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**SOFT ISSUES IN RESOURCE ATTRACTION AND RETENTION: AN
EXPLORATION OF THE DETERMINANTS OF FUNDING LEVELS FOR NGOs IN
ZIMBABWE**

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation first to my wife, Audrey and our children, Jay, Jeremy and Joann, for providing a source of inspiration and support that made completing this academic process an otherwise manageable task. The sacrifices you made by spending weekends and public holidays without spending quality time is greatly appreciated.

DECLARATION

I, **JACOB MUKAMBA**, do hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own investigation and research, except to the extent indicated in the Acknowledgements and References included in the body of the report, and that it has not been submitted in part or in full for any other degree to any other University or College.

Student's signature

(J. Mukamba)

Date

I, **DR. MADZIVIRE**, do hereby confirm that I supervised **JACOB MUKAMBA** throughout the course of his research.

Supervisor's signature

(DR. MADZIVIRE)

Date

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Credit also goes to the Graduate School of Management (GSM) and its lecturers for imparting the theoretical knowledge during the first two years of the MBA programme that formed the basis upon which I undertook this research project.

ABSTRACT

The study investigated the soft issues fundamental to the determinants of funding levels of local NGOs in Zimbabwe. Local level NGOs are indigenous non-profit making organisations who are owned and run by locals and they include organisations such as national NGOs, Faith-Based Organisations (FBOs) and Community-Based organisations (CBOs) whose activities fall within the functional categories of advocacy and service delivery. The overall objective of the study was to explore the determinants of funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe. The main hypothesis of the study stated that “the determinants of funding levels of local NGO in Zimbabwe is determined by factors other than the political image”. In endeavouring to measure the stated hypothesis, the study adopted an experimental research design which took the form of a descriptive survey. The study adopted a systematic random sampling technique to sample 100 respondents who were drawn from the local NGOs who constituted the studied sample. Data was collected using a structured research tool which was in the form of a five point Likert scale. Collected data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0. The findings were presented graphically using pie charts, histograms, bar graphs and statistical tables. The major findings of study indicated that soft issues played a catalytic role in the determinants of funding levels for local level NGOs in Zimbabwe. The soft issues that emerged prominent in the findings were sex of leader, network affiliation, and management style and market presence. Network affiliation and market presence were found to exert more weight compared to the sex of leaders and the management styles, in determining funding levels of local NGOs. The study produced landmark findings which give important clues to local level NGOs on the impact of soft issues in determining donor funding. The study has made significant theoretical contributions in that it has demonstrated the value of soft issues in determining funding for local level NGOs in Zimbabwe. This has been an inherent gap since local NGOs believed the narrative that NGO funding levels were affected by the political image of the country. The major recommendations of the study were that, local level NGOs should prioritise sprucing up soft issues which have been found to be key determinants for funding. This involves ensuring gender balanced management mix, forging like-minded coalition for local level NGOs, as well as making an aggressive market presence. The study concluded by suggesting areas for further research which included determining the impact of free entry and free exit on the determinants of local level NGO funding in Zimbabwe.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AusAID	Australian AID
CIVNET	Civic Network Education Trust
CBOs	Community-Based Organisations
DAG	Development Assistance Group
FBOs	Faith-Based Organisations
NANGO	National Association of Non-Governmental Organisations
NASCOH	National Association of Societies for the Care of the Handicapped
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PZAT	Pangea Zimbabwe Aids Trust
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
UDI	Unilateral Declaration of Independence
UZ	University of Zimbabwe
ZANU PF	Zimbabwe African Patriotic Front

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

This study investigated the effect of soft issues in determining the funding levels for Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in Zimbabwe. Local NGOs are defined by Echols (2015) as organisations which are non-profit oriented, principally independent from government, and are organized on a local, national or international level with the view of addressing issues in support of the public good. They depend on donor funding for their day to day financial needs. These organisations are instrumental in responding to humanitarian strife which is detrimental to sustainable development. As the social strife, economic disruption and political turmoil continue to escalate across the globe, the NGO sector has also been growing in correlation to the humanitarian need. This has escalated competition for donor funding particularly in developing countries due to the global shrinkage in the pool of donors. It is for this reason that the study focused on soft issues in resource attraction and retention with a bias towards exploring the determinants of funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe. Soft issues in resources allocation are intangible and non-salient aspects which are often trivialised in determining financing. These issues include gender, leadership style, and verbal and written communication, market presence and network affiliation.

1.2 Background of the Problem

The turn of the 21st century has witnessed a dramatic increase in the number of NGOs in Africa in general and in Zimbabwe in particular than ever before (Phillip, 2013). This followed a rapid increase in economic, environmental, social, and most importantly political upheavals that correlatively increased the vulnerability of citizens in Zimbabwe. Even though the 1980's was dubbed an NGO decade from the international community, the 21st century had a surge of local NGOs in Zimbabwe. The growth of local NGOs was more dramatic around the 1990's where local NGOs were initiated and registered (Mugo, 2015). The local NGOs are defined by Phillip (2013) as local and indigenous non-profit making organisations who are owned and run by locals and they include organisations such as national NGOs,

Faith-Based Organisations (FBOs), and Community-Based Organisations (CBOs) whose activities fall within the functional categories of advocacy and service delivery. These organisations are formed on the initiative of locals in response to a plethora of development problems inherent in Zimbabwe. These NGOs, according to West (2016), evolved an identity which was distinct from foreign NGOs. It is imperative to reiterate that even though local NGOs evolved to reflect the local culture, they perpetually remained dependent on donor funding as they could not attract sufficient local funding to sustain their operations. The evolution of local NGOs in Zimbabwe was driven by a desire to identify certain felt needs and experiences of local with the objective of finding local solutions to the development problems. Even though they are local, they still remained dependent on donor aid. This dependency, according to Mugo (2015), reflected the bad performance of Zimbabwe's economic performance, partly as a result of colonialism which obstructed the internal process of the state to formulate and partly as a result of political instability and corruption

Due to their indigenous flavour, local NGOs developed strong linkages with the rural poor and most marginalised communities around the country and they played an instrumental role in promoting inclusive and sustainable rural and livelihood development. The growth of local NGOs in general and in developing countries such as Zimbabwe in particular is according to Pray (2015) was a response to the interest of bilateral and multilateral donors who demonstrated a strong zeal to channel development funding through the local NGO sector. Interest to channel donor funds through local NGOs followed the wide concern by the international donors on the abuse and misappropriation of donor funds by governments in most African countries in general and Zimbabwe in particular.

Even though there is merit in the assertion that governments in developing countries such as Zimbabwe more often than not abuse and or misappropriate donor funding, Mugo (2015) rebutted this view by postulating that funding local NGOs by international donor community was a means of perpetuating the colonial legacy by international organisations by channelling funds, exert control and dictate funding allocation and programme development. Mugo's (2015) assertions follow the observation that local NGOs in Zimbabwe and most parts of Africa do not have total independence even if they might have evolved due to the influence of donor funding.

This thinking is reflected in the views of Dorman (2009) who reported that funding of local NGOs by the international donors has been overwhelming as evidenced by local media reports that an average \$471 million dollars flowed into the country annually from development agencies around the world. This accounted for an approximate 13 percent of the total government revenues in 2016. This is further corroborated by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2015) whose statistics indicated that Zimbabwe donor funding rose to around \$2. 6 billion between 2012 and 2014. Going by the reasoning of Mugo (2015), the increase in flow of funding for local NGOs follows the political turmoil that was more severe beginning of year 2000 to around 2016.

Although the total number of local NGOs could not be obtained from the National Association of Non-Governmental Organisations (NANGO), preliminary documents suggested that there could be over 1000. Despite that having many local NGOs is good for the country since it entails a wide coverage of key issues affecting humanity in Zimbabwe, NANGO expressed a concern that some of the so called local NGOs were not living up to their expectations as they were operating outside the confines of their objectives. This is despite the fact that they were heavy benefitters of foreign donor funding. After realizing such anomalies, international donors became a bit skeptical to continue funding local NGOs in Zimbabwe.

The scepticism was exacerbated by the global financial crisis and the great recession of 2008 (Fafchamps and Owens, 2008) which resulted in a dramatic decline in organisations and households participating in charitable giving from the international community. This has heightened the competition of local NGOs for donor funds in Zimbabwe. The global recession also compelled the international donor community to be thorough when scrutinising proposals for funding from local NGOs and this has resulted in what Moyo (2016) called “donor fatigue” in Zimbabwe. Many grants and donations were followed by restrictions which qualified and disqualified certain NGOs from donor funding.

Following the donor fatigue currently being experienced in Zimbabwe partly as a result of global recession and also partly as a result of donor perception towards Zimbabwe, it becomes prudent to investigate the impact of soft issues in determining funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe. This follows the observations on the general shift in the general donor funding priorities of foreign donors. Now that the establishment of local NGOs in

Zimbabwe was mainly based on donor funding, the shift in donor funding priorities spells tougher times ahead of local NGOs.

This is in sharp contrast with the United Nations Millennium Project Report (2005), the Commission for Africa Report (2005) and the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness of (2005) which advocated for an increase in donor aid as a conduit for achieving the Millennium Development Goals and reduce poverty, as well as its effects. The funding of local NGOs is compounded by the fact that the agendas for donors are not uniform as they depend on what they consider as priorities for funding and the strategies for intervention, coupled with increasing competition and limited resources. This is what makes it essential to establish the determinants of funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe as this would assist local NGOs to align their strategies with the expectations of donors. This is an area that has been affected by a paucity of research attention in Zimbabwe and this study is a direct endeavourer to plug this gap.

1.3 Research Problem

The financial crisis and the global recession that was experienced over the past decade or so has adversely impacted on donor funding of Zimbabwean local NGOs which are ardently dependent on donor funding. This happens at the backdrop of increased demand for services offered by local NGOs in response to escalation in social, economic and political tension in Zimbabwe. Despite the dwindling donor funding of local NGOs in Zimbabwe, a paucity on determinants of funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe still exist. Lack of evidence of studies that have attempted to establish the determinants of local NGO funding in the face of the global recession has incapacitated the ability of local NGOs to prepare winning proposals for funding. Even though it has been documented elsewhere that demonstrating a strong ability of financial administration is amongst the major determinates of local NGO funding, these assertions have never been contrasted in the Zimbabwean situation hence the study on the determinants of funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe.

1.4 Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to establish the variables that are considered prime by international donors before funding local NGOs in Zimbabwe. This is done in view of the dwindling global local NGO funding. As the competition for NGO funding has escalated, following the global recession, it is imperative to know the determinants of local NGO funding by foreign donors. This will go a long way in assisting local NGOs in leveraging themselves appropriately to increase the levels of funding in a competitive environment.

1.5 Objectives

The main objective of this study is to explore the effects of the soft issues in determining the funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe. This was achieved through the following specific objectives:

1.5.1 Specific objectives

- Interrogate the extent to which the resourcing level of local NGOs is affected by gender.
- To determine the extent to which network affiliation affects the funding levels of local NGOs
- Determine the magnitude that the management style has on funding levels of local NGOs
- To determine the scale of the contribution to funding by the market presence of the person heading local NGOs.

1.6 Research Questions

1. What is the impact of the gender dimension on the funding decision of local NGOs by international donors?

2. How does leadership style and level of resourcing affect funding decisions of local NGOs by international donors?
3. What is the relationship between the market presence of the leader of the local NGO and the resourcing levels it attracts?
4. What is the effect of membership to a network affiliation of like-minded NGOs on the resourcing levels?

1.7 Research Hypotheses

The study was conducted under the main hypothesis which stated that:

The funding levels of local NGOs in Zimbabwe are determined by factors other than the political image.

1.7.1 The specific hypothesis

The specific hypothesis which measured the factors other than political image are as follows:

H₁: The gender of the local NGO's leader influences the funding levels.

H₂: Leadership style influences the funding levels of a local NGO.

H₃: NGO leader's market presence influences resource mobilization.

H₄: Affiliation to a network affects the level of funding for a local NGO.

1.8 Scope of the study

The study focused on local NGOs that locate in Harare. Confining the study to Harare alone did not mean that they are the only ones experiencing donor fatigue in Zimbabwe. This was done to cushion the researcher from the logistical constraints since the study was self-funded. Focusing on local NGOs which are found in Harare was a deliberate ploy to give the study a rigor since would entail availing more resources to do an in-depth study. Due to the fact that

donor fatigue is a syndrome affecting all the local NGOs in Zimbabwe, the study is convinced that its findings would be applicable to local NGOs across the country.

1.9 Significance of the study

The study is very significant in that it is breaking new ground, particularly when considering that there is lack of evidence on studies that have investigated the determinants of funding levels for Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in Zimbabwe. In this regard, a study of this nature was long overdue, particularly when considering that local NGOs have been hit by a wave of donor fatigue. The findings and recommendations from this study will serve as a general springboard for benchmarking the proposals for funding by local NGOs in Zimbabwe. The milestones of the study are particularly inherent when considering its contribution to the following categories:

1.9.1 The academia

The study will make significant contributions to the academia in that they will be used as a case study and critique the donor tendencies when it comes to funding. Furthermore, the study will initiate debate amongst development practitioners, government officials and students, on whether international NGOs and the donors alike are critical instruments for development or they are just a strategy for perpetuating the colonial hegemony in Africa. This follows the assertion of Mugo (2015) that International NGOs and donors alike are nothing but a strategy to create the dependency syndrome and also to destabilise democratic regimes in Africa.

1.9.2 The Local NGOs

The study is likely to be very vital to local NGOs in that the findings and the recommendations will give them a clue on what to emphasise on during bidding for funding. Furthermore, the findings will give the local NGOs a lens for scanning the aspirations of donors so that they programme their strategies according to the invisible donor expectations. This might go a long way in ensuring success in funding bidding. This is regarded as a landmark study whose findings and recommendations unveils? the sincerity of foreign donors in Africa in general and in Zimbabwe in particular. In view of the fact that the government of

Zimbabwe has been cautioning donors and international NGOs to stop meddling in the local political landscape in Zimbabwe, the study comes at the right time for local NGOs to introspect and reflect on the terms of reference that normally accompany funding from the international donor community.

1.9.3 Theoretical contributions

Since there is currently a paucity of empirical studies that investigated the determinants of funding levels for Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in Zimbabwe, the study has made a bold stride to generate knowledge that will be useful to both the local NGOs and the Government of Zimbabwe. This is very important particularly when considering that there has been a standing blame game between the Government of Zimbabwe and the international NGOs, the findings and the recommendations of the study will set the records straight in that they will provide a point of reference. The null and alternative hypotheses that were developed resonated around the popular myth concerning the role and aspirations of foreign donors and NGOs. The findings will therefore prove or disprove this narrative. This is a major milestone when it comes to the theoretical contributions of this study. When preparing bids for funding, most organisations put more emphasis on the hard issues which are easily quantifiable at the expense of soft issues which are mostly qualitative.

1.9.3 Methodological contributions

The methodological contributions in the study are that it has developed a five-point scale which was used to measure the soft issues in determining funding levels for Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in Zimbabwe. Previous studies (Mugo, 2015; Pray, 2015: and West, 2016) that were done in Kenya, South Africa and India were mainly qualitative, where the interview guides were utilised as the sources of primary data. This study has, however, adopted a quantitative method and quantified the factors that are often considered by international donors in funding local NGOs. This has been the missing link in the cited studies, which is also the major methodological contribution of the study.

1.10 Operational definition of significant terms

The following terms constituted a prominent feature in the entire study and as such they are defined as follows:

Funding: In this study, funding is used to refer to resources such as money, equipment and facilities to local NGOs for the sole purpose of furthering organizational goals and objectives.

Local Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO): In this study, local NGOs are defined as local indigenous Organisations that include national NGOs, Faith-Based Organisations (FBOs), and Community-Based Organisations (CBOs) whose activities fall within the functional categories of advocacy and service delivery. Such Organisations are owned and run by Zimbabwean nationals.

Organizational governance structure: This refers to procedures, processes, rules and regulations that guide decision making in local NGOs.

Sustainability: This is the ability of local NGOs to build their own internal mechanisms and strategies that enable programs run beyond the period of funding.

Soft issues: This refers to qualitative issues which are considered when considering proposals for funding. The soft issues in this study refer to the gender aspects of management, management styles, market presence and networking.

1.11 The outline of the study

The study consisted of five chapters. Chapter one presented the research background and problem under investigation. The chapter laid the foundation for the entire study to take off. The significance of this chapter was that it outlined the research objectives and the research questions, and it also justified the study. Chapter two reviews literature on NGOs, with a bias towards identifying the considerations of donor community when evaluating proposals for funding local NGOs in Africa, focusing on Zimbabwe. This was done in order to connect the

current study to previous similar studies. Literature review helped the to identify the gap in the current body of knowledge on local NGO funding. The methodological roadmap to data collection and analysis was presented in chapter three. This is what Saunders et al. (2009) termed the research methodology. The analysis and presentation of the research findings was done in chapter four. This chapter was very important in that it presented the empirical primary findings that were used to add on to the current knowledge on local NGO operations and funding. The study was summed up in chapter five where the discussion of the findings, the presentation of the research conclusions and the recommendations was done.

1.12 Summary

This chapter explored the background to the study. It was in this background that the study was placed into context with research studies related to the work under investigation. An analysis of the problem was made, and the research questions were articulated. Furthermore, the purpose and significance of the study were highlighted. This chapter also discussed the aims and objectives of the study and articulated the theoretical framework that guided the study. It also looked at the limitations and delimitations of the study and defined terms used in this document. The next chapter will focus on a review of related literature.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews and discusses literature pertinent to Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO) funding and the fundamentals underpinning NGO funding by international donors. The chapter begins by giving a brief discussion on the historical evolution of civil society, a broad term that is used to refer to NGOs. This is done in order to establish the theoretical foundations of the study. A discussion of the various legislation governing NGO operations and funding is also presented. This is done in order to put the study into context. Issues to do with the factors that are considered critical by international donors when assessing the funding fitness of proposals from international donors are also presented.

2.2 The concept of Non-Governmental Organisations

Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs) are corporations which are legally constituted (Wilson, 2007). These organisations can be established by? natural persons or they can still be established by the government. The concept of NGOs, according to Rashid (2005), was originated by the United Nations. The term NGOs refers to Organisations which are not part of government and are also not part of conventional for-profit businesses (Younas, 2008). Regardless of whether they are wholly or partially funded by governments, they maintain their non-governmental status (Wilson, 2007). This is achieved through excluding government representatives from membership in the organization. The rational of NGOs worldwide basically pursue social aims that have political aspects, even though they may not be openly political Organisations such as political parties (Edmong, 2014).

According to the World Bank (2013) and Edmond (2014), NGOs are defined as private, not-for-profit making Organisations that are established to relieve the suffering of people, protect the environment, promote the interests of the poor, and undertake community development. Green (2012) defined NGOs as the not-for-profit-making Organisations who operate outside of direct state control. The common denominator in these definitions is that they all concur that NGOs are legal entities that are non-profit making and that are also free from state control and intervention. The other commonality from the given definitions is that NGOs

have a social mission of serving the poor and the under-served populations. Hansen and Tarp (2013) gave a list of organisations that fit into the definition of NGOs. The list included the following organisations: church-run hospitals, social welfare organizations as well as unions and trade or professional associations.

Due to their non-profit orientation, governments regard NGOs as the facilitators of change whose contributions are essential to the achievement of development goals (Hawkins and Mann, 2007). As a result, governments across the globe have highlighted the indispensability of collaboration between NGOs. As such, Gichema (2012) reiterated that they encouraged the establishment of community-based Organisations (CBOs) to harness village-level participation in development efforts. Edmond (2014) orated the widely held belief that involvement of NGOs in the health-related services in developing countries can be traced to the 18th century and these NGOs were initiated by the early missionaries. This is also true of the faith based NGOs. Edmond (2014), however, noted that the involvement of non-religious NGOs in health activities in Africa is fairly recent development which is as young as 100 years.

According to Easterly and Williamson (2011), NGO involvement in developing countries is traced to the post-World War II. Their activities were restricted to emergency and disaster times where they only supported in the rehabilitation of war victims. Thereafter, NGOs who broadened their scope to include developmental activities, which included health aspects, began to emerge even though most of them continued to restrict their activities to emergency (Edmond, 2014).

Since then, a plethora of NGOs and other civil society Organisations have emerged exponentially and they have become the buzzword in the development arena (Turary, 2011). Ever since their emergence, Van Sant (2003) and Nuscheler (2001) viewed developmental NGOs as the magic bullet that, when fired in any direction, would not miss its target. There are, however, some pockets of scholars such as Echols (2015) and West (2016) who argue that developmental NGOs are not magic bullets but just a bunch of overestimated actors on the national and international political stage. Interestingly, Carbone (2017) ambushed the arguments of Echols (2015) and West (2016) by likening the increasing importance of NGOs to an “association revolution”, which is comparable in importance with the rise of the nation state in the nineteenth century.

2.3 The brief historical development of Civil Society (NGOs) in Zimbabwe

The term Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO's), according to Mugambi (2016), was first used by the United Nations (UN) as far back as 1945. It originated from the zeal by UN when it intended to distinguish in its charter between the participation rights of private international Organisations and the specialized intergovernmental agencies (NGO Coordination Act, 1990). This distinction comes with the resolution that NGOs should never be regarded as profit-making organisations and that they should neither be governmental nor inter-governmental Organisations (Mugambi, 2016). The binding principle of NGOs was that they should be established with the reason of bringing together persons who share the common goal of achieving the common objective geared towards the uplifting of the quality of life and rights of the most vulnerable groups for the society.

The involvement of international NGOs and the development of local NGOs in Zimbabwe, according to Manyuchi (2012), has a long historical background which can be traced to as far back as the early 1890s. Before the coinage of the term NGO by the UN in 1945, these organisations were regarded as civil society (Mugambi, 2016). Even to date, the term civil society and NGOs are used interchangeably. According to Manyuchi (2012), NGOs were first introduced in Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe) as a solution to colonialism which criminalized the involvement of blacks in all forms of political activities. Prior to independence in 1980, social movements and gatherings such as, trade unions, student groups, community Organisations and political parties in the black community were prohibited. This was a deliberate ploy by the Smith regime to trample upon and relegate indigenous black communities to permanent political exclusion (Manyuchi, 2012).

The involvement of NGOs in the internal affairs of government was stopped by Ian Douglas Smith who was the Prime Minister of Rhodesia and had rebelled from Britain and made Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) in 1965. It was at the declaration of UDI that NGOs first came to Rhodesia under the cover of advancing humanitarian aid and civic rights (Manyuchi, 2012). According to Moyo (2016), the irony of the NGOs that came immediately after UDI was that they spread information that to the international community that human rights abuse was very rampant in Rhodesia. This information was used as the basis for attracting more donor funding. Ironically though, Mugo (2015) noted that the funds were mainly used to smuggle nationalist leaders outside the country and also to fund the education

of liberation war prisoners and under-privileged citizens who had a potential of overthrowing the Smith regime (NGO Consultancy Africa, 2007). As a result of heightened campaign against human rights abuse by the Rhodesian Government, the international community slapped Rhodesia with economic sanctions (Mugambi, 2016). These NGOs forged secret relations with the liberation movements and gave them financial and technical support to organize an armed struggle against the Smith regime.

When Zimbabwe attained its independence in 1980, the government sidelined the NGOs that helped it to wage the armed struggle. This was after the formation of the Zimbabwe African Patriotic Front (ZANU PF) which was a union between the two liberation parties ZANU and ZAPU after the Matabeleland and Midlands disturbances in 1987 (Moyo,2016). This did not go down well with the NGOs and campaigns to discredit the newly formed patriotic front mounted. The reason was that its formation had made it a sole representative of the people of Zimbabwe (Mugo, 2015).

Furthermore, ZANU PF was formed and arranged in a manner that made it mandatory for all the civic society organisations to be incorporated into its structures as it had declared itself as the sole representative of the people. This was followed by fierce resistance by international NGOs and this, according to NGO Consultancy Africa (2007), Moyo (2016) and Mugambi (2016), became the launchpad for local NGOs. According to Raftopoulos (2009), the formation of local NGOs in post-independence period had some strong resemblance of the international NGOs who came to Sothern Rhodesia after Smith had rebelled from the British government and declared UDI.

2.4 The theoretical formwork

The theoretical underpinnings of the study are basically the principal agency theory, the resources based theory and the complexity theory.

2.4.1 The Principal Agency Theory.

The agency theory, according to Mugambi (2014), explains the relationship between parties whereby one represents the other. Adhiambo (2012) stated that the agency theory explains the relationships that exist between the donors and local NGOs, whereby the local NGOs act as

the representative of the donor in humanitarian aid. Basing on the principles of agency theory, the foreign aid is viewed as the donor whilst the agency is actually the donor, while the agent is viewed as the beneficiary of the resources. The theory is explaining the donor aid in relation to the delegation of services. Thus the donor gives their money as aid so that it can be used to alleviate humanitarian crisis on their behalf.

By fulfilling the terms and conditions of the donor, who is in this case is seen as the agent, the local NGO abides to the terms and conditions of the agent and put to use the aid as prescribed. Milner (2008) applied the agent theory in demonstrating the domestic politics in donor countries. He explained that when the principals (taxpayers) feel that the agent (Aid agency) is not satisfying their interests in humanitarian aid through using the funds they might have contributed for development, the agency simply shifts their goals and channel the humanitarian aids through multilateral Organisations. The application of the agency theory in understanding the determinants of funding levels for Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in Zimbabwe is that when the local NGOs do not exhibit compliance with requirements of the donor, they may not receive funding as the donor may simply shift the attention to other local NGOs from other countries. This reasoning implies that local NGOs are not local and independent from foreign manipulation as the name suggest. This validates the postulation of Mugo (2015) that NGOs are simply a conduit of perpetuating the colonial legacy.

2.4.2 The resource-based theory

The resource-based theory, according to Anderson and Weitz (2013), explains how humanitarian aid organisations may enjoy competitive advantage and efficient performance over others, by making use of the available resources which can either be tangible (physical) or intangible (non-physical) in nature. Using the resource-based theory, NGOs are viewed as conduits of resources which are brought together, mainly for ensuring the financial resources of donors are used to further their aspirations.

The theory postulates that donors scrutinize the inside and external environment of the local NGO before deciding on whether to invest their funds or not (Chapman and Austin, 2006). For donors to fund local NGOs, Easterly and Williamson (2011) stated that they first of all look at the three “Cs” Competence, Capital, and Contacts. “Competence”, according to

Williamson (2011) assesses whether the local NGO will be able to meet donor targets, “Capital” assesses whether the local NGO has competent human resources necessary to effectively implement the meet donor specifications, whilst “Contacts” looks at the traceable references of the local NGO. The ability of local NGOs to satisfy the three ‘C’ criteria enables it qualify for donor funding.

2.4.3 The complexity theory

The complexity theory explains the nonlinear dynamic systems as it ties to local NGOs and foreign donor requirements in a unique pattern in the environment. The theory, according to Font et al. (2012), originated from the physical and biological sciences contexts. It was, however, migrated to social, ecological and economic systems because it was perfectly suited for explaining nonlinear relationships between donors and local NGOs’ operations. The theory explains the complex and often unpredictable behavior of donors when it comes to arriving at funding decisions. According to Gichema (2012), the complexity theory is premised on the assumption that donors are flexible beings and their behaviour is influenced by variations in the environment of local NGOs. As such, they need to constantly adjust and accommodate unexpected changes in the local NGO environment and incorporate these changes in their strategic planning.

The theory makes cognizance that NGOs do not operate in a vacuum and that they are prone to the dynamics of the environment. As a result, Hansen and Tarp (2013) advised that due to such dynamisms, local NGOs should not only rely on donor funding for survival. They should be resourceful and devise other means of raising local funds. This is essential in addressing cases of donor fatigue and changes donor policies. The complexity theory is closely linked to the resource-based theory in that it encourages NGOs to be creative and innovative.

2.5 The NGO funding environment

Local NGOs in Zimbabwe depend on donor funding for survival. The reason for depending on donor funds for survival, according to Mugo (2015), is a result of the bad performance of most African States and also as a result of colonialism which obstructed internal processes of the state to formulate sound development agendas. However, it is important to reiterate that

the funding of local NGOs is affected by a host of factors and, chief among them being, the funding environment.

The funding environment for NGOs has dramatically changed since the turn of the century. This has been necessitated by instabilities in world economic affairs, with the global recession and the financial crisis of around 2008/2009 being the main causes. This, according to Echols (2015), has affected the operations of local NGOs as the foreign donors are no longer as forthcoming as they used to be. This has adversely threatened the progress that has been made to reduce poverty and other worst form of humanitarian crisis in Africa. As local NGOs rely on the goodwill of donors to cover the cost of their activities, Viravaidya and Hayssen (2001) asserted that the funding landscape has changed now as most grants and donations now carry tight restrictions. Most of the restrictions limit donor funds to direct costs associated with programmes. They no longer seem interested in supporting services or other day to day overheads. This was also expressed by Smit (2005) who noted local NGOs are increasingly finding it difficult to obtain funding aimed at meeting their operational costs, as most donors are now concentrating on funding projects in which direct service delivery results were readily apparent.

According to Santos (2014), the global financial crisis compelled Australia to cut its 2014-15 budget and also merged its Australian AID (AusAID) with government agency. This was done to ensure that all aid dissemination would be through the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (DFAT). The stringent funding environment comes at a time when the humanitarian crisis is swelling across the globe. For instance, the year 2013 was affected by a global humanitarian crisis characterised by wars with affected millions of lives in Syria, the Central African Republic and Philippines (Global Humanitarian Assistance Report (GHA), 2014). This crisis saw donor priorities being shifted towards the humanitarian aid in these states. This obviously meant that attention for funding local NGOs from Africa had to be shelved. This gesture, according to Mugambi (2016), is because UN had described these countries a highest priority emergency. The dwindling donor funding comes at a time when UN is calling for donors to fund the African continent in a bid to ensure the implementation of the Millennium Development Goals.

2.6 The Donor Funding Practices

The restrictive prescriptions for donor funding has complicated the accessibility of donor funds in most developing countries. This, according to Mugo (2015), is because the donors are not aware of the circumstances of various African countries who provide proposals for donor funding. Mugambi (2016), however, suggested that it would be prudent for donors to be flexible and take time to understand different circumstances of states that bid for funding. This view was also upheld by Philip (2013), who stated that it was paramount for donors to communicate coherently with partner governments on their expectations, as this will enable them to make informed and constructive choices. According to OECD (2005) report, there is need for a lead donor representing all donors working in respective sectors. This would enable the establishment of coherence between the various donors and the local NGOs.

Philip (2013) reiterated that one of the cardinal funding practices of donors should be to ensure that the evaluation criteria of bids for funding should be based on credible and sound information. This implies a need for the recognition towards empirical evidence and the founding principles in the donor analysis of proposals for local NGOs. According to Viravaidya and Hayssen (2001), there are various donors funding different projects from developing nations. These, according to Rashid (2005), could be bilateral donors (national cooperation/development aid agencies), multilateral (World Bank, United Nations Development Programme, Asian Development Bank, European Union), NGOs, and foundations.

Even though most African countries have a strong belief that the funding decisions of these donors are affected by the political factors, Turary (2011) is of the view that the funding decisions are mainly influenced by self-interest of the donors. This, therefore, validates the assertion by Mugo (2015) that the reason why most local NGOs fail to access funding is simply because they will not be aware of the expectations of the donors. This also has the effect of swaying local donors towards implementing projects that suit the aspirations of the external donors at the expense of local developmental needs. This view is reflected in the historical overview of NGO development in Zimbabwe, whereby the international attention to human rights abuse only became paramount after the deceleration of UDI in 1965. This also followed the mushrooming of local NGOs in Zimbabwe after the 1987 unity accord

which saw ZANU PF side-lining NGOs that had played a crucial role in sponsoring the liberation struggle.

According to Wislon (2012), donors tend to channel more funds to countries where they have self-interest, as compared to countries which they consider hostile to them. Anderson and Clist (2011) noted that donors have a tendency of allocating aid to local NGOs whose countries are considered as moral and acceptable by the donor country. This, however, has a danger of directing funds to countries which are in less need at the expense of countries in dire need. This assertion follows the observations of Vanessa (2014) who alluded that the funding tendencies of donors, more often than not, go beyond aid allocation to include their commitment, flexibility, and control, among others.

2.7 The influence of governance of Local NGOs on funding

The governance of local NGOs, according to Rashid (2005), has an effect on the decisions to fund local NGOs by both the local and international donors. This was also noted by Williamson (2010) who pointed out with great concern that, when it comes to the management systems, most local NGOs are found wanting as they do not even have the basic structures such as, clearly defined organizational chart, fixed premises facilities, equipment and human resources. In this view, Lotsmart (2007) asserted that local NGOs fail to receive local funding because they do not have structures that convince local donors. This was also upheld by Molomo and Somolekae (2013) who stated that the major weakness of NGOs across Africa is that they have inappropriate organizational structures and this has an impact on the way in which these NGOs carry out their core business. This is the reason why it is not easy for local NGO to generate funds locally.

Having clearly defined operational structures which are supported by well-structured organisational structures is important for local NGOs to attract donor funding. This assertion exhibits the resource-based theory whereby the three “Cs” are pivotal in influencing donor funding decisions. Having clearly defined structures which are supported by vision and mission statements is a step in the right direction if local NGOs want to attract donor funding. Wilson (2007) buttressed this view by stating that local NGOs who have a distinct board exhibit sound corporate governance and monitoring mechanisms. This is critical when it comes to funding choices by international donors. This, therefore, implies that local NGOs

ought to adopt a corporate structure in order for them to be run effectively, and this is a good benchmark for donor funding.

Younas (2008) furthered this view when he stated that the sustainability of local NGOs is closely associated with good governance. This, according to Younas (2008), is influenced by many factors such as, management capacity, commitment, environmental, political and a lot other socio-cultural factors. The fact that NGOs are based on voluntary action makes it very important for them to be very accountable in their operations. The accountability is exhibited by the management systems which are reflected in the organisational chart. This is the reason why government created legal instruments for regulating NGO governance. According to UNDP (2009), the effectiveness in the governance of NGOs should be based on how governing rules are followed.

2.8 Donor Funding Policies

The funding policies of donors, according to Hawkins and Mann (2007), are influenced by the UN's call for concerted efforts against poverty and all forms of deprivation. In this view, humanitarian crisis and deprivation, according to World Bank (2012), can also be effectively dealt with through external aid. As such, the UN encouraged that donor practices and policies should be attuned to government-steered poverty reduction-related practices. In this regard, Jhuthi (2015) postulated that The Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), which is the brainchild of the G-7 governments' 1999's Cologne annual meeting that was comprised of leaders from industrialised countries, committed to the Enhanced Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Initiative. The summit gave key guidelines for rationalizing and coordinating global aid flows to needy economies such as those from developing countries like Zimbabwe.

Okun (2009) pointed out that even though the G7 summit guidelines influenced a shift from traditional conditionality, with the aim of achieving shared outcomes, this shift encourages donors to re-align their aid disbursements methods and policies in line with the spirit and goals of PRSP. The UNDP (2016) hailed the PRSP as having been positive in changing how donors draft their policies and procedures. This has, in a way, enabled local NGOs from developing countries, such as Zimbabwe, to access funding. As a result of PRSP, some donors are now funding countries, whilst others are supporting budgets of developing countries, using a framework of sector-wide approaches (SWAPs). The arms of UNDP and

World Bank, operating in Africa, have rallied various donors and lenders towards scaling up aid through Development Assistance Group (DAG).

2.9 The Research Gap

The reviewed literature has established that academic attention on NGOs globally and also in developing economies has been rampant from the 18th century. However, despite such an enlightening attention, the determinants of funding levels for local NGOs from developing countries such as Zimbabwe tended to be overlooked. A few studies that paid hazy research attention on this issue were recorded by Fafchamps and Owens (2009), and these studies were conducted in Ugandan and Kenya. This study is concerned with identifying the determinants of funding levels of local NGOs by international donors in Zimbabwe. A thorough search of local literature on similar studies led to the observation that such studies were nonexistent. This, therefore, exposes a gap that needs to be addressed by a study of this nature and magnitude.

To date, local NGOs have been relying on the narratives that the funding of local NGOs in Zimbabwe is affected by the political image. This narrative negated other impotent variables such as, management systems, corporate governance, human capital and operational integrity and moral hazards which, according to UNDP (2016), the World Bank (2015) and the UN (2017), are the pivot of attracting donor funding. Basing on this observation, the study is premised to generate empirical knowledge that has been lacking for decades, which when given the attention it deserves, might be catalytic to local NGO funding in Zimbabwe.

The merits of this study are that the findings will provide information to local NGOs on how to craft their bidding proposals for international donor funding. Key issues that were raised in the theoretical framework such as the 3 “Cs” from the resource-based theory appear to be given little regard by local NGOs in Zimbabwe. This is because there has been a paucity of domestic studies on the determinants of donor funding of local NGOs in Zimbabwe. The preliminary literature that was presented in the background on this study insinuated that moral hazards, weak corporate governance and the non-existence of clearly defined organisational charts were common features in the operations of local NGOs in Zimbabwe.

Such shortfalls surely call for domestic studies proffer the way forward for Zimbabwean local NGOs so that their bids for donor funding can be found appealing to international donors.

2.10 Conceptual Framework

Basing on the findings of the reviewed literature, the study proposed the following conceptual framework, which was influenced by the hypotheses that were stated in chapter one of the study. The framework is comprised of the independent variables which were identified as, leadership sex; leadership styles; markets presence and network affiliation.

The moderating variable under the proposed framework is, donor funding available for Zimbabwe, whilst the dependent variables concerns the level of funding for individual (local) NGOs in Zimbabwe. The independent variables will be studied and regressed to measure their influence on the deterrments of funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe. The essence of the conceptual framework is that by measuring and operationalizing the variables, any of the stated hypotheses (H_0 and H_1) will either be accepted or rejected. This will provide significant contributions to the scarce knowledge on the determinant of local level NGOs funding in Zimbabwe.

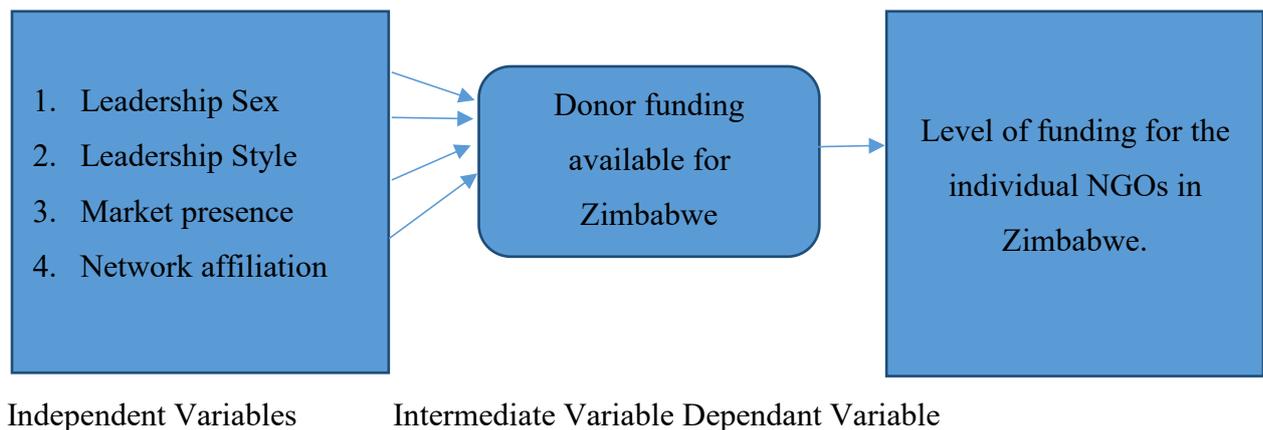


Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework annotation
Source: Primary

How do you determine the funding available for Zimbabwe (intermediate variable) and how does that determine the level of funding when there are other determinants as per literature

review? In my view, the intermediate variable in this conceptual framework, according to the literature covered in a misnomer. I see a direct arrow from the independent variables to the dependent variable – Funding available to NGOs

2.11 Chapter Summary

The chapter has reviewed and discussed literature related to issues under investigation. The chapter traced the historical development of NGOs in Zimbabwe. This was followed by thorough discussion of the theories that underpinned the funding levels for Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in Zimbabwe. The donor funding policies and the funding environment was also discussed. The major highlight of the reviewed literature was that, before donors arrive at a decision to fund local NGOs, they go through a series of decision making processes. The decision making processes are then influenced by the qualifying criteria, which is mostly based on the expectations of the donors. The reviewed literature also highlighted a number of issues that make local NGOs fail to attract foreign donors. These factors include, management structures, corporate governance, human capital and transparency.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the methodological roadmap to research findings which Saunders et al. (2012) described as the fruits of the researcher's labour. The research methodology, according to Kothari (2004) and Mondo (2015), refers to the steps that researchers follow when investigating a research problem. The methodology alludes to the logic behind various methods that are used in the research context and it elaborates what makes researchers to prefer particular research approaches over others. Likewise, the chapter is fundamental to the study in that it outlines the stages that were followed in collecting and analyzing data on the determinants of funding for local NGOs in Zimbabwe. The chapter pays particular attention to the research design, the research philosophy, the research population and the sampling procedures that were followed.

3.2 The research philosophy

The research philosophy has been defined by Alavi and Carlson (2010) as the world views of researchers about knowledge development and processes involved. Saunders et al. (2009) understood the research philosophy as concerned with how reality is created. Similarly, Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) has the contending views on what constitutes a valid research paradigm and the most appropriate methods for investigating a given phenomenon. These debates, according to Stern (2004), revolve around positivism (deductive reasoning) and interpretivism (inductive reasoning). According to Burrell and Morgan (2010), positivists advocate for the examination of the regularities and relationships between variables, whilst the interpretivists are concerned with how individuals make meaning of the world around them.

Persuaded by the philosophical deductions on knowledge development and acquisition, the study adopted a positivist philosophical stance which advances an argument that social phenomenon can only be understood through hypothesis testing and objectively measuring

the association between the dependent and the independent variables. Thus, the study is ardent on the persuasion that, for knowledge to be valid, it should be backed by observable facts that are dictated by universal laws and theoretical models. This stance is backed by Hughes (2012), who postulated that the only valid and logical way of understanding social phenomena is through observing and studying hard facts following the principles of scientific laws which are influenced by mathematical guidelines and formal logic.

3.3 Research Design

A research design is an overall plan that one chooses in a proper and systematic manner to carry out a research study (Creswell, 2009). It is the road map that decides the greatest fitting way to take when executing the research. Accordingly, Denzin and Lincoln (2005) proffered that a design is a blueprint of procedures that researchers use to collect, analyse, interpret and present their research data. Research designs guide the means and judgments that academics make throughout their studies and set the reasoning which they use to understand their discoveries. Kothari (2014) pointed out that the choice of a research design is influenced by the philosophical worldview of the researchers.

Since the researcher is pursued by the deductive reasoning which views knowledge as only valid and logical if its acquisition follows standardised scientific laws which are backed by mathematical guidelines and formal logic, the determinants of funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe can best be investigated by quantitatively measuring the causal relationship between funding determinants (independents variable), and the funding levels which is the (dependent variable) This justifies the preference for an experimental research design.

The study preferred an experimental research design because of the need to test theory against the main hypothesis which stated that, “*The funding levels of local NGOs in Zimbabwe are determined by factors other than the political image*”. The experimental design enabled the study to collect structured data that supported and/ or refuted the stated hypothesis.

3.4 Research approach

The research approach, according to Saunders et al. (2009), concerns the traditional distinctions between inductive (qualitative) and deductive (quantitative), and these distinctions determine the nature and type of data that should be collected to answer the research questions. According to Remenyi et al. (2010), the research approach is at the pivot of any research process due to the fact that it spells out the overall direction and process to be followed when executing research. The choice of a research approach, according to Kothari (2014), is influenced by the philosophical world view of the researcher. Due the fact that the study adopted an experimental research design which depicts the positivist philosophical orientation of the researcher, a deductive research approach was adopted in this study.

The study preferred a deductive approach because of the need to empirically test the main hypothesis which predicted a positive correlation between the determinants of funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe. The decision to opt for a deductive approach was arrived at after considering that there was a need to apply the scientific laws and mathematical logic in investigating the determinants of funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe. The other reason for the preference of a deductive approach was the need to generalise the research findings. This followed the findings of Hughes (2012) who hailed deductive research approaches for their stamina in maximizing objectivity, replicability and the generalizability of the research findings, due to the fact that these approaches are typically based on scientific prediction.

3.5 Research strategy

Research strategy, according to Saunders et al. (2009), entails the procedures of the methods employed by researchers in order to gather data that, when analysed, could provide answers to the research questions. According to Yin (2009), case study, survey, experiment, grounded theory, ethnography and action research, are the common forms of research strategy. Saunders et al. (2009) apportioned these forms of research strategies to positivism and interpretivism. For this study, which is a positivism strategy, the survey strategy was adopted, and the justification is explained below.

3.5.1 Surveys

This study preferred a survey research strategy because of the need to gather large sums of data from respondents on the subject matter of determinants of NGO funding levels. According to Xenos and Christoduolakis (1997), surveys are quantifiable and allow the application of more sophisticated analysis techniques appropriate to various Organisations. Additionally, the survey method is a popular and common strategy in business and management research which is usually associated with the deductive approach (Saunders et al., 2009). The survey strategy was preferred because of the need to collect large amounts of data from the study population in a highly economical way. Furthermore, the study adopted a survey strategy because of the need to use a standardised research tool. This gave easy comparison of responses and gave the researcher more control over the study.

3.6 Population and sampling techniques

The research population, according to Parahoo (1997), refers to the total number of units from which data can be collected. These could be persons, objects, occasions or organisations. Burns and Grove (2003) describe population as all the essentials that meet the criteria for addition in a study. Burns and Grove (2003) define eligibility criteria as a list of features that are required for the affiliation in the target population.

The research population for this study comprised of all the registered local NGOs who are registered with the National Association of Non-Governmental Organisations (NANGO). Even though the actual number of local NGOs which are registered with NANGO could not be established, an analysis of the NANGO database which was made in the 1st of February 2008 gave a total of 267 registered NGOs. These NGOs were operating in various areas of Health, Human Rights Activism, Relief, and Child Rights Protection. The reason that was given by NANGO for not having a comprehensive data base of local NGOs was that some of the registration of local NGOs with NANGO was voluntary. The study therefore considered the 276 local NGOs as the research population.

3.7 Sample Size

Polit et al (2001) define a sample as “a proportion of a population”. The sample was chosen from NGOs headquartered in Harare. A carefully selected sample can provide data representative of the population from which it is drawn. A sample size (n) of 25 was used for this study. This represents 9.4% of the population. The number 25 was chosen due to possible convenience of the selected organisations, as well as dispersion of their mandate to allow for a representative sampling and extrapolation of the population results.

3.8 Sampling procedure

The sampling procedure, according to Kumar (2013), described the procedures or stages that are followed when drawing the desired sample of respondents from the population. The choice of a sampling procedure is determined by the research strategy adopted and the type of data that need to be collected. Since this study is based on a survey research strategy, a probability sampling method was chosen. Reasons behind the preference for a probability sampling was influenced by Saunders et al. (2009) who recommended probability sampling methods for studies that adopt survey research strategies because of the need to collect large volumes of data and also the need to generalise the research findings. The sampling procedures available under probability sampling, according to Kothari (2014), include simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, stratified random sampling and cluster sampling.

Of these, the study adopted a systematic random sampling. The sampling process involves the researcher randomly sampling the first element followed by a systematic interval of sampling the subsequent elements (1/N). Using this techniques, the study selected the 10th value from the list of the local NGOs that were provided from NANGO data base. That is, the researcher went through the data base and picked the every 10th NGO from the list. The procedure was repeated until 25 NGOs were sampled for the study. From the list of the sampled 25 local NGOs, the researcher then purposively picked four (4) senior employees from each of the local NGOs, and this gave a total of 100 respondents. The reason for choosing the top four (4) from each of the sampled NGOs was because senior employees are

the ones involved in preparing bidding proposals for funding and also in the overall administration of the NGO.

3.9 Research instrument

A research instrument is the general term that researchers use for a measurement device (tests, questionnaire, and others) when conducting studies. Survey research is a frequently used technique of collecting data about a population. There are numerous types of surveys, a number of means to manage them, and several approaches of sampling. There are two key features of survey research:

- Questionnaires -- a predefined sequence of enquiries used to gather information from people
- Sampling -- a method in which a subsection of the population is carefully chosen to answer the survey enquiries; the data collected can be generalized to the whole population.

For this study, a questionnaire was chosen, and a set of questions were designed to capture the elements of each chosen variable for testing. As the interviewees were widely spaced around the city, it was preferable to physically administer the questionnaire. The collection process was however slowed down by the pending election as some respondents were busy with election monitoring and press conferences. This affected collection and compilation as the set timeframes had to be moved further and resulted in a delay in project submission.

What strategy to use in the research, according to Yin (2009), will be determined by looking at different conditions. These (conditions) are: the type of research question posed, the extent of the control an investigator has over actual behavioural events and the degree of focus on complementary, as opposed to historical events.

In this study, data was collected for those control variables that were related to the respondents such as, gender, age, period of employment (experience), level of education, and the rank one holds. In addition, data on leadership style, network affiliation and market presence were collected. The questionnaire is as shown on Appendix 1. Survey questions were uniformly structured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (from [1] strongly disagree to [5]

strongly agree). These items were largely derived from Yukl, Gordon and Tabert (2002) and they have been validated and used in previous studies. Closed-end questions were used throughout the questionnaire. Closed-end questions are used when possible answers or responses are pre-specified by the researcher but what is not known is the frequency of the response and this was the case for this study.

The dependent variable of interest was funding levels of NGOs, which was measured in terms of cash resources available to an entity and the ability to continue programming over a 5-year period. Hofstede's (2011), together with Denison and Mishra's (1995) dimensions of organizational cultural practices were used as a theoretical base for the interview questions. The layout of the questionnaire was kept simple to encourage important and concise participation by the respondents. Cooper and Schindler (2003) concluded that appearance and layout of the questionnaire is of great importance in any survey, especially where the questionnaire is to be completed by the respondents and this questionnaire followed this guidance.

3.10 Pilot Test

To collect data, the researcher developed, and pilot tested a survey questionnaire on 10 trial participants. Of importance was to establish from these respondents if they judged the chosen determinants of funding levels for NGOs to be adequate in the given context.

Furthermore, it was important to establish whether the organizational cultural practices covered in the questionnaire were the ones that greatly influenced funding for NGOs locally. Information obtained from the respondents led to the dropping out of certain questions that were considered irrelevant and led to the revision of the wording of certain questions so that they were easily understood.

3.11 Data collection procedure

Kumar (2012) defined data collection as the systematic gathering of information on variables of interest. The data collection process is amongst the most important components of the research process which enable researchers to find answers to stated research questions, test

hypotheses, and evaluate outcomes. There are basically two data collection methods according to Kumar (2012) and these are secondary and primary data collection procedures. This study utilised both forms of data collection as discussed below.

3.11.1 Secondary data collection

The secondary data for the study was collected from published material such as, magazines books, journals and also from the internet. The internal records of the sampled NGOs were also used as vital sources of secondary data. These were basically the funding records, the bidding for funding proposals and operational documentation of the sampled NGOs. The reviewed literature which is also another important source of secondary data was analysed in detail and the findings were presented in chapter two. The secondary data was very useful in shaping the research tool and also for buttressing the primary findings.

3.11.2 Primary data collection

The primary data is defined by Kothari (2014) as first-hand information that is gathered verbatim by the researcher. In order to collect the primary data, a structured research tool in the form of a 5 point Likert Scale was used. The tool which was self-administered was hand distributed to the sampled respondents and they were given 7 working days to complete it. The researcher went and hand collected the questionnaires afterwards for data analysis.

3.11 Data processing and analysis

Analysing data from observations and interviews started with segmenting findings according to sub-research questions. As different items are identified, similarities and differences between and among them were separated. The researcher then transcribed and studied the recorded responses to establish noted relationships. A statistical software, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel were used to help narrate this information for analysis.

3.12 Validity and reliability

To ensure validity, follow-up questions are planned and considered for use during and after the interviews to reach a high validity. This aspect is inspired by literature as expounded by Henriksson and Johannesson (2004).

Validity is also primarily concerned with the idea that the research design fully addresses the research questions and objectives. Data is valid if it provides a true picture of what is being studied, in this instance, are they soft issues we have missed in the past that help local NGOs to resource from donors?

Reliability can be thought of as consistency. Does the instrument consistently measure what it is planned to measure? It is not conceivable to gauge reliability; nevertheless, there are four overall estimators that you may meet in reading research as discussed below.

- a) *Inter-Rater/Observer Reliability*: The degree to which different raters/observers give consistent answers or estimates.
- b) *Test-Retest Reliability*: The consistency of a measure evaluated over time.
- c) *Parallel-Forms Reliability*: The reliability of two tests constructed the same way, from the same content.
- d) *Internal Consistency Reliability*: The consistency of results across items, often measured with Cronbach's Alpha.

Using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), these aspects of validity and reliability were tested on the questionnaires administered for this study. To ensure that errors of any nature in the data gathering instrument are up to standard before distributing instruments, a pilot study is conducted to check on validity and reliability. Creswell et al. (2010) suggest that in all cases, it is essential that newly constructed instruments in their semi-final form be tested before administration in the main study. Validity and reliability was also guaranteed through careful sampling, and appropriate instrumentation.

3.13 Ethical Considerations

Confidentiality and identity protection is part of the formative basis for the research. Respondents were promised confidentiality and non-exposure of their identities, Organisations and no direct link of their information sources. They were assured that the study was purely educational and should assist them and other entities in the future, as they formulate strategies to increase funding levels from donor funds. All respondents had informed consent, after due explanation was given to them by the researcher.

3.14 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented and discussed the methods that were followed to investigate the determinants of funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe. The major highlights of the chapter were the research philosophy which was deductive, and the research design which was experimental, and the research approach which was quantitative. The chapter also deliberated on the research population and the sampling procedures that were followed to sample the respondents that were surveyed. The chapter was very important in that it illuminated the roadmap to what Saunders et al. (2009) described as the fruits of researcher's labour- the research findings. The next chapter presents data analysis and a discussion of the research findings. The chapter will also demonstrate the implications of the research findings to the addressed groups.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The findings from the data collected using the questionnaire are presented in this chapter. The results of the survey were processed using SPSS version 21.0 program. The analysed data was presented graphically through the use of statistical tables, bar graphs and pie charts. The data was processed using reliability test, response rate, tests for independence, correlation and regression analysis. This was followed by discussion of the findings in relation to the hypothesis put forward in chapter one. The analysis of the results was buttressed by the secondary research findings.

4.2 Discussion of response rate

The researcher sent out a total of 100 questionnaires to 25 organisations in Harare and a total of 61 were received back for analysis. The research was conducted during the election campaign period for the harmonised elections, so some respondents were in and out of office conducting field work and this impacted on the questionnaire completion process.

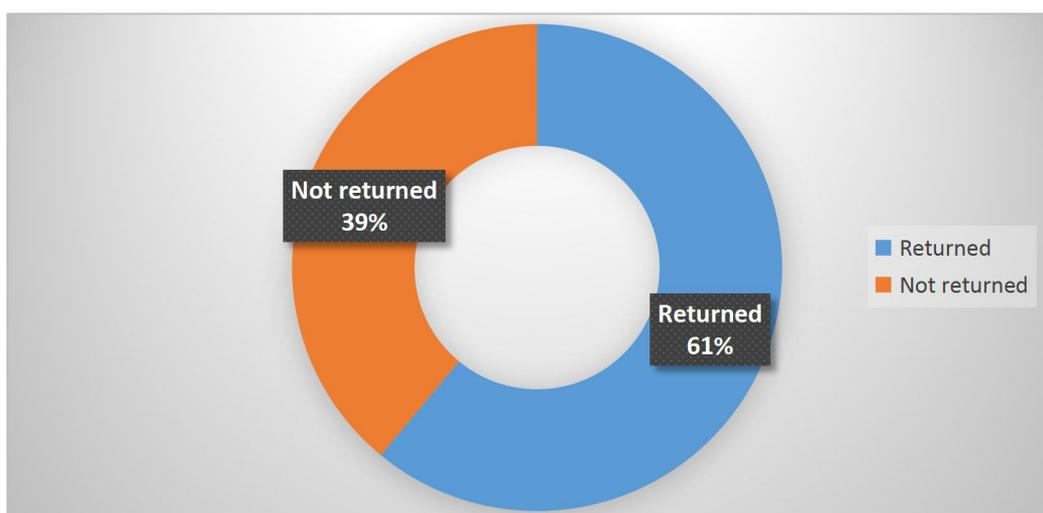


Figure 4.1: Response rate
Source: Primary

The garnered responses represented a 61% response rate, which was sufficient to permit validity and reliability of the research outcomes. The University of Texas (2018), states that the average response rate for emails is 40%, with 60% being very good, and for postal surveys 50% is adequate, whereas 70% is very good. Thus the 61% response rate for the study was considered adequate and within range.

4.3 Descriptive analysis

Descriptive analytics were done using SPSS and MS excel. These include frequency counts, descriptive statistics such as the modes and median. The section covers the response rate from the respondents, as well as their demographic characteristics, as indicated in the questionnaire. Respondents were requested to indicate the general information about themselves and their Organisations, such as length of service.

Table 4.1 Sex of respondents

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Male	30	49.2
Female	31	50.8
Total	61	100.0

Source: Primary

The responses were received with a near equal dispersion between male and female, with females making 50.8% of the responses for this study.

The spread of these respondents was mainly concentrated in the middle (49.2%) and senior management (37.7%) making a combined total of 86.9% as shown in Table 4.2 below.

According to the World Economic and Social Survey (2013), the responses from middle to senior management can either be good or bad. Good in that they are from a wealth of experience and knowledge of the entity and thus tend to be quite accurate and informed. However, bad in the sense that they could be protected responses as they are the direct contributors to the variables tested and could thus want to portray a good picture of the organisation despite some inherent challenges they exert on the same.

Table 4.2: Respondent’s position in the organisation

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Non-Managerial	1	1.6
Junior Management	7	11.5
Middle Management	30	49.2
Senior Management	23	37.7
Total	61	100.0

Source: Primary

4.4 Work experience

Figure 4.2 below shows that there is less entry into the sector (10% less than 1 year) and some form of stability for those that would have entered employment in the said sector as well. Most respondents have done between 2 and 10 years in the NGO sector, comprising a combined 74% (1 -5 years 35% and 6 – 10 years 39%). According to Fafchamps and Owens (2009), in the Ugandan NGO scene “NGO experience matters, but peaks after only 3 years”. This is confirmation to the researchers’ findings above.

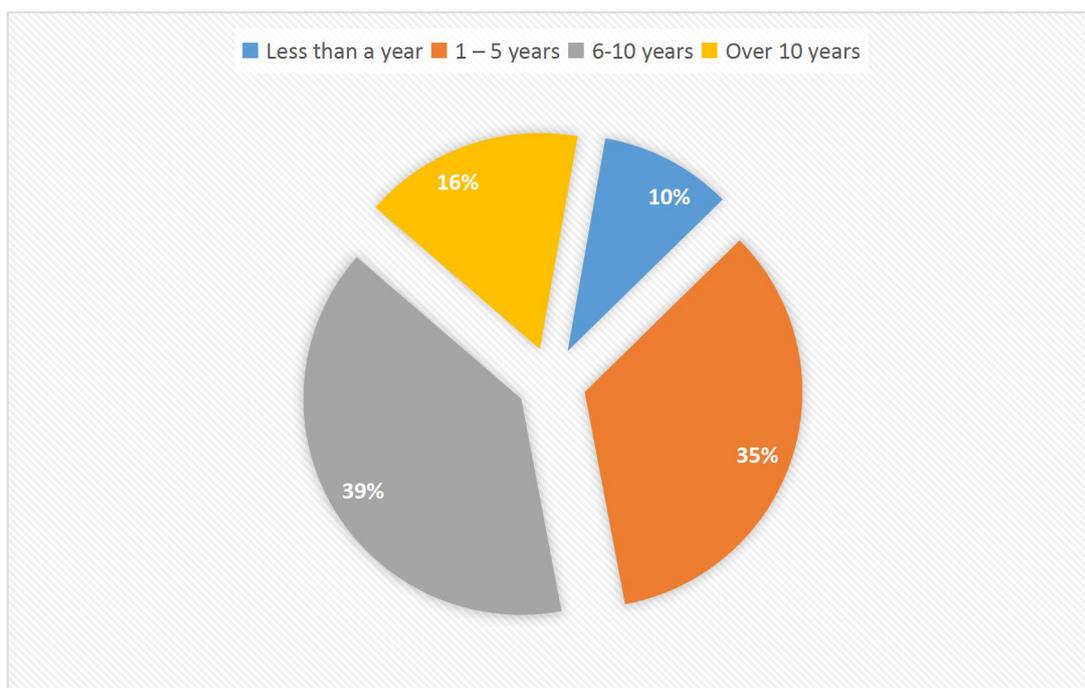


Figure 4.2: Respondents’ work experience for their organisation

Source: Primary

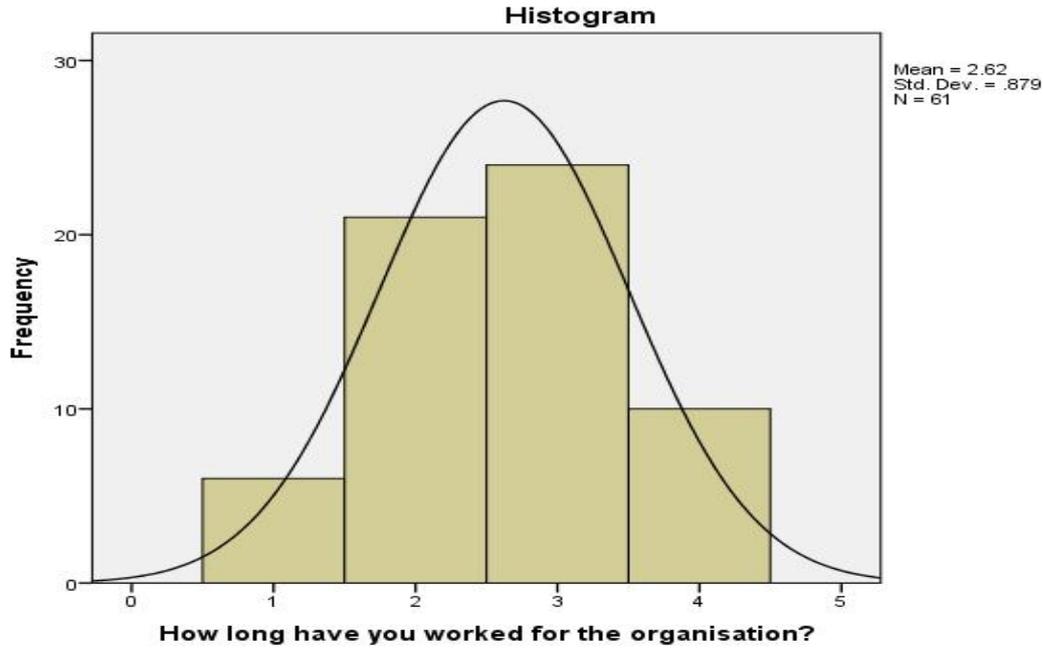


Figure 4.3: Histogram for mean work experience
Source: Primary

Figure 4.3 shows that the data is normally distributed regarding the length of stay in an NGO in Zimbabwe. This is an interesting phenomenon for research as no prior literature review seems to point towards such trends in the sector.

Table 4.3 Rating of financial performance vs. length of stay in their organisations

		How long have you worked for the organisation?				Total
		Less than a year	1 – 5 years	6-10 years	Over 10 years	
How would you rate your organisation's financial performance in the last 5 years?	Very poor	2	2	1	2	7
	Poor	1	2	5	0	8
	Not sure	0	0	1	0	1
	Good	2	13	10	4	29
	Very Good	1	4	7	4	16
Total		6	21	24	10	61

Source: Primary

Having noted the seeming entry and exit restrictions in the local NGOs, it is interesting to note from Table 4.3 above that, for well performing organisations, there is some higher length of service by the current respondents, accounting for 34 (17 in the 1 to 5 years and 17 in the 6 to 10 years) and working for a good to very good financially performing entity of the 61 participants.

According to Fafchamps and Owens (2009), the Ugandan NGO scene came up with the following conclusion:

“Success in securing grant funding depends primarily on networking, for example, whether the NGO is affiliate of an NGO network or umbrella organization, whether it is a subsidiary of a foreign NGO, and whether the NGO leader works at another NGO”.

This is confirmed by the results shown in Table 4.3 above, thus the researcher deems this relevant for the Zimbabwean context.

4.5 Financial performance of interviewed organisations

Table 4.4 below shows that of the interviewed entities, respondents were distributed mainly in the good to very good performing entities. This could be because a poor performing entity would have most likely been closed and thus off the sample size, as well as population, is for another research. For this study, 47.5% of the entities are performing well and 26.2% are extremely well in their financial performance status.

These statistics are not comparable as they have not been studied in any documented literature before and this has been recorded by the researcher as a contribution to local studies and future research.

Table 4.4 respondent's rating of the organisational performance

RATING	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Very poor	7	11.5
Poor	8	13.1
Not sure/ Don't know	1	1.6
Good	29	47.5
Very Good	16	26.2
Total	61	100.0

Source: Primary

4.6. Factor analysis or Reliability tests

Reliability is another term for consistency or repeatability over time of the study (Greener, 2008). A research must be designed in a way that, if anyone else carries out a research using the same methods as those used in the same research, then they should be able to come out with the same conclusions, this speaks to consistency and reliability of data and application of methodology.

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is typically equated with internal consistency (De Vellis, 1991). The Cronbach's Alpha is interpreted as a coefficient Alpha and its values range from 0 to 1. Sekaran (2010) advised that when calculating Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient reliabilities are less than 0.6, they are considered poor and reliabilities within 0.7 range are considered acceptable and those coefficients over 0.8 are considered good.

For this research, the Cronbach's Alpha results are summarized in the table below:

Table 4.5: Reliability analysis

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	Number of Items
.658	.666	24

Source: Primary

Reliability test shows the levels for each scale using one of the commonly used indicators of internal consistency, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient.

For data to be reliable, it must have a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of greater than 0.6 for exploratory studies but otherwise the recommended threshold is Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.7 (Haire et al., 2006).

4.7 Normality tests

No parametric tests were conducted as these can only be performed with normally distributed data, which has the greatest frequency of scores in the middle, with smaller frequencies towards the extremes. Non-parametric tests are more robust and were performed on skewed data.

4.8 Cross Tabulation tests

This is a technique for organizing data by groups, categories, or classes, thus facilitating comparisons. It uses a joint frequency distribution of observations on two or more sets of variables to facilitate data analysis by the researcher.

For this study, relationships were hypothesized, and the cross-tabulation tables provide significant linkages between the identified variables for the study. It therefore formulates a larger portion of the study findings as the relationships are now tested and explained in this section.

Table4.6: Cross tabulation -sex of leaders vs. financial performance

How would you rate your organisation's financial performance in the last 5 years?			If you are not the Organisational Head please indicate their sex below:			Total
			Male	Female	Organisational Head	
Very poor	Please indicate your sex	Male	4			4
		Female	3			3
	Total		7			7
Poor	Please indicate your sex	Male	4	1	0	5
		Female	1	1	1	3
	Total		5	2	1	8

How would you rate your organisation's financial performance in the last 5 years?			If you are not the Organisational Head please indicate their sex below:			Total
			Male	Female	Organisational Head	
Not sure/ Don't know	Please indicate your sex	Male		1		1
	Total			1		1
Good	Please indicate your sex	Male	0	5	8	13
		Female	4	7	5	16
	Total		4	12	13	29
Very Good	Please indicate your sex	Male	0	0	7	7
		Female	1	2	6	9
	Total		1	2	13	16
Total	Please indicate your sex	Male	8	7	15	30
		Female	9	10	12	31
	Total		17	17	27	61

Source: Primary

From the table above, no women leaders are associated with organisations that are performing very poorly. This points to the possible confirmation of the research hypothesis about the association of leader's sex and funding levels with a favorable rating to women leaders.

Table 4.7: Relationship between sex and organisational performance.

			Please indicate your sex	How would you rate your organisation's financial performance in the last 5 years?
Spearman's rho	Please indicate your sex	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.126
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.334
		N	61	61
	How would you rate your organisation's financial performance in the last 5 years?	Correlation Coefficient	.126	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.334	.
		N	61	61

Source: Primary

However, for the data shown in Table 4.7 above, it shows that there is no statistical significance related to sex and funding levels. This means the results are rather inconclusive about whether women leaders are better placed to resource for NGOs in Zimbabwe as compared to their male counterparts in the same role and sector as per the research objectives defined.

Table 4.8: Management style vs. organisation's financial performance

		How would you rate your organisation's financial performance in the last 5 years?					Total
		Very poor	Poor	Not sure/ Don't know	Good	Very Good	
What management style do you think exists in your organisation?	Autocratic	5	2	1	2	3	13
	Consultative	0	2	0	4	4	10
	Persuasive	1	0	0	2	0	3
	Democratic	0	2	0	19	8	29
	Chaotic	0	2	0	1	0	3
	Laissez-faire	1	0	0	1	1	3
Total		7	8	1	29	16	61

Source: Primary

From Table 4.8, it shows that the more popular management models are Democratic, Autocratic and Consultative in the respective order of frequency. There is, however, a more direct link to Autocratic style and very poor performing financial entities showing an 8.2% of the survey results.

There is however a combined percentile of 44, 3% of good to very good financially performing NGOs that practice a democratic management style in Zimbabwe. According to literature reviewed earlier, it was noted that Echols highlighted the following observation in India, 'The degree to which an organisation is professionally run has been identified in the literature as a prominent factor in a donor's decision to give'. This is corroborated by the findings in Zimbabwe that confirm that resources flow more directly to democratically managed organisations, as compared to autocratic styles.

Table 4.9 below shows that 54.1 % of the respondents have never lived or studied abroad and they have not worked for an International NGO. This aspect of the study has not been confirmed by the analysis carried out by the researcher. However, it creates room for further study as the statistics point to a possible area of study in future research caused by the proximity of the alternate statistics for the null hypothesis.

This research finding is in contradiction to the findings in Uganda by Fafchamps and Owens (2009), who concluded that “The results provide valuable, even if tentative, evidence on a topic characterized by an abundance of unsubstantiated claims and a dearth of hard evidence. Success in securing grant funding depends primarily on, whether the NGO leader works at another NGO and has lived or stayed abroad”.

This aspect brings the uniqueness of the Zimbabwean context to the study and the possible variation over time in NGO management as the two studies were done over a considerably different time and evolution of systems must be acknowledged in results analysis.

Table 4.9: Link between living/studying abroad vs. working in a local/International NGO

			Please indicate if you have ever worked for an International NGO		Total
			International NGO	Only Local	
Please indicate if you have ever lived or studied abroad	Abroad	Count	21	3	24
		% within Please indicate if you have ever lived or studied abroad	87.5%	12.5%	100.0%
		% within Please indicate if you have ever worked for an International NGO	75.0%	9.1%	39.3%
		% of Total	34.4%	4.9%	39.3%
	Local	Count	7	30	37
		% within Please indicate if you have ever lived or studied abroad	18.9%	81.1%	100.0%
		% within Please indicate if you have ever worked for an International NGO	25.0%	90.9%	60.7%
		% of Total	11.5%	49.2%	60.7%
Total		Count	28	33	61
		% of Total	45.9%	54.1%	100.0%

Source: Primary

4.9 Correlation tests

As the information did not follow a normal distribution, the researcher used the Spearman correlation coefficient analysis to determine how the variables correlate with each other and how they each in turn correlate with the dependent variable. The Spearman's rank-order correlation is the nonparametric version of the Pearson product-moment correlation which measures the strength and course of association between two ranked variables (Kothari, 2012).

The Spearman Rank Correlation coefficient (r) ranges from -1 to +1, where a +1 r -coefficient indicates the existence of a perfect positive linear relationship between the variables and a -1 r -coefficient suggest that there is a perfect negative linear relationship between the variables. This analysis further shows the direction of strength of the relationship thus, either positive or negative correlation as connected to the hypotheses in Chapter 2.

Table 4.10: Statistical significance of market presence factors

Correlations					
Control Variables			Some donors prefer to talk directly with the Organisational Head instead of other employees.	The Organisational Head is in the news often for various reasons.	The Organisational Head is well known in the NGO circles.
The organisation has a budget for ad hoc meetings for the Organisational Head to entertain and update donors over coffee, tea or lunches?	Some donors prefer to talk directly with the Organisational Head instead of other employees.	Correlation	1.000	.244	.682
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.061	.000
		df	0	58	58
	The Organisational Head is in the news often for various reasons.	Correlation	.244	1.000	.420
		Significance (2-tailed)	.061	.	.001
		df	58	0	58
	The	Correlation	.682	.420	1.000

Correlations					
Control Variables			Some donors prefer to talk directly with the Organisational Head instead of other employees.	The Organisational Head is in the news often for various reasons.	The Organisational Head is well known in the NGO circles.
	Organisational Head is well known in the NGO circles.	Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.
		df	58	58	0

Source: Primary

The only statistical significance on the market presence factors is reflected in the organisational head being in the news often as well as some donors preferring to talk directly to the organisational head and no other employee.

A statistical significance of value of ($p < 0.05$) is statistically significant and warrants further study. Therefore, at 0.061, the identified factors are significant.

For a number of variables tested by the researcher, the correlational relationship was not showing significant, mainly due to the fact that the data collected was not continuous and had a lot of Likert scale measures, which renders some statistical tests irrelevant.

4.9.1 Network affiliation of surveyed entities.

Table 4.11: Organisation's financial performance vs. size of network affiliation.

		How big is your network that you are affiliated to?					Total
		2 – 5 Organisations	6 – 10 Organisations	11 – 15 Organisations	15+ Organisation	Not in a network	
Organisation's financial performance in the last 5 years?	Very poor	4	0	2	0	1	7
	Poor	3	1	2	1	1	8
	Not sure/ Don't know	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Good	12	7	8	1	1	29
	Very Good	4	3	4	5	0	16
Total		24	11	16	7	3	61

Source: Primary

Table 4.11 shows that only three (3) of the 61 respondents worked in an organisation that was not affiliated to any network. Of these identified (3), only 1 was performing good financially. This shows that network affiliation is a growing and relevant phenomenon in the country and could help attribute to security of funding in the local environment.

In accordance with the literature review for this study, confirmatory findings are being made that concur with a study done in India. According to Echols, in the research on Indian NGOs, ‘In addition to characteristics of management being used as a proxy for efficiency, characteristics of the recipient organisation have also been found to be significant factors in a donors’ decision process. Notable amongst these are the networking capabilities of the recipient (Bougheas, et al, 2012).

In their study, networking connections were divided in local networking and national networking connections. Interestingly, Bougheas et al. (2012) found funding from international donors to be higher when recipient has many networking connections...’

Table 4.12: Financial Performance vs. network capacity in sourcing funds

		The network has been instrumental in sourcing funds in the last five (5) years.					Total
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	
How would you rate your organisation's financial performance in the last 5 years?	Very poor	1	0	3	3	0	7
	Poor	3	1	2	1	1	8
	Not sure/Don't know	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Good	5	0	6	11	7	29
	Very Good	0	0	3	7	6	16
Total		9	1	14	22	15	61

Source: Primary

Table 4.12 details the relationship between perceptions of network strength in resourcing for the organisation. The data shows consistency with Table 4.11 that points to the network having a direct impact on the resourcing of an NGO. The five (5) participants who strongly disagree with the ability of the network to assist in resourcing could all possibly be from one of the entities that are not a member of any network, as highlighted in the findings of Table 4.11 above. A total of 31 participants (11+7+7+6) agree to strongly agree that the network is

instrumental in fund raising and the same participants are from good to very good financially performing entities.

Table 4.13: Organisational Head being well known vs financial performance

		The Organisational Head is well known in the NGO circles.					Total
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	
How would you rate your organisation's financial performance in the last 5 years?	Very poor	0	1	0	4	2	7
	Poor	0	2	0	5	1	8
	Not sure/ Don't know	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Good	0	2	7	12	8	29
	Very Good	1	0	4	6	5	16
Total		1	5	12	27	16	61

Source: Primary

Table 4.13 above confirms the existence of a relationship between the popularity of the NGO Head and funding levels of that NGO. A total of 31 participants (12+8+6+5) agree to strongly agree that the Organisational Head's market popularity has been instrumental in fund raising and the same participants are from good to very good financially performing NGOs.

Fafchamps and Owens (2009) studied the Ugandan NGO scene and came up with the following conclusion: "... Success in securing grant funding depends primarily on whether the NGO leader works at another NGO". This may be because donors find it difficult to screen local NGOs...." This relational evidence is also confirmed in the research conducted for the Zimbabwean environment.

4.10 Discussion of findings

The purpose of the study was to explore possible determinants of funding to local NGOs with a focus on soft issues. In particular, four (4) hypotheses were postulated. To test the hypotheses, data were collected from NGO employees in Harare, Zimbabwe. The results from the empirical study supported all the four-posed research hypothesis in a highly significant way.

4.10.1 Sex of leader

There were no female leaders associated with very poor performing NGOs in Zimbabwe from the data collected. There was, however, no correlational evidence to support that a particular sex was more influential in sourcing for funding in local NGOs. That is also due to the lack of continuous data from the questionnaire, thereby leaving judgement to qualitative analysis. Such analysis from the data shows there is a tendency to suggest that women leaders, in particular, pose as better leaders in Zimbabwean NGOs.

Previous studies in Uganda and India did not focus on the likely contribution of female versus male leaders to the determination of funding levels.

4.10.2 Network affiliation

A number of tests were conducted measuring this aspect of the study as studies in Uganda and India had pointed to a direct relationship between networking and funding levels. From the data collected by the researcher, evidence points to confirmation of the specific hypothesis (H₄) which hypothesized the network membership being positive in securing donor funding. This is an interesting phenomenon as, of the returned forms, only three (3) respondents worked in an organisation that was not affiliated to any network.

The idea of conglomerating is now rife in Zimbabwe and this could result in an area of future study as to whether is a push or pull factor. The Ugandan study, as well as the Indian study reviewed earlier confirmed these findings and propounded a strong link between being in a network and funding levels, as confirmed by the researcher's own findings.

4.10.3 Management style

A number of management styles were selected for analysis, six (6) to be precise and the results from data analysis point to a seeming prevalent three (3) styles. These are autocratic, consultative and democratic. However, it is also important to note all six (6) styles are applicable in the surveyed sample, meaning there is no one size fits all style in management

style in Zimbabwean NGOs. The more prevalent and also supporting ‘good’ to ‘very good’ financial performance was the democratic style of management. Possibly this style allows employees to showcase their individual abilities and then relate such to securing funding in the organisation. The reasons for this particular style having linkages to funding levels can be an area of future study.

4.10.4 Market presence

There is an identified positive relationship between the popularity of an NGO head and the resources attracted by the same entity. This validated H₃ which hypothesized that the NGO leader’s market presence influenced donor funding. This implies that market presence is a key determinant in securing donor funding for local NGOs in Zimbabwe. A reasonable number of respondents were neutral to the possibility of popularity being linked to funding levels and that could also be part of the subjectivity of the Likert scale used by the researcher in gathering the primary data.

However, such responses show that the sector could further be analyzed as to the actual impact of the popularity of NGO leaders and securing resources. For this study, the identified hypothesis is confirmed.

4.11 Chapter summary

The chapter has analysed and discussed the findings of the study that investigated the determinants of funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe. The finding indicated that donors were perturbed by the political image of the country when it comes to funding decisions. The findings affirmed that donors were concerned with the soft issues which fall outside the political lines. Lastly, the results from the study were discussed in relation to literature, hypotheses and the managerial implications. This was the starting contribution to the confirmation or dismissal of identified hypotheses and objectives of the study. A number of variables were confirmed and some dispelled in this section. The next chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations based on the study findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter details the conclusions from the research and recommendations thereof. It presents areas of further study. The conclusions are derived from the presentation and analysis of research findings in Chapter 4 above. The research was chosen primarily due to the noted gap in the local literature of a relevant study around NGO funding determinants. The main objective of this study is to explore the effects of the soft issues in determining the funding levels for local NGOs in Zimbabwe.

No evidence existed in the literature search of any theoretical documents in scholarly articles that were to assist in academic profiling of determinants and that made this research relevant as it was a possible first in the development of such literature in Zimbabwe. This chapter details the respective findings, recommendations and contributions that have emerged from the study.

5.2 Achievement of research objectives

The research objectives of the study are recapped as follows for comparison with current findings:

The *specific objectives* of the study were to:

- a) Interrogate the extent to which the resourcing level of an organization is affected by whether it is male, or female led.
- b) Determine the extent to which network affiliation affects funding levels
- c) Determine the magnitude that the management style has on funding levels of the organization.
- d) Determine the magnitude of the contribution to funding by the market presence of the person heading the NGO.

The level of achievement of the objectives is based on the data analysis done in chapter four. Major comparison was also done of the two researches identified in India and Uganda of the same study around possible determinants of NGO funding.

Below, are the respective summaries per objective and there is no mathematical or statistical rating of the level of achievement as most of the data was not continuous and thus rendering difficulties in getting statistical inferences:

- a) There is a consistent relationship from the study of female leaders not being associated with poorly performing organisations in the NGO sector.
- b) There is some convincing evidence of funding being affected by network affiliation in Zimbabwean NGOs.
- c) Survey data has shown that there is a strong relationship with democratically managed entities and the resources that flow to them thereby confirming that management style has an impact as expounded by this study.
- d) With market presence, data showed that there is a relationship with leader popularity and funding levels of the organisation on a linearly positive level. Due to the number of dependants confirming their observed link with these two variables, the magnitude is considered significant and confirms the research objective.

5.3 Conclusion

The researcher found overwhelming linkage to some identified variables of determinants of funding levels. As the research formulated hypotheses, the findings are detailed per initial hypothesis below:

H1: Funding levels in NGOs is a function of soft determinants in the organisation.

The research focused on four (4) identified variables and accordingly the data analysis gave positive confirmations to three of the four variables, thereby confirming the overall objective that funding levels are influenced by soft issues and management need to pay attention to these as they fund-raise. You have four hypotheses and you should refer to each.

5.4 Answer to research questions

For the purposes of this research, the following research question was raised:

1. What is the impact of the gender dimension on the funding decision of local NGOs by international donors?
2. How does leadership style and level of resourcing affect funding decisions of local NGOs by international donors?
3. What is the relationship between the market presence of the leader of the local NGO and the resourcing levels it attracts?
4. What is the effect of membership to a network affiliation of like-minded NGOs on the resourcing levels?

From the data analysis the variables that contribute to funding levels are sex, networking and management style. This is evidenced by the tables and figures detailed and explained in Chapter 4 above.

5.5 Contribution

5.5.1 Theoretical contribution

The research sought to contribute both academically and practically to the existing pool of knowledge on the determinants of funding levels in local NGOs. This is a specialised area in that corporates and other public entities have differing fund raising models that include selling products and services for a profit whilst NGOs must work on goodwill and charity. A research gap therefore existed as several current researches focused on customer services, product enhancements and value chain management in the for-profit sectors, this gave weight to this study for the non-profit sector.

A few researches were done around the world mainly in India and Uganda to try and determine possible determinants for their respective NGOs and the results from the two studies have marked similarities with the findings of the researcher in Zimbabwe. This opens the theoretical contribution to the Zimbabwean context, noted variations existed in aspects like sex of leader which were not previously studied in the noted prior researches.

5.5.2 Methodological contribution

The methodological involvement of the research was on the administration process of the interview questionnaires. A distinction was made concerning the questionnaire administration methods where in-person drop-off of paper questionnaires registered a high response rate compared to questionnaires administered through e-mailing of electronic copies.

Contextually this raised an interesting phenomenon in the desired response rate of locals in surveys, however, as noted before, the NGO sector has a number of security restrictions imposed on it and fear of infiltration is abounding. Therefore, based on the response rate attained in this study, it is recommended that online surveys be corroborated with paper surveys to minimise non-response bias.

5.5.3 Empirical contribution

Several interesting possibilities came from the research that can open future avenues of research. These include the likelihood of some protectionism around entry and exit into the NGO sector employment, the possible inclination to contribution of female leaders over their counterparts in the NGO sector management and the use of autocratic management and the possible demise of an organisation. The specific contribution is that women leaders are more likely to succeed in the NGO leadership than their male counterparts.

5.6 Policy recommendations

In light of the findings obtained, this study suggests the following policy recommendations to improve the securing of funding Zimbabwean NGOs.

5.6.1 Gender balance

Local NGOs should consider a good mix of their workforce so as to achieve a balance between the sexes of male and female. Females are deemed more likely to be democratic in their execution of management roles and this would in turn point to enhanced funding streams to the respective organisation. A possible quota system can be prescribed but not forced to allow autonomy of the respective entities too.

5.6.2 Network affiliation

The National Association of Non-Governmental Organisations (NANGO) should encourage like-minded NGOs to form coalitions for strengthening their mandates as well as providing formidable forces in resource mobilisation.

There is an inclination by the donor community of channelling resources to network structures as opposed to single entities as noted in India, Uganda and now in this research. Policy formulation will be around functionality and cost sharing mechanisms of such networks.

5.7 Managerial recommendations

The study suggests the following managerial recommendations:

There is evidence from the study of a direct relationship between women leaders and the positively performing entity. It is recommended to management to consider women leaders in the NGOs as some variable of success is inherent in their leadership. The democratic style of management seems to yield positive results in resourcing for NGOs and management are encouraged to learn its components and apply it.

Network affiliation is strongly recommended as there is overwhelming evidence of its contribution to the resourcing of NGOs from the study. Management are encouraged to look for like-minded NGOs and work as a network in service delivery as this gives synergies both for performance and for grant resourcing.

Finally, the popularity of a leader has some noted contribution to the resourcing of an NGO. This comes with possible enhanced salary costs, but the management teams are encouraged to

consider the possible derivative benefits of having such influential leaders heading their NGOs.

5.8 Generalisation of findings

Generalisation is the capacity to relate the results from a study or research to the broader target population Carlson, (2010). The findings in this study can be generalized statistically and justifiably extended and applied to members of the target population and other situations. The researcher selected a representative sample of 100 employees from the target population of 25 NGOs located in Harare. The inference has a high validity as indicated in section 4.3 of this study and the results can be replicated.

5.9 Research limitations

The study was limited to one sector, NGOs, but more practically Harare as a geographical source of information. Therefore, there was high probability of sampling bias since the majority of the respondents might have similar experiences compared to other NGOs located in the other regions of Zimbabwe. Possible landscape and economic variations play a major role in response variation as well as resourcing needs for these NGOs. Nonetheless, probability proportional to sample size was used to ensure that the respondents were distributed in accordance with their total population per sampling unit.

5.10 Areas of further research

The results of this study have opened up interesting academic opportunities for future study. The areas noted include the possible study on the determinants of entry and exit in the NGO sector for employees. There seems to be a trend of limited entry possibly due to limited exit. Interestingly as well, some trend tends to exist of fewer longer term employees.

There is a possibility of study of the length of existence of the respective NGOs as well as they could have a consistent workforce over their life from inception to current. The use of autocratic management and the possible demise of an organisation would be an interesting topical study as was suggested by the evidence in this research.

Appendix 1: Letter of Introduction

MBA DISSERTATION QUESTIONNAIRE



31 May 2018

Respondent

My name is Jacob Mukamba, a Master's in Business Administration (MBA) student at the University of Zimbabwe. As part of the program requirements, I am conducting a survey titled: **SOFT ISSUES IN RESOURCE ATTRACTION AND RETENTION: AN EXPLORATION OF THE DETERMINANTS OF FUNDING LEVELS FOR NGOs IN ZIMBABWE**

The questionnaire seeks to answer the above question and your input is valuable in allowing the student to gather industry data about the possible determinants of funding in Zimbabwean NGOs.

I would like to assure you that strict confidentiality will be maintained in collecting and reviewing the information in this questionnaire. Responses will be anonymous, and no names shall be mentioned in the study. Please do not write your name on any page of the questionnaire.

Yours Sincerely

Jacob Mukamba
Student Number R0100516

Appendix 2: Questionnaire

A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Instructions: Please tick in the appropriate box and answer all questions.

1. Please indicate your sex

1	Male	
2	Female	

2. What is your current position in the organisation?

Non-Managerial	Junior Management	Middle Management	Senior Management

3. How long have you worked for the organisation?

1	Less than a year	
2	1 – 5years	
3	6-10 years	
4	Over 10 years	

4. What has been the main funding mechanism for your organisation?

1	Core funding (for all agreed activities of the entity)	
2	Restricted funding (specific to a certain project only)	
3	Unrestricted funding (for any activities the entity decides to do)	

5. In the last 5 years how many sources of funding have you had in your organisation?

1	Only one	
2	Two to three	
3	Four to five	
4	More than five	

6. How would you rate your organisation's financial performance in the last 5 years?

1	Very poor	
2	Poor	
3	Not sure/ Don't know	
4	Good	
5	Very Good	

7. If you are not the Organisational Head, please indicate their sex below:

A	Male	
B	Female	

8. What is your main area of operation as an organisation?

1	Very poor	
2	Poor	
3	Not sure/ Don't know	
4	Good	
5	Very Good	

SECTION B: NETWORK AFFILIATION

9. Please indicate if you have ever lived or studied abroad

1	Yes	
2	No	

10. Please indicate if you have ever worked for an International NGO

1	Yes	
2	No	

11. How big is your network that you are affiliated to?

1	2 – 5 Organisations	
2	6 – 10 Organisations	
3	11 – 15 Organisations	
4	15+ Organisation	
5	Not in a network	

Instructions: Please circle your response in the appropriate box.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Rating scale	1	2	3	4	5
12. Resources are channelled to your organisation based on the affiliation to a network.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The network has been instrumental in sourcing funds in the last five (5) years.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: MANAGEMENT STYLE

13. What management style do you think exists in your organisation?

1	Autocratic	
2	Consultative	
3	Persuasive	
4	Democratic	
5	Chaotic	
6	Laissez-faire	

Instructions: Please circle your response in the appropriate box.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

	Rating Scale	1	2	3	4	5
14	Management appoint staff with in depth knowledge of financial and operational issues and reviews financial performance monthly against approved budgets.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Management provides adequate supervision and training on grants management and provides financial oversight ensuring financial sustainability.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Management is in regular communication with the donors on funding, has good relations with the donors and ensures accountability of funds.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Management ensures that there are documented policies and procedures and there are mechanisms to ensure adherence to laid down procedures.	1	2	3	4	5

Any other comments

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SECTION D: MARKET PRESENCE

For the questions to follow, may you rank your opinion on a scale of 1-5 as guided below:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Rating scale	1	2	3	4	5
18. The Organisational Head is in the newspapers often for various reasons.	1	2	3	4	5
19. The Organisational Head is well known in the NGO circles.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Some donors prefer to talk directly with the Organisational Head instead of other employees.	1	2	3	4	5
21. The organisation has a budget for ad hoc meetings for the Organisational Head to entertain and update donors over coffee, tea or lunches?	1	2	3	4	5
22. The organisation continuously improves the employees training and development programs	1	2	3	4	5

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE!

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND VALUABLE INPUT.

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