

**Assessing funding and support for development
projects: a comparative study of Kenya and
South Africa**

BY

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this dissertation, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is my own work.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to assess funding and support provided for development projects in Kenya and South Africa. The focus was to identify comparisons and differences in development, funding and national development priorities in both countries.

The study was carried out in Kenya and South Africa. Through purposive sampling, six organizations were selected as the units of analysis. Data was collected by means of questionnaires, interviews, national policies and written records.

Six major themes emerged from the data collected. They included (a) the purpose and internal structure of the organization (b) programs and projects supported (c) sustainability and continuation (d) internal and external factors affecting the organization (e) conditions (f) the aid – chain.

The findings indicated that despite the differences in both countries, poverty remained a national priority. In both countries, factors such as inflation rates, conditions tied to aid and internal and external factor affected the development organizations and their operations. Suggestions were made to development organizations for optimal development.

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ACRONYMS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome.
ANC	African National Congress
CBO	Community Based Organization
DRC	Development Resource Center
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GRO	Grassroots organization
GTZ	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IGA	Income generating activities
INGO	International Non Governmental Organization
Ksh	Kenya Shillings
KZN	KwaZulu Natal
LDC	Less Developed Countries
LNGO	Local Non governmental Organization
MSEs	Micro and Small Entrepreneurs
NCC	Nairobi City Council
NGO	Non- Governmental Organization
NPEP	<u>National Poverty Eradication Plan</u>
ODA	Official Development Assistance
PLWA	People Living with Aids
R	South African Rand
RDP	The Reconstruction and Development Programme
SACCOs	Savings and Credit Cooperatives
SAPS	Structural Adjustment Programmes
SSD	Social Dimensions of Development
STD	Sexually Transmitted Disease
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on AIDS
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
US\$	US dollars

USAID	U.S. Agency for International Development
WMS	Welfare Monitoring Survey
WSSD	World Summit for Social Development

Appendix A

Questionnaire for the INGO

Appendix B

Questionnaire for the LNGO

Chapter One

CONTEXT AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Introduction

As we move into the new millennium, many people live in conditions of poverty in the world, especially in the developing world. The transition into this new era brings with it remnants of poverty, social exclusion, inequality, illiteracy and inequality which act as obstacles to development. As a result of the multidimensional nature of poverty, it remains affected by the new dimensions of technology, the world economy and political systems, international debt and globalisation. As sub-systems within the larger global system, nations in the decade from 1980s to 1990s renewed their focus on social development and poverty reduction (Wilson, Kanji and Braathen, 2001), in the bid to enhance development, increase income and reduce social inequality. This move has seen a shift from the “trickle down” to the “bottom-up” development paradigms. With the emphasis now being on “people-centred” and human development, as opposed to capital-centred, the previously marginalized, the poor, and those bypassed by the development agenda have become the corner-stone for development. This has been achieved through development projects, which act as mechanisms through which change and increased opportunities are availed to targeted beneficiaries.

This study entailed examining how the above-mentioned factors affected and influenced development in the two countries covered in this study. Kenya and South Africa are characterised by varying inputs in relation to the Gross National Product (GNP) and such social indicators as mortality and literacy levels. Although South Africa is more developed than Kenya, these factors contribute to the nature of development projects, their target beneficiaries and

services provided. Development projects have been viewed in many countries as vehicles towards social advancement, the eradication of poverty and the improvement of the quality of life of the inhabitants. This study aims to assess how aid and other forms of support provided by donors flows through the aid-chain into the various development projects in Kenya and South Africa. The study further sought to establish, similarities or differences (if any) in the respective development formations in the countries.

Statement of the problem

Poverty is seen to be a major problem in Kenya and South Africa, making both governments committed to socio-economic development. Both countries have committed themselves to a social development approach as stipulated in their national poverty eradication programs, plans and policies. In Kenya 47% of the rural and 29% of the urban of the population live in poverty. In South Africa, according to United Nations Development Programme (2001) 11.5% of the population lives in poverty. According to a Kenyan survey, “The Welfare Monitoring Survey” cited in (Republic of Kenya 1994b), in 1992, the rural poor were mainly farmers, the landless and pastoralists who constituted 52%, 50% and 43% respectively of the poor. In South Africa, 75% of the country’s poor live in rural areas, where they experienced similar problems as the Kenyan poor such as high levels of unemployment, low education levels and have low access to services and resources. In both countries it is increasingly evident that there are poor urban dwellers who live in informal settlements that are poorly drained and serviced. However not all informal residents are poor (Ministry of the Office of the President, 1995; Republic of Kenya 1997, 1994a, 1994b). In South Africa, poverty is concentrated in the provinces of the Eastern Cape, Kwa-Zulu Natal (KZN) and the Limpopo Province. In Kenya, the highest incidences are in the Arid and Semi-Arid Lands (ASALs) districts of the Northern Province. These areas lack accessibility to resources and social amenities. For this reason,

developmental organizations have established projects in these areas to eradicate poverty and improve the quality of life.

Poverty is enmeshed in the fabric of societies, as is evident in living conditions and the inaccessibility to services and basic resources. With the majority of the populations in developing countries living in poverty, poverty reduction has become a national priority in these countries, especially in the developing world. Whereas there is no single definition of poverty, it is characterised by an individual or household's inability to afford the basic essential necessities (such as food, shelter, health care, and education), their inability to generate income, high levels of illiteracy and lack of material possessions (Ministry of Finance and Planning, 2000a). Other distinguishing characteristics include unemployment, malnutrition, the lack of access to essential services and 'vulnerability' to natural disasters such as famine and drought (Ministry of Finance and Planning, 2000a; Ministry of the Office of the President, 1995).

To eradicate poverty and improve the quality of life of its citizens, governments have formed partnerships with non- governmental organizations (NGO's) in a bid to provide access to essential services. This partnership is essential as NGO's have the capacity to deliver services and development programs to communities and groups that have been ignored or by-passed by national and local developmental programmes. This partnership between the government and NGO's is enhanced through governmental departments and ministries, collaborating with developmental organizations such as local non-governmental organizations (LNGO's) Community Based Organization (CBO's) and grassroots organizations (GRO's). Through this collaboration the government and NGOs supplement each other's services. Links and networks are established across and between development formations and governments, and within the development formations themselves, which enhance the efficiency of services provided. NGOs, CBO's, and GROs have the development advantage in that they possess the potential to reach into the communities, promote participation,

identify local needs, build on local resources and transfer of new technology (Gibbs, Fumo and Kuby, 1999; Pratt & Boyden, 1985; Smith, 2001a). This is achieved through the “bottom-up” approach, which thrives on the principles of empowerment, participation, sustainability and continuity and self-reliance. The active process of participation includes people’s involvement in decision-making and implementation, through which community efforts are organized to increase resource control and enhance personal growth and self-reliance (Cohen and Uphoff, 1977; Paul, 1987; Pearse and Stiefel, 1979).

Projects and programmes aimed at reducing poverty and improving the quality of life hence target groups of individuals who have been marginalized, are vulnerable and consequently poor. Project beneficiaries; have been identified in South Africa as the Black Africans, the rural poor, and the unemployed and female-headed households (May, 2000; Ministry of the Office of the President, 1995; Ministry for Welfare and Population Development, 1998; National Population Unit, 2000; White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997). In Kenya, the beneficiaries comprise women, children, female-headed households, the elderly poor, pastoralists small-scale farmers, the landless, the handicapped and the unemployed (Ministry of the Office of the President, 1995; Republic of Kenya, 1994a).

Conceptual guidelines and commitments that serve as guidelines for national strategies and policies are encapsulated in the Copenhagen Social Development Summit goals and objectives, which make poverty eradication a global priority (African National Congress, 1994; Office of the President, 1999; United Nations, 1995). The Ministry of Social Development in South Africa and the Ministry of Culture and Social Services in Kenya recognize this need to eradicate poverty and hence engage with social formations such as CBO’s, NGO’s and women’s groups at national, provincial and local levels (ANC, 1994; Republic of Kenya, 1997, 1994a, 1994b; <http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2001/social.html>). Both countries have subscribed

to the people-centred and social development approach, which allows for an inter-sectoral, governmental and partnership collaboration between the NGO's and donors who pledge billions of dollars for development aid in the countries' programs.

Factors contributing to poverty

HIV/AIDS has been identified as the number one killer, with a high rate of infection in the sub-Saharan region, more especially in eastern and southern Africa. In Kenya and South Africa, the AIDS epidemic is impacting widely and negatively on families, communities and economies and is reversing development agendas and initiatives. AIDS is expediting poverty, reversing human development achievements, worsening gender inequalities, impeding government's abilities to maintain essential services, and is resulting in declining economic growth as a result of the infected labour force. Poverty increases the exposure to, as well as the impact of HIV/AIDS as malnutrition and the lack of hygienic living conditions, including access to clean water leads to susceptibility to other diseases and infections (Collins and Rau, 2000; Panos Institute, 1992; Poverty Policy Briefing: HIV/AIDS, 2001; UNDP, 2001; Whiteside, 2001). The high prevalence of HIV/AIDS in both countries has had negative implications for socio-economic development and the overall quality of life. Both countries have highlighted HIV/AIDS as a national priority issue for development and research (<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2001/social.html>). In so doing, both governments aim at alleviating the impact of the epidemic, as an obstacle to all aspects of development both at local and national levels.

Agriculture is paramount as a means of livelihood for populations living in the rural areas. Whereas the Kenyan National Poverty Eradication Plan 1999 – 2015 (NPEP) estimates that more than 80% of the nation's rural population depend on agriculture; in South Africa, an estimated 42% of the rural poor

depend to some extent on crop or livestock production (Ministry of the Office of the President, 1995). In both countries therefore, poverty is often seasonal in the rural areas, which depend on agriculture as their source of livelihood. The seasonality in Kenya is attributed to seasonal rains, which destroy rural roads resulting in inaccessibility to markets and other essential services and, in South Africa to casual labour, farming requirements and school fees. In both countries therefore, this seasonality is accompanied by low incomes and endemic diseases such as malnutrition (May, 2000; Ministry of the Office of the President, 1995; Office of the President, 1999).

Apartheid and Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs)

The apartheid era in South Africa contributed greatly to the poverty and inequality (May, 2000; Ministry of the Office of the President, 1995; National Population Unit, 2000; White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997). The segregation caused by apartheid resulted in disadvantaged communities, particularly the Black Africans, who were deprived of education, social infrastructure, employment and investment opportunities, property ownership and business involvement for African - black women (coetzee, graff, hendricks, wood, 2001). The unequal distribution of resources, therefore, left the homelands, where the majority of the African-blacks were confined, poor and under- developed in comparison to the populations of the white areas. In Kenya, the poverty rates can be attributed to the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP's). SAP's and corruption have had a negative impact on both the private and public sectors. Kenya has agricultural policies that favour the production and marketing of export crops, such as tea and coffee, rather than on subsistence crops that are used for local consumption. For example, in the year 2001 the maize harvested was in excess of what was needed for local demand and due to the poor policies in place, farmers were forced to sell their produce at a loss. In Kenya this is a consequence of the liberalization of the economy, which has led to the opening

up of the local market to cheaper foreign agricultural produce and the inability of local farmers to market their produce internationally because of the lack of government support (Odhiambo, undated).

Post Colonial and post apartheid policies

In the post-colonial and post-apartheid eras, the socio-economic and development policies of both countries emphasised improved quality of life, alleviation of poverty and collaborative national strategies as intervention mechanisms. In addition, these policies espoused people centred and human development approaches (UNDP, 1997, 1993, 1992, 1990; White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997). Despite these policies, localized developmental interventions and foreign support, poverty and socio-economic inequalities persist.

Included in the national poverty frameworks, both countries have development strategies and plan to improve quality of life and to eradicate poverty. These recognise NGO's and CBO's as major agencies for effecting these plans and strategies through the adoption of the social and human development. With the aim of addressing the above problems, development projects are initiated with the objective of alleviating poverty through a developmental approach. According to Oakley (1991) development agencies act as instruments of change by which external assistance is directed to a particular area. Projects in the host countries are directly or indirectly informed by national developmental priorities, which prioritise the developmental problems.

Rationale of the study

There have been an increasing number of development formations in Kenya and South Africa over the past decade. Through these formations, development projects have been initiated, targeting the poor and the socially excluded, with the aim of empowerment and providing them with the means to sustain their livelihoods. The question, “why then does poverty still prevail in communities”, despite the presence of these development formations, and the communities engagement, arises. As poverty was still prevalent, was this as a result of the beneficiaries, the government, donor or other factors that directly and indirectly influenced them from the wider environment? De Clerq, (1994) pointed out that development projects failed as they ended up not being self-sustaining and also because the projects ended up being run by the implementing organization, as characteristic of the “top-down” developmental approach. With South Africa being referred to as the “Engine of Africa”, the researcher sought to examine whether there were any similarities or differences between Kenya and South Africa, in relation to the above-mentioned factors with respect to the nature of poverty, conditions and factors associated with funding and development projects.

The study also came at a time when there were speculations in Kenya concerning the directing of funding from NGOs to the Kenyan government, (Kimani, 2003), as occurred in 1994 during South Africa’s period of transitional government (Dangor, 1997; Smith, 2001a). The researcher proposes that this study is important at this time of Kenya’s transitional government, as it would highlight lessons that the Kenyan government could learn from South Africa.

Purpose of the study

This study sought to examine the nature of development in Kenya and South Africa and to identify possible similarities and differences. This was achieved by critically examining six development agencies, (three in each country) with

respect to objectives, funding conditions, internal and external factors affecting the organization, channelling structures in Kenya and South Africa, with reference to national developmental priorities as identified by each country. Viewed as systems, the external environment was also examined, assessing how the influences of the world market and international debt affected the operation of development agencies and development projects.

The broad purpose of this study was to assess the differences and similarities (if any) between the development projects and support given in Kenya and South Africa. Another secondary purpose was to establish external and internal factors influencing aid channelled to development projects and to determine if donor agency goals are in congruence with developmental issues in the recipient host country. This study also aimed to assess the nature of the development projects in Kenya and South Africa, and how they channel support for development.

Objectives of the study

- To assess all factors, both external and internal influencing development agency support, aid and delivery.
- To assess whether the developmental priorities of the recipient countries are congruent with the developmental priorities of the donor countries, especially at the local level.
- To explore the mechanisms of channelling support for development utilised by the six development agencies in supporting local development initiatives.
- To establish possible barriers experienced in the chain of support for development projects at community level.
- To identify any other themes that are relevant in the process of channelling support to development initiatives.

Research questions

- What external and internal factors affect the operation of development agencies in Kenya and South Africa?
- What national social development programmes are supported by development agencies in Kenya and South Africa?
- What are the mechanisms utilized by the agencies in Kenya and in South Africa to ensure that aid reaches community-level projects?
- What types of community projects are funded by organizations in Kenya and South Africa at local level, and are they in line with national priority issues?

Assumptions of the study

The study was based on the following underlying assumptions:

- Support provided by development agencies enables initiatives to enhance national development agendas.
- Infrastructures at the local level are the basis of national development agendas.
- The development agencies in the two countries are major partners in facilitating and ensuring that key poverty issues are addressed.
- The development agencies work in partnership with local formations in deciding which the critical issues and programs that require support are.
- Development agencies work in collaboration with communities and formations in enhancing and sustaining development initiatives or addressing threats to the developmental agenda.

Value of the study

It was anticipated that this study could be of value to funders and development agencies that intend to be collaborative partners in enhancing and promoting development in Kenya and South Africa. The findings of this study, will also be of value to human aid development professionals such as social and development workers participating in the implementing of the development agendas at the local levels, within the national strategies and frameworks of the White Paper for Social Welfare 1997 (South Africa) and the National Poverty Eradication Plans of Kenya.

The study will also provide a deeper and more critical understanding of the factors that affect development formations and development projects.

This is a limited study that will generate more questions for research in the future and contribute towards the development of indigenous theory grounded in local realities.

Some of the possible questions for future research are:

- What is the relationship between the donor agencies, the governments and the beneficiaries?
- How does the support provided by donor agencies impact on development programs or poverty alleviation programs at local level?
- What are some of the enabling environmental factors that impact on development in the two countries?

Explanation of Key concepts

Aid: Aid refers to the net inflow of official development assistance in the forms of:

- Technical assistance

- Grants
- Concessional loans
- Gifts in kind (Cassen and Associates, 1986).

Development projects: Development projects are instruments of intervention that bring about forms of change and means through which external assistance is brought to influence development in a particular region (Oakley, 1991).

Development agency: Development agencies refer to organizations that engage in all aspects of development (social, cultural, political, human and economic), with the objective of enhancing the quality of life for the development beneficiaries.

Non Governmental Organization: As there is no universally accepted definition of NGO's, for the purpose of this study, NGO's are defined as non-governmental, non-profit organizations that are concerned with the betterment of society or individuals through the promotion of social welfare and development, charity, education and research (Republic of Kenya, 1995; White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997).

Presentation of contents

This chapter provided a broad overview of the study, the rationale and purpose of the study, the purpose, the research questions and underlying assumptions, and the value of the study.

Chapter Two presents the literature review. The chapter focuses and covers: people-centred, human centred development, the theoretical interpretations of poverty, development and its response to poverty, NGOs as developmental agencies, funding and the aid-chain.

Chapter Three gives a description of the methodology that was used in the study. Issues covered in this chapter are the research design, sampling methodology, selection of the sample, data collection instruments, data analysis and the limitations of the study.

Chapter Four presents the analysis and discussion of the findings. The findings are discussed in relation to literature review and pertain to: the purpose and organizational structure, supported programs and projects, project identification, internal and external factors, funding and resource distribution and the sustainability and continuity of projects.

Chapter Five highlights on the conclusions drawn from the study and the recommendations made for governments, developmental formations and funders.

Chapter Two

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the conceptual and philosophical frameworks of poverty and development and the systems theory. To provide the study with insight of development agencies, development and poverty will be analysed within the social, human and people-centred frameworks. This chapter will further explore support to and from development agencies in terms of funding and conditions that affect development agency operations. Also examined will be development projects that organizations undertake and their relevance in the national development strategies.

Conceptual and theoretical frameworks

There has been a progression of development theories from the earliest modern theories, which equated economic growth with development to theories that emphasize people-centred and human development.

People-centred development

With focus on various institutions, development assumes a new dimension, which highlights the quality of life, empowerment and participation. People-centred development recognizes key developmental partners such as women, the vulnerable, the previously excluded and the poor. It promotes capacity building for increased and higher decision-making with the aim of promoting

participation that enables people to take responsibility for their lives. People-centred development focuses on people's immediate needs and recognizes their important role as resources for collective determination (ANC, 1994; Office of the President, 1999; UNDP, 1993). This development approach emanates from participation, through which people can be empowered in decision-making and implementation of activities that strive towards meeting their basic needs. It puts emphasis on access to information and opportunities for empowerment through increased participation.

In the bid to incorporate the formally excluded groups of its government, South Africa's Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP), which is a national strategy, adopts an all-inclusive approach, which aims at addressing social inequalities. Its people-centred principle builds on people's resources and assets, and their participation towards meeting their basic needs. The people-centred approach develops a human development perspective, which empowers people to partake in activities that influence and affect their lives; hence they are able to take control of their lives and the decisions that affect it (ANC, 1994). From the human development perspective, people's participation helps to focus on their needs and consequent increase in their opportunities and choices, hence the improvement in their quality of life (UNDP, 1992; 1990). Through participation therefore, are increased choices to essential services such as education, health, sanitation and income (UNDP, 1990). To address the distortions of development (Midgley, 1995), which manifest themselves in the inaccessibility of resources for the vulnerable and socially excluded groups, and in their exclusion from choices that enable improvement of their life conditions and the quality of life, Kenyan and South Africa national strategies emphasize choices which put people at the centre of development. The strategies, namely the Kenyan National Poverty Eradication Plans and Development Plans; and the South African White Paper for Social Development 1997 and the Reconstruction and Development Program of 1995, are in line with the goals and commitments of the World Summit for Social Development (WSSD) which focus on health,

education, social integration, poverty eradication, employment and equality and equity of men and women (United Nations, 1995).

Human development

On the assumption that all individuals are worthy of respect, (coetzee et al, 2001), human development focuses on “developing the individual” to realize his or her full human potential. Human development aims at improving the quality of life and the standard of living through improving access to opportunities for health, education, employment, and basic services such as water, electricity and sanitation.

Despite the fact that there has been significant progress of human development in developing countries, the levels of poverty still remain high in many parts of the world. The Human Development Report 1990 attributes this to the disparities between the rich and poor, men and women, low levels of education and inaccessibility to resources for the majority of the Sub-Saharan population who live in absolute poverty (UNDP, 1990). According to the World Fact Book (2002a; 2002b) Kenya and South Africa have 50% of their populations living below the poverty line

(<http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/ke.html>.

<http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/sf.html>). Whereas other contributing factors in Kenya have been identified as the effects of the Structural Adjustment Programs, (SAP's) which were introduced in the 1980's, (Republic of Kenya 1999) and cuts in world coffee, which affected and reversed economic growth. In South Africa, these factors include the remnants of the apartheid era in South Africa. Drought and famine, child malnutrition, infant mortality, unemployment and HIV/ AIDs are also prevalent factors. These factors are concomitants to what Chambers (1983) refers to as the deprivation trap, in five clusters of disadvantage (poverty, physical weakness, vulnerability,

isolation and powerlessness), which enmesh the poor who are living in poverty and impoverished conditions. In recognition of this, human development enables human well-being by promoting democracy, equity, gender and pluralism (Chambers, 1997).

Social development

The social development approach focuses on the community, society and people’s well-being by enhancing their quality of life and responding to the problems of distorted development (Midgley, 1995). Indicators used to measure international development goals include economic well-being and social development. Included in this concept is universal primary education, gender equality, a reduction in infant and child mortality rates, maternal mortality and reproductive health, which correlate with other social and economic indicators (Hardiman and Midgley, 1982; World Bank, 2002). Basic needs and social development are attained when these goals are achieved or addressed, as stipulated in national development strategies. The national development strategies of Kenya and South Africa espouse the social development approach (ANC, 1994; Ministry of Finance and Planning, 2000a; Office of the President, 1999; White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997). Between both countries, the attainment of these goals differs because of the varying economic inputs and resources. Table 1, below shows these differences in 1999 in relation to economic and social indicators.

TABLE 1: ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL INDICATORS

Development Indicator (year)	Kenya	South Africa
GNP per capita US\$(99)**	360	3170
Life Expectancy (99)	51.3	53.9
Adult Literacy rate (99)	81.9	84.9
Population living below US\$ 1 a day (93-99)	11.5	26.5
Adults % living with HIV – 15-49 years (99)	19.94	13.39
Infant mortality (99)	54	76

**World Bank (1999)

Source: UNDP (2001)

In comparison to Kenya, South Africa's high GNP is reflected in its increased and higher life expectancy, adult literacy, and infant mortality. This is because the country's economy is able to provide more services, resources and social amenities. As a consequence of the apartheid legacy, (Ministry of the Office of the President, 1995) social indicators amongst the Black Africans in South Africa would do much worse than a less developed country than Kenya. These forms of social injustices of the apartheid regime, can be addressed through the social justice model, which promotes empowerment, the basic needs approach and participation. Social development builds on empowerment (Eade and Williams, 1995a) through participation, equitable distribution of resources,

decision-making, and inclusion of marginalized groups. To achieve this end therefore, social development organizes disadvantaged people into groups, which give them a forum through which to voice their opinions. Through these groups comes self-awareness and self-consciousness, which are in themselves insufficient, needs to be followed by appropriate social action (coetzee et al. 2001; Rahman, 1983) leading to self-reliance.

Social development aims at reducing poverty and dismantling inequalities through developing and empowering people to meet their basic needs and strengthening their participation poverty alleviation. Participation of the beneficiaries in the developmental activities enhances capacity building (building up skills and abilities), and social integration, which are essential prerequisites for social development as identified by the Copenhagen Social Development Summit (Eade, 2001; Eade and Williams 1995a; United Nations, 1995). The beneficiaries of social development are those sections of the populations who are identified as poor, socially excluded and most disadvantaged. In both countries, this targeted population comprises: the poor, landless, unemployed, disabled, women, older people and children.

Systems theory

Systems theory views an organization as interrelations of sub-systems or sub-units, which interact and are dependent on one another (Gannon, 1979). Development organizations are thus viewed as sub-systems, which operate within the system (host countries) and are affected directly and indirectly by factors within their environment.

Development organizations act as vehicles towards social change, through which communities achieve greater political and economic independence (Gow, Morss, Jackson, Humpal, Sweet, Barclay, Mickelwait, Hagen, and Zenger,

1979). They take such forms as local and international organizations, non-governmental organizations, community based organizations and grass-root organizations.

Components of the systems theory model include: -

Inputs: These are the resources that are injected into development agencies. They include funding, technical assistance, raw material, indigenous knowledge and auxiliary equipment for the effective delivery of services.

Outputs: This is the after product that has undergone transformation within the development system and is leaving the system.

Feedback: This refers to the corrective process, where information positive or negative is given to the system.

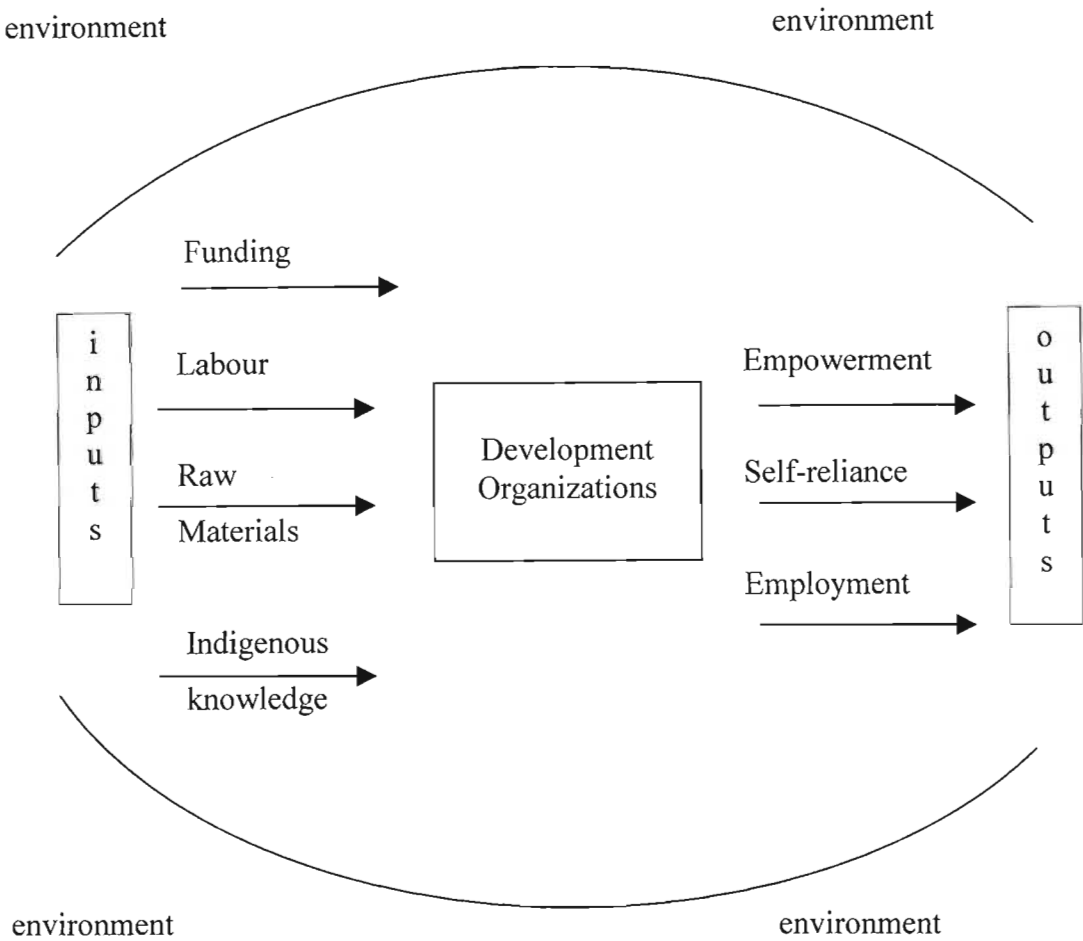
Katz and Khan (in) Gannon (1979) highlight certain characteristics of organizations as open systems, namely:

- Importation of inputs from the external environments.
- Transformation of throughputs through work activities.
- Exportation of outputs to the external environment.
- Cyclic character of the transformation processes which produce outputs that in turn become new sources of inputs.

All the above components of the development organization system are interrelated with “feedback” which acts as a mechanism of continuity and sustainability. Through feedback, the information fed back into the system helps to maintain development agencies’ operations. Through the feedback the agencies status quo is maintained and good performance reinforced. Figure 2

below, an adaptation of the systems model, illustrates development organizations and the various influencing internal and external factors.

FIGURE 2 SYSTEMS MODEL



Through the external environments (environments which comprise the larger factors) organizational systems obtain tangible work ingredients such as labour, raw materials, and indigenous knowledge. The above inputs and funds are transformed into policy, projects and activities, and these are exported in the form of social development programs and projects to the targeted groups of beneficiaries. These inputs are then transformed by the participation of community members and other project beneficiaries in working activities. The by-product, which is, a result of the above inputs, is then brought out from

“within” the project to “without”. In projects, this will include such things as agricultural produce and ornaments. The cyclic transformation process denotes the importance of sustainability and continuity; whereby for example, profits made from selling products is ploughed back into organizational activities.

Within the developmental environment, development organizations engage as partners with other systems to implement specific projects and programs whose ultimate outcome is to improve the quality of life and reduce social problems such as unemployment, illiteracy, and infant mortality. The formation of organizational networks and peoples’ links at local, national and international levels, fosters the exchange of financial resources and information, reduces the duplication of services and enhances service delivery (Eade, 2001). Networking thus enhances the interdependence of units that complement and contract with each other in the implementation of development agendas.

As systems in the larger environment, their behaviour and operations depend largely on their internal and external environments. The interdependence nature of these open systems is characterized by a change in one part of the system resulting in changes to other parts of the subsystem. Within the external environment, the factors that may affect the organization are the political (national constitutions and legislative frameworks), economic (globalisation, international debt and inflation rates), cultural, technical, social environments and natural catastrophes such as drought and famine, which form the organizations supra system. The components of the subsystem, affecting its structure and functioning are attributed to both internal and external political and economic factors (Hasenfeld in O’Brien, 1995). Whereas the political process involves the acquisition of social support, goal determination and the definition of control of task, the economic processes are concerned with the attainment and the internal distribution of resources, which are consequently affected by the region’s economic conditions. The internal factors are those components that are part of the system itself. In this study, these internal factors

are the purpose of the organization, its internal structures and internal decision-making structures. The external environment factors comprise: the larger surrounding systems of economic, cultural, technical, social and political factors (Kiggundu, 1989) such as the world market, technological advancement and globalisation. As organizations do not operate in a vacuum, of great significance is their external environment within which they operate, as this may often threaten their existence. The existence of NGO's rests within the political and economic environments. Within the political environment is the demand for the organization's services, their ability to satisfy the donors and their support and acceptability by the beneficiaries. From the economic perspective, a consequent change in funding could threaten the NGO's existence and survival (Gannon, 1979; O'Brien, 1995; Van der Kooy, 1989). NGOs operate within a hostile, resource - scarce environment impacted on by local and global factors such as drought, political changes, global recession, the subsequent cuts in the flow of aid and the impact of Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) (Barnard, 1993). For example, the transition to democracy in South Africa saw the closure of some NGO's as international donor agencies channelled funds through the government as opposed to directly into the organizations. Kenyan organizations are affected by factors such as the freezing of aid in 1991, insecurity, an influx of refugees from neighbouring countries and drought, which impacted heavily on the agricultural sectors.

Systems theory contends that organizations as open systems are affected by both internal and external factors such as the political and economic environments within which they operate. Imported inputs in the form of funds are transformed into policy and activities, and these are exported in the form of social development programs and projects to the targeted groups of beneficiaries.

Theoretical interpretations of poverty

Poverty is an interlocking, multidimensional phenomenon, thus, its definitions are relative. Whereas poverty in South Africa is a legacy of the apartheid era (Ministry of the Office of the President, 1995), in Kenya, it has emerged and has been precipitated by “low agricultural production and poor marketing, insecurity, unemployment and low wages, landlessness, lack of roads and cost sharing policies” (Government of Kenya, 2000). The international comparisons of poverty definitions pose a conceptual and practical problem in relation to the varying exact values of the poverty lines (Lipton and Ravallion, 1997; Narayan, Chambers, Shah, and Petesch, 2000). The NPEP 1999 – 2015 refers to poverty in relation to the poor. The *not so poor* are characterized by regular employment, three meals per day and children attending school; the *poor* as casual labourers who only eat one meal a day, have many children not attending school and are usually tenants and the *very poor* as those who beg, have occasional employment and have children not going to school at all (Ministry of Finance and Planning, 2000a; Office of the President, 1999).

The experiential definitions of poverty below highlight the various multidimensional aspects of the concept

“Don’t ask me what poverty is because you have met it outside my house. Look at my house and count the number of holes [in the walls]. Look at my utensils and clothes I am wearing. Look at everything and write what you see. What you see is poverty” (ex- Mau Mau freedom fighter – KENYA in Government of Kenya, 1997).

“Poverty is not knowing where your next meal is going to come from, and always wondering when the council is going to put your furniture out and always praying that your husband must not lose his job. To me that is

poverty". (Mrs. Witbooi of Philipstown – SOUTH AFRICA in Wilson & Ramphela, 1989).

Poverty is considered to be the inability of an individual or household to afford basic human needs as identified by the "human needs approach". It is also a condition in which the individual is unable to generate new income as a result of temporary or partial employment. In poverty, an individual or household may be forced to sell basic possessions such as family assets to pay for medical or educational services because there is no surplus that can be saved, resulting in the sale of family assets such as land and livestock. In some cases however, it may entail the family not owning any assets at all (May, 2000; Narayan et al, 2000; Office of the President, 1999).

From a human development perspective, poverty entails the denial of choices and opportunities, which enable a tolerable standard of living (UNDP, 1997). The unavailability of these choices in Kenya and South Africa can be traced and attributed to SAP's, cost sharing with service beneficiaries in the provision of public services, and the apartheid legacy, which led to poverty and inequitable distribution of wealth and resources (May, 2000; Republic of Kenya, 1994b). In both countries, poverty manifests itself in hunger, illnesses, illiteracy, inaccessibility and lack of essential services, malnutrition, child mortality and unemployment (Chambers, 1983; May, 2000; Ministry of Finance and Planning, 2000a; White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997). The multidimensional characteristics of poverty are evident in poverty's rural, gender, employment, seasonality, race and regional dimensions. Poverty in both countries has strong rural dimensions, which are characterized by high levels of unemployment, low educational levels and lack and/ or inaccessibility of resources. According to the UNDP Human Development Report (1993), the rural population has less access to government resources. This consequently means that, with 50% of Kenya's and South Africa poor living in rural areas, (UNDP, 1993), half of the countries' populations do not have access to government services which are essential for

their basic needs such as education and health, hence leading to and perpetuating poverty. Disparities in employment opportunities, income, and levels of education make women and especially rural women more prone to poverty than men (Chambers, 1983; May, 2000; Office of the President, 1999; UNDP, 1997; White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997).

Kenya and South Africa both experience unequal distribution of wealth where it is distributed across race and regions (Chester, 1994; Office of the President, 1999). Poverty mapping locates poverty in both countries in rural areas. Whereas in Kenya the highest incidents are in the Arid and Semi-arid Lands (ASALs), and within the belt running in a south-eastly direction from the populated districts, (Government of Kenya, 2000; Office of the President, 1999) in South Africa, poverty is most prevalent in the provinces of the Eastern Cape, Kwa-Zulu Natal (KZN) and Limpopo, all of which account for 63% of the countries poorest population (Ministry of the Office of the President, 1995).

Women in Kenya and South Africa constitute a vulnerable group affected by poverty (Government of Kenya, 2000; Office of the President, 1999). The feminisation of poverty emanates from economic and political voicelessness (Veeran, 2000b). The strong gender dimension of poverty therefore attributes feminised poverty to discrimination on the basis of sex, gender, race (in South Africa), and exclusion as well as to social and cultural factors (Ministry of the Office of the President, 1995). Poverty amongst women manifests itself within the family structure and within the communities and this has grave implications for the upbringing of children. Lack of access to land for a rural woman has led to them being denied access to credit and technology that are essential to enhancing socio-economic development. Women also experience exclusion from education opportunities, employment and health care, which perpetuates poverty and deprivation leading to future and further impoverishment (Bornstein, 2000; Chambers, 1983; Government of Kenya, 2000; Veeran, 2000a). Employment is a prerequisite for poverty eradication. Unemployment is

more prevalent amongst women and in the rural areas and constitutes a challenge to development efforts at both local and national levels. This gender bias is a result of women's low /poor educational levels, which limits their chances in the labour market. This is evident in female-headed households, which have higher poverty prevalence rates compared to male-headed households.

The relationship between poverty and AIDS, provides a strong link, which suggests that poverty is responsible for the spread and impact of HIV/AIDS. The impact of AIDS within the various sectors (informal, agricultural, social, and health) is experienced at the family level through family deaths, caring for family members and orphans; enterprise level through low productivity and the community level through reduced effectiveness of social and business networks (Collins and Rau, 2000; May, 2000; UNDP, 2001; Wilkins, undated).

Overall, AIDS expedites poverty and reverses human development achievements through the stripping of assets, which causes vulnerability. The World Fact Book (2002) estimated a HIV/AIDS adult prevalence rate of 13.5% in Kenya and 19.94% in South Africa over the period of 2000 and 2001 respectively

(<http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/sf.html>;

<http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/ke.html>). The most severely affected age group was 15 – 64 years old (UNAIDS 2001), which constituted the economically active work force, that is, 56.1% and 63.4% of the total Kenyan and South African populations respectively. On a national level, economic repercussions are bound to affect economic growth as a result of an infected work force. This will consequently have socio-economic implications, which include strains on the national economy, pressure on the provision of

social services and unemployment as well as the creation of high dependency levels (Department of Health, 2000; Government of Kenya, 2000).

To respond to gender bias, social exclusion, illiteracy levels, there has been an adoption of a people-centred, human and social development approach as stipulated in national development strategies. This aims at empowering communities towards a more sustainable development and self-reliance.

Development

Proponents of pre-modern development theories viewed development as a unilateral process that progressed over time where “a pre-determined ideal” was to be attained before a society was considered to be developed. Rostow (1960) referred to the five stages of development, which saw a society transform through the economy, politics, culture and technology. Through these stages the society transforms from limited production, through differentiated industrialization to a society characterised by mass consumption by being a welfare state. While the “traditional society” which is synonymous with underdevelopment, is characterized by simplicity, homogeneity (coetzee, et al, 2001; Rostow, 1960), the developed society is complex, technologically advanced and heterogeneous. These two societies represent the developing third world, and developed world respectively.

The dependency theory dominated development initiatives in Africa during the 1960s and 1970s. This theory attributes development and subsequent underdevelopment of the “metropolis” and “satellite” nations, to the lack of exposure to capitalism (coetzee et al, 2001; Frank, 1967). This exploitative relationship, presented between the metropolis and satellite, has seen the metropolis reduce the satellite to a state of dependency. Frank (1967) thus justifies the provision of aid as a by-product of the exploitative relationship

where economic surplus is given to satellites in the forms of funding and aid. Harsch, (1999) for example attributes the relationship between the developing world represented by the first-world donors and the less developed - Africa, as one in which, the donors have made the African states dependent on them for aid as a result of the states incapacities to collect revenue.

Modernization theorists have been criticized for viewing dependency theorists as blueprints, which can be applied to the underdeveloped nations. These blueprints overlooked the significant role that the external environment played, such as differences in the economy, culture, levels of technology and the social system, which were not considered in the theories (Coetzee et al, 2001). Unlike the top-down approach, which does not acknowledge the role of the individual, the modernization process emphasizes the role of the individual. *End 26/02 16h 33*

Development as a response to poverty

Development is a universal goal. The betterment and improvement in the quality of life, is thus sought at various levels. At the micro- level, families and communities use locally available resources to develop themselves as individuals and communities. At this level, the traditional self-help in African communities has led to development at the grassroots levels. The African spirit of *ubuntu* in South Africa and *Harambee* in Kenya has developed communities at low costs (Stock, 1995). According to the NPEP 1999 - 2015, *Harambee*, which is a self-help movement operating on the principle of “pull up doctrine”, has contributed immensely to development by integrating groups that have been excluded from the mainstream developmental process.

At the mezzo or national level, the government develops plans and policies that seek to address the social and economic aspects of poverty. In Kenya and South Africa, these include national development plans and strategies such as the

National Poverty Eradication Plans (NPEP) and the Reconstruction and Development Programs (RDP) respectively. From the macro-level, international organizations and developmental agencies provide assistance, with the objective of development and poverty alleviation. Organizations have endorsed in their visions and mission statements, poverty reduction objectives that are guided directly by those of the WSSD (ANC, 1994; Office of the President, 1999; United Nations, 1995).

In Kenya, the Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (2000-2003) (IPRSP) identified agriculture and rural development as the highest national priorities, followed by physical infrastructure and public administration. Other priority areas include HIV/AIDS, bad governance, poor infrastructure, insecurity and poor access to financial services. The South African government has identified ten national priorities namely, the restoration of the ethics of care and human development to welfare programs; poverty eradication; development of a comprehensive social security system; violence against women and children; HIV/AIDS; crime and unemployment; accessibility to social services; disability; corporate governance and human resource development which entails the re-orientation of social service workers (Government of Kenya, 2000; Office of the President, 1999; Skweyiya, 2000) www.gov.za/yearbook/2001/social.html). These national developmental priorities inform and guide development projects in addressing poverty at community levels.

Despite the national priorities, Kenya and South Africa experience common and specific social problems such as HIV/AIDS, poverty, unemployment, adult illiteracy, lack of access to safe water and high infant mortality rates. Education is fundamental to development in both Kenya and South Africa as it provides an opportunity to escape poverty (Ministry of Finance and Planning, 2000a). Though education increases the chances of development through citizen empowerment, increases job opportunities in the open labour market and

contributes of the improvement in the quality of life, the attainment of education is not a guarantee of escaping poverty. In both countries, the lack of education is most prevalent in the rural areas, with estimates of about 50% of the poor having no education or incomplete primary education in South Africa (Ministry of Finance and Planning, 2000a, 2000b; Ministry of the Office of the President, 1995). In Kenya, according to the WMS 111 (Welfare Monitoring Survey) 79.9% of the poor compared to 86.2% of the non-poor had attended school.

In both countries, therefore, as education impacts on fertility rates, unemployment, infant mortality, poverty, development, and HIV/AIDS, it becomes central to development. Education plays a major role in human development and capacity building by empowering people, and thereby strengthening their ability to meet their basic needs and potentially achieve higher standards of living (Ministry of Finance and Planning, 2000a; Narayan et al, 2000; White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997).

Social policy and poverty alleviation

To impact on development, the political environment is central to decision and policymaking. This is essential in the provision of essential services and putting structures in place that enhance this. There is a close relationship between social development and social policy as social policy aims at poverty alleviation. The domains of social policy highlight the overall quality of life, living conditions and the nature of intra-societal human relationships (Gil, 1981). Its aims include the elimination of poverty, maximization of welfare and redistribution of resources (Jansson, 1999; Marshall, 1970), which are similar to the overall objectives of social development. Social policy therefore seeks to respond to human needs which are addressed by development programs and projects initiated at both mezzo and macro-levels, for example, through the various

governmental policies and initiatives such as the RDP, in South Africa and the National Poverty Eradication Plan in Kenya.

NGO's as development agencies

Development agencies act as vehicles of social change and mechanisms through which communities gain political and economic independence. Within developmental agencies, development projects are basic instruments through which external assistance is channelled to specific areas and locations (Gow et al, 1979; Oakley, 1991). Projects promote participation through which beneficiaries may become empowered and self-reliant.

In the United Nations Decade for the Eradication of Poverty, governments local and international development agencies are working together to eliminate the multifaceted aspects of poverty which present themselves through the lack of income, loss of human dignity, human suffering as a result of the unmet needs essential for human survival. The emergence and role of NGO's in Africa, is stressed in light of the aftermath of SAP's policies whereby NGO's provide a better social and economic environment for providing welfare safety nets for the people (Njongonkulu, 1998). The major distinguishing characteristic of development agencies is their reliance on aid – as a means of financial support – from external sources other than their services (O'Brien, 1995). This characteristic implies that the beneficiaries of the services are unable to pay for them, as a consequence of their poor economic status (Fowler, 1992).

NGO's undertake development where, development can loosely be described as all those activities which promote the viability of communities; their capacity to participate in deciding on social goals and providing these for themselves; the sustaining of development; the positive utilization of the skills, and talents of human beings and the improvement of natural resources (Van der Kooy, 1989). As earlier mentioned, developmental projects are seen as vehicles to

development and the subsequent improvement in the quality of life. This is evidenced by various NGO's, CBO's and collaborative efforts between the governments and developmental agencies in Kenya and South Africa in initiated projects. Among such agencies operating in Kenya are CARE, Oxfam (GB), World Vision, GTZ and the World Bank, which provide services in poverty alleviation, emergency programs, health and rural development amongst others (Gibbs et al, 1999; Pratt and Boyden, 1985; Republic of Kenya, 1994a). In South Africa, numerous organizations including the above-mentioned operating in Kenya, as well as Operation Hunger and Kagiso Trust, provide services in education, rural development, social welfare, human rights and health (Dangor, 1997). These development projects complement government efforts such as the presidential projects that were initiated within the RDP and within the Social Dimensions of Development program in Kenya. Both the RDP and ANC stress the importance of civil society in development. This is through its people-centred approach, which stresses empowering communities with the skills to utilize resources (Stober, 1994).

The significance of NGO's in relation to development can be attributed to the recognized role they play by providing services that are affordable and that government agencies often are not suited to provide (Onyando, 1999; Van der Kooy, 1989). They have an essential role to play in social development as a result of their ability to work in the rural and grassroots areas where the government administration does not reach and where the delivery of infrastructure remains poor (UNDP, 1997). Unlike government provincial administrators who adopt a more authoritarian approach in dealing with the community, NGOs seek popular participatory and advocacy models by working with the communities and focusing on human development (Chege, 1999). Studies carried out in Kenya by the World Bank in Gibbs et al (1999) and Hearn (1998) highlight the role NGO's have played in the country's health sector. NGO's account for 40% of the country's family planning services, not only by targeting the poor, but also by offering more choices. In addition, these agencies

tend to have more experience than the government, hence, providing a better quality of service (Gibbs et al, 1999). Among the major organizations providing support for health care services is USAID, which is the single largest source of financial and technical support to national health care (Hearn, 1998).

Funding

Developing countries and the international donor community channel funds and resources to the LDC's with the objectives of poverty alleviation and the promotion of people's welfare through improvement in quality of life, which are integrated within the social development approach (Midgley, 1995).

NGO's therefore act as links between the donors and the local civil society and the Community Based Organizations (CBO's). Whereas NGOs serve the entire community, CBOs target their services to their members (Edwards and Hulme, 1992; Gibbs et al, 1999). CBOs are small rural and urban township based organizations that have less access to skills and funding (Dangor, 1997).

Development projects have been viewed to be beneficial to the countries that are receiving funding. This is because the strength and effectiveness of NGO's lies in their ability to provide low cost and higher quality services to the poor compared to the government harnessing of the communities, introduction of skills and the enhancement of social commitment (Edwards and Hulme, 1992; Onyando, 1999).

The operations of NGO's in Kenya and South Africa are hampered by various factors, which have implications for their autonomy and performance. Kameri-Mbote (2000) highlights these factors as the countries' political, economic, and social conditions, which encompass the socio-political environment, service recipients, the state departments and the laws governing the land.

Donors influence the structural operation of NGOs, as they are the financial resources to the NGO. When aid, in the form of loans and grants, has stringent conditions attached to it, it influences the nature and content of the service that is delivered to the beneficiaries, for example, whether the donors' focal areas of development are in line with national developmental goals. As NGO's deliver their services within a political context, national and government policies have a great bearing on developmental agencies. The partnership between the government and the NGOs thus becomes vital as they complement each other: the government provides the infrastructure, and the NGO's provide the expertise and technical support. The economy of the country determines food prices, mode and mechanisms of service delivery, which in turn determine accessibility of social services to its targeted population.

Social and cultural practices promote or hinder developmental efforts. Taboos, values and beliefs, and social norms become a necessary pre-requisite when developing programs and projects, as they should be culturally sensitive.

The aid-chain

Whereas in South Africa the transition to democracy saw the re-direction of funding to government institutions as opposed to direct funding to the NGO's (Dangor, 1997) in Kenya, international northern NGO's prefer to channel their funds to the local NGO's rather than to the government (Chege, 1999). The international funders have also come to appreciate that these organizations give more value for money in terms of services provided (www.globalpolicy.org/ngos/issues/kenya.htm). The United States for example channels its aid package via NGOs. Other countries such as Germany, France and Britain are varyingly following the same delivery mechanism (Chege, 1999; www.globalpolicy.org/ngos/issues/kenya.htm). With the transition to the new government in Kenya in January 2003, there tends to be the likelihood that

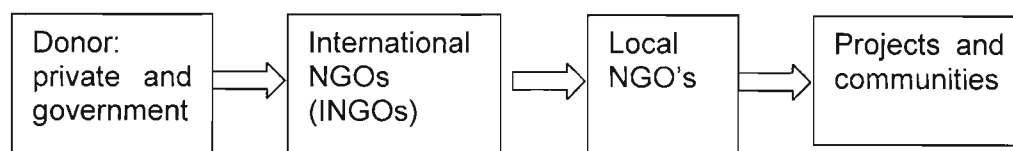
donors may redirect funding to governments and no longer work as closely through NGO as intermediaries to projects. This comes in the light of the new government's focus on phasing out corruption, which was considered a major obstacle to national development in the previous government. This new transition may be similar to what the South African government went through in 1994 when the funding was redirected to it. NGO's will be faced with a crisis where they will be forced to close down because the services they were providing will now be offered by the government and thus the funding environment will be unstable. Furthermore, there is the speculated migration of staff from the NGO to the governmental sector. With the radical increase of funding from UNICEF the IMF and other organizations, the government is bound to absorb the NGO work force, consequently affecting their service delivery mechanisms.

The preference of channelling funding through local organizations was because of the existing government bureaucracies and structural operations. These structures were characterised by incompetence and mismanagement, procedural delays, corruption and the lack of necessary skills and capacity. Riddell (1987) affirmed this when he stated that government- to – government aid was used to further the interests of the recipient's own elites at the expense of the interests of those marginalized whom the aid was supposed to assist. Riddell (1987) is thus, in agreement with Bond (2001) and Frank (1967) who believed that the domestic ruling class have benefited more at the expense of the intended beneficiaries the poor and needy communities whose interests are not taken into consideration. Channelling of funds entirely to the government has not proved to be as efficient as was speculated in the South African government. Between 1996/1997 and 1999/2000 the Department of Welfare failed to spend R616 million which was part of the poverty relief funds. This was because of inhibitions caused by lack of effective monitoring in the Department, which caused a slow-down in the transfer of money to the Independent Development

Trust (IDT) (Ntenga, 2000). The IDT acted as the trust through which the government could allocate funding to targeted projects.

The inability of NGO beneficiaries to pay for services provided has forced them to seek external financial sources, outside of the projects (Fowler, 1992). Aid, in the form of funds through projects (Brinkerhoff, 1991) is being channelled from donors to the recipients through an aid chain, which may vary in complexity. Bornstein (2001) in Figure 3 depicts a simple aid-chain though, which various stakeholders such as government departments and consultants may be involved in the funding process. The aid - chain comprises institutions and organizations in donor countries that raise resources, transfer and apply them in developing countries. Vertically transmitted “downward” are conditions accompanying aid that must be fulfilled prior to the approval of the funds (Fowler, 2001).

FIGURE 3 THE AID-CHAIN



Source: Bornstein, 2001

NGO's act as intermediaries between the donors and the projects, beneficiaries and communities, and play a role in the transfer of resources. These organizations also transfer aid and other forms of support, information or knowledge (Fowler, 1997). Being in this position, these organizations obtain their funding from primary donors (private and government) who have also solicited funding from their citizens, through taxations and businesses (Fowler, 1992). The funds then trickle downwards, to international organizations. INGO's working in the host countries are guided by their own values and objectives, and incorporate these with the host countries' developmental

priorities in the delivery of services. As they disburse the funds to LINGOs, they attach stringent conditions, which need to be met prior to the dispatch of the resources. These are later passed on to the projects and communities at the grassroots level.

Funding from the foreign donors both in Kenya and South Africa is accompanied by conditions, which flow "downward" through the aid-chain and are intended to serve the donors' interests (Bornstein, 2001). Funding can have positive effects if genuinely applied as noted by Fowler. Although he notes that when rightly used, they lead to effectiveness, the reverse is also true where too many conditions could affect the autonomy and identity of the organization. Other interests of bureaucrats and politicians are also enmeshed within the chain, overriding the needs of the beneficiaries for whom the funds were provided. Local participation and involvement and the use of indigenous knowledge decrease with the increase of conditions trickling down to the projects and communities. This replica of a blueprint approach to development is so subtle that it may often pass unnoticed or its impact may be greatly felt immediately. The use of external personnel, equipment and technology undermines local expertise, and technical know-how. Increase of conditions therefore, leaves the communities with little or no say in their own needs and priorities. This becomes more difficult if their identified needs differ from those of the governments and INGOs, but in the fear of "biting the hand that feeds them" they take whatever projects have been proposed (Fowler, 1997). Although development projects have been identified as vehicles to development, they often do not produce the desired outcomes because of the funding time frames that are prescribed to them by the funding agency. Although it is true that no project can be funded forever, unforeseen catastrophes can cause interruptions, resulting in the withdrawal of funding before the project has matured. Factors such as drought and famine, seasonal availability of communities and social and cultural factors are such factors that are sometimes not taken into consideration when planning for projects at the grassroots level (Fowler, 1997; May, 2000).

There is a close relationship between developmental funding and debt as is evidenced in Kenya. Official Development Assistance (ODA) channelled to development projects in Kenya is in the form of grants and loans. A research project carried out in Kenya indicated that ODA was often channelled into projects, which had a low rate completion so that the project was unable to repay the debt (www.econewsafrika.org/debt_crisis.html#history_bkgd).

Direct funding to NGO's, the method most organizations are opting for in Kenya, or indirect funding through the government, as is in South Africa, both advantages and disadvantages. As earlier mentioned, countries such as the USA and Denmark would rather direct their funding directly into the projects because of corruption within government structures (Chege, 1999). Pratt and Boyden (1985), view direct funding to grassroots organizations as an ideal and further highlight that although this would require the input of high-ranked staff from the funding agency, it is also more cost effective as it saves on capital equipment, staff and institutional structures.

Funding directly to the projects, although advantageous as it saves on the technicalities of transfers, can also be very disadvantageous to the donor agencies as NGO's have been "tailor-made" to suit donor requirements and obtain funding, much of which has been used for personal benefits. In such a case, funding through local developmental formations prevents this from occurring as these organizations are in direct contact with other organizations seeking funding and are also in a position to investigate any irregularities.

Though funding through the government draws its strengths in involving local institutions in the planning, implementation and formation of local expertise (Pratt and Boyden, 1985), bureaucratic mechanisms could have detrimental effects on developmental efforts. According to Ntenga (2000), the South African welfare department failed to spend R203 million on national developmental projects in the disability sector, micro-saving initiatives, a job-

creation programme and welfare sewing project as a result of complexities in disbursements mechanisms.

Conclusion

The literature review highlighted the extent of poverty in Kenya and South Africa. Both countries have a vast section of the population living in poverty. With approximately 50% in Kenya and South Africa, this has challenged both governments to prioritise poverty eradication and improve standards of living. National strategies adopt the basic needs and people-centred developmental approaches which espouse the principles of participation, empowerment, enabling and self-reliance.

Unemployment, illiteracy and HIV/AIDS were highlighted as causes of poverty and hence challenges to the developmental process. Limited access to educational training resulted in decreased opportunities for access into the labour market contributing to the reliance on informal and seasonal employment, with minimal wages. This was more common in rural areas where poverty had greater impact especially among women, children and the unemployed. In such poor areas, there was limited access to essential services such as water, sanitation, electricity, health care, and education.

In the bid to provide these services to its citizens, both governments have identified development formations as development agents. Through the use of the “bottom-up” developmental approach, these formations promote participation, empowerment, self-reliance and capacity building which aim at enabling the beneficiaries to partake in decision-making forums that affect their quality of life and standard of living. Targeted by these formations are the vulnerable and poor who are not able to pay for their services hence, forcing the organizations to seek funding and resources from external sources.

Assistance, which trickles in from donors has conditions associated with, which need to be met before funding is given. From the literature it was evident that developmental formations are affected by these conditions as well as other factors in the environment within which they operate.

Chapter Three

METHODOLOGY

Research design

The study was considered to be both exploratory and descriptive. In the study's attempt to explore and describe the nature of poverty, development, and the factors that influence development formations in Kenya and South Africa, the researcher chose the exploratory – descriptive research design. Explorative and descriptive researches aim at the discovery and presentation of new information, which contribute to the understanding of phenomena. This study sought to give insight into different aspects of development agencies in Kenya and South Africa. The researcher believed that this would be valuable, as it would add to the existing knowledge on development in both countries, especially from a comparative perspective. In combined exploratory-descriptive studies, emphasis is concentrated on the statement of the purpose of the study, the selection of variables to be studied and some indication of the systematic procedures required to describe qualitatively the phenomenon under study (Tripodi, Fellin and Meyer, 1969). Research methods used in this exploratory study included case studies and key informants, literature review and interviews.

Sampling methodology

The key sampling method used in the study was purposive or judgmental sampling. This non- probability sampling method relied on the researcher's expert judgment in selecting the units that were considered to be representative of the population (Prewitt, 1974). Purposive sampling was used in this

exploratory research or field research to identify particular types of cases for in-depth investigation with the purpose of generalizing to the larger population (Neuman, 2000).

Selection of the sample

For the purposes of this study, six developmental organizations were identified, three in each country. One international developmental organization was present in both countries. The others comprised two local organizations operational in each of the countries. The development agencies operating in Kenya and South Africa were selected on the following criteria and requirements:

- An international development agency located in Kenya and South Africa that provided similar forms of support to both countries and had been operational for at least five years in the two countries.
- Local developmental agencies that were directly in contact with their target beneficiaries.
- A local agency that was either giving or receiving funding or other forms of support from a source external to itself.

The selected units of analysis were the six development agencies and, members of the agencies whom the researcher considered as key informants for these agencies. According to Valadez and Bamberger (1994), a key informant is an individual who, as a result of his or her education, experiences and physical or social position in an organization, had access to information about the functioning of the organization, organizational problems and requirements of its clientele. For the purposes of this study, the key informants were, the Director (South Africa) and the Sector Coordinator (Agriculture) and Program Officer for the International Non-Governmental Organization (INGO) in Kenya respectively. Within the LNGO's, a field facilitator and Human Resource and

Administration Manager in Kenya, and the General Manager and General Secretary in South Africa. The organizational activities within these organizations ranged from HIV/AIDS, agriculture, sanitation, housing to micro and small entrepreneuring that target the vulnerable groups in the communities; women, youth and the poor.

Data collection instruments

The data collection process took place between October 2002 and February 2003. The data collection method used in this study consisted of a semi-structured interview and questionnaires as the primary sources and the analysis of reports as the secondary sources. The use of these methods supplemented each other, as there was some information that was only available in a particular source. For example, organizational objectives, mission statements and values were only available in reports and not in the interviews or questionnaires. Due to the time limitation and the locality of some organizations, the researcher was forced to conduct two interviews with the aid of the semi-structured questions for immediate responses. This was because the respondents highlighted that they would require a period of approximately three weeks to complete and return the questionnaires. Because the researcher was in Kenya specifically for data collection, conducting the interview proved to be the most convenient method for the respondents.

There were two sets of questionnaires that were administered: one for the INGO's (Appendix A) and one for the LNGO's (Appendix B). Although the questions addressed similar issues pertaining to themes discussed in Chapter Four, the researcher felt that both sets were necessary because, whereas the INGO's operated at both national and micro/grassroots level there were some questions that were not applicable to the LNGO. For the LNGO questionnaire therefore, the questions remained the same with a small adjustment in the terms

used, such as substituting the word “funding” for “resources”. This broadened and gave the organizations a choice, as they offered different services for different communities depending on the availability of resources.

The questionnaire administered to the key informants comprised both open and closed-ended questions. The questions pertained to the nature of the agency, the internal and external factors affecting the organization, participation of development beneficiaries in development projects, projects and developmental assistance provided. Secondary data was obtained from official studies and reports, national and international statistics (which provided national and international indicators) and area-specific articles from journals, newspapers, archives, files and maps.

Prior to sending the questions via e-mail and posting the originals, the researcher e-mailed and posted a covering letter to the agencies requesting their participation in the survey, and this was followed with the questionnaires. After three weeks, a follow – up letter was sent with an attached new copy of the questionnaire in the case that the one previously sent had been lost or misplaced. In the case of some organizations, the researcher made initial telephonic contact where she identified herself and the nature of the study. After this initial contact, the researcher then posted the questionnaires to the organization. As contended by Babbie (2001), follow – up letters seemingly increased the return rates. Some organizations were difficult to contact. This was because the contact information of the organizations as given, in the NGO directories had changed since its last publication. This therefore resulted in undelivered covering letters and questionnaires. Due to these unforeseen problems other organizations were therefore targeted to participate.

The validity and reliability of the questionnaire content, was tested by having it examined by two social scientists.

Data analysis

Data obtained from the study was analysed by means of ad hoc analysis techniques. According to Kvale (1996), generating the meaning through ad hoc methods is an eclectic approach. A variety of commonsense approaches as well as sophisticated textual or qualitative methods are used to bring out the meaning of the material. There was a free interplay of techniques during analysis, such as thematic analysis from the open-ended questions. As there were a number of issues raised from the answered questions, the researcher summarised these under five major themes. The themes were used in describing the organizations and the development projects.

The data collected from the questionnaires was analysed and discussed, with the additional supplemented documents such as organizational profiles and secondary information from reports and national and international statistics.

The collected data, analysed and discussed under the themes outlined below were supplemented with organizational information such as organizational profiles and such secondary information from reports as mentioned above. The data collected by the researcher especially during the interview was a combination of both relevant and irrelevant material. The researcher therefore selected only the relevant information, and used it as central areas around which themes were formulated.

The formulated themes were: -

- Purpose and internal structure of the organization.
- Projects and programs supported in Kenya and South Africa.
- Sustainability and continuation.
- Internal and external factors affecting the organization
- Conditions.
- Chain of transfer and other forms of support to projects and programs.

The outcome of this analysis will be a presentation in words. Such will include making contrasts and comparisons, subsuming particulars under the general,

noting relations between variables and intervening variables. The close-ended questionnaires were coded and analyzed, while thematic analysis was used for the open-ended questionnaires.

Limitations of the study

The researcher saw the use of e - mailed questionnaires as a limitation, because of the time taken by the respondents to fill in the questionnaire. This was particular to an agency in Kenya, where staff members were busy as a result of the country's national elections, which were held in December 2002. As a result, this took much longer than expected. The researcher also viewed the use of the e-mailed questionnaires, as limiting, as there was no immediate forum available to clarify unclear questions that the respondents had.

Another limitation was the guidance by general objectives, vaguely stated hypotheses and the haphazard method of data collection procedures. Babbie (2001) stipulated that although questions rarely provided adequate answers to research questions, they would hint at the right answers and give insights into the research methods that could provide definite responses. The researcher also noted that some of the questions were vaguely answered; therefore their lack of depth in the content of the answers did not yield the anticipated information. The researcher overcame this limitation by crosschecking vaguely answered questions with information from the other secondary sources.

The content of the study cannot be overly generalised because it used the non-probability sampling method of purposive sampling (Baker, 1988). The size of the sample population was rather small in proportion to the number of development agencies in both countries. The findings would therefore not be generally applied to all organizations. As noted by Guba and Lincoln (1981) and Patton (1980), this limitation could be counteracted by analysing the data within

context and drawing conclusions confined to the contexts within which the data were collected (O'Brien, 1995). Within the context of this study, the particular context would be Kenya and South Africa, as both countries have different variable inputs as economic and social factors, which are unique to only these two countries.

Time and distance were another great limitation as the researcher was not able to carryout face-to-face interviews in Kenya, as would have been preferred. Distance therefore caused unforeseen expenses in telephone charges and transportations costs to Kenya in the effort to follow-up on the questionnaires, during the period of October 2002 and February 2003.

The researcher interviewed key informants in the organizations who provided support. No informants were interviewed as beneficiaries of support from these organizations. This limitation can be addressed by future studies.

Chapter Four

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

Data was collected using two data collection tools. Questionnaires and interviews were used to obtain the information from six development organizations, three from each of, Kenya and South Africa. Other forms of documentation such as reports and development plans were used as secondary sources.

The analysis of the data collected will be discussed under six themes, which were common across the organizations.

- Purpose and internal structure of the organization.
- Projects and programs supported in Kenya and South Africa.
- Sustainability and continuation.
- Internal and external factors affecting the organization.
- Conditions.
- Chain of transfer and other forms of support to projects and programs.

Purpose and organizational structure

Six key informants were used across an international developmental agency, which are present in both countries and two local non-governmental organizations.

Though there were various inputs from the countries' profiles such as differentials in GDP, per capita income and social and physical infrastructure,

common among them were the poor and vulnerable groups within the society, the consequences of poverty and to a large extent the nature of poverty. This was depicted in similar organizational goals and objectives as outlined in the organizations' mission statements, visions and objectives. The mission statements are guided by the World Summit on Social Development (WSSD) principles, goals and commitments, which highlight the need for and significance of people-centred development, empowerment and poverty eradication. To eradicate poverty therefore, developmental organizations work in partnership and complement national development strategies, which aim at eradicating poverty and creating an environment through which this objective can be achieved.

As an international development agency in South Africa, the organization which has its head office in Germany was established:

“To provide support, planning and implementation of technical assistance of the German government to South Africa.”

The Kenyan counterpart of the organization was established with the aim of assisting the community to play an active role in the improvement of their lives.

Whereas INGO's operate at a macro-level, they are established with an aim of setting and formulating policies, mediation, public advocacy, and monitoring compliance (Fowler, 1997). LINGO's and CBO's are established within the micro-level where they comprise of the beneficiaries of development efforts (Fowler, 1997). From a micro-level, the LINGOs, were established as a means to self development for rural communities, as a medium through which the bottom-up approach of development could be enabled, to attend to the needs of the disadvantaged communities, to provide loans, to assist the community cope with HIV/AIDS and lastly, to provide housing to the poor. These activities focus on the provision of basic human needs as earlier referred to in Chapter Two

where, by providing these needs, the organizations aim at improving standards of living and the quality of life.

Both INGO and LNGOs' projects were located in areas where the primary target population lived. These areas were in line with the provinces in both countries that were categorized as the poorest. In South Africa, the INGO had projects in Kwa-Zulu Natal (KZN), Eastern Cape, and Limpopo Province, which have pronounced rates of poverty. In Kenya the projects are in areas such as Kilifi, Samburu, Marsabit and the Transmara. Despite these being particularly poor they are inhabited by pastoralists who make up Kenya's vulnerable population. Although these areas are classified as rural areas, the LNGOs in both countries had some projects in both rural and peri-urban areas. Whereas in South Africa, these areas included Inanda and Empangeni, in Kenya, they were Machakos, Kiambu, Kericho and Kibera. In both countries these areas are defined as low-income areas, with little access to basic resources and infrastructure.

Despite Kenya and South Africa's differentials, organizations in both countries were established with the aim of eradicating poverty, addressing basic human needs and improving the quality of life.

Supported programs and projects

In addressing the question of developmental priorities, five of the six organizations' developmental priorities were in line with the national developmental priorities in Kenya and South Africa. The INGOs' priorities tended to differ, to a small extent from those of the LNGO's; they were the focal points of the German development policy. In Kenya for instance, the organization had resource conservation and environmental protection as one of its priority areas. Priorities such as these seek to address resource degradation

and pastoralism with the aim of conserving the ASAL's fragile resource base (Republic of Kenya, 1997). In South Africa the key focal areas are bilateral development cooperation, which comprise: - public administration and decentralization, community and local economic development, education and skills development and economic growth and employment promotion. Other areas are poverty alleviation and social development.

From the above, it can be concluded that NGO's fill in the gaps in developmental activities, through their capacity to implement and provide essential services at local levels. In addition, they engage as collaborative partners with local groups and partake in activities, which are beneficial to target groups, and are not essentially first national priorities. These localized priorities such as youth groups and pre-schools or nursery schools are congruent with the national priorities as highlighted in the national strategies. On a micro-level, NGO priorities include agriculture, youth and women programs, income-generating activities (IGA) and economic empowerment, providing water, housing and basic infrastructure and Home Based Care and counselling as a means of coping with HIV/AIDs and its related stigma. From the "basic needs" perspective and what Chambers (1983) referred to as the "deprivation trap", developmental organizations address these components - physical weakness, isolation, vulnerability and powerlessness - by maintaining survival. Projects therefore aim at immediate basic needs such as food, for example through agricultural projects.

Although poverty cuts across various communities, developmental priorities differ depending on what constitutes the communities' "needs". This is a major reason why the top-down approach and the bottom-up approaches to development yield different priorities.

Targets

Both the LINGOs and the INGOs identified women, children and the youth as the major beneficiaries from projects that they were running. Whereas these groups have been identified as the vulnerable groups in society, the researcher notes that, men too should be targets of developmental projects. The researcher noted there was a very thin line between the boundaries of the women and that of the other family members, as an impact on one would cause change in the others (Eade and Williams, 1995b). For example, a family planning awareness campaign would be more successful if it involved both men and women.

To overcome poverty and powerlessness, the vulnerable groups especially the women and children are empowered from a developmental perspective, which concerns analyzing oppression dynamics (Eade and Williams, 1995a). This entails giving them power and the ability to participate in decision making, therefore being able to negotiate for social and economic factors affecting them (Wuyts, Mackintosh and Hewitt, 1992). According to literature and information the organizations, women are among the primary targets of development priorities for cultural, social and economic reasons (Oakley, 1991; Republic of Kenya, 1997). As indicated by an organization in Kenya “supporting women has a great impact on development, especially at the grassroots level”. The researcher acknowledged that, as a result of women’s low educational levels and their lack of access to the labour market, their entry into small-scale agriculture was where they grew food to feed the family. NGOs therefore play an important role in empowerment and capacity building by imparting new skills and abilities through training.

Youth programs were also common to the organizations. In light of the high unemployment rates of 40% in Kenya and 37 %, in South Africa (<http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/ke.html>); (<http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/sf.html>) youth programs were aimed at transferring skills that would lead to self-employment. The transition to Kenya’s new government in January 2003 saw the introduction of

universal primary education. The researcher proposed that due to the high numbers of street children many would not adjust to a formal education system as a result of advancement their in age. The researcher observed that there was a greater need than ever for youth programs that would offer training to aspiring entrepreneurs, rehabilitation, and vocational training in metalwork and woodwork as pathways to earning an income, therefore an opportunity for an enhanced quality of life.

Project identification

In line with the question addressing organizational project identification, as an INGO working in partnership with the government, community projects were identified through proposals from the government in both Kenya and South Africa. The researcher viewed this means of project identification as advantageous because it stood as a by-product of the macro-level development strategy used by governments, and the micro-level “bottom – approach” used by community formations. The effectiveness of NGO’s and CBO’s in their ability to work very closely with the target groups is complemented by the government’s policies and strategies. Whereas benefits of the partnership include increasing the quality of services offered and enhanced organizational competences, (<http://www.afriline.net/capacity.html>) the question of which partners’ developmental priorities takes precedence cannot go unnoticed. From a micro-level perspective, the South African organizations identified projects through “Generating ideas from the government” and “proposals from the communities”. In Kenya, in addition to the above, proposals were also received from the government. Through the above, the duplication of services provided, was reduced and networking and partnership formations were enhanced. As noted by Fowler (1997), developmental beneficiaries were not in a position to contribute to the running of developmental organizations, which meant that they sought support, financial, and in kind from other sources.

Various criteria were used by the INGO's and LNGO's in the selection of projects for funding. In South Africa, the INGO funded projects provided that they were addressing the developmental concerns of both the South African and the German governments. This was also applicable in Kenya on projects addressing poverty reduction, gender equity, environmental sensitivity and sustainability. The researcher noted that the LNGO's approach differed from that of the INGO's. In Kenya for example, NGOs funded and supported projects after priorities had been set. In South Africa, funding depended on the viability of the proposed projects, priorities of the community and their identified needs.

The researcher viewed that, as noted in an interview with one of the South African organizations, projects were often formulated only to get funding. In a situation where a community was notified of available funds, tailor-made proposals were written with the intention of providing the funders what they "wanted to hear", in order to get funds and any other forms of support. As there was no critical situational analysis done, projects collapsed with no tangible benefits. The researcher also found that even though analyses were carried out to identify and prioritize the communities' needs from a grassroots developmental approach, the question of what would happen if the communities' needs were not among the INGO's or funder's priorities, was still left unresolved.

LNGO's therefore act as links between the international organizations and the beneficiaries, that is, the communities in need.

Resources

Resources are vital to the running and maintenance of any organization and organizational projects. Projects can obtain resources from themselves, external

sources (with conditions attached to them) and from the beneficiaries themselves (Fowler, 1985).

- The ability to have one's own resources is related to having a degree of autonomy, which is vital in developmental organizations. Though financial autonomy is what development organizations strive to attain, (Kameri-Mbote, 2000; Van der Kooy, 1989) this was rarely achieved, because funds into organizations were not invested in self-replenishing projects and programs. This therefore meant that projects and programs could not regenerate money that would make them self-sustaining. The ability of an organization to have control over its own resources means that its goals, objectives and priorities can be attained without external influence and conditions.
- External resources, as indicated by the organizations, where external refers to that which is not regenerated within - as illustrated by Figure 2.1 in Chapter Two, included technical assistance, funding, materials, and labour. Funds to organizations and from the organizations to the beneficiaries were accompanied by conditions, which had to be met.
- Beneficiaries and targeted populations offered to their projects materials, labour through their participation, self-organizational skills, land, and indigenous knowledge through "*Harambee*" in Kenya and "*Ubuntu*" in South Africa. The researcher saw that this contribution gave the beneficiaries a sense of ownership making the projects "theirs". Participation and self-reliance therefore become synonymous with empowerment, as the beneficiaries become partners and contributors in the decision-making process pertaining to issues that affect their lives.

External support, in cash and kind, therefore acts as a stimulus for the mobilization of local resources. Depending on the variability of conditions

attached, this could impede grassroots development if funders' priorities take precedence over those of the beneficiaries.

Other forms of secondary support offered subject to availability of funds, were capacity building and training in finance, marketing, pricing and customer care. Education and training acts as a means of empowerment for marginalized groups. Once individuals had acquired relevant skills, they were able to participate in decision making, which allowed them greater access to services and resources from which they had previously been excluded.

In addition to the support from organizations and the community members, the organizations identified the role of government in projects. Five of the six organizations received support from their respective governments. In the INGO in Kenya, the German government provided specialists, funding and materials and supplies. In Kenya and South Africa, the type of support from the funding government depended on the nature of the project. In the LNGO sector, support from the government included funds, grants, material and supplies and land. Particularly important, and, an attribute that the researcher considered that Kenya could gain from, was “ selling of services and projects” to the government as was identified in South Africa. In one organization, services such as consultation and situational analysis were performed by the LNGO. The government paid for the services and the money was ploughed into the organization as a source of income. The setback to this, as identified by the organization was that so much time was invested in performing these services, that their own clientele were sometimes neglected. In moderation, however, this would act as a source of income and a medium for exposure to opportunities for networking with other organizations. In South Africa, another organization, using their own finances, constructed buildings such as schools and libraries and then sold them to the Department of Education. Money received was then re-invested in other projects.

Contact between the organizations and a community was maintained for the project's survival. Whereas the INGO maintained contact through joint workshops, regular visits, reports and feedback from the beneficiaries, the LNGO's maintained their contacts through selected committees and representatives, field staff, and meetings. This contact is essential as it acts as a forum through which problems and queries can be addressed by the organizational staff. Through workshops for example, new links are formed with other organizations, which engage in similar activities, and as a result information and experiences are shared which benefit each of the groups. The researcher noted that although the use of selected committees and representatives was a good medium for representation for the communities, unequal representation could be counter-productive in the realm of the power imbalance between the organizational staff and community members.

The organizations used field staff for monitoring and carrying out evaluations to ensure that stated objectives were attained and that the projects were reaching out and benefiting their intended targets. Monitoring and evaluation aims at assessing changes between what was intended as the outcome and what is actually happening on the ground. These changes are assessed according to whether they are desired or are obstacles to the initial objectives. The researcher also observed that evaluations enhanced accountability to the funders and project beneficiaries. For example, a staff member interviewed in a LNGO in South Africa said that before donors provided them with additional material support, they would first visit projects to which previous support had been given. This therefore made the organization accountable to both the donors and the communities.

Maintained contact between the developmental organization and its beneficiaries acts as a mechanism for ensuring continuity. All the organizations in Kenya and South Africa had set up mechanisms for maintaining this contact. Within the INGO in South Africa, this was part of project planning. In Kenya

as noted in their response that “Often, unfortunately not always, plans are designed to improve sustainability chances.” This quotation associates continuity with sustainability. For a project to be able to “go on” without the presence of the supporting organization would require self-reliance. At project level, self-reliance would mean that the project is in the control of the members, who would be equipped with the necessary skills and training to see it through. The LNGO’s in both countries substantiate this through the provision of training, technical support and basic business skills. One organization had an option that the researcher considered very rewarding, that was the encouragement for members to join associations such as Savings and Credit Cooperatives (SACCOs). Cooperatives play a role of mobilizing domestic savings, agricultural production and marketing. This helps contribute towards raising the standards of living in rural areas (Republic of Kenya, 1997, 1994a).

Whereas organizations at times do abruptly withdraw from projects for various reasons, the researcher saw this as harmful to projects as the “sudden death” or withdrawal would traumatize the project system resulting in disequilibrium. In withdrawing, the organization, where possible should have a phase - out period whereby, through necessary training and under supervision it can be handed over to the communities. On the other hand, where this is not possible, arrangements should be made for the training of networking partners to stabilize the projects.

As developmental formations continue to mushroom in light of prevalent social problems, there is a greater chance of the organizations duplicating the services that they provide to their clientele. This is because within communities, there is often more than one organization developing the area at a given period. Duplication of services can be avoided through the networking of organizations. Partnerships with other organizations can act as support mechanisms and means towards providing the clientele with the best services available.

The INGO's liaised with organizations such as the European Union (EU), DFID, USAID, and SIDA. The nature of this partnership was that whoever was closest to the target group assumed the lead role or functional role. The researcher viewed this as an advantageous arrangement because, provided the nearest organization had the expertise and material, it meant quick response time and close contact with the beneficiaries in terms of proximity.

In the LNGO's, partnership was with organizations such as the British government, the South African government, Oxfam, Cooperative and credit unions. In Kenya these included churches, hospitals and such foundations as the Ford Foundation. The partnerships aided in providing donations such as chairs and desks for schools, and in organizational development through training in accounting and finance.

Internal and external factors

Internal factors

The environments within which organizations operate have an influence on the operations and services that they offer. Examples of these factors included political stability, good governance, security and implementation of policies within the country. As the organizations fall within the realm of the macro-level, the political environment becomes crucial as within this political environment laws, legislation and policies are formulated and enacted that determine the conduciveness of the organization's environment. A suitable environment comprises one that gives the organization autonomy, independence and a secure "non-violent" environment. Critically important is good governance enhanced by accountability, transparency and the absence of corruption.

Within the LNGO sector in South Africa, political stability, drought and famine, economic and climatic conditions affected organizational operations. At this

micro-level, there is little or no buffer against any impact on the individual and the community. Drought, for example, will cause hunger and starvation within families, which in turn will lead to malnourishment. Within these communities, children especially the girl-child is withdrawn from school and in severe cases married - off to obtain money and / or food. An organization in this community would direct its services towards addressing and improving agricultural practices, promoting education especially for the girl child and establishing food banks to act as buffers and securities in times of emergencies.

As indicated in an interview with a South African LNGO, violence and civil unrest in the township where it was located interrupted the scheduled activities. During this unrest, the organization was brought to a standstill, as it had to close its gates to deserving clients until there was peace.

Relating to the factors affecting the organization, in Kenya, the above-mentioned applied in addition to inflation rates, infrastructure, high over-head costs, corruption and the demolition of structures. In Kenya, inadequate rural infrastructure has affected agriculture and rural development (Republic of Kenya, 1997). This is worsened during rainy seasons when the roads are flooded or destroyed resulting in the inaccessibility of services and affecting the distribution and marketing of produce. High over-head costs such as electricity compromise non- agricultural support systems in organizational operations. In rural and peri-urban areas these lead to high operational costs, diverting most of the organizational finances to the running and maintaining of the organizations at the expense of providing services to the communities. Within all levels, corruption has been a major hindrance to development. At the macro-level, which is within government and other institutions, the high prevalence of corruption has resulted in the impenetration of resources at the micro-level. Across the institutions, essential services and resources also become inaccessible.

A Kenyan organization targeting small-scale and micro enterprises was greatly affected by the withholding of support. Coupled with the drought that faced Kenya in 2000, the withholding of aid strained the country's budget, with the greatest impact experienced by the poor, small scale farmers and businesses who had nothing or little to fall back to. With little to invest therefore, the situation worsened when the local authorities - Nairobi City Council (NCC) demolished business premises. This negatively impacted not only on the traders but also banks and credit facility organizations, as money, which had been invested, was lost in demolished structures and lost wares.

External factors

The organization is faced with external factors that directly or indirectly impact on its organizational operations. In Kenya and South Africa, the INGO identified conditions tied to aid as factors that affected their operations. Whereas in South Africa these conditions were tied to funding from the German government, in Kenya these conditions were associated with policies from the Kenyan government. Conditions will be discussed further in this chapter.

In Kenya and South Africa, in addition to the above, the LINGO's mentioned world trade inflation rates, and macro- issues such as high capital and high inflation rates as the most commonly felt external factors. High inflation rates impact on families and individuals. In times of economic hardship, prices increase drastically for households and communities. An increase in prices does not amount to an increase in wages and salaries therefore an individual's purchasing power decreases. Poor families and communities are pushed deeper into the poverty trap as savings decrease as a result of their struggle to survive. This hand-to-mouth cycle affects other domains such as education and health. From a developmental perspective therefore, development organizations are faced with more than the tasks addressing one social problem, as many are interlinked. Poverty thus links with malnutrition, HIV/AIDS, unemployment

and social exclusion. High and inaccessible economic capital resources hinder development. This includes inaccessible productive resources, (savings, credit and pensions) and basic infrastructure and production equipment (Frankenberger, Drinkwater and Maxwell, 2000).

With the above unavailable or inaccessible components and resources, the developmental process becomes unstable and this is felt the most by the beneficiaries who receive the developmental services.

Funding and resource distribution: conditions

In relation to the question addressing why funding and resources were distributed to organizations and projects, funding and support to projects by the organizations was motivated by various reasons. In Kenya, the INGO funded projects to remove and reduce inequality and to strengthen self-help. Within the LINGO's, in South Africa, funding and resources were distributed for the self-development of rural people, to spearhead development and to improve the living conditions and the quality of life. In Kenya, this was to improve the quality of life of poor people through providing loans that would enable them to reach a state where they would be able to determine and meet their own developmental needs. The other organizations provided resources in order to build a sustainable community that was economically empowered despite the members HIV/AIDS status.

Whereas there was no response from the INGO in South Africa, in Kenya this organization provided financial support to CBO's, other NGO's, self-help groups and agricultural groups. The LINGO's in South Africa supported self-help groups and women groups, and agricultural groups. Of the two LINGOs, the micro and small entrepreneurs (MSEs) organization in Kenya provided loans to group formations and the other LINGO provided funding and resources to

CBO's for self-help projects to help and women and youth groups. Self-help groups, which are very prevalent in Kenya, act as vehicles for the mobilization of labour and resource allocation within the community. Formations such these groups have schemes such as the merry-go-round. One organization in Kenya whose clientele are persons infected and affected by HIV/AIDS had an income generating project which targeted caregivers, community workers, volunteers, general youth and people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWAs). Each of these groups made a contribution, which varied in accordance with their economic status. This meant that the community workers and the volunteers made the highest contribution while the PLWAs made the least contribution. Within the same program, where all the other categories were given repayable loans to invest in income- generating projects, the PLWA's were given grants. The loans were given on condition that they were to be repaid with 1% interest. During the meetings, which are held weekly and monthly, a six week training session was conducted where the members were empowered with project identification, record keeping and repayment skills. Follow up was then done during the regular meetings. The researcher noted that this was a requirement because the organization, like all other organizations, did not want to invest its funds in groups that would not be able to account for the money or run projects well without the essential business skills. In this case therefore, both the organizations and the group gain in the form of empowerment through skills for the members and the interest back from the loans.

Although funding and support was accessible to groups and organizations, the respondents indicated that there was a limit to the amount that was channelled to programs and projects. This, the researcher noted was pre-determined by the organizations budgetary allocations, their financial policies and the organizational objectives. Despite the fact that organizations funded projects, there was an indication that there were some projects that the organizations did not fund. The researcher concluded that these were projects and activities there were not part of the organizational priorities or highlighted in their values,

objectives, vision and mission statement. For example, the INGO in Kenya did not top salaries for civil service counterparts although there was a partnership with the government. This is because the nature of this partnership was to assist communities in alleviating poverty and to improve their quality of life. In the LNGO's, projects that were not undertaken in Kenya by Christian based organization-providing loans for MSEs was that they did not fund businesses that were blatantly against Christian values. This was because these activities were against societal values, which feed into and contribute to the organizational operations and policies. In South Africa, these included issues relating to HIV/AIDs within an organization, which provided sanitation and housing services. In such a case, this organization made referrals, enabled through networking with other organizations that provided such services. The researcher noted that although this was advantageous because specialization led to efficient services, this would also have negative effects if there were no organizations to which such referral could be made, or if these organizations were not easily accessible. Situations such as these occurred when organizations had differing priorities from those of the government, and organizational and governmental priorities, which are not congruent with those of the communities.

In the question relating to policies of funding and the distribution of resources, all organizations were governed by financial policies, which stipulated how funds were distributed to other organizations and projects. The policy in the INGO in Kenya restricted financial aid to "bottlenecks" to technical cooperation.

Organizations provide pre-requisites, which need to be met before funds or support is given to projects. The stipulated conditions are assumed to be beneficial to both the donor and recipient organizations. Conditions, which had to be met by organizations receiving funding from the INGO in Kenya, were that the organization or project had to have a solid work plan, good accounting standards and sustainability of measures. Within the LNGO's in South Africa,

loans from SACCOs were granted to individuals who had saved with these associations. Grants, on the other hand, were provided by the organization to members who were considered to be trustworthy and who had had a record of repaying previous loans. These conditions could be viewed as necessary to safeguard the primary interests of the funding organization and the recipient's interests as secondary. These measures were enacted by the organizations to ensure that their funding was invested in sustainable organizations that had financial transparency, were free from corruption and those that had effective planning and implementation strategies. Through these safeguards, the beneficiaries benefit as the organizations act as channels through which funds are pumped into the projects. Corruption and mismanagement would prevent the funds smoothly flowing to the projects and beneficiaries.

The question of who actually benefits from these conditions still remains unanswered. The utopian win-win relationship, where both parties mutually benefit from each other, is a relationship that would enhance development, especially at the micro-level. This type of relationship would entail a mutual understanding, eliminating the opportunity of one partner benefiting at the other's expense. The relationship would be characteristic of the bottom-up approach, which involves the communities in the entire developmental process (project identification, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation) and development as an end in itself.

The survival of developmental organizations in Kenya, as the transitional government comes to power is crucial. In this "harsh environment" and in bid to obtain and secure funding, organizations have had to adapt, sometimes leading to their own destruction. This has been evident in the mushrooming of NGO's, which have been tailored to meet donor requirements. This effectively negates the bottom-up, person-centred approach as so eloquently called for in development literature and provides the "service of the day". If the major focus in international donor circles is HIV/AIDS, then there is an increase in the

number of registered organizations dealing with HIV/AIDS in that particular time. In due course, many of these organizations collapse as too many are registered to provide the same service, hence duplication of services provided, competition, corruption and mismanagement. Chege (1999) affirms this when he states:

“...some NGOs are primarily concerned with making money and not eradicating poverty, and will appear and disappear depending on where the money is...”

Sustainability and continuity

Participation enhances ownership through contributions made by communities and beneficiaries. The ability of projects to sustain and continue by themselves lies in the role that the organizations play in the programs and projects. All participating organizations had a degree of sustainability within the organizational strategies. Within the organizational strategies, sustainability was identified at two levels: the individual or community level and the institutional or organizational level.

Individual and community

From a micro-level perspective, the INGO and LNGO's encouraged participation of the communities in the process where they were involved in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of projects. This forum for decision-making was enabled through the use of community committees, which represented the communities' interests. Sustainability at this level was also facilitated through the formation of developmental groups. These groups enabled the members' democratic voice to be heard as they overcame their exclusion through mutual support and interest groups (Frankenberger,

Drinkwater and Maxwell, 2000)). Vulnerable groups comprising youth, women and the poor, overcome social and economic exclusion as they gain access to resources such as credit, which were often granted to groups only. The representatives of the organizations reported that through this self-reliance, members were able to start small business and individual projects therefore reducing dependence on the organization.

Development formations on formulating action plans, are empowered through education and training. Focal training areas include bookkeeping, customer care, agriculture and reproductive health.

Institutions and organizations

At this level, organizations act as link between the clients and the resources that they need to improve their standard of living and quality of life.

As donors and organizations phase-out from communities and projects, the communities should be in a position to “stand on their own feet”. The INGO in both countries had put in place instruments, which supported institutional capacity building. This included advising and coaching these organizations. The researcher highlights here that through coaching, the INGO identified organizational or project strengths and weaknesses, and offered feedback that encouraged growth both in the long and short term. Through this form of interaction, the feedback obtained reinforced good progress and identified areas that needed to be worked on. This form of feedback sustains the organization as indicated in the systems model in Chapter Two. Capacity building was further enhanced through the provision of access to information, understudy arrangements, exposure through workshops, conferences and networking. Other services included moderation and facilitation and comprehensive analysis of the organizations with the objective of removing their weaknesses.

Staff training and human resource development enhanced staff functioning and effectiveness in light of the communities and clientele's changing needs. A change in needs would call for a change in approaches applied. This necessitates staff training to increase competency, efficiency and effectiveness. The researcher notes that the level of training of organizational staff would depend on the communication levels and technologies available to the recipients at the given time. The target population, locality, level of education and resources available would determine the training to be offered. For example, the level and method of training offered to a self-help group of women in the rural areas would differ from that given to a group in an urban area as the entry level of education would be different. The content would however remain the same.

Encouragement to join and affiliate with other organizations benefits members through further training and marketing opportunities.

Chapter Five

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusion

This research focussed on development projects in relation to the overall poverty in each country and the role that these projects have played as vehicles to development. The study further looked at development projects in the context of the political and economic environments within which they operated.

From the study, despite the varying poverty levels in both countries as a result of the varying inputs such as GNP and per capita income, the poor in both countries had similar characteristics such as locality as they were greatly concentrated in rural areas. In addition, similar to both countries was the seasonality of poverty, which exacerbated the nature of poverty. The multifaceted nature of poverty manifested itself in illiteracy, unemployment, health and the lack of essential services. Affected by poverty were women, children, rural communities, pastoralists and the unemployed who were hence targets of development projects (National Population Unit, 2000; Office of the President, 1999; Statistics South Africa, 2002; White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997).

Development projects in both countries therefore centred their activities, programs and projects on national developmental priorities that aimed at improving the quality of life and standards of living. To bridge the rural-urban gap caused by migration, inaccessibility of social services and poverty, development agencies targeted these areas with programs and projects that

created employment and promoted economic growth, hence balanced development and strengthened economic growth (Republic of Kenya, 1997).

The development organizations went a step further than providing these basic services to developing communities and individuals. Through training, capacity building, and skills development skills were taught in such diverse fields as marketing, business management, and customer care. According to the representatives of the organizations, this promoted sustainability and self-reliance as the members were now empowered and able to manage their own projects.

Entangled with aid that was necessary for the management of NGO's, were conditions that had to be fulfilled prior to the granting of the funding. The study highlighted that although there were mixed feelings about the merits or demerits of the conditions, they had more demerits, directly and indirectly on the project beneficiaries. As these conditions "flowed" through to the communities, community needs and priorities became "crushed" or "unseen" in the process. This led to the initiation of projects, which were different from community priorities.

A number of suggestions were formulated by the researcher in light of the various factors at play in both countries in relation to funding, developmental priorities, and projects.

Recommendations

- At a time when there may be a shift in the direction of funding from NGO to government, the closure of a large number of these organizations becomes inevitable. To adapt and maintain survival, the organizations should streamline their activities and sell them to the government. This is because, the government will now be taking over a great amount of work and may not be able to provide all citizens with

the essential services. By selling their services, the organizations will have a source of income, still be in direct contact with the government, and will be able to address the needs of the communities without undue pressure of external donors and funders.

- There is a great and urgent need for the Kenyan government to prioritize the role of agriculture. An estimated 80% of the population is living in the rural areas and depends on agriculture (Republic of Kenya, 1997). Agriculture is also a major source of export and remains the backbone of the economy, even at this time when the government is involved in its industrial transformation phase. The researcher viewed that, alongside the government's national development priorities, should be the means to mechanize and hence, maximize agricultural production. To achieve this end: -

- ❖ At the macro-level, facilities should be available for micro-level credit borrowing through SACCO's and cooperatives.
- ❖ At the micro-level, a major overhaul of the rural infrastructure and transportation systems and an increase in the extension and field staff.

This will boost agriculture and will contribute to rural development, employment, and food security. It will consequently reduce poverty by addressing the most basic need of food and creating employment.

- The researcher found that although HIV/AIDS was a major "priority" this was relative to the situation at hand. To people who had had their basic needs met, AIDS would be a secondary factor to consider, where they would have the resources to seek health care. For a poor mother in the rural area where there was no food to give her children, HIV/AIDS

would seem like a long-term problem that she would consider after feeding her children. To this end, the researcher viewed that there was a need to be more realistic especially in areas where basic needs were not being met. Whereas the promotion of agriculture would be essential, this would be a long-term solution. There is a need for the South African government, through the Department of Social Development to increase the assumption and frequency food parcels to remote areas.

- As a lesson from a South African LINGO, the Kenyan donor community can adopt the “I owe you” scheme of funding projects. This means that, the organization would identify the project, and upon approaching an agency for funding, would be given the go-ahead for the project, without receiving “hard cash”. This would call for the NGO to get materials on credit, and after receiving the funds, make payment on completion and approval of the project. To the researcher this would be beneficial to the donor and beneficiaries as, this would enhance quality and reduce the incidents of fraud and corruption within the organization.
- To reduce dependence on external sources of income, developmental formations need to initiate projects and programs that are self-generating, whereby the surplus can be reinvested into the projects. Should this not be possible, these organizations should liaise with co-operatives, which can market their products.
- The researcher viewed that although both countries were becoming more heterogeneous, there was great value and ethos in “*Harambee*” and “*Ubuntu*” in Kenya and South Africa respectively. This was because these showed high levels of participation, and utilization of collective community knowledge and resources. Both governments can thus supplement in cash and kind, developmental efforts from the grassroots and micro-levels.

- In remote rural areas where health care facilities are not easily accessible, the governments could through their respective departments of health, identify community members who could receive basic training on first-aid and HIV/AIDS counselling. As these community outreach members would be in direct contact with the communities on a regular basis, to the researcher, this would have a great impact especially in creating awareness. This differs from having extension staff, as the trained community member is part of the community on a regular basis, and is thus considered an “insider” as opposed to the “visitor” who comes seldom.

Development still remains an on-going process with constantly changing variables. The journey towards equitable resources, improvement of the quality of life, improved living conditions begins from within the community and moves upward, propelled by community mobilization, participation and capacity building.

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ASSESSING FUNDING FOR DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF KENYA AND SOUTH AFRICA.

Thank you for taking the time to respond to this questionnaire. Please answer the questions on the space provided. For the Yes / No questions please tick your answer in the box provided. ALL INFORMATION WILL BE USED ONLY FOR THE PURPOSES OF THIS STUDY.

SECTION A: PURPOSE AND INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF THE ORGANIZATION

1. Contact details.

Name of organization _____

Tel: (_____) _____ Fax: (_____) _____

E-mail: _____

Your Position in organization: _____

Location of organization (City/Town) _____

Year the organization was established in the country _____

2. For what purpose (s) was the organization established in the country?

SECTION B: PROJECTS

3. What are the organizations development priorities?

4. Are the organizations development priorities in line with the country's national developmental priorities?

☐ Yes ☐ No

Please explain your answer

5. How does your organization identify projects to be considered for financial aid?

- ☐ Proposals from the government
- ☐ Generation of ideas to meet community needs
- ☐ Supporting existing projects with resources/technology
- ☐ Proposals from communities

Other

6. What criteria are used to select projects that are funded by your organization?

7. Is there a limit to the amount that can be disbursed?

☐ Yes ☐ No

8. What does the organization provide into funded projects?

- ☐ Funds
- ☐ Materials
- ☐ Technical assistance
- ☐ Labour
- ☐ Land

Other _____

9. Are there expenditures that your organization does not fund?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, please
specify _____

10. Is there any other form of support that your organization provides to
projects? ☐

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, what type of support is provided?

11. What is your target group/ population?

- ☐ Women
- ☐ Children
- ☐ Disabled
- ☐ Youth
- ☐ Unemployed
- ☐ Aged
- ☐ Other _____

11b. Please give details for these target groups as opposed to others.

SECTION C: SUSTAINABILITY AND BENEFIT CONTINUATION

12. Do you have time frames for funding projects?

☐ Yes ☐ No

12b. If yes, what is the minimum period you fund each project_____

12c. What is the maximum period you can fund a project_____

13. How does the organization ensure that financial aid has reached the targeted beneficiaries?

14. Does the organization have direct contact with projects funded?

☐ Yes ☐ No

14b. If yes, how is the contact maintained between the organization and the funded projects_____

15. If a project has provided facilities, which need to be maintained, are there mechanisms for ensuring continuity when you pull out of a project.

☐ Yes ☐ No

Please explain

16. If institutional capacity building is an objective, what support instruments are used to strengthen this goal in the organizations?

17. Does the government provide any form of support?
☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, what kind of support?

- ☐ Specialists
- ☐ Funds
- ☐ Materials/supplies
- ☐ Land
- ☐ None

Other

18. Does the organization liaise with other agencies in funding projects?
☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, which organizations

19. What is the nature of the partnership?

20. What kind of change is envisaged in the future, with regard to funding of projects by your organization?

SECTION D: INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL FACTORS

21. What conditions does the organization for providing financial assistance?

22. What internal factors (within the country) affect and influence the organizations operations

- ☐ Political instability
- ☐ Influx of refugees
- ☐ Drought and famine
- ☐ Inflation rates
- ☐ Other (specify)

23. What external factors influence service delivery?

- ☐ Conditionalities tied to funding, from donors
- ☐ World trade inflation rates
- ☐ Other (specify)

SECTION E: FUNDING

24. How is aid distributed to community projects?

25. Does your organization have policy on providing financial aid?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

If yes, what is the policy?

26. Why is your organization-funding project's in this country?

27. What types of organizations receive financial aid from your organization?

- ☐ CBOs
- ☐ NGOs
- ☐ Self help groups
- ☐ Youth groups
- ☐ Agricultural projects
- Other

SECTION F: PARTICIPATION

28. What community resources are utilised in projects?

- ☐ Raw material
- ☐ Labour through participation
- ☐ Indigenous knowledge
- ☐ Other

29. Do communities participate in financial aid allocation?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, how

30. How do project beneficiaries participate in planning, implementation and monitoring?

SECTION G: STRENGTH AND WEAKNESSES

31. What would you identify as the major strengths of your organization?

32. What would you identify as the major setbacks your organization experiences?

33. What limitations (if any) do you experience in relation to the distribution of funds to projects?

SECTION H: ANY OTHER COMMENTS

Thank you for your participation and the provided information.

In case of any queries do not hesitate to contact me e-mail:
201510670@stu.und.ac.za

Please fax the completed questionnaire to (031) 260 2618 (ATT: Florence Kiilu)
OR email it to or 201510670@stu.und.ac.za

Florence Kiilu
Centre for Social Work
University of Natal, Durban
4041.

ASSESSING DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF KENYA AND SOUTH AFRICA.

Thank you for taking the time to respond to this questionnaire. Please answer the questions on the space provided. For the Yes / No questions please tick your answer in the box provided. ALL INFORMATION WILL BE USED ONLY FOR THE PURPOSES OF THIS STUDY.

SECTION A: PURPOSE AND INTERNAL STRUCTURE OF THE ORGANIZATION

1. Contact details.

Name of organization _____

Tel: (_____) _____ Fax: (_____) _____

E-mail: _____

Your Position in organization: _____

Location of organization (City/Town) _____

Year the organization was established in the country _____

2. For what purpose (s) was the organization established in the country?

SECTION B: PROJECTS

3. What are the organizations development priorities?

4. Are the organizations development priorities in line with the country's national developmental priorities?

☐ Yes ☐ No

Please explain your answer

5. How does your organization identify projects within the community?

- ☐ Proposals from the government
- ☐ Generation of ideas to meet community needs
- ☐ Supporting existing projects with resources/technology
- ☐ Proposals from communities

Other

6. What criteria are used to select projects that are assisted by the organization?

7. Is there a limit to the amount that can be disbursed?

☐ Yes ☐ No

8. What does the organization provide into development projects?

- ☐ Funds
- ☐ Materials
- ☐ Technical assistance
- ☐ Labour
- ☐ Land

Other

9. Are there programs/projects/funding that the organization does not undertake?

☐ Yes

☐

No

If yes, please
specify _____

10. Is there any other form of support that your organization provides to projects?

☐

☐ Yes

No

If yes, what type of support is provided?

11. What is your target group/ population?

☐ Women

☐ Children

☐ Disabled

☐ Youth

☐ Unemployed

☐ Aged

☐ Other

11b. Please give details for these target groups as opposed to others.

SECTION C: SUSTAINABILITY AND BENEFIT CONTINUATION

12. Do you have time frames for funding projects?

☐

Yes

☐

No

12b. If yes, what is the minimum period you fund each project _____

12c. What is the maximum period you can fund a project _____

13. How does the organization ensure that services have reached the targeted beneficiaries?

14. Does the organization have direct contact with project beneficiaries?

☐

Yes

☐

No

14b. If yes, how is the contact maintained between the organization and the project beneficiaries

15. If a project has provided facilities, which need to be maintained, are there mechanisms for ensuring continuity when the organization pulls out pull out of a project.

☐

Yes

☐

No.

Please explain

16. If institutional capacity building is an objective, what support instruments are used to strengthen this goal in the organizations?

17. Does the government provide any form of support?

☐ Yes

☐ No

If yes, what kind of support?

- ☐ Specialists
- ☐ Funds
- ☐ Materials/supplies
- ☐ Land
- ☐ None
- Other

18. Does the organization liaise with other agencies in funding projects/ or delivering services?

☐ Yes

☐ No

If yes, which organizations

19. What is the nature of the partnership?

20. What kind of change is envisaged in the future, with regard to funding of projects by your organization?

SECTION D: INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL FACTORS

21. What conditions does the organization have for providing financial assistance?

22. What internal factors (within the country) affect and influence the organizations operations

- ☐ Political instability
- ☐ Influx of refugees
- ☐ Drought and famine
- ☐ Inflation rates
- ☐ Other (specify)

22b.

Explain

23. What external factors influence service delivery?

☐

Conditionalities tied to funding, from donors

☐ World trade inflation rates

☐ Other (specify)

SECTION E: FUNDING

24. How are resources distributed to community projects?

25.(If organization provides funding to any degree) Does the organization have policy on providing financial aid?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, what is the policy?

26. Why is your organization funding projects in the country?

27. What types of organizations receive financial aid from your organization?

☐ CBOs

☐ NGOs

☐ Self help groups

- ☐ Youth groups
- ☐ Agricultural projects

Other

SECTION F: PARTICIPATION

28. What community resources are utilised in projects?

- ☐ Raw material
- ☐ Labour through participation
- ☐ Indigenous knowledge
- ☐ Other

29. Do communities participate in financial aid allocation?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, how

30. How do project beneficiaries participate in planning, implementation and monitoring?

SECTION G: STRENGTH AND WEAKNESSES

31. What would you identify as the major strengths of your organization?

32. What would you identify as the major setbacks your organization experiences?

33. What limitations (if any) do you experience in relation to the distribution of funds to projects?

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Florence Kiilu
Centre for Social Work
University of Natal, Durban,
4041.

Appendix C

Cover letter

C/O Social Work Department
University of Natal
King George V Avenue
DURBAN
4001

Date

The Director
(Organization)

RE: Funding for development projects

I am carrying out an evaluative study entitled **"Assessing funding for development projects: a comparative study of Kenya and South Africa."** This is a Masters Level study in the field of Social Development. For the purpose of this study, I have selected a few NGO's that have a presence in both countries, Kenya and South Africa.

To achieve this purpose, I request your organization to participate in answering a questionnaire.

The study is explorative descriptive, an initiative to establish the following:

1. The nature of programmes/ projects funded by your agency
2. Rationale for funding those programmes/projects and to understand
3. How the organization interacts with the communities it supports or collaborates with.

As a social scientist, practitioner and social development worker, I am of the view that this study will benefit funding NGOs in both countries, Kenya and South Africa and contribute to the knowledge base in socio – economic and social development initiatives and localized development initiatives in our continent.

At the end of this letter is a section on which you may indicate your willingness to cooperate in the answering of the questionnaire.

Thank you for the courtesy of your assistance.

Yours Sincerely,

Florence Kiilu

Dear Miss Florence:

☐ Please send the questionnaire; I will be willing to cooperate

☐ I am sorry but I do not wish to answer the questionnaire.

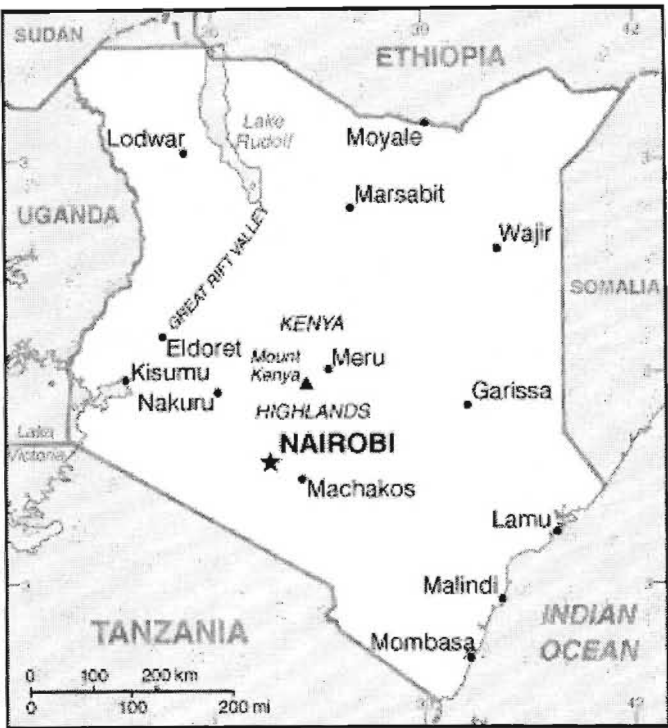
Comments.

Date: _____

Appendix D

Country profile – Kenya

KENYA



Population:

31,138,735

note: estimates for this country explicitly take into account the effects of excess mortality due to AIDS; this can result in lower life expectancy, higher infant mortality and death rates, lower population and growth rates, and changes in the distribution of population by age and sex than would otherwise be expected (July 2002 est.)

Age structure:

0-14 years: 41.1% (male 6,462,430; female 6,327,457)

15-64 years: 56.1% (male 8,769,546; female 8,694,329)

65 years and over: 2.8% (male 385,361; female 499,612) (2002 est.)

Population

growth rate: 1.15% (2002 est.)

Birth rate:

27.61 births/1,000 population (2002 est.)

Death rate:

14.68 deaths/1,000 population (2002 est.)

Net migration

rate: -1.48 migrant(s)/1,000 population

note: according to UNHCR, by the end of 2001 Kenya was host to 220,000 refugees from neighboring countries, including: Somalia 145,000 and Sudan 68,000 (2002 est.)

Sex ratio:

at birth: 1.03 male(s)/female

under 15 years: 1.02 male(s)/female

15-64 years: 1.01 male(s)/female

65 years and over: 0.77 male(s)/female

total population: 1.01 male(s)/female (2002 est.)

Infant

mortality rate: 67.24 deaths/1,000 live births (2002 est.)

Life expectancy

at birth: *total population:* 47.02 years

female: 47.85 years (2002 est.)

male: 46.2 years

Total fertility

rate: 3.34 children born/woman (2002 est.)

HIV/AIDS -

adult 13.5% (2001 est.)

prevalence

rate:

HIV/AIDS -

people living 2.2 million (2000 est.)

with

HIV/AIDS:

HIV/AIDS -

deaths: 180,000 (1999 est.)

ECONOMY

Economy –

overview: Kenya, the regional hub for trade and finance in East Africa, is hampered by corruption and reliance upon several primary goods whose prices continue to decline. Following strong economic growth in 1995 and 1996, Kenya's economy has stagnated, with GDP growth failing to keep up with the rate of population growth. In 1997, the IMF suspended Kenya's Enhanced Structural Adjustment Program due to the government's failure to maintain reforms and curb corruption. A severe drought from 1999 to 2000 compounded Kenya's problems, causing water and energy rationing and reducing agricultural output. As a result, GDP contracted by 0.3% in 2000. The IMF, which had resumed loans in 2000 to help Kenya through the drought, again halted lending in 2001 when the government failed to institute several anticorruption measures. Despite the return of strong rains in 2001, weak commodity prices, endemic corruption, and low investment limited Kenya's economic growth to 1%, and Kenya is unlikely to see growth above 2% in 2002. Substantial IMF and other

foreign support is essential to prevent a further decline in real per capita output.

GDP:

purchasing power parity - \$31 billion (2001 est.)

GDP - real

growth rate: 1% (2001 est.)

GDP - per

capita: purchasing power parity - \$1,000 (2001 est.)

GDP -

composition by *agriculture:* 24%

sector: *industry:* 13%

services: 63% (2000 est.)

Population

below poverty 50% (2000 est.)

line:

Household

income or *lowest 10%:* 2%

consumption *highest 10%:* 37% (2000)

by percentage

share:

Distribution of

family income 45 (1994)

- Gini index:

Inflation rate

(consumer 3.3% (2001 est.)

prices):

Labour force:

10 million (2001 est.)

Labour force - agriculture 75%-80%

by occupation:

Unemployment 40% (2001 est.)

rate:

Source: www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/ke.html

Appendix E

Country profile – South Africa

SOUTH AFRICA



Population:

43,647,658

note: South Africa took a census October 1996 that showed a population of 40,583,611 (after an official adjustment for a 6.8% under enumeration based on a postenumeration survey); estimates for this country explicitly take into account the effects of excess mortality due to AIDS; this can result in lower life expectancy, higher infant mortality and death rates, lower population and growth rates, and changes in the distribution of population by age and sex than would otherwise be expected (July 2002 est.)

Age structure:

0-14 years: 31.6% (male 6,943,761; female 6,849,745)

15-64 years: 63.4% (male 13,377,011; female 14,300,850)

65 years and over: 5% (male 816,222; female 1,360,069) (2002 est.)

Population

growth rate: 0.02% (2002 est.)

Birth rate:

20.63 births/1,000 population (2002 est.)

Death rate:

18.86 deaths/1,000 population (2002 est.)

Net migration

rate: -1.56 migrant(s)/1,000 population (2002 est.)

Sex ratio:

at birth: 1.02 male(s)/female

under 15 years: 1.01 male(s)/female

15-64 years: 0.94 male(s)/female

65 years and over: 0.6 male(s)/female

total population: 0.94 male(s)/female (2002 est.)

Infant

mortality rate: 61.78 deaths/1,000 live births (2002 est.)

Life expectancy

at birth: *total population: 45.43 years*

female: 45.68 years (2002 est.)

male: 45.19 years

Total fertility

rate: 2.38 children born/woman (2002 est.)

HIV/AIDS -

adult 19.94% (2000 est.)

prevalence

rate:

HIV/AIDS -
people living 5.2 million (2000 est.)
with
HIV/AIDS:
HIV/AIDS -
deaths: 300,000 (2000 est.)

ECONOMY

Economy -

overview: South Africa is a middle-income, developing country with an abundant supply of resources, well-developed financial, legal, communications, energy, and transport sectors, a stock exchange that ranks among the 10 largest in the world, and a modern infrastructure supporting an efficient distribution of goods to major urban centers throughout the region. However, growth has not been strong enough to cut into high unemployment, and daunting economic problems remain from the apartheid era, especially the problems of poverty and lack of economic empowerment among the disadvantaged groups. Other problems are crime, corruption, and HIV/AIDS. At the start of 2000, President MBEKI vowed to promote economic growth and foreign investment, and to reduce poverty by relaxing restrictive labor laws, stepping up the pace of privatization, and cutting unneeded governmental spending. The economy slowed in 2001, largely the result of the slowing of the international economy.

GDP:

purchasing power parity - \$412 billion (2001 est.)

GDP - real 2.6% (2001 est.)

growth rate:

GDP - per

capita: purchasing power parity - \$9,400 (2001 est.)

GDP -

composition by *agriculture:* 3%

sector: *industry:* 31%

services: 66% (2000 est.)

Population

below poverty 50% (2000 est.)

line:

Household

income or *lowest 10%:* 1%

consumption *highest 10%:* 46% (1994) (1994)

by percentage

share:

Distribution of

family income - 59 (1993-94)

Gini index:

Inflation rate

(consumer 5.8% (2001 est.)

prices):

Labor force:

17 million economically active (2000)

Labor force -

by occupation: agriculture 30%, industry 25%, services 45% (1999 est.)

Unemployment

rate: 37% (2001 est.)

Source: <http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/sf.html>

