (1984 in Furnham, 2005) stated that goals ought to be challenging but achievable. Task feedback or knowledge of results is also important for performance.

2.4.2.2 Structure

Structure refers to the way in which the organisation is organised. Structure influences day-to-day activities. Organisations can be divided by function or by product, programme or project or can consist of a combination of the two (Falletta, 2005). Structure influences organisations in two ways:

- the structure of the organisation will determine the division of labour,

- structure creates organisational hierarchies, and influences the power dynamics within organisations (Greenberg and Baron, 2000).

Structure is an important consideration for NGOs as due to the limited number of staff that NGOs possess the issues of division of labour become significant. This is discussed in greater detail in the discussion section.

In the context of local NGOs a simple structure may be relevant. This is due to the limited number of staff. Mintzberg (1979) stated that the simple structure has "little or no technostructure, few support staffers, a loose division of labor, minimal differentiation among its units, and a small managerial hierarchy" (p. 306). In this structure formal devices are avoided, power is centralised and decision-making is flexible. This structure fosters decision-making, adaptation and employee relations. A potential flaw is that the structure may be seen as highly restrictive.

2.4.2.3 Relationships

Relationships refer to the ways in which people and units interact.

According to Weisbord (1978) relationships within organisations can occur at three levels:

- between people,

- between units or systems doing different tasks,

- between people and their technologies.

Weisbord (1978) claims that the quality of relationships is essential for an organisation's performance as organisations are essentially social systems. Effective relationships are central to ensuring that an organisation's goals are achieved. This highlights the importance of having a formal system to assist the resolution of conflict and aid problem solving.

The diagnosis of relationships can take place at two levels.

Level 1: includes an assessment of the interdependence that is required to complete tasks in all three areas of relationships. The two dysfunctions that may occur at this level are:

- individuals need to work together but do not do it well,

- individuals do not need to work together, but force mutual efforts in the name of human relations (Weisbord, 1978).

Level 2: an examination of the degree of built-in conflict. This refers to the 'naturalness' of conflict i.e the manifestation of conflict is seen as legitimate. This conflict is inevitable and potentially helpful hence it should be managed. Conflict resolution training for managers has been identified as a useful technique in this regard (Moorhead and Griffin, 2003).

Team building initiatives and embracing diversity can be used to enhance and maintain effective organisational relationships. According to Moorhead and Griffin (2003) training and orientation programmes are useful for maintaining relationships. Maurer (1996) argued that individuals ought to engage others and be open to their ideas and opinions. The NGOs could use frameworks for analysing relationships. De Lurdes Veludo, Macbeth and Purchase (2006) created a framework for analysing relationships. Using this framework, the factors that would be considered when analysing relationships within the organisational context are national culture, employment system links and subsidiary policies.

Power and conflict are inherent in relationships. According to Bennet (1994) conflict can be categorised into:

- conflicts of interest/pay disputes,
- conflicts between functions, and
- conflicts of authority involving managers and subordinates.

Organisations should have the necessary structures in place to deal with conflict. The causes of and solutions to conflict should be considered. Causes of organisational conflict include poor team work, poor communication, ambiguous goals and personality differences. Solutions/interventions include increasing access to organisational information, joint negotiating committees, increased coordination of organisational activities and clarifying job roles (Bennet, 1994).

2.4.2.4 Rewards

Rewards refer to the intrinsic (autonomy) and extrinsic (salaries and benefits) rewards people associate with their work. Weisbord asserts that we should not presume that the formal rewards systems will ensure that employees feel rewarded.

It has been found that a combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards increases performance and satisfaction (Cummings and Worley, 2001). Weisbord (1978) argues using Maslow's hierarchy of needs that the meeting of basic needs is necessary but not adequate for the development of employee morale. Rewards are broad and examine what the organisation needs to reward, the effects of the rewards, both actual and psychological, and what employees feel rewarded and punished for. Weisbord (1978) states the following conditions need to be present to develop morale:

- employees must perceive the income they receive as a reward for their efforts,
- the distribution of rewards needs to be perceived as fair.

There is a link between rewards and performance appraisal namely, the outcome of the performance appraisal often determines the reward/s. When dealing with reward systems the concept of fairness/equity is important. Performance appraisal is an important part of this. Performance appraisal is "the ongoing process of evaluating and managing both the behaviour and outcomes in the workplace" (Carrell, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx and van der Schyf, 1999). Henderson (1984 in Boice and Kleiner, 1997) suggested that performance appraisal systems be designed specifically to match organisational and employee characteristics.

Factors that ought to be considered when developing a performance appraisal system include commitment from senior management, organisational and individual objectives, performance criteria, the training of individuals involved in the process and support documentation (Boice and Kleiner, 1997). It is important that employees be educated on the functioning of these systems. The (constructive) feedback from the performance appraisal process may motivate employees to improve their performances (Carrell et al., 1999).

2.4.2.5 Leadership

According to Northouse (2001) leadership is "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3). Weisbord (1978) states that the leader is responsible for keeping the boxes together (see Figure 1) and to perform this function successfully the leader needs to manage the formal and informal dimensions of the organisation. Weisbord therefore states that the leaders must be aware of the problem areas within the organisation, and how these affect the entire organisational system. This would require that the leader be familiar with and utilise systems theory. Systems theory focuses on the organisation and interdependence of relationships. Systems thinking will enable the leader to make more accurate diagnoses and decisions.

Bennett (1991) identified the following considerations that may affect the effectiveness of a leadership style:

- the characteristics of the leader and their subordinates,
- the nature of the situation,
- the climate and culture of an organisation,
- the type of work,

- the experience and training of the leader,

- the quality of interpersonal communications within the firm.

There are many approaches to leadership that can be adopted. According to situational leadership theory the situation determines the leadership style. Situational leadership requires leaders to be flexible. Transactional leadership theory emphasises the importance of the relationship between the leader and his/her subordinates. The focus in transactional leadership theory is on the mutual benefits which are derived. For example, the leader provides recognition and rewards in exchange for loyalty from subordinates (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano and Dennison, 2003).

The trait approach to leadership attempted to identify the main characteristics that make leaders effective. This approach has been critiqued based on the fact that no consistent traits could be identified. Furthermore, the absence of certain traits did not make a person ineffective as a leader. Behavioural approaches to leadership focus on what leaders do. Behaviour is observed and categorised. The problem with this approach was that some things were harder to measure than others such as integrity and diligence (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano and Dennison, 2003).

Transformational leadership is an approach to leadership that occurs when leaders:
- expand the interests of their employees,

- endeavour to inspire people to elevated levels of morality,

- produce awareness of the purposes of the group,

- encourage employees to consider the greater good (Bass, 1990).

Transformational leadership emphasises the heightening of awareness and requires an independent thinking, self-confident leader (Bass, 1990). Transformational leadership was selected because current research appears to favour the use of this approach. Research by Epitropaki (2001) has shown that transformational leadership significantly increases organisational performance, is positively correlated with long term market share and customer satisfaction, fosters employee commitment to the organisation, reduces stress levels and increases employee well-being and satisfaction. Howell and Avolio (1993) conducted a study that involved surveying the top 200 managers at a financial services company. The findings indicated that 34% of business unit performance was due to transformational leadership. The findings also revealed other benefits of transformational leadership for the company such as more innovative products, increased creativity and an increase in profits.

Ferguson (2004) argued that self-awareness in central to developing leadership ability. Ferguson (2004) and DuBrin (1995) argued that leadership development is aided by:

- viewing your talents objectively,
- observing leadership qualities,
- imitating the leadership qualities of others,
- engaging in coaching,
- participating in on-the-job training and 360-degree feedback, and
- undergoing interpersonal skills training.

Adair (2003) stated that leaders are required to participate in activities such as strategic planning, lifelong learning, engaging with subordinates and developing and enhancing their leadership

abilities. According to Furnham (2005) practices such as networking, negotiating and empowering are important for leaders.

2.4.2.6 Helpful Mechanisms

Helpful mechanisms support and enable the other five dimensions of the model. Helping mechanisms are the planning, controlling, budgeting, and information systems that serve to meet organisational objectives. Assessing an organisation for helpful mechanisms is asking whether an organisation has adequate coordinating technologies. The chief component of helpful mechanisms is their ability to enable individuals to perform work that is considered valuable (Weisbord, 1978). The three features of helpful mechanisms are:

- aid in the coordination or integration of work,

- aid in examining the organisation's work,

- aid in dealing with issues that have not been dealt with before.

In terms of recommendations for helpful mechanisms Van der Kooy (1989) and Jeppe, Theron and Van Baalen (1992) stated that active evaluation and feedback of NGOs activities and changes that happen because of the NGO should be conducted. Bonbright (1990) suggested that local NGOs ought to be experimental, adaptable, autonomous, transparent and consultative. It has been noted that a lack of helpful mechanisms may cause stress among employees. Bennet (1994) suggested that stress can be dealt with using performance appraisals, goal setting, clarification of roles and expectations and employee participation in goal-setting (Bennet, 1994).

2.4.2.7 Attitudes towards change

This dimension was included as it allows an assessment of an organisation's readiness for change. The knowledge gained from this dimension helps the parties involved in directing their efforts in the change process (Preziosi, 1980). This feature must be considered before the intervention phase is commenced. This area may be difficult to measure accurately due to the discrepancy between what people say and their actual behaviours however, if it is measured carefully and appropriately are used it does give some indication of attitudes and openness to the change process. It can be more useful if the questionnaire is used with other data collection instruments such as interviews. Attitudes could be positive or negative depending on how an employee perceives the organisation, the process and his/her role. Organisational change has been noted as being very stressful for employees (Elrod and Tippett, 2002). Bovey and Hede (2001) argued that resistance to organisational change is normal because it is a process of moving from known to the unknown.

It is important to consider resistance to organisational change because resistance can undermine organisational change efforts. Maurer (1996) suggested a Support for Change questionnaire, employee participation in the process and the creation of policies that make employees knowledgeable about the process. Maurer (1996) cited the following considerations in a change effort:

- an assessment of employees' relative positions in the change effort,
- the approaches adopted,
- dealing with resistance,
- obtaining the support of key players, and
- dealing with the limitations of the intervention.

In order to facilitate organisational change successfully those responsible for it need to understand themselves and their motivations. Techniques that can be used to assist consultants in facilitating organisational change successfully are exercises and questionnaires that deal with learning about oneself (McNamara, 2003). These exercises deal with issues such as ethics, motivation, skills, professionalism, values, knowledge and competencies. In this way consultants or those dealing with the change effort will be thoroughly prepared and are unlikely to influence the change process in a negative way (McNamara, 2003).

Training is a technique that can be used to facilitate readiness for change. Dennis (1996) conducted studies that aimed at exploring the use of training strategies to decrease resistance to organisational change. The findings of the studies indicated that facilitating staff readiness is complex. He found that training and development are important components that assist in facilitating staff readiness in change efforts. However, training and development were found to be insufficient on their own. Training should be used while considering other aspects of organisational functioning (Dennis, 1996).

Future Search Conference may be used in a change effort to facilitate staff readiness to change through the formation of a shared vision. Future Search is "a large group, participatory planning process aimed at building common directions for action on complex social issues" (Polanyi, 2001, p. 466). Future Search involves a scan of the history, an exploration of current and external environment trends, an assessment off current action, the envisioning of a desirable future, the creation of strategies, and commitments to address the issue (Polanyi, 2001).

Future Search aims to build a common understanding and stimulate collaborative action on contentious issues. The participative nature of the conference encourages the development of a shared vision with the organisation. French and Bell (1999) stated that increased participation fosters greater commitment to the vision as everyone feels that they are involved in the vision.

Future Search was included to give the reader an example of a technique that can be used to assist organisational change efforts. It was selected because it has been used successfully in the non-profit sector and because it can be applied to different contexts. Future Search has been applied successfully to a number of social issues such as child literacy and community development (Future Search Network, 1997 as cited in Polanyi, 2001). Hence, it is a technique that South African NGOs may find useful in their change efforts. Future Search may be beneficial because it is an open process that involves the generation of new ideas and the envisioning of future scenarios. Future Search is a flexible process that respects the autonomy of the individual while creating a sense of community in the group (Polanyi, 2001).

2.5 Conclusion

The literature and research relating to the NGO movement is quite extensive although more research is needed on NGOs in the developing world. This information can be used to assist NGOs in constantly evaluating and analysing their functioning. The Organisational Diagnosis Questionnaire (ODQ) is a useful tool for analysing organisational functioning as it evaluates important organisational variables such as leadership and structure. The ultimate aim is the improved functioning of these organisations and consequently a greater impact on the communities in which they function. It is important for researchers to remember that NGOs are not miracle solutions to the problems communities face but rather, they should be viewed realistically as organisations that attempt to improve the lives of the people in whose communities they operate. Future researchers are encouraged to view NGOs holistically and as organisations that face challenges and need to be equipped to deal with these challenges.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is a description of the procedures followed in selecting the research methodology and the techniques for data collection and analysis. According to Taylor and Bogdan (1998) different problems require different research methods. The quantitative approach was appropriate to this study. Therefore, quantitative techniques were used.

3.2 Research Objectives and Questions

The main question to be answered was:

What are the internal areas that promote and inhibit the functioning of 4 South African NGOs?

In order to achieve the aim of this study, the following objectives were identified:

- to review the literature pertaining to global and regional NGOs and more specifically, literature relating to local NGOs i.e South African NGOs,

- to determine the nature and functioning of the selected NGOs,

- to identify, using the Organisational Diagnosis Questionnaire (ODQ), the areas that promote and inhibit the NGOs functioning,

- to provide feedback and recommendations to stakeholders.

3.3 Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

There are significant relationships between the seven areas of organisational functioning.

Hypothesis 2

There is a significant inter-relationship between the areas that promote organisational functioning.

Hypothesis 3

There is a significant inter-relationship between the areas that inhibit functioning.

3.4 Research Design

The research was conducted using quantitative research methods as a quantitative approach was appropriate. An exploratory-descriptive research design was used as it aided the researcher in analysing the areas that were hindering the NGOs functioning and "to determine the frequency with which something occurs or is associated with something else" (Guy, Edgley, Arafat and Allen, 1987, p. 102). This research design was useful for analysing the organisations as it allowed for an exploration of various factors and concepts. The quantitative approach allowed the researcher to determine with increased accuracy the internal areas that promoted and inhibited the functioning of the selected organisations.

3.5 Participants

Sampling can be defined as the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population to be used in the research. A sample is defined as a subset of a population. The objective of studying the sample is to gain an understanding of its characteristics and be able to generalise the characteristics to the population (Tredoux, as cited in Tredoux and Durrheim, 2002).

The sample consisted of four NGOs from around South Africa in order to increase the generalisability of the research and to allow for a comparison of the organisations. The organisations sampled were all from the non-profit sector and of a similar size and structure. Hence, the researcher was able to make a comparative analysis. The probability sampling technique called multistage (2 stage) sampling was used. The advantage of using a probability sampling technique is random mechanisms (Robson, 1993). The use of random methods is important because "random methods of selection do not allow our own biases or any other systematic selection factors to operate. The procedure is objective, divorced from our own predilections and biases" (Kerlinger, 1986, p.111). The random mechanism increases representivity and external validity/generalisability (Kerlinger, 1986).

Multistage sampling is carried out as follows:

- the clusters of study population members are identified and sampled,
- study population members are then selected by random sampling (Henry, 1998).

Multistage sampling was used because of its efficiency and flexibility. For the purposes of this study a list was compiled of people who met the criteria (respondents must be directly involved with the NGOs). Participants were selected randomly from the list. The sample eventually consisted of 56 participants. Although this is a relatively small number for a quantitative study the researcher did not anticipate a large sample as the NGOs have a limited number of staff.

Table 3.1

Overall Sample Composition

AGE	N	%
21 - 28	10	18
29 - 37	15	27
38 - 48	10	18
49 - 64	2	3.6
TOTAL	37	66.1
Missing	19	33.9
TOTAL	56	100
GENDER		
Female	31	55.4
Male	14	25
TOTAL	45	80.4
Missing	11	19.6
TOTAL	56	100

Gender and age were included because they are commonly used in research to give a general

description of the sample. Education and position were excluded because, despite being assured

of confidentiality, participants did not want to include too much personal information. Table 3.1

indicates that the sample consisted of 56 individuals with ages ranging from 21 to 64 years. Of

the overall sample 11 people or 19.6% did not indicate their gender and 19 (33.9%) did not reveal their ages. The majority of the sample consisted of females.

Table 3.2

Organisation 1 Sample Composition

AGE	N	%
21 - 28	1	8.3
29 - 37	2	16.6
38 - 48	5	41.6
49 - 64	0	0
TOTAL	8	66.7
Missing	4	33.3
TOTAL	12	100
GENDER		
Female	6	50
Male	4	33.3
TOTAL	10	83.3
Missing	2	16.7
TOTAL	12	100

Table 3.3

Organisation 2 Sample Composition

AGE	N	%
21 - 28	7	46.7
29 - 37	2	13.4
38 - 48	2	13.3
49 - 64	0	0
TOTAL	11	73.3
Missing	4	26.7
TOTAL	15	100
GENDER		
Female	6	40
Male	5	33.3
TOTAL	11	73.3
Missing	4	26.7
TOTAL	15	100

Table 3.4

Organisation 3 Sample Composition

AGE	N	%
21 - 28	1	8.3
29 - 37	6	50.1
38 - 48	0	0
49 - 64	0	0
TOTAL	7	58.3
Missing	5	41.7
TOTAL	12	100
GENDER		
Female	7	58.3
Male	3	25
TOTAL	10	83.3
Missing	2	16.7
TOTAL	12	100

Table 3.5

Organisation 4 Sample Composition

AGE	N	%
21 - 28	1	5.9
29 - 37	5	29.4
38 - 48	3	17.7
49 - 64	2	11.8
TOTAL	11	64.7
Missing	6	35.3
TOTAL	17	100
GENDER		
Female	11	64.7
Male	2	11.8
TOTAL	13	76.5
Missing	4	23.5
TOTAL	17	100

3.6 Data Collection

A questionnaire which is defined as "a preformulated written set of questions to which respondents record their answers, usually within rather closely defined alternatives" was used for data collection (Sekaran, 1992, p. 200). Questionnaires are advantageous for many reasons including their cost-effectiveness, decreased pressure for an immediate response on respondents and giving a greater feeling of anonymity (Judd, Smith and Kidder, 1991).

It is also important to consider the disadvantages of using questionnaires including:

- the accuracy and completeness of responses are hard to obtain,
- questionnaires may hinder the correction of misunderstandings and the answering of participants' questions (Judd et al., 1991).

Quantitative information obtained from the responses was used to determine the areas that hindered and promoted organisational functioning. This highlighted areas that required intervention.

The Organisational Diagnosis Questionnaire (ODQ) was used (see Appendix A). The ODQ is based on Weisbord's Six-Box Organisational Model. It provides a systematic approach for analysing the relationships among variables that influence organisational functioning (Preziosi, 1980). The ODQ measured the perceptions of individuals within the organisation in order to establish areas of activity that require an intervention. The data from the ODQ provided insight into the strengths and weaknesses of the organisations. The ODQ is useful because it can be administered to an entire organisation, a work unit or a random sample of each (Preziozi, 1980).

The items on the questionnaire measured seven different areas related to organisational functioning including: purposes, structure, relationships, rewards, leadership, helpful mechanisms and attitude towards change. The first six areas of the ODQ stem from Weisbord's model. The last area, attitude towards change, was added to assist consultants with gaining insight into the organisation's readiness for change (Preziozi, 1980). The ODQ consists of thirty-five items. It contains five items for each of the seven areas. The ODQ is designed in a 7-point Likert scale format. Respondents were required to indicate their views of the organisation on a scale from 1 to 7. The ODQ was accompanied by a section for biographical information and a detailed informed consent form (see Appendix B).

3.6.1 Pilot Testing

McCall (1994) states that pilot testing is a practice experiment in which few individuals are observed to assess the feasibility of the research procedures. The advantages of doing a pilot study include:

- it helps detect potential defects in the measurement procedures,
- it assists in identifying ambiguous items,
- it allows the researcher to become aware of non-verbal behaviours that may occur due to the wording of questions.

The pilot study was carried out using 9 subjects drawn randomly from a pool of experienced individuals working in the non-profit sector. The subjects were asked to complete the questionnaire and provide feedback. Respondents commented positively on the length of the questionnaire. Respondents also said that the items were understandable and unambiguous.

3.6.2 Psychometric Properties of the Organisational Diagnosis Questionnaire (ODQ)

The psychometric properties of the questionnaire are important because they give an indication of the effectiveness of the measure. Psychometric properties are determined by measuring validity and reliability. Validity is the extent to which an instrument measures what it claims to. Reliability refers to consistency i.e if the same study is carried out under similar conditions, it will yield the same results (Melville and Goddard, 1996). Research indicates that the ODQ is continuously used due to its high face validity and good reliability scores. According to Le Roux (2001) factor analysis shows that the ODQ is significantly loaded on a high proportion of the items. Research indicates that the ODQ has a high degree of reliability (0.912).

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was used to determine reliability. Cronbach's coefficient alpha is "an estimate of consistency of responses to different scale items" (Finchilescu, as cited in Tredoux and Durrheim, 2002, p. 213). It ranges from 0 to 1, with 1 being perfect reliability and 0 being complete unreliability. Calculations showed Cronbach's Alpha to be .841. This means that the instrument has a high degree of reliability.

3.7 Procedure

Participants were approached after gaining access to the organisations and were fully informed of the details of the research and their rights. The questionnaire and informed consent form were given to participants. The questionnaires were analysed after the data collection process.

3.8 Data Analysis

Quantitative data was produced. The data was captured and analysed on the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The analysis of results incorporated the use of inferential and descriptive statistics. The statistical analysis of the data obtained aided in drawing conclusions about the study. The questionnaires for each NGO were analysed separately to determine areas for development in the NGO concerned and provide feedback. The overall factors were compared and contrasted.

3.8.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics refers to "procedures for organising, summarising and describing quantitative information, which is called data" (McCall, 1994, p.4). Descriptive statistics were used to compile data for the following areas purposes, structure, relationships, rewards, leadership, helpful mechanisms and attitudes towards change.

3.8.1.1 Measures of central tendency and variation

Measures of central tendency are a single number/score that "provide a summary of a whole collection of numbers" (Terre Blanche, as cited in Tredoux and Durrheim, 2002, p. 40). Measures of variation indicate how widely dispersed scores are. The data was analysed using the following measures of central tendency and dispersion:

Mean: "…the arithmetic average of a group of numbers"

Median: "…is the middle score in a ranked distribution of scores"

Mode: "…is the score in a dataset that occurs with the greatest frequency"

Variance: "…is the average of the squared distances of individual scores from the mean of the distribution"

Standard Deviation: "…is the square root of the average of the squared distances of individual scores from the mean of the distribution" (Terre Blanche, as cited in Tredoux and Durrheim, 2002, pp. 41-61).

3.8.2 Inferential Statistics

According to McCall (1994) inferential statistics are used to make deductions about a larger group of individuals on the basis of data collected from a smaller group. For this research the following method was utilised:

Correlation is "a measure of the strength and direction of the linear association between two variables" (Lachenicht, as cited in Tredoux and Durrheim, 2002, p. 171). This tells the researcher how one variable is related to another. For the purposes of this study inter-correlations were carried out for each of the areas that promote and inhibit functioning.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The consideration of and application of ethical principles and requirements are central to the research process. According to Rubin and Rubin (1995) codes of ethics, informed consent and review boards exist to ensure that researchers consider the possible harm their work may cause. The researcher made every effort to ensure that participants were fully aware of their rights at all times by giving them a very comprehensive informed consent form that included supervisors' details. The concept of informed consent is important because "The purpose of informed consent is to ensure that individuals control whether or not they enrol in clinical research and participate only when the research is consistent with their values, interests and preferences" (Emmanuel, Wendler and Grady, 2002, p. 2706). Prior to completing the questionnaire participants were asked to sign the informed consent form.

Participants were encouraged to ask questions and were thoroughly informed through emails and telephonically. Parental consent was not required as none of the participants were minors. The only concern was confidentiality but participants were assured that the research was being conducted ethically and this involved a respect for confidentiality. Prior to data collection the organisations permission was obtained. The organisations did not want their names and details to be included in the final project. Therefore, these are not included.

3.10 Conclusion

The study employed an exploratory-descriptive research design. This facilitated an analysis of the areas that were hindering the NGOs functioning and which led to the identification of areas for improvement. The sample consisted of four NGOs from around South Africa in order to increase the generalisability of the research and to allow for comparison. The ODQ was utilised due to its high face validity and good reliability scores. It was also found to have satisfactory psychometric properties when tested. The quantitative data was captured and analysed using SPSS.

Chapter 4: Presentation of Results

4.1 Introduction

This chapter includes the presentation of results and an analysis of the findings of the research. Inferential and descriptive statistics were carried out on SPSS and the results of the research are presented using tables.

4.2 Analysis of Results

4.2.1 Descriptive Statistics

The data from the questionnaires was analysed to determine the mean values, standard deviations and range of the seven variables. Table 4.1 provides the mean values of the seven areas measured in the Organisational Diagnosis Questionnaire (ODQ). The low mean values indicate the areas that inhibit organisational functioning and the high mean values indicate the areas that promote organisational functioning. Table 4.1 is the overall result from the data of the four organisations combined.

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics for Entire Sample

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Leadership	56	10.0	35.0	18.018	7.0569
Purposes	56	8.0	35.0	18.821	6.8784
Rewards	56	10.0	35.0	18.429	6.3871
Structure	56	6.0	30.0	14.357	6.6618
Relationships	56	10.0	35.0	20.446	6.4721
Helpful Mechanisms	56	6.0	35.0	14.804	6.6371
Attitude to change	56	6.0	30.0	15.500	5.9207
Valid N (listwise)	56				

In Table 4.1 the average mean is 17.196. This means that any mean below this score is an

inhibiting factor and vice versa. The data of the four organisations identified the promoting

factors/areas as leadership (18.018), purposes (18.821), rewards (18.429) and relationships

(20.446). The factors identified as overall inhibiting factors were structure (14.357), helpful

mechanisms (14.804) and attitude towards change (15.500).

Overall, there were more factors promoting organisational functioning than inhibiting it. This is

based on the assumption that all the factors contribute equally towards the diagnosis. According to

Preziosi (1980) the Organisational Diagnosis Questionnaire (ODQ) was designed in a way that

gives equal attention to each of the seven factors. This is also substantiated by evaluating the

ODQ. The ODQ has five questions for each of the seven factors and in the scoring and

interpretation they all contribute evenly towards the organisational diagnosis. However, depending

on the context some factors may be considered more relevant and/or important. This depends on

the research questions and the researcher. It is important to note that even though leadership,

purposes, rewards and relationships have fairly high mean scores, when compared to the maximum

attainable score of 35, there is room for improvement.

Table 4.2

Descriptive Statistics for Organisation 1

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Leadership	12	11.0	30.0	17.167	5.4745
Purposes	12	12.0	21.0	16.083	3.0588
Rewards	12	12.0	28.0	16.417	4.3580
Relationships	12	16.0	34.0	20.583	5.1427
Structure	12	6.0	14.0	9.667	2.7080
Helpful Mechanisms	12	6.0	15.0	10.417	3.2322
Attitude to change	12	8.0	15.0	11.167	2.6912
Valid N (listwise)	12				

In Table 4.2 the average mean is 14.500. Using this value the factors that promoted functioning

were identified as leadership (17.167), purposes (16.083), rewards (16.417) and relationships

(20.583). The inhibiting factors were structure (9.667), helpful mechanisms (10.417) and attitude

towards change (11.167). Overall, there were more promoting factors in this organisation.

Table 4.3

Descriptive Statistics for Organisation 2

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Leadership	15	10.0	35.0	16.733	6.9843
Purposes	15	10.0	28.0	17.267	5.7379
Rewards	15	10.0	35.0	18.600	6.9158
Relationships	15	16.0	31.0	22.000	5.0285
Structure	15	6.0	17.0	10.933	3.6930
Helpful Mechanisms	15	6.0	15.0	11.200	2.2104
Attitude to change	15	10.0	30.0	14.667	5.5377
Valid N (listwise)	15				

According to Table 4.3 the average mean is 15.914. Using this value the factors that promoted organisational functioning were identified as leadership (16.733), purposes (17.267), rewards (18.600) and relationships (22.000). The inhibiting factors were structure (10.933), helpful mechanisms (11.200) and attitude towards change (14.667). Overall, there were more promoting factors in this organisation.

Table 4.4

Descriptive Statistics for Organisation 3

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Leadership	12	11.0	32.0	21.083	6.4450
Purposes	12	14.0	34.0	22.333	6.0653
Rewards	12	12.0	30.0	20.417	6.1712
Relationships	12	12.0	31.0	20.833	6.6447
Structure	12	14.0	30.0	19.417	5.0894
Helpful Mechanisms	12	12.0	35.0	20.083	7.9597
Attitude to change	12	15.0	30.0	20.000	4.3485
Valid N (listwise)	12				

According to Table 4.4 the average mean is 20.595. Using this value the factors that promoted functioning were identified as leadership (21.083), purposes (22.333) and relationships (20.833). The inhibiting factors were rewards (20.417), structure (19.417), helpful mechanisms (20.083) and attitude towards change (20.000). Overall, there were more inhibiting factors in this organisation.

Table 4.5

Descriptive Statistics for Organisation 4

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Leadership	17	10.0	35.0	17.588	8.3670
Purposes	17	8.0	35.0	19.647	9.1784
Rewards	17	10.0	31.0	18.294	7.2867
Relationships	17	10.0	35.0	18.706	8.2293
Structure	17	10.0	30.0	17.118	7.9363
Helpful Mechanisms	17	12.0	35.0	17.353	6.4802
Attitude to change	17	6.0	30.0	16.118	6.7350
Valid N (listwise)	17				

According to Table 4.5 the average mean is 17.832. Using this value the factors that promoted functioning were identified as purposes (19.647), rewards (18.294) and relationships (18.706). The inhibiting factors were leadership (17.588), structure (17.118), helpful mechanisms (17.353) and attitude towards change (16.118). Overall, there were more inhibiting factors in this organisation.

4.2.2 Inferential Statistics

Hypothesis 1

There are significant relationships between the seven areas of organisational functioning namely, leadership, purposes, rewards, structure, relationships, helpful mechanisms and attitude towards change.

Table 4.6

Correlations between the Seven Areas of Organisational Functioning

		Leadership	Purposes	Rewards	Structure	Relationships	Helpful Mechanisms	Attitude to change
Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1	.489(**)	.590(**)	.425(**)	.743(**)	.548(**)	.224
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.096
	N	56	56	56	56	56	56	56
Purposes	Pearson Correlation	.489(**)	1	.559(**)	.609(**)	.436(**)	.611(**)	.042
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.001	.000	.756
	N	56	56	56	56	56	56	56
Rewards	Pearson Correlation	.590(**)	.559(**)	1	.409(**)	.580(**)	.446(**)	.150
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.002	.000	.001	.268
	N	56	56	56	56	56	56	56
Structure	Pearson Correlation	.425(**)	.609(**)	.409(**)	1	.300(*)	.742(**)	.230
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.002		.025	.000	.089
	N	56	56	56	56	56	56	56
Relationships	Pearson Correlation	.743(**)	.436(**)	.580(**)	.300(*)	1	.350(**)	.022
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.025		.008	.875
	N	56	56	56	56	56	56	56
Helpful Mechanisms	Pearson Correlation	.548(**)	.611(**)	.446(**)	.742(**)	.350(**)	1	.375(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001	.000	.008		.004
	N	56	56	56	56	56	56	56
Attitude to change	Pearson Correlation	.224	.042	.150	.230	.022	.375(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.096	.756	.268	.089	.875	.004	
	N	56	56	56	56	56	56	56

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.6 indicates significant correlations between the seven areas of organisational functioning. This means that there are significant relationships between these areas. The strength of these relationships are detailed below.

Northouse (2001) conceptualised leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3). Table 4.6 shows that leadership is significantly correlated with purposes (.489), rewards (.590), structure (.425), relationships (.743) and helpful mechanisms (.548). However, the strength of these relationships is different. The correlation between leadership and relationships is .743. This indicates a significant and strong relationship between the variables leadership and relationships. Leadership shares a significant but moderate correlation with the other variables.

Purposes are the organisation's mission and objectives. The results reveal that purposes has significant correlations with leadership (.489), rewards (.559), structure (.609), relationships (.436) and helpful mechanisms (.611). The figures indicate a significant but moderate correlation with leadership, rewards and relationships. The figures also indicate that purposes has significant and fairly strong relationships with structure and helpful mechanisms.

Relationships refer to the ways in which people and units interact. For the variable relationships Table 4.6 shows a significant and strong relationship between relationships and leadership (.743), significant but low correlations with structure (.300) and helpful mechanisms (.350) and significant but moderate correlations with purposes (.436) and rewards (.580).

Rewards refer to the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards people associate with their work. Table 4.6 shows that there are significant but moderate correlations between rewards, leadership (.590), purposes (.559), structure (.409), relationships (.580) and helpful mechanisms (.446).

Structure refers to the way in which the organisation is organised. According to Table 4.6 structure is significantly correlated with leadership (.425), purposes (.609), rewards (.409), relationships (.300) and helpful mechanisms (.742). Structure shares a significant but moderate correlation with leadership and rewards. The correlation between structure and relationships is significant but weak whereas, the correlation between structure and helpful mechanisms is significant and strong. The correlation between structure and purposes can be described as significant and fairly strong.

Helpful mechanisms support and enable the other five dimensions of the model. For the variable helpful mechanisms Table 4.6 shows a significant and fairly strong relationships with purposes (.611) and structure (.742). Helpful mechanisms shares significant but weak correlations with relationships (.350) and attitudes towards change (.375). Leadership (.548) and rewards (.446) have significant but moderate correlations with helpful mechanisms.

Attitude towards change allows for an assessment of an organisation's readiness for change.

Attitude towards change shares a significant but weak correlation with one other variable, helpful mechanisms (.375).

Most of the correlations between the variables appear to range from moderate to fairly strong. The findings of my research indicate few weak relationships between the variables.

Hypothesis 2

There is a significant inter-relationship between the areas that promote organisational

functioning namely, relationships, leadership, purposes and rewards.

Table 4.7

Correlations between the Areas That Have Been Found to Promote Organisational Functioning

		Relationships	Leadership	Purposes	Rewards
Relationships	Pearson Correlation	1	.743(**)	.436(**)	.580(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.001	.000
	N	56	56	56	56
Leadership	Pearson Correlation	.743(**)	1	.489(**)	.590(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	56	56	56	56
Purposes	Pearson Correlation	.436(**)	.489(**)	1	.559(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000		.000
	N	56	56	56	56
Rewards	Pearson Correlation	.580(**)	.590(**)	.559(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	56	56	56	56

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.7 indicates significant correlations between the areas that promote organisational functioning. This means that there are significant relationships between these areas.

According to results in Table 4.7 the variable relationships shares a significant and strong correlation with leadership (.743). Relationships shares significant but moderate correlations with rewards (.580) and purposes (.436). Even though there are significant correlations between the variables relationships, leadership, rewards and purposes the strength of these relationships is different. The strength of these relationships range from moderate to strong.

The variable leadership has a significant and strong relationship with relationships (.743). Leadership shares significant but moderate correlation with purposes (.489) and rewards (.590).

For the variable purposes Table 4.7 shows significant but moderate correlations with relationships (.436), leadership (.489) and rewards (.559). Table 4.7 indicates that the variable rewards shares significant but moderate correlations with relationships (.580), leadership (.590) and purposes (.559). Even though there are significant correlations between these variables the strength of these relationships is different. The strength of these relationships range from moderate to strong.

Hypothesis 3

There is a significant inter-relationship between the areas that inhibit functioning namely,

structure, helpful mechanisms and attitude towards change.

Table 4.8

Correlations between the Areas That Have Been Found to Inhibit Functioning

		Structure	Helpful Mechanisms	Attitude to change
Structure	Pearson Correlation	1	.742(**)	.230
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.089
	N	56	56	56
Helpful Mechanisms	Pearson Correlation	.742(**)	1	.375(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.004
	N	56	56	56
Attitude to change	Pearson Correlation	.230	.375(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.089	.004	
	N	56	56	56

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.8 indicates significant correlations between the areas that inhibit functioning. This

means that there are significant relationships between certain areas.

Table 4.8 shows a significant and strong relationship between structure and helpful mechanisms

(.742). Table 4.8 shows a significant and strong correlation between helpful mechanisms and

structure (.742) and a significant but low correlation with attitude towards change (.375).

Attitude towards change is significantly correlated with helpful mechanisms (.375). The

correlation is significant but weak.

4.3 Psychometric Properties of the Organisational Diagnosis Questionnaire (ODQ)

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha is a measure of the reliability of a measure. Reliability refers to

consistency i.e if the same study is carried out under similar conditions, it will yield the same

results (Melville and Goddard, 1996).

Table 4.9

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

Cronbach's Alpha	.841	N of Items	35

Table 4.9 shows Cronbach's Alpha to be .841. This means that the instrument has a high degree of

reliability. This is supported by Lok and Crawford's (1999) research. Their study aimed to,

among other things, establish the usefulness of the ODQ in organisational diagnosis. They

calculated the cronbach alpha reliability estimates for each of the original ODQ sub-scales. They

found that all the original sub-scales with the exception of purpose and attitude towards change

had a fairly high degree of reliability. The reliability estimates of sub-scales based on the results of

the factor analysis were higher than the original ones. Attitude towards change was the only sub-

scale that was found to have a low value for reliability (alpha=0.38). This study has revealed that

the ODQ has a fairly high and acceptable level of reliability. Lok and Crawford (1999) concluded that the ODQ "can be used with confidence" (p. 117).

Le Roux (2001) researched organisation transition with downsizing and restructuring. Le Roux's (2001) study revealed Cronbach's Alpha to be .912. Le Roux concluded that the coefficient alpha "is very high for the ODQ and reflects a high measure of inter-item consistency" (p. 235). In terms of the validity of the ODQ, Le Roux's (2001) factor analysis shows that the ODQ is significantly loaded on a high proportion of the items.

Face validity is concerned with how an instrument/tool appears. The pilot study revealed that the ODQ has adequate face validity. Respondents indicated that they understood the questions and that there was no ambiguity. Participants also commented that the questions were relevant to what the study was measuring. According to Le Roux (2001) the ODQ has very good face validity.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter outlined the results of the research. The results identified the promoting and inhibiting factors. The factors promoting organisational functioning were leadership, purposes, rewards and relationships. The factors inhibiting organisational functioning were structure, helpful mechanisms and attitude towards change. There were more factors promoting organisational functioning than inhibiting it. The promoting and inhibiting factors for each organisation were identified. There were significant correlations between the seven areas of organisational functioning. The results also found significant correlations between the areas that promote organisational functioning. Correlations were found between the areas that inhibit organisational functioning. The results give an indication of where intervention is needed.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Recommendations

5.1 Introduction

The objectives of this chapter are a discussion of the results obtained in Chapter 4 and a discussion of the relevant recommendations. This chapter outlines individual organisational results, makes comparisons between the organisations, discusses the overall results of the variables, and makes recommendations and attempts to link the results with the literature on NGO and organisational functioning.

5.2 The Promoting Factors

Overall, there were more promoting than inhibiting factors. Table 4.1 shows that the promoting factors are leadership (18.018), purposes (18.821), rewards (18.429) and relationships (20.446).

5.2.1 Leadership

Northouse (2001) conceptualised leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3). Leadership is significant in the context of Weisbord's model as the leader is the person who keeps the other factors in the model in balance. In Table 4.1 of this study the variable leadership obtained an average mean value of 18.018 (maximum=35). This indicates that overall the majority of the sample reflected an average degree of satisfaction with this variable. The percentage obtained was 51.48, which indicates that there is room for improvement.

Table 4.6 shows that leadership is significantly correlated with purposes (.489), rewards (.590), structure (.425), relationships (.743) and helpful mechanisms (.548). However, the strength of these relationships is different. The correlation between leadership and relationships is .743. This indicates a strong relationship between the variables leadership and relationships. Leadership shares a significant but moderate correlation with the other variables. Overall the relationship between leadership and relationships is strong whereas, the relationships between leadership and the other variables are moderate.

There are many approaches to leadership and the organisations should be aware of these and utilise them where appropriate. Some approaches to leadership include the qualities approach, the situational leadership approach and the transformational leadership approach. The qualities approach assumes that there is a set of leadership qualities that characterise all leaders. According to the situational approach there are no universal qualities. Leadership depends on the attributes a specific situation requires (Adair, 2003).

Transformational leadership is an example of an approach to leadership that can be considered. Bass (1990) states that transformational leadership is a form of leadership that occurs when leaders expand and elevate the interests of their workforce, when they attempt to inspire people to higher levels of morality, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and the mission of the group and when they inspire their employees to look past their own self-interest for the good of all concerned. The heightening of awareness is central to transformational leadership. This approach requires that a leader be self-confident and have the inner strength to argue for what he/she thinks is correct, and not for what is acceptable at a certain time (Bass, 1990).

Research favours the transformational approach to leadership that significantly increases organisational performance. It is positively correlated with long term market share and customer satisfaction, fosters employee commitment to the organisation, reduces stress levels and increases employee well-being and satisfaction (Epitropaki, 2001). Critics argue that there is uncertainty regarding whether there is enough evidence to support this concept. Before adopting any approach the criticisms should be carefully considered. The findings of my research indicated that the majority of the sample reflected an average degree of satisfaction with leadership. The leaders of these organisations ought to consider the concept of transformational leadership, its application and its usefulness.

In recommending how people can develop their leadership abilities Ferguson (2004) states that the development of leadership ability follows many paths but begins with self-awareness. Leadership development can be fostered by viewing one's talents objectively, observing and imitating the leadership qualities of others and by engaging in coaching, talent identification and management, on-the-job training, 360-degree feedback and interpersonal skills training (Ferguson, 2004; DuBrin, 1995).

According to Adair (2003) leaders must engage in a variety of activities including strategic planning, finding the time for employees and developing their leadership abilities. Leaders should also engage in lifelong learning. Kotter (1996) noted a relationship between leadership skills, lifelong learning and the capacity to succeed in the future. Furnham (2005) found that leadership practices such as networking, negotiating and empowering are fundamental. Therefore, leaders should develop these skills.

Leaders of NGOs should create an empowering environment as this type of environment provides increased opportunities that may lead to the creation of a multi-skilled workforce. It is important that leaders of NGOs are able to strategise and strategic leadership calls for a commensurate level of practical wisdom (Adair, 2003). Paul (1983) states that strategic management processes are important in NGOs to ensure cost effectiveness and efficient use of resources. Strategic planning is important if NGOs are to function effectively in the long-term. Plaatjies (1992) argued that that the boards and management of South African NGOs should be more representative of the country's diverse society. The findings of my research did not yield information about strategic management processes, strategic planning and the representivity of the boards and management of the NGOs. Hence, the researcher could not comment on these variables in relation to this study.

According to Crawford (1989) South African NGOs require a dynamic management approach in order to function effectively and leadership should be supportive, committed, professional, accountable, effective, participative and imaginative. Based on the findings of my research a recommendation is that each NGO conduct an in-depth evaluation of its approach to leadership using the above criteria. Staff should be asked for feedback. The findings may provide useful data on leadership functioning and areas for improvement.

5.2.2 Purposes

Purposes are the organisation's mission and objectives. Objectives aid individuals in establishing which types of behaviours are necessary to meet the organisation's needs. In Table 4.1 the variable purposes obtained an average mean value of 18.821 (maximum=35). This indicates that overall the majority of the sample reflected an average degree of satisfaction with this variable. The percentage obtained was 53.77, which indicates that there is room for improvement. This result was a bit surprising to the researcher as it is often assumed that employees in the non-profit sector join these organisations because of their purposes and goals.

The results in Table 4.6 reveal that purposes has significant correlations with leadership (.489), rewards (.559), structure (.609), relationships (.436) and helpful mechanisms (.611). The figures indicate significant but moderate correlations with leadership, rewards and relationships. The figures also indicate that the variable purposes has significant and fairly strong relationships with structure and helpful mechanisms.

Overall the variable purpose has strong correlations with structure and helpful mechanisms. The variables leadership, rewards and relationships share significant but moderate correlations with purposes.

A low score in this dimension may be indicative of an inadequate understanding of the organisation's goals and purpose. Management could communicate the organisations purpose through mission statements as this has been found to be an effective way of ensuring that organisational members are aware of and committed to the organisation's purposes (Furnham, 2005). Adair (2003) suggests that the organisation foster a sense of common purpose because

purpose is the aligned and focused energy of the group and if this energy decreases, effectiveness is compromised.

Based on my findings, I would recommend that management creates awareness of the goal setting approach used and endeavours to involve employees in the process. "Goal setting is the process of developing, negotiating and formalising the targets or objectives that an employee is required to attain" (Furnham, 2005, p. 320). It has been suggested that employee involvement in goal-setting fosters commitment and encourages ownership of the standards that are set. If objectives have already been set they should be explained to employees. Employees should be encouraged to give feedback.

Locke (1984 in Furnham, 2005) suggests that goals be challenging but achievable, specific and clearly explained as this may lead to higher levels of performance. Task feedback or knowledge of results is also important for performance. Jeppe, Theron and Van Baalen (1992) emphasised the importance of clear and achievable goals in South African NGOs. The findings of my research indicate that, overall, the majority of the sample reflected an average degree of satisfaction with this variable (purposes). Hence, the management of the NGOs ought to review their objectives to ensure that they are clear, specific and achievable.

The findings of my research indicated that there is room for improvement in this area. A recommendation is that the organisations concerned involve their staff in the creation of policies dealing with purpose and goals. This may foster employee awareness and commitment.

5.2.3 Rewards

Rewards refer to the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards people associate with their work. In Table 4.1 of this study the variable rewards obtained an average mean value of 18.429 (maximum=35). This indicates that overall the majority of the sample reflected an average level of satisfaction with this variable. An average level of satisfaction with this variable in the context of the non-profit sector is understandable as remuneration has often been cited as a challenge for employees in this sector. The percentage obtained was 52.65, which indicates space for improvement.

Table 4.6 shows that there are significant but moderate correlations between rewards, leadership (.590), purposes (.559), structure (.409), relationships (.580) and helpful mechanisms (.446). The figures indicate that there is a substantial relationship between these areas. This implies that rewards, leadership, purposes, structure, relationships and helpful mechanisms interact to some extent. Overall there are significant but moderate correlations between rewards, leadership, purposes, structure, relationships and helpful mechanisms.

It is important to note, particularly in the context of the non-profit sector, that rewards "includes, but goes far beyond, monetary compensation" (Kreitner and Kinicki, 1992, p. 494). For some employees monetary compensation is sufficient whereas some individuals derive great pleasure from the rewards of social recognition and the pride of knowing that they have been unselfish with their time (Kreitner and Kinicki, 1992). This is often the case with employees of NGOs who often feel that the difference they are making in their communities is their reward. Based on this a recommendation would be a recognition of these efforts. However, there should also be provisions in the budget for salaries. The researcher believes that salaries in the non-profit sector are important as even though some employees claim that they do not do these jobs for monetary

reasons, in order for this sector to attract and retain the most talented individuals it is important that salaries be fair and reasonable. This investment is likely to benefit the sector in the long-term. Jeppe, Theron and Van Baalen (1992) stressed the importance of an adequate number of competent, committed and trained staff for local NGOs.

In keeping with reward systems the concept of fairness is critical. Performance appraisal is an important part of this. Performance appraisal is defined as "the ongoing process of evaluating and managing both the behaviour and outcomes in the workplace" (Carrell, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx and van der Schyf, 1999). If there is a performance appraisal system it should be constantly updated to ensure fairness. Henderson (1984 in Boice and Kleiner, 1997) states that it is important that the system be tailor-made to match organisational and employee characteristics. Boice and Kleiner (1997) suggest the following guidelines when developing a performance appraisal system:

- obtain strong commitment from senior management,

- determine jointly organisational, departmental and individual position objectives,

- determine performance criteria,

- train raters and those involved in the process,

- perform appraisals frequently to help build a communication link,

- employees and supervisors should maintain support documentation for performance to be conducted productively,

- research indicates that holding raters accountable for the accuracy of their work may be effective in reducing leniency errors. Hence, this should be incorporated into the process (Curtis, Harvey and Ravden in Tziner, Murphy and Cleveland, 2005).

Employees should be educated on the functioning of these systems and should be asked for feedback. The objectives of performance appraisals are evaluative and developmental. The evaluative component is important as past performance can be used to determine who should be promoted and who should be let go. Developmental objectives however, include the development of skills and motivation. Therefore, by giving employees constructive feedback regarding strengths and weaknesses they are motivated to develop and improve their performances (Carrell et al., 1999). A recommendation is that the NGOs concerned create training and development opportunities for their staff. This is generally not too costly due to the limited number of staff. Training is likely to create a multi-skilled workforce and this is especially important for organisations with a limited number of staff.

5.2.4 Relationships

Relationships refer to the ways in which people and units interact. In Table 4.1 the variable relationships obtained an average mean value of 20.446 (maximum=35). This indicates that overall the majority of the sample reflected a fairly high level of satisfaction with this variable when compared to the other variables. This variable had the highest score and this means that employees are fairly satisfied with relationships in the organisations. It implies that the employees work well together and may have fairly high morale. The percentage obtained was 58.41, which indicates that there is room for improvement.

For the variable relationships Table 4.6 shows a significant and strong relationship between relationships and leadership (.743), significant but low correlations with structure (.300) and helpful mechanisms (.350) and significant but moderate correlations with purposes (.436) and rewards (.580). Overall there appears to be a strong relationship between relationships and

leadership. The correlation between relationships, helpful mechanisms and structure are weak whereas, the correlations between relationships, purposes and rewards are moderate.

Maintaining effective relationships requires constant attention and effort and this can be achieved to some extent through embracing diversity and team building initiatives. In order to promote diversity, management could implement training and orientation programmes, include diversity in mission statements and encourage social events and support groups (Moorhead and Griffin, 2003). Future Search may be used to develop social relationships and enhance existing ones. Maurer (1996) suggests that people ought to play off relationships by engaging others and be willing to be influenced by their ideas.

Issues of power and conflict are important considerations in the context of relationships as power is inherent in social relationships. Bennet (1994) states that conflict can be categorised into: conflicts of interest/pay disputes, conflicts between functions and conflicts of authority involving managers and their subordinates. The organisations should determine the sources of potential conflict and create the necessary procedures to deal with it constructively. Some causes of conflict in organisations are: poor teamwork, communication problems, unclear goals, autocratic leadership and personality differences. Interventions to deal with conflict include increasing the flow of and access to organisational information, joint negotiating committees, greater coordination of the organisations activities and clarifying the roles of organisational members (Bennet, 1994).

De LurdesVeludo, Macbeth and Purchase (2006) attempted to create a framework for analysing different types of relationships that NGOs could use. Evaluating relationships is a complex task and it is done on many different levels covering a variety of factors that contribute to a specific relationship (Ford and McDowell, 1999; Zolkiewski and Turnbull, 2002 in De LurdesVeludo et al., 2006). My research findings indicate that the NGOs' employees are fairly satisfied with organisational relationships. However, a more thorough evaluation of these relationships is required that considers the different levels of relationships and the factors influencing organisational relationships.

My research findings may be different to those of other studies because relationships is a large and complex area and other studies focused on different aspects of this variable. The common denominator between my findings on relationships and those of the other researchers is that all the studies were attempting to evaluate organisational relationships. However, different studies focused on different aspects of relationships.

The framework proposed by De LurdesVeludo, Macbeth and Purchase (2006) is useful for analysing relationships in many contexts. However, for the purposes of this study the organisational context is relevant. The organisational context is the context in which the characteristics of the actor are developed. Therefore, this particular context operates at the organisational unit level and is limited by the internal activities of the organisation. The factors operating within this context that we would consider when analysing relationships are

- national culture,
- employment system links, and
- subsidiary policies.

The internal processes of the actor are influenced by the relationships it has with other network actors. Hence, this context is not independent of the other contexts because the organisation is embedded in a network of other organisations (De LurdesVeludo et al., 2006). Relationships are complex and require attention and evaluation. Based on the findings of my research it can be concluded that employees are fairly satisfied with organisational relationships. However, the researcher would encourage consistent evaluation of organisational relationships.

The findings of my research indicated that most of the correlations between the areas of organisational functioning were moderate or fairly strong whereas, a few were weak.

5.3 The Inhibiting Factors

The factors that were identified as overall inhibiting factors were structure (14.357), helpful mechanisms (14.804) and attitude towards change (15.500).

5.3.1 Structure

Structure refers to the way in which the organisation is organised. In Table 4.1 of this study the variable structure obtained an average mean value of 14.357 (maximum=35). This indicates that overall the majority of the sample reflected dissatisfaction with this variable. The percentage obtained was 41.02, which indicates that the organisations concerned should analyse their structures and intervene if it is necessary.

According to Table 4.6 structure is significantly correlated with leadership (.425), purposes (.609), rewards (.409), relationships (.300) and helpful mechanisms (.742). Structure shares significant but moderate correlations with leadership and rewards. The correlation between structure and relationships is significant but weak whereas, the correlation between structure and helpful mechanisms is significant and strong. The correlation between structure and purposes can be described as significant and fairly strong. Overall the correlations between structure, leadership and rewards are significant but moderate. The correlations between structure, helpful mechanisms and purposes are significant and strong. The correlation between structure and relationships is significant but weak.

Based on the results of the research structural interventions could be considered. These interventions aim to address problems with organisational structure. Interventions include management by objectives, quality of work life projects, work redesign and quality circles. If

used correctly and appropriately, the interventions may lead to increased productivity and enhanced job satisfaction (Adair, 2003). An assessment of current job descriptions and roles could be useful. These should be clarified so as to avoid ambiguity and stress.

There are many types of structures that can be considered. However, in the context of local NGOs a simple structure appears to be relevant. This is due to the limited staff that NGOs possess. According to Mintzberg (1979) the simple structure has "little or no technostructure, few support staffers, a loose division of labor, minimal differentiation among its units, and a small managerial hierarchy" (p. 306). The simple structure avoids using formal devices of structure and does not depend on staff specialists. Specialists are hired on contract when they are needed. In the simple structure power is centralised. Decision-making is flexible as the centralisation of power allows for a quick response (Mintzberg, 1979). The advantages of the simple structure include:

- it fosters decision-making and employee relations with each other and the manager,

- it fosters an easier adaptation to the organisation, and

- it increases the meaningfulness of work.

A disadvantage to consider is that it may be perceived as highly restrictive and the centralised nature of power may leave some feeling alienated. Therefore, even within this structure joint decision-making should be encouraged (Mintzberg, 1979).

Based on the findings of my research it is recommended that the organisations concerned consider the research relating to structure for local NGOs. Jeppe, Theron and Van Baalen (1992), Van der Kooy (1989) and Bonbright (1990), argue that South African NGOs should have a democratic structure,

participatory decision-making, institutional capacity, administrative skills, good communication structures, volunteers to extend reach and efficacy, linkages with other organisations, the ability to respond quickly (hence, the use of a simple structure) and support networks. Scheepers (1992) emphasises the role that co-operation between the South African government and NGOs can play in making a significant impact on poverty. Therefore, the organisations should create the necessary structures and policies needed to deal with government and other organisations.

5.3.2 Helpful Mechanisms

Helpful mechanisms support and enable the other five dimensions of the model. Examples of these are planning, controlling, budgeting, and information systems that serve to meet organisational goals. In Table 4.1 the variable helpful mechanisms obtained an average mean value of 14.804 (maximum=35). This indicates that overall the majority of the sample reflected a fairly high level of dissatisfaction with this variable. It is possible that there are too few helpful mechanisms or that these mechanisms do not function adequately. The percentage obtained was 42.29, which indicates an area for improvement.

For the variable helpful mechanisms Table 4.6 shows significant and fairly strong relationships with purposes (.611) and structure (.742). Helpful mechanisms shares significant but weak correlations with relationships (.350) and attitudes towards change (.375). Leadership (.548) and rewards (.446) have a significant but moderate correlation with helpful mechanisms.

Overall, the relationships between helpful mechanisms, purposes and structure can be said to be strong. There appears to be weak relationships between helpful mechanisms, relationships and attitudes towards change.

Based on the results the organisations can determine if the systems currently in place are effective. However, a constant re-evaluation of the systems is important due to the dynamic environment that NGOs function in. The organisations could consider structured supervision, mentoring, meetings and leadership development initiatives as helpful mechanisms. According to Van der Kooy (1989) and Jeppe, Theron and Van Baalen (1992) active evaluation and feedback of NGOs activities and changes that happen because of the NGO are important. Therefore, the NGOs ought to be consistently evaluating their activities and performance and must have the proper procedures to do so.

Bonbright (1990) states that being experimental, adaptable, independent/autonomous, transparent and consultative are important for local NGOs. Hence, there should be policies and procedures that foster a consultative, transparent and adaptable approach. It is important to note that a lack of helpful mechanisms may lead to stressed employees and this in turn affects employee well-being and productivity. Stress can be dealt with by consistent performance appraisals, goal setting, clarifying what is expected of employees and employee participation in goal-setting (Bennet, 1994).

5.3.3 Attitude towards Change

Attitude towards change allows for an assessment of an organisation's readiness for change. In Table 4.1 the variable attitude towards change obtained an average mean value of 15.500 (maximum=30). This indicates that overall the majority of the sample reflected a fairly high level of dissatisfaction with this variable. This may be due to employees' reluctance to engage in the change process or the organisations inability to continually adapt to changing conditions. The

percentage obtained was 51.66, which indicates an area for improvement. Knowing the attitudes to change in the organisation is important in order to deal with the change process constructively. Attitude towards change shares a significant but weak correlation with one other variable, helpful mechanisms (.375).

Resistance can cause a great deal of problems in change efforts. Maurer (1996) suggests that a Support for Change questionnaire be created and administered. The questionnaire is designed to help "understand the level of support or opposition to change within the organization" (Maurer, 1996, p. 104).

In a change effort there are many considerations including an assessment of employees' relative positions in the change effort, the approaches adopted, dealing with resistance, obtaining the support of key players and dealing with the limitations and failures of the intervention (Maurer, 1996). There should be greater participation by employees in the process to foster a greater acceptance of change. Management can encourage change through the creation of policies that aim to make employees knowledgeable about the intervention, the benefits of change and their role in the organisations future. This could go a long way to reducing resistance to change.

A recommendation is Future Search Conference as this may aid in facilitating staff readiness to change through the formation of a shared vision. According to Polanyi (2001) future search is "a large group, participatory planning process aimed at building common directions for action on complex social issues" (p. 466). The centrepiece of this idea is a conference at which diverse and often conflicting stakeholders work toward common ground and action. The conference aims to build a common understanding and stimulate collaborative action on contentious issues. Future

Search Conference is said to identify common ground, stimulate rapid action, facilitate participant learning, increase potential for multi-stakeholder cooperation and follows a participatory, inclusive and open process.

An advantage of the conference is that its participative nature encourages the development of a shared vision with the organisation. Increased participation fosters greater commitment to the vision as everyone feels that they are involved in the vision (French and Bell, 1999).

The agenda of a Future Search Conference generally includes:

- a scan of the history,
- trends of the external environment,
- an exploration of current trends,
- an assessment off current action,
- the envisioning of a desirable future,
- the creation of strategies, and commitments to address the issue (Polanyi, 2001).

Future Search can be applied successfully to the non-profit sector as research indicates that it has been applied successfully to a number of social issues such as child literacy and community development (Future Search Network, 1997 as cited in Polanyi, 2001). This technique is criticised on the basis that there have been few attempts to critically assess the claims made by the future search.

The findings of my research indicate that the organisations may have difficulty dealing with organisational change. Hence, management are encouraged to consider the recommendations

outlined above and to further research the area of organisational change. Organisational change and the factors that influence it are important for all organisations due to a constantly changing external environment.

5.4 Limitations

The final sample size is 56 (70% response rate) and this is considered relatively small for a quantitative study. In terms of being able to generalise this research to the non-profit sector it may not be widely generalisable as the sample consisted of only four organisations. However, it is hoped that the research benefited the four organisations in some way.

It is possible that honest responses could have been distorted because of misconceptions on the part of the participants.

The results could have been more accurate if participation, i.e sample size, was greater. This is based on the premise that a bigger sample would be advantageous in gaining more information on organisational functioning.

The response rate of the organisations differed slightly and even though this did not affect the comparative analysis adversely it would have been more advantageous if the sample from each organisation were larger and more similar in size.

Research on the Organisational Diagnosis Questionnaire (ODQ) is limited and this could be considered a limitation.

Even though the researcher did get a description of the sample the description could have been more comprehensive. Overall, this did not impact the research negatively.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter included a discussion of the results of the study and recommendations. The chapter outlined individual organisational results, attempted comparisons between the organisations and discussed the overall results of the variables. The discussion of results and recommendations were linked to and based on the literature on NGO's and organisational functioning.

The results identified leadership, purposes, rewards and relationships as areas that promoted organisational functioning and structure, helpful mechanisms and attitude towards change as areas that inhibited organisational functioning. The results revealed significant relationships between the seven areas.

Chapter 6

6.1 Conclusion

The main objective of the research was to determine the internal areas that were promoting and inhibiting the functioning of four local NGOs and provide feedback and recommendations to the relevant stakeholders. The results from the four organisations revealed that leadership, purposes, rewards and relationships promoted organisational functioning while structure, helpful mechanisms and attitude towards change inhibited organisational functioning. The relationships between the areas were determined by referring to the correlations. The individual organisational results revealed that there is room for improvement.

Recommendations were provided for all the relevant areas investigated and not only the areas that were inhibiting functioning. This enabled a holistic perspective and future options for the organisations concerned to be suggested. This was important as evaluation and analysis should be consistent and continuous in order to be effective and if these organisations attempted evaluation again in the future they would be able to use the recommendations and information that the research has yielded.

The researcher has come to the conclusion that evaluation is a valuable tool in the non-profit sector and it can be helpful if it is used ethically and appropriately. Organisations are encouraged to undertake future evaluations and analysis on a larger and more thorough scale than was done in the current study.

6.2 Directions for Future Research

Researchers should use bigger samples as this would increase the accuracy of the results and the quality of the recommendations.

Organisations in the non-profit sector ought to adopt mechanisms for evaluation and analysis and engage in regular analysis of their functioning and impact. The organisations should adopt a holistic approach to this process.

Future research ought to focus on the formulation of original ideas and tools to improve the functioning of the non-profit sector. The techniques and ideas should be based on the South African context.

I would strongly suggest that researchers focus on the impact of Northern NGOs on the developing world. This would allow researchers to determine if these organisations are in fact doing more harm than good in the developing world.

Research around whether South African NGOs meet the criteria for successful functioning is limited. A recommendation is that researchers probe to what extent South African NGOs meet the criteria.

There should be more studies focusing on the psychometric properties of the Organisational Diagnosis Questionnaire (ODQ) and the relationship between the ODQ factors and organisational performance.

Researchers should use many descriptors in order to get comprehensive descriptions of the

samples they are working with.

References

Achmat, Z. (2004). HIV/AIDS and human rights: a new South African struggle. *Proceedings of the eighth Democracy and Diversity Institute: Master Class* (pp. 1-39). Cape Town: The New School and IDASA.

Adair, J. (2003). *Effective strategic leadership: an essential path to success guided by the world's great leaders.* London: Pan Macmillan.

African Gender Institute, (2006). *About the AGI*. Retrieved June 27, 2006, from http://web.uct.ac.za/org/agi/.

Akukwe, C. (2002). *HIV/AIDS in Africa: African American Cooperation* [Electronic Version]. Retrieved September 19, 2006, from http://www.usafricaonline.com

Akyuz, Y. and Gore, C. (2001). African economic development in a comparative perspective. *Cambridge Journal of Economics, 25*, 265-288.

Aldaba, F., Antezana, P., Valderrama, M., and Fowler, A. (2000). NGO strategies beyond aid: perspectives from Central and South America and the Philippines. *Third World Quarterly, 21* (4), 669-683. Retrieved August 5, 2006, from Ebsco Host database.

Amos-Wilson, P. (1996). Management training in UK NGOs: a small survey. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 20* (1), 15–19. Retrieved October 7, 2006, from Emerald database.

Bales, K. (1999). *Disposable people: new slavery in the global economy.* California: University of California Press.

Bass, B.M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: theory, research and managerial applications*. New York: Free Press.

Bennett, R. (1994). *Organisational behaviour* (2nd ed.). London: Pitman.

Boice, D.F. and Kleiner, B.H. (1997). Designing effective performance appraisal systems. *Work Study, 46* (6), 197-201. Retrieved April 25, 2007, from Emerald database.

Bolden, R., Gosling, J., Marturano, A., and Dennison, P. (2003). *A review of leadership theory and competency frameworks.* United Kingdom: University of Exeter.

Bonbright, D. (1990). NGOs in development. In W.J.O. Jeppe, F. Theron and J.P.J. Van Baalen (Eds.), *NGOs in development* (pp. 4-7). University of Stellenbosch: Department of Development Administration.

Borren, S. (2000). Development agencies: global or solo players? *Development in Practice, 10* (2-3), 408-419.

Bovey, W. and Hede, A. (2001). Resistance to organisational change: the role of cognitive and affective processes. *Leadership and Organisational Development Journal, 22* (1), 372-382.

Bratton, M. (1989). The politics of government-NGO relations in Africa. *World Development, 17* (4), 569-587.

Brodhead, T. (1987). NGOs: In one year, out the other? *World Development, 15*, 1-6.

Cameron, J. (2000). Development economics, the new institutional economics and NGOs. *Third World Quarterly, 21* (4), 627-635. Retrieved May 15, 2006, from Ebsco Host database.

Carrell, M.R., Elbert, N.F., Hatfield, R.D., Grobler, P., Marx, M., and van der Schyf, S. (1999). *Human resource management in South Africa.* Cape Town: Pearson Education.

Cheru, F. (2002). Debt, adjustment and the politics of effective response to HIV/AIDS in Africa. *Third World Quarterly, 23* (2), 299-312. Retrieved February 17, 2007, from Ebsco Host database.

Collier, P. and Gunning, J.W. (1999). Why has Africa grown so slowly? *Journal of Economic Perspectives, 13* (3), 3-22.

Conradie, H.F. (1999). Non-governmental organisations and financial sustainability. *Development Southern Africa, 16* (2), 291-298.

Crawford, M.J. (1989). Financial management of NGOs. In W.J.O. Jeppe, F. Theron and J.P.J.

Van Baalen (Eds.), *NGOs in development* (pp. 127-135). University of Stellenbosch:

Department of Development Administration.

Cross, J. C. (1997). Development NGOs, the state and neo-liberalism: competition, partnership

or co-conspiracy [Electronic Version]. *Proceedings of the fourth annual AUC research*

conference. Retrieved June 27, 2006, from http://www.openair.org/cross/NGOS.htm.

Cummings, T.G. and Worley, C.G. (2001). *Organisational development and change*.

Cincinnati, OH: South-Western College Publishing.

Debt, Aid, Trade, Africa (DATA). (2006). Why Africa? [Electronic Version]. *The World Bank,*

African Development Bank and United Nations Conference on Trade and Development

(UNCTAD). Retrieved April 9, 2007, from http://www.data.org/worldwide/

De LurdesVeludo, M., Macbeth, D., and Purchase, S. (2006). Frameworks for relationships

and networks. *Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing, 21* (4), 199-207.

Retrieved April 25, 2007, from Ebsco Host database.

Dennis, D. (1996). *The role of training and development in creating employee readiness for*

effective workplace change [Electronic Version]. Retrieved August 26, 2008, from

http://www.aare.edu.au/97pap/dennd201.htm

DuBrin, A.J. (1995). *Leadership research findings, practice, and skills*. Boston: Houghton
Mifflin Company.

Eade, D. (Ed.). (2000). *Development in practice readers: development, NGOs, and civil
society*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxfam GB.

Eade, D. and Ligteringen, E. (2001). NGOs and the future: taking stock, shaping debates,
changing practice. In D. Eade and E. Ligteringen (Eds.), *Development in practice
readers: debating development* (pp. 11-19). Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxfam GB.

Elahi, K.Q. and Danopoulos, C.P. (2004). Microcredit and the Third World: perspectives from
moral and political philosophy. *International Journal of Social Economics, 31* (7), 643-
654. Retrieved May 25, 2007, from Emerald database.

Elrod, D. and Tippett, D. (2002). *The death valley of change. Journal of Organisational
Change Management, 15* (3), 273-291.

Emmanuel, J., Wendler, D., and Grady, C. (2002). What makes clinical research ethical?
JAMA, 283 (20), 2701-2711.

Epitropaki, O. (2001). What is transformational leadership? [Electronic Version]. *University of
Sheffield: Institute of Work Psychology.* Retrieved July 11, 2007, from
http://esrccoi.group.shef.ac.uk/pdf/whatis/transformational.pdf

Falletta, S.V. (2005). Organizational diagnostic models: A review and synthesis [Electronic

   Version]. *Leadersphere*. Retrieved October 2, 2006, from

   http://sunsite.wits.ac.za/sebs/downloads/2006/od_models.pdf

Ferguson Career Skills Library. (2004). *Leadership skills* (2nd ed.). New York: Facts on File,

   Inc.

Fisher, J. (1993). *The road from Rio: sustainable development and the nongovernmental*

   movement in the Third World. Westport: Praeger.

Fisher, J. (1998). *Non-Governments: NGOs and the political development of the third world*.

   West Hartford, CT: Kumarian Press, Inc.

Fisher, W.F. (1997). Doing Good? The politics and antipolitics of NGO practices. *Annual*

   Review of Anthropology, 26, 439-464.

Fowler, A. (2000). NGDOs as a moment in history: beyond aid to social entrepreneurship or

   civic innovation? *Third World Quarterly, 21* (4), 637-654. Retrieved April 22, 2006,

   from Ebsco Host database.

French, W. L. and Bell, C. H. (1999). *Organisation development: behavioural science*

   interventions for organisation improvement (6th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Furnham, A. (2005). *The psychology of behaviour at work: the individual in the organization* (2nd ed.). Hove: Psychology Press.

Gordenker, L. and Weiss, T.G. (1995). NGO participation in the international policy process. *Third World Quarterly, 16* (3), 543-566.

Gray, R., Bebbington, J., and Collison, D. (2006). NGOs, civil society and accountability: making the people accountable to capital. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 19* (3), 319-348. Retrieved March 8, 2007, from Emerald Host database.

Greenberg, J. and Baron, R.A. (2000). *Behavior in organizations: understanding and managing the human side of work* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Guy, R.F., Edgley, C.E., Arafat, I., and Allen, D.E. (1987). *Social research methods: puzzles and solutions.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Handy, C. (1999). *Understanding organizations* (4th ed.). London: Penguin Books.

Haque, M.S. (2002). The changing balance of power between the government and NGOs in Bangladesh. *International Political Science Review, 23* (4), 411-435.

Henderson, K.M. (1997). Alternatives to imposed administrative reform: the NGOs. *International Journal of Public Sector Management, 10* (5), 353-363. Retrieved March 6, 2007, from Emerald database.

Henry, G. (1998). Practical sampling. In L. Bickman and D. Rog (Eds.), *Handbook of applied social science methods* (pp. 101-126). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Howell, J. and Avolio, B.J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of business unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*, 891-902. Retrieved August 26, 2008, from http://www.ivey.uwo.ca.

Howell, J. and Pearce, J. (2000). Civil society: technical instrument or social force for change? In D. Lewis and T. Wallace (Eds.), N*ew roles and relevance: development NGOs and the challenge of change* (pp. 76-78). West Hartford: Kumarian Press, Inc.

Hulme, D. and Edwards, M. (2000). Scaling up NGO impact on development: learning from experience. In D. Eade (Ed.), *Development in practice readers: development, NGOs, and civil society* (pp. 44-63). Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxfam GB.

Institute for Democracy in South Africa, (2006). *About IDASA*. Retrieved June 27, 2006, from http://www.idasa.org.za/

International Labour Organisation (ILO). (2004). *HIV/AIDS and work: global estimates, impact and response*. Retrieved September 5, 2006, from http://www.ilo.org/public/english/protection/trav/aids/publ/global_est/global_estimates _report.pdf

Irinnews. (2004). South Africa: poverty and unemployment remain key challenges [Electronic Version]. *United Nations Human Development Report, 2003*. Retrieved April 3, 2006, from http://www.irinnews.org/report.asp?ReportID=40914

Jeppe, W.J.O., Theron, F., and Van Baalen, J.P.J. (1992). *NGOs in development.* University of Stellenbosch: Department of Development Administration.

Johnson, S. and Ludema, J.D. (1997). *Partnering to build and measure organizational capacity: lessons from NGOs around the world.* Grand Rapids: Christian Reformed World Relief Committee.

Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS). (2004). *Aids Epidemic Update*. Retrieved April 13, 2005, from http://www.unaids.org/wad2004/report.html

Judd, C.M., Smith, E.R., and Kidder, L.H. (1991). *Research methods in social relations.* Texas: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Publishers, Inc.

Kaplinsky, R. (2005). *Globalization, poverty and inequality*. London: Polity Press.

Kerlinger, F. (1986). Sampling and randomness. In F. Kerlinger, *Foundations of behavioural research* (pp. 109-122). New York: Holt, Rhinehart and Wilson.

Kotter, J.P. (1996). *Leading change*. Boston, Massachusetts: Harvard Business School Press.

Kreitner, R. and Kinicki, A. (1992). *Organizational behavior* (2nd ed.). Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin.

Lawler, E.E. (2003). *Treat people right: how organizations and individuals can propel each other into a virtuous spiral of success*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Le Roux, R.G. (2001). *Organisation transition with downsizing and restructuring: a management perspective.* Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Durban-Westville, Durban, South Africa.

Lindenberg, M. and Bryant, C. (2001). *Going global: transforming relief and development NGOs.* Bloomfield: Kumarian Press, Inc.

Lok, P. and Crawford, J. (1999). The application of a diagnostic model and surveys in organizational development. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 15* (2), 108-125.

Maurer, R. (1996). *Beyond the wall of resistance: unconventional strategies that build support for change.* Austin, Texas: Bard Books.

McCall, R.B. (1994). *Fundamental statistics for behavioral sciences.* Texas: Harcourt Brace Publishers.

McNamara, C. (2003). *Field guide to consulting and organizational development.* Minneapolis: Authenticity Consulting.

Melville, S. and Goddard, W. (1996). *Research methodology.* Kenwyn: Juta.

Mintzberg, H. (1979). *The structuring of organizations: a synthesis of the research.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Moorhead, G. and Griffin, R.W. (2003). *Organizational behavior: managing people and organizations* (4th ed.). Boston, Toronto: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Motala, S. and Husy, D. (1997). NGOs do it better: an efficiency analysis of NGOs in development delivery. *Development Update, 3* (4), 71-111.

Nelson Mandela Foundation, (2006). *About the Nelson Mandela Foundation: living the legacy.* Retrieved April 12, 2006, from http://www.nelsonmandela.org/?option=3&id=1&com_id=112&parent_id=112&com_tas

Netaid, (2005). *Global poverty.* Retrieved April 2, 2006, from http://www.netaid.org/global_poverty/global-poverty/

Northouse, P.G. (2001). *Leadership: theory and practice* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California:

    SAGE Publications.

Paul, S. (1983). *Strategic management of development programme: guidelines for action.*

    Geneva: International Labour Office.

Picciotto, R. (1996). [The World Bank and non-governmental organizations: the limits of

    apolitical development]. *Finance and Development, 33* (3).

Plaatjies, D. (1990). The South African politics of transition and inside NGOs. In W.J.O.

    Jeppe, F. Theron and J.P.J. Van Baalen (Eds.), *NGOs in development* (pp. 124-126).

    University of Stellenbosch: Department of Development Administration.

Polanyi, M. (2001). Toward common ground and action on repetitive strain injuries: an

    assessment of a future search conference. *Applied Behavioral Science, 37* (4), 465-487.

    Retrieved April 25, 2007, from Ebsco Host database.

Preziosi, R. C. (1980). Organizational Diagnosis Questionnaire (ODQ). In J. W. Pfeiffer and J.

    E. Jones (Eds.), *The 1980 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators* (pp. 112-120). San

    Diego: Pfeiffer and Co.

Robbins, R.H. (2002). *Global problems and the culture of capitalism* (2nd ed.).Toronto: Allyn and Bacon.

Robson, C. (1993). *Real world research*: a *resource for social scientists and practitioner-researchers*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Rubin, H.J. and Rubin, I.S. (1995). *Qualitative interviewing: the art of hearing data*. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.

Sachs, J. D. (2005). *The end of poverty: economic possibilities for our time*. London: Penguin Press.

Sachs, J.D., McArthur, J.W., Schmidt-Traub, G., Kruk, M., Bahadur, C., Faye, M., and McCord, G. (2004). Ending Africa's poverty trap. *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity, 1*, 1-35.

Scheepers, J. (1990). The development roles of NGOs: government perspectives. In W.J.O. Jeppe, F. Theron and J.P.J. Van Baalen (Eds.), *NGOs in development* (pp. 53-57). University of Stellenbosch: Department of Development Administration.

Schmale, M. (1993). *The role of local organizations in Third World development: Tanzania, Zimbabwe, and Ethiopia*. Aldershot, Hants: Avebury.

Sekaran, U. (1992). *Research methods for business and management.* New York: Macmillan

    Publishing Company.

Shah, A. (2006). *Poverty facts and stats.* Retrieved May 23, 2007, from

    http://www.globalissues.org/TradeRelated/Facts.asp#fact1

Smillie, I. (1997). NGOs and development assistance: a change in mind-set? *Third World*

    Quarterly, 18 (3), 563-577.

Smillie, I. (1999). *Stakeholders: government-NGO partnerships for international development.*

    London: Earthscan.

Streeten, P. (1997). Nongovernmental organizations and development. *Annals of the American*

    Academy of Political and Social Science, 554, 193-210.

Tandon, R. (2000). Riding high or nosediving: development NGOs in the new millennium.

    Development in Practice, 10 (3-4), 319 – 329.

Taylor, S.J. and Bogdan, R. (1998). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: the search*

    for meanings (3rd ed.). New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Taylor, J., Marais, D., and Heyns, S. (Eds.). (1998). *Community participation and financial*

    sustainability: case studies and lessons from development practices. South Africa: Juta.

Tredoux, C. and Durrheim, K. (Eds.). *Numbers, hypotheses and conclusions: a course in statistics for the social sciences*. Landsdowne: UCT Press.

Tziner, A., Murphy, K.R., and Cleveland, J.N. (2005). Performance appraisal: evolution and change. *Group and Organization Management, 30* (1), 4-5. Retrieved April 25, 2007, from Ebsco Host database.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). (2001). *Facts on poverty*. Retrieved April 2, 2006, from http://www.africa2015.org/factspoverty.pdf

Van der Kooy, R. (1989). *Private development organisations and how to enhance their role.* Pretoria: Prodder, Human Sciences Research Council.

Van Tuijl, P. (2000). Entering the global dealing room: reflections on a rights-based framework for NGOs in international development. *Third World Quarterly, 21* (4), 617-626. Retrieved April 22, 2007, from Ebsco Host database.

Wahid, A.N.M. (1994). The Grameen Bank and poverty alleviation in Bangladesh: theory, evidence and limitations. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology, 53* (1), 1-15.

Walters, S. (1993). Non-governmental organisation and the South African state: present and future relations. *Community Development Journal, 28* (1), 1-10.

Weisbord, M. R. (1978). *Organizational diagnosis: a workbook of theory and practice.*

   Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Weiss, T.G. (1998, 1999). Scrutinizing NGOs. *Foreign Policy*, (113), 138-139.

World Bank. (2001). *Categorizing NGOs, World Bank criteria: NGO World Bank*

   Collaboration. Retrieved April 8, 2006, from

   http://docs.lib.duke.edu/igo/guide/ngo/define.htm

Organisational Diagnosis Questionnaire

Name of Organisation:

Gender:

Age:

This questionnaire aims to identify areas for development at your organisation so as to improve the organisation's functioning and effectiveness.

Directions:

Please answer all 35 questions. For each of the 35 statements, please indicate your response by placing a cross on the most appropriate box. **Place a cross at one (1) number only to indicate your thinking.** Please feel free to include any comments you may have in the space provided at the end of the questionnaire. *Do not put your name on the questionnaire.* Your participation is appreciated.

1 – Strongly agree

2 – Agree

3 – Slightly Agree

4 – Neutral

5 – Slightly disagree

6 – Disagree

7 – Strongly disagree

No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Neutral	Slightly disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	The goals of the organisation are clearly stated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	The division of labour in this organisation is flexible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	My boss is supportive of my efforts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My relationship with my boss is a harmonious one	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	My job offers me the opportunity to grow as a person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	My boss has ideas that are helpful to me a	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	The organisation is not resistant to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I am personally in agreement with the stated goals of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	The division of labour of this organisation is conducive to reaching its goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	The leadership of this organisation help its progress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I can always talk with someone at work if I have a work-related problem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	The pay-scale and benefits of this organisation treat each employee fairly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I have the information that I need to do a good job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	The organisation is not introducing enough	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	policies and procedures							
15	I understand the purpose of this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	The manner with which work tasks are divided is a logical one	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	The organisation's leadership efforts result in the organisation's fulfilment of its purposes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	My relationships with the members of my work group are friendly and professional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	The opportunity for promotion exist within this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	This organisation has adequate mechanisms for binding itself together	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	This organisation favours change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	The priorities of this organisation are understood by its employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	The structure of my work is well designed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Its clear to me whenever my boss is attempting to guide my work efforts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	I have established the relationships that I need to do my job properly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	The salary that I receive is commensurate with the job that I perform	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Other people are helpful to my work unit whenever assistance is requested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	Occasionally I like to change things about my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	I desire less input in deciding my work goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	The division of labour of this organisation helps its efforts to reach its goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	I understand my boss's efforts to influence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	me and the other members of the organisation							
32	There is no evidence of unresolved conflict in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	All tasks to be accomplished are associated with incentives/rewards	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	This organisation's planning and control efforts are helpful to its growth and development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	This organisation has the ability to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Do you have any comments or elaborations regarding any of the statements in the questionnaire?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Informed Consent Form

Dear Participant,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my study. The following information will provide you with any necessary information regarding the purposes of the study:

1. Project Title and Aim: An analysis of four South African Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) to determine which internal areas/parts are promoting and inhibiting functioning.

2. The study is being conducted for the purpose of completing my Masters degree in Industrial /Organisational Psychology at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban. My supervisor, Dr Abed Moola, can be contacted at 031-2601087 for any queries, complaints etc.

3. Any information obtained from you will be kept confidential and used solely for the purpose of this study. Your name will not be published in the study.

4. By participating, you will be required to complete a questionnaire. It will by no means affect your working responsibilities.

5. The questionnaire will be in your possession for a week and will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. Once the questionnaire is complete and returned to me, you will have no further obligations.

6. By participating in this study, you will help to provide insight into the factors that are promoting and hindering your organisation's functioning. The aim is to identify their limitations and strengths and work on these to increase effectiveness and consequently, contributions to society.

7. All questionnaires will be kept confidential and will not be published. Participation is completely voluntary and the research process will be conducted confidentially. This means that none of the participants' views and details will be identified with particular people, throughout the research process, including the report. Questionnaires will only be viewed by myself and my supervisor and will be filed for safekeeping. You are reminded that **you are not required to write your name on the questionnaire**.

8. If you choose not to participate in this study, you will not be disadvantaged in any way.

9. If at any time you feel uncomfortable when answering the questions or wish to stop participation for any reason, you may do so and will not be disadvantaged in any way.

10. I will make the findings available to participants if requested

11. I greatly appreciate your cooperation and enthusiasm towards my project and sincerely hope that it will be beneficial to you and your organisation. I am more than willing to answer any questions and queries.

I …………………………………………. (Full name) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

…………………………………………   ……………………….

Signature of Participant   Date