

**IMPACT ASSESSMENT OF SERVICE DELIVERY BY NON-GOVERNMENTAL  
ORGANIZATIONS IN THE KENYAN ARID LANDS. A CASE STUDY OF GARISSA  
COUNTY.**

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This research project is entirely my original work and has not been presented to any other university for academic purposes. Information from other sources has been fully acknowledged.

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## **DEDICATION**

This research study is dedicated to my beloved wife, Risper and children; Kiprono, Kibet and Kipchumba. It is also dedicated to my beloved parents, brothers and sisters; who in one way or the other have transformed my life right from childhood.

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## **ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

IMF – International Monetary Fund

NGO – Non-Governmental Organization

DFID – Department for International Development

INGO – International Non-Governmental Organization

PIW – Public Interest Watch

UNICEF – United Nations Children’s Fund

UNRISD – United Nations Research Institute for Social Development

CEO – Chief Executive Officer

PVO – Private Voluntary Organizations

DV – Dependent Variable

IV – Independent Variable

MV – Moderating Variable

KNCSS - Kenya National Council of Social Services

SNGOs - Southern Non-Governmental Organizations

SPSS – Special Package for Social Scientists

WWF – Worldwide Fund for Nature

IFIs – International Financial Institutions

SAPs – Structural Adjustment Programs



## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this study was to explore and adopt best approaches in implementing both emergency and development programs in the Arid Lands of Kenya by Non-Governmental Organizations; with due consideration to the several hindrance to their performance. The study also aimed at ascertaining the impact of these NGOs on the livelihoods of the people from the host communities; establish factors contributing to poor service delivery and to develop effective development approaches which are contemporary and compatible to the same communities. The three objectives and the three research questions formulated formed the basis for this research study. The research was a case study of Garissa County in North Eastern Province which comprises of six districts namely: Garissa, Balambala, Ijara, Fafi, Lagdera and Dadaab districts with an estimated area of 45,720.2km<sup>2</sup> and a population of 623,060 people based on the 1999 national census. Target Population comprised of both direct and indirect beneficiaries; women and men, boys and girls. Out of the estimated target population of two thousand beneficiaries, a sample size of four hundred people was randomly chosen and questionnaires administered to them. Data from the field was analyzed using SPSS and the results presented in form of tables and standard reports. The study found out that poor roads and insecurity in Garissa County were the two main factors affecting delivery of service by NGOs. However, the Government of Kenya has been sensitive on the matter and is keen in putting measures in place to fix the anomaly. The study also found that host communities were not empowered and/or involved in most of the stages of project cycle and that most of the projects were donor initiated; an approach that has led to project failures in the past. This study therefore recommends the need to improve road network and boost security in Garissa County for better service delivery in future. It also recommends for empowerment of the host communities through involvement in most stages of project cycle in order to enhance sustainability of projects.

## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Background to the study**

Non-Governmental Organizations are the larger and more professionalized civil society organizations that offer benefits to those outside their membership (UNRISD 2000). International NGOs operate outside their country of origin, which is usually in the developed world, and often in more than one country or region. Local NGOs are based in the region in which they work, and are staffed locally.

INGOs occupy a unique, and arguably problematic, position within civil society. Not necessarily locally based, NGOs often export elements from a different culture, including aims, staff and working practices. INGOs have multiple identities and loyalties: they represent an element of global civil society, but they are also rooted in Western culture; they do not work for the direct benefit of their own society, but they are answerable to both public and private donors usually based in a single northern European country; and they work hard to preserve autonomy and adhere to international human rights standards. Each of these often conflicting elements, separate INGOs from civil society in their own country and the countries in which they work.

INGOs are, moreover, a significant provider of social services in the developing world. One estimate is that the not-for-profit sector is currently worth over \$1 trillion<sup>a</sup> a year globally, ranking as the world's eighth largest economy (Sustainability 2003). This places them in a powerful position: the United Kingdom Department for International Development (DFID) notes that the world's largest NGOs now have incomes "several times larger than several bilateral donors, are active in more countries and are certainly as influential in their ability to command public and political attention" (DFID 2000a).

The role of INGOs in welfare provision varies greatly by region, and to some extent by country. In general, however, the dependence on NGOs can be linked to the decline of the state as a

viable provider of social services. In sub-Saharan Africa, where states were severely affected by structural adjustment policies, church-based INGOs alone provided a significant proportion of health and education services. By the mid-1990s, 40–50 per cent of education services in Kenya were provided by NGOs, which also provided 35 per cent of all health services. In the same period, 40 per cent of health care provision in Ghana and 30 per cent in Malawi were from INGOs (Edwards and Hulme 1997).

From schools and hospitals to water and shelter, in many parts of the world NGOs are providing more services today than ever. Since the 1970s international development NGOs, such as Oxfam and Care International, have exploded in number and scale of operation. A key reason for this has been official development assistance (ODA) — government aid—being redirected towards and through them (Edwards and Hulme, 1996). Between 1975 and 1985 official governmental aid to NGOs increased by 1,400% (Fowler, 1991), leading some to portray them as a creation of Western donors (Zaidi, 1999). Policies emanating from the West did influence the context for the growth in NGOs. The “modernization” of welfare States and privatization of public services is part of a neo-liberal economic politics pursued in the West and promoted around the world by the international financial institutions (IFIs), among others. Service provision was reportedly the fastest growing area of international NGO activities in the 1990s (Anheier et al.).

On the one hand some argue that this shift of service provision away from the State and towards the voluntary sector is a positive development. The arguments for this relate to those made for the market provision of services and of public–private partnerships in general. They contend that NGOs are generally more effective in delivering services and can be more cost efficient. The reasons for this are said to be because such organizations are less bureaucratic, more flexible and innovative, and thus more responsive to circumstances, and often have more committed staff (Wise, 1997). A key argument is that these characteristics make NGOs more accountable to the intended beneficiaries of the services they provide. Medical service provision is one area where

the move towards a greater role for NGOs has led to partnerships between them and State organizations, allowing increased scope for citizens to challenge managerial and medical professional power (Milewa et al., 2002). However, the retreat of the State and the takeover of its welfare roles by other organizations, whether non-profit or for-profit, have been strongly criticized by some, for reasons that can be summarized.

In many parts of the world there has been strong criticism of the declining accountability of employers to employees as services move out of the State sector. Employees being sacked and re-hired on worse pay and conditions, or not re-hired and the jobs contracted out to firms with cheaper labor costs, are commonly reported stories (Monbiot, 2000). Others have questioned whether the intended beneficiaries of the services provided are indeed better off and how accountable service providers are to them. In the first place, “the privatization of service delivery and some other State functions has confused the public perception of the formally accountable actor: is it the State or the private provider?” (Goetz and Jenkins, 2002,). A discussion of arguments for and against the market provision of public services is beyond the scope of this volume, and the remainder of this Chapter will focus on the arguments concerning provision of public services by NGOs. Some of those arguments have been as highly charged as the private-versus-public debate, with some saying that the misinformed good intentions of NGOs are paving The Road to Hell (Maren, 1998) and others accusing some staff of organizations working on international development as being self-interested, making them the Lords of Poverty (Hancock, 1992).

Others raise concerns about how NGOs might be just administrative inventions by some governments in order to obtain additional funds. These are known as “briefcase NGOs” in Uganda (Goetz and Jenkins, 2002,). This relates to a concern for the growing dependence of NGOs on government funding. Michael Edwards and David Hulme (1996) argue that this can compromise the advocacy role of NGOs, as they worry more about jeopardizing funding, start

being seen by the public as less independent and thus less legitimate. This dilemma is illustrated by USAID's updated guidelines for the NGOs it works with, which state that such organizations should identify themselves with the foreign policy aims of the US Government (The Guardian, 2003). Even without overt interference, an NGO's concern for the interests of its large donors may undermine its attention to the needs of its intended beneficiaries. For example, they might professionalize and specialize in ways where they lose touch with communities, and they focus on short-term quantifiable outputs rather than systemic change in order to satisfy funders (Edwards and Hulme, 1996). Such organizations can become more interested in themselves rather than their expressed objectives (Ganesh, 2003).

One criticism heard from the opposite end of the political spectrum is that some organizations are gaining tax exemption to provide services that could be provided by tax-paying companies. For example, Public Interest Watch (PIW) lambasts non-profit hospitals in the US, saying they are "grabbing huge amounts of public money that doesn't belong to them" (PIW, 2004,). However, although the awarding of tax-free status needs to be looked at more closely, the principle of allowing organizations to receive tax-free donations and not pay taxes themselves when they are providing public benefit is a sensible one and should be continued. Just because a particular public service can be provided by a for-profit company should not affect the status of tax-free non-profit providers of that service when it is often qualitatively cheaper and targeted at poorer people. The arguments of PIW are clearly in the interest of for-profit providers of public services who fund their work. This illustrates how commercial interests sometimes manifest themselves in the advocacy of certain NGOs.

Claims of incompetence have also been leveled at NGOs. A report commissioned by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) claimed that health services provided by NGOs in Mozambique were ten times the cost of those provided by the government (Clark, 2003). Some incompetence has been catastrophic and given rise to claims of corruption. A low point was in

1994 in Rwanda, where accusations were made that during the mass killings refugee camps were used as recruiting and refueling stations by the militias (Christensen, 2004). Various cases of abuse of staff and supposed beneficiaries have been leveled against NGOs, such as claims of widespread sex abuse in such organizations in Orissa and providing services in return for cash payments (Goetz and Jenkins, 2002,).

These various questions about the effectiveness of NGOs in providing services in general, and development assistance in particular, mean that they are no longer seen as magic bullets for international development. And, since the mid-1990s, there has been an increasing debate about their accountability (Edwards and Hulme, 1996; Najam, 1996).

In Kenya, prior to the 1990 NGO Act there was no specific institutional and legislative framework to govern the NGO sector. The result is that NGOs were registered under various laws such as the Companies Act, the Societies Act, the Ministry of Culture and Social Services and the Trustees Act. Hence the major constraints at this time were related to the lack of a clear national framework for appreciating NGOs' role in development; institutional capacity weaknesses; poor co-operation and networking; tensions between NGOs and government; and geographical misdistributions.

In a survey conducted in the mid 1990s it was revealed that 75% of all registered NGOs were located in Nairobi. The administration of these NGOs prior to the 1990 NGO Act does not appear clear. After independence the Government was supportive of NGOs. This policy decision was taken in view of the fact that NGOs were largely seen as instruments to supplement the development program of the public service. Accordingly the Kenya National Council of Social Services (KNCSS) was formed in 1964 as a quasi-governmental institution under the Ministry of Culture and Social Services. The main objectives of the KNCSS were to coordinate NGO activities and advise the Government. This Council apparently failed to meet the expectations of both the Government and the NGO sector. It was subsequently disbanded in 1990 and its

activities taken over by the NGO Coordination Board established under the NGO Act.

The absence of a clear and efficient NGO administration over the years has resulted in the death of comprehensive and coherent empirical information. For instance, there is contradictory empirical data on the growth of NGOs in Kenya. While some studies indicate that the overall growth between 1977 and 1987 was about 100%, others put the growth for the period 1974-1988 at 229%.

The decade of the eighties in Kenya was characterized by an escalation of such problems as poverty, civil strife, conflicts, internal displacements, and general degeneration of the socio-economic and political systems. These and other related events adversely impacted the pattern of people's interaction. The development of NGOs in the 80s and 90s was phenomenal and appeared to be directly linked to the problems mentioned. By the end of the decade of the '80s indigenous NGOs in Kenya had grown by over 150% in a period of ten years. Several factors account for this growth.

First, there were numerous economic ills in Kenya. It was apparent that the Government had failed to deliver the much-needed economic leadership. The World Bank and the IMF prescribed that market forces be used to address the worsening economic situation. These initiatives were not successful in tackling the problems. NGOs were therefore poised to fill the gaps where the Government and the market forces had failed. In some cases there was dire need for NGOs to assume functions, which had been abandoned by the state especially in the fields of social services.

Second, the new wave of people's organizations was in search for a new basis for facilitating their struggle for participation in the decision-making process. The escalation of economic decline and market forces characterized by structural adjustment programs (SAPs) and haphazard liberalization of the economy (as prescribed by the World Bank and the IMF) set the stage for NGOs as these organizations were viewed by many as the panacea for those ills and the way

forward for taking action on matters affecting the lives of the people.

Third, NGOs were formed as development agents. Kenya is endowed with enormous amounts of resources. Unfortunately, there has been uneven allocation of these resources for development. In terms of development, NGOs were formed to rebel against this marginalization, to tap this wealth and to redistribute it on a win-win basis for all stakeholders.

Fourth, some NGOs were formed partly to take responsibility and push for socio-political change. This political role is mainly evident in policy advocacy activities and is often viewed by the civil society as necessary in keeping the people in the Government on their toes. Hence, it is not surprising that NGOs in this category have repeatedly faced threats of deregistration.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

Essential to the well-being of all people are the effective delivery of basic services such as health, education, water and sanitation. Accessible, quality services contribute to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals and to the achievement of human rights. Yet, widespread evidence shows that services are failing poor people in a large number of countries with negative impacts on human development outcomes. In addressing the failure of services, one key point is that the failure of services is not just technical, it is the result of the lack of accountability of public, private and non-profit organizations to poor people.

In spite of the large amount of resources invested by the NGOs working in Garissa County, the living standards of the local people do not conform to these resources. This is evidenced by reported cases of malnutrition, cholera, acute water shortage in most parts of the county and the high illiteracy levels. It is because of these factors that the researcher was motivated to investigating reasons behind this anomaly.



### **1.3 Purpose of the study**

The purpose of this study is to explore and adopt best approaches in implementing both emergency and development programs. The gaps to be identified in this study would help the donor community together with the NGOs, host governments and host communities come up with improved program designs which are realistic and sustainable.

### **1.4 Objectives**

The broad objective of this study is to ascertain the impacts of Non-Governmental Organizations on national development.

The specific objectives of this study are:

1. To establish the factors contributing to poor service delivery among the NGOs.
2. To develop effective development approaches that are contemporary and compatible to the host communities.
3. To compare the number of donor funded programs against the living standards of the people from the host communities.

### **1.5 Research questions**

1. Is there any relationship between service delivery and poor road infrastructure, poor community participation and insecurity in Garissa County?
2. Is management or leadership styles a contributor to poor service delivery among the NGOs?
3. Has there been any significant impact realized as a result of service delivery by the NGOs in Garissa County?

## **1.6 Significance of the study**

This study provides critical information about the existing gaps and their implication to service delivery by the NGOs, whether development or emergency projects. Ways on how to overcome these gaps have also been presented in this study under the recommendations. Also this study has provided valid information necessary for the donor community especially those related to program planning, design and funding.

## **1.7 Delimitation of the study**

The research study covered the six districts of Garissa County in North-Eastern province. These were: Garissa, Balambala, Fafi, Ijara, Lagdera and Dadaab districts. The county is located at coordinates 00° 38'N 33°29'E and an altitude of 1138 meters above mean sea level. The county has an estimated area of 45,720.2km<sup>2</sup> with a population of 623,000 people based on the 1999 census.

## **1.8 Limitations of the study**

One of the key limitations to this research was the fact that most of the NGOs implement emergency projects and that they do not stay for long before they leave the county. The same case was with the host communities who happen to be nomadic pastoralists in nature. This became a major problem when administering the questionnaires as it affected consistency.

Another limitation to this study was the worrying persistent insecurity within the study area, Garissa County. This compromised mobility by the researcher in the process of data collection. For instance target beneficiaries from Dadaab district were not sampled because of the insecurity.

Again the researcher is not a native of Garissa County and does not understand the local 'Somali' language. This became another limitation as most of the respondents were illiterate, considering the fact that the questionnaire was written in English language.

## 1.9 Assumptions of the study

This research was pegged on several assumptions, one of which being that the sample chosen represented the total population. The research also assumed that the respondents would give true information where appropriate and not based on their understanding. Thirdly the research assumed that the respondents gave their feedback independently and without bias.

## 1.10 Definitions of Significant Terms

**Respondent** – refers to the person whom the questionnaire is administered to.

**Population sample** – is the representative selected for a study whose characteristics exemplify the larger group from which they were selected. It is a representative of the whole population.

**Sampling** – process of selecting a number of individuals for a study in such a way that the individuals represent the larger group from which they were selected

**Host community** – refers to community served by the organization

**Host government** – is the government commissioning the organization to work in its country and partners with it.

**Non-Governmental Organization** – refers to any non-profit organization working alongside the government whereby its major source of funds is through donations.

**Stakeholders** – these are those people benefiting from the organization either directly or indirectly.

**Donor** - person/institutions which fund the organizations.

**Researcher** – the person carrying out the research study.

**Variable** - is an empirical property that can take on two or more values.

**Independent variable** - an independent variable (also called the “predictor variable”) is that variable that cause changes in the dependent variables. An independent variable is presumed to affect the dependent variable.

**Dependent variable** - a dependent variable is a variable whose outcome depends on the manipulation of the independent variable.

### 1.11 Summary

As development actors, NGOs have become the main service providers in countries where the government is unable to fulfill its traditional role. Most NGO's despite having full potential to funding programs in the host communities are faced with some challenges. These challenges when taken for granted would lead to poor service delivery. In order to realize full potential, therefore, all parties involved (host communities, host government and working partners) should play their roles accordingly. Moreover proper coordination among these parties is also paramount. This would enhance a participatory approach and avoid duplication of activities.

NGOs have the capacity to innovate and adapt more quickly than national governments; therefore, their actions can undermine government initiatives. But if they scale up their activities and impart their knowledge and techniques at the government level, the country as a whole can benefit. NGOs have a significant impact on the whole process but are also plagued by severe obstacles. NGOs continue to suffer from a lack of resources and from their general estrangement from the state. Unless they become partners with government, and not competitors, capacity-building initiatives will continue to be stunted.

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter contains some literature which has been developed by researchers who had interests in the same field of study. It has captured extensively on NGO's statistics and their history, how they operate and the challenges facing them as they continue with their deliberations. The chapter has also explored on the existing ties between several stakeholders as far as NGO world is concerned.

### **2.2 Factors affecting NGOs in Kenya**

The service delivery by NGOs in Kenya and other countries are hampered by many factors. These have implications for NGO autonomy. For instance, the operational environment of NGOs determines the effectiveness of programs and projects undertaken by those NGOs. There are both external and internal environments that impinge on NGOs' performance and output.

Under systems theory, organizations' behavioral pattern largely depends on the environment (both external and internal) in which they are operating. How NGOs as organizations are run or behave depends on for instance, the political, economic, and social conditions in the country. For example the donors, the founders and the beneficiaries will influence and drive the NGOs operations. Below we identify some of the constraints that NGOs face.

#### **2.2.1 Lack of autonomy**

Kenyan NGOs, like many other Southern non-governmental organizations (SNGOs), have over the years maintained links with their Northern counterparts. In 1988 approximately 10% of the external aid used by Kenyan NGOs was through direct funding. The rest (about 90%) was through Northern non-governmental organizations (NNGOs). It is important to note that this type of NGO "dependency" is perceived as a threat to NGO autonomy and accountability to the public. While some NGOs claim autonomy in their operations, basing them on their mission and objectives rather than any dictates from other stakeholders, the reality of the situation is that the

donors' influence is normally a factor to contend with. It is trite knowledge that "whoever pays the piper calls the tune".

This danger of loss of autonomy may however be minimized by NGOs through clearly articulated principles that funders should adhere to; effective coordination among themselves and avoidance of unhealthy competition with the government for resources and attention. NGOs need to build capacity within the widening political space to ensure that they reap the maximum benefits from the consolidation of procedural rights. Through cooperation with governments environmental NGOs have, for instance, been able to access environmental information, been able to freely associate and exchange speech to be able to access environmental justice.

### **2.2.2 Government interference**

**Resistance by the government to some NGOs' activities:** In Kenya NGOs are encouraged to collaborate with the government although the government is often critical of the high profile of NGOs' advocacy campaigns especially against government policy. In Kenya's country position paper to the World Summit for Social Development (March 1995, at p. 41) the Government immortalizes its commitment to enhancing social integration within the context of diversified political groups, local and international NGOs and pressure groups. In spite of these assurances, NGOs and the government are yet to perceive each other as partners/collaborators in a practical sense.

For instance, in the area of environmental governance NGOs that have been involved in assessing the environmental impact of Government sponsored projects face hostility and threats. Cases of opposition to projects (in the form of strikes and demonstrations) have been violently resisted by those in the Government. In the Karura Forest Saga environmental activists and other demonstrators were arrested in violent confrontations with the developers. The barriers occasioned by an atmosphere of suspicion and rivalry rather than cooperation and understanding have not been dismantled. The immediate challenge remains to find effective channels of

communication and constructive dialogue between the Government and civil society organizations.

Several NGOs have decried the constrained democratic space for participation and lack of the political will for stakeholder involvement in the governance and management of social services. Other constraints include insecurity, inadequate resources and mismanagement of resources; marginalization of women; externally formulated macro-economic policy and implementation of liberalization and SAPs; reluctance to address corruption and poor governance structure.

Although the NGO sector is guaranteed independence this appears yet to be realized in practice. For example, the Regulatory Committee is an oft-cited case of rights on paper only. Leadership problems associated with charismatic leaders on one hand and leaders committed to participation on the other are also common. This situation is made worse by staff problems especially intra-staff tensions.

**Restriction of fields of operation:** In Tanzania the National Policy of NGOs states that NGOs are not permitted to engage in any political activities. In South Africa NGOs often clash with the government especially on the issues of aid and legitimacy. Kenyan NGOs have not been spared this problem. In fact this has been made possible in Kenya considering that NGOs must sign a memorandum with the relevant government authorities before implementing their programs.

**Limited access to justice:** Perhaps one of the most striking examples of the limitations of freedom of association in Kenya is the case of the de-registration of the Centre for Law and Research International (CLARION). CLARION was registered in 1994. On 20th February 1995 it was deregistered by the NGO Board on the grounds that the NGO had violated its terms of registration; published material that damaged the credibility of the Government of Kenya and disseminated materials harmful to certain sectors.

This case illustrates the negative impact that the consistent strategy by the Kenyan courts of using a conservative and narrow interpretation of standing to sue can have on the operations of non-governmental environment advocacy organizations. In a number of jurisdictions the courts have interpreted standing to sue liberally to enhance access to justice. Recent cases indicate, albeit in dicta form, that the courts are willing to move away from the traditional restrictions on standing to sue.

The most recent development in the use of the law to defend environmental rights is perhaps the enactment of the Environmental Management and Coordination Act 1999. The Act establishes the right to a clean and healthy environment and creates a duty to safeguard the same. Significantly it overcomes most of the hitherto limitations on standing to sue by providing that an aggrieved person need not show special damage or peculiar injury beyond that which is suffered by other affected people.

There are also hurdles to accessing environmental information occasioned by poor bureaucratic coordination. For example, agency responsibilities (between and within ministries) overlap thus bringing about conflicts.

There are currently more than statutes of relevance to the environment, administered by several ministries and departments. Hence lack of effective coordination between government agencies means that environmental NGOs must seek information from so many sources with no assurance that the information so obtained is reliable in terms of both quality and quantity. Moreover, state bureaucracies tend to treat documents in their possession as secret. A number of the policy focused NGOs operating in the field of environment in Kenya have criticized the manner in which the Government and the donor community handles projects in the country.

The main issues in contention are the isolation by Government of NGOs from the projects and application of wrong solutions in carrying out the projects. The Environment Management and Coordination Act provide a legal basis for seeking and obtaining relevant information.



### **2.2.3 Absence of Internal Democratic Institutions in NGO Management**

NGOs have also faced problems that may be of their own making. Very few NGOs cultivate internal democratic institutions and some have been accused of embezzling funds. Good management practices demand that obvious key management concepts and principles such as sustainability, accountability, transparency, which are necessary for institutionalized formal procedures, are put in place. However, excessive formal procedures may potentially reduce NGO efficiency and capacities, frameworks, cost effectiveness analysis (type of projects identified, and the people who shape the decisions). Balancing these concerns is a delicate issue which is not helped by the fact that donors are more interested in short-term, output oriented project methodologies regardless of the management structure of an NGO. This can be discussed under the following:

**Administrative Efficiency or inefficiency of NGOs:** While a number of NGOs have achieved administrative efficiency, most have major difficulties here. Efficiency cannot be guaranteed because of the nature of NGOs themselves. Many of them are new, small and without guaranteed future. This is especially the case with local or national NGOs (LNGOs) that are still struggling to put effective and efficient management systems for good governance in place and whose survival largely depends on donor funding. There are also the problems of legitimacy. In certain cases NGOs may be easily set up. It all depends on whether one can write convincingly to donors. Such NGOs are weak and face the risk of lack of continuity. Thus the modern trends of official funding bypassing Northern NGOs are opposed by some Southern NGOs. When donor priorities determine funding there is the danger of public sector corralling the voluntary sector, whether or not NGO services are welcome by the poor. This has two main risks: it may deflect NGOs from their chosen functions and/or bring the whole sector into disrepute.

**Sustainability:** NGOs have difficulties in achieving sustainability and replicability in their projects. Sustainability has become a buzzword within development circles. It describes the

ability of a given project to remain viable after external support is terminated. NGOs' project sustainability is a lifeline to their existence. Several factors put NGOs' sustainability in jeopardy. These include those factors that are likely to enhance organizational stability some of which are: having a clear vision and mission, finances, human resource capacities in the organization and managerial skills in the organization especially the management style. Indeed the failure of NGOs to become sustainable is poignantly captured in the following statement:

Some NGOs seem to be simply getting tired of the effort and continual monitoring involved in maintaining the community involvement which is a pre-requisite of a sustainable project. They are discouraged by the number of failed projects, the number of abandoned projects, the number of groups who make no attempt to break their dependency on the NGO, but simply solicit for new resources year after year.

**Accountability:** There are also problems of accountability in some NGOs. Despite what some think of corruption in governments, there is also fraud in the private sector and NGOs are not above corruption. At times cost effectiveness is not prioritized. It is not unusual to find NGOs with too large staff and very high salaries. Of course there is the danger of professionalism sliding away if the salaries are too low. One of the most asked questions is: To who are NGO leaders accountable? Various arguments have been advanced suggesting accountability to such authorities as the boards of trustees, Government, donor agencies, staff and even project partners. Many feel that NGOs should be accountable to their benefactors while others think that NGOs should be directly answerable to the people they serve. One danger of accountability to project partners is that in most cases NGO leaders develop such close relationships with the former that it leads to absence of pressures for performance. On the other hand mutual accountability between Northern NGOs and Southern NGOs is difficult because of the existing unequal relationships. Whatever approach is taken NGOs may still find it acceptable to be accountable also to the Government at least for two inter-related reasons. This kind of accountability would facilitate

compliance with provisions of accountancy laws, NGO regulations and their equivalent. It would also increase the proportion of funds from Government agencies. The bottom line is that publicly contributed funds require rigorous accountability to protect both the donor and the recipient. Toward this end the NGO Council has produced relevant guidelines for presentation of audited accounts.

Research conducted on the responses of development NGOs to accountability challenges reveals a range of activity within specific organizations that addresses their own governance as well as programs, and a number of coalitions of NGOs who are collaborating on standards and codes. However, there is still much work to be done, with the accountability of organizations in the sector as a whole to their various constituencies appearing to be patchy. To illustrate, a study of over 600 NGOs worldwide found that most of them had given virtually no thought to the issue of their own accountability (Scholte, 2003). Their reasoning for this included efficiency, as accountability processes are seen as too expensive, as well as protestations that their power was nothing compared to governments and business, so their accountability was not a serious issue. They also questioned how working on accountability would really help them achieve their various missions. Thus, initiatives on accountability were viewed with suspicion, which is understandable given the questionable motivation of some lobbyists and government officials for regulating NGOs.

For many NGOs there remains a problem with the basic building blocks of organizational accountability—transparency of information, and an organization's governance structure. To illustrate, over 100 Philippine NGOs were asked about their finances, and only 10% responded (Faustino and Baron, 2003). Besides financial information, few are obliged, or voluntarily choose, to publish systematic, externally audited accounts of their non-financial performance (Zadek, 2003). Governance is also quite often inadequate with some managers of large organizations having complete autonomy to decide on strategy and operations, including their

own salaries. This is partly because of the way most large NGOs have grown from small initiatives of one or two people. “The more effective a CEO [Chief Executive Officer] has been in founding or building an organization, the harder it can be for them to recognize the importance of developing an independent governing body. A basic tenet of good governance is that management and governance must be separate” (Wyatt, 2003,). Research on NGOs in Eastern Europe found that “boards are often intertwined with management and thus riddled with potential conflicts of interest—a situation undermining good governance and full accountability” (Ibid,). Examples include that of 90% of Hungarian and Ukrainian NGOs having CEOs with voting rights on the board, and in 75% of cases the CEO acting as chair. The founders are often still CEOs, and they appoint new board members, thus retaining complete control. Interviews of many of these CEOs revealed that they had not really thought about their boards. However, as a result of their growing size, role and profile, many NGOs in Eastern Europe are collaborating to develop a code for good governance (Wyatt, 2003).

There is also movement with addressing these accountability deficits in other parts of the world. Looking at initiatives in seventeen Asian countries, a range of accreditation and certification bodies, rating systems, codes of conduct, discussions of charity commissions, intranet peer discussion and self-monitoring systems were found (Faustino and Baron, 2003). Standards and codes relating to accountability “have been developed the world over” (Ebrahim, 2003b,). Examples include the American Council for Voluntary International Action, the Canadian Council for International Cooperation, the Philippine Council for NGO Certification, the Voluntary Action Network India, the Commonwealth Foundation of Britain, and the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement.

Meanwhile accountability issues have also been addressed to some extent within a network of development NGOs called “People in Aid” which aims to improve management practices. It has developed a “Code of Good Practice in the management and support of aid personnel” which

comprises seven principles on: health, safety and security; learning, training and development; recruitment and selection; consultation and communication; support, management and leadership; staff policies and practices; and human resources strategy. Recognized “kite marks” are awarded to agencies that are implementing the Code, verified through a “social audit” process involving staff and other stakeholders.

These initiatives can be welcomed, yet their involvement of beneficiaries in processes of assessing NGOs still remains a challenge. For example, in the study of Asian countries mentioned above, only the GIVE Foundation in India included explicit provision for beneficiary communities to participate in the process of assessing the performance of the NGO (Faustino and Baron, 2003). Most codes that relate to accountability have been developed with the intention of demonstrating to funders that adequate systems of monitoring, evaluation and management are in place. Indeed, work on monitoring and evaluation has boomed in the past decade in response to concerns from donors as well as the professionalization of management in the voluntary sector (Davies, 2001; Fowler, 1997). This drive towards improved upwards accountability has had mixed impacts on generating improved democratic accountability, downwards to the people affected by the activities in question.

Simon Zadek, CEO of a professional association promoting organizational accountability, suggests that the “the central dilemma” here “is that mission-driven accountabilities are often to people, ‘intended beneficiaries,’ who have little influence and in general no power over the organization, while contractual accountabilities, where the power lies, in general resides with people at the other end of the pipeline, with the funders” (Zadek, 2003, p23). Upwards and downwards accountability runs in different directions, and unless upwards accountability processes are designed with democratic accountability in mind, they may be counter-productive.

One problem arises because donors often fund a vast range of projects and program and so seek information on their efficacy that is easy to measure, report and therefore to read and make a

decision on. Consequently pressure from funders has often been both reductionists, requiring complex situations be reduced into specific isolated variable and indicators; and deterministic, requiring different variables to be related to each other. This leads some to focus on a few simple factors like frugality. “Administrative costs are supposed to be as close to zero as possible, the lower the better. The American Business Magazine, Money, ‘rates’ charitable Organizations every year, usually against only one criterion: the cost of overheads.... This is like saying that the Lada is the best car in the world (or the most efficient) because it is the cheapest” (Smillie 1998, p189).

Another example of the problematic reductionist and deterministic approach is the dominant use of the “logical framework” method for assessing projects, after promotion by large funders such as the British Government’s Department for International Development (DFID) (Wallace et al., 1997). It consists of a 4 by 4 matrix which specifies the goal, purpose, outputs and inputs of a project and then “objectively” verifiable indicators that relate to these, such as the number of vaccinations conducted, or homes built. The matrix is meant to encourage project planners and evaluators to specify components of their activities and identify the linkages between a set of means and a set of ends. Some users of these logical frameworks have promoted very narrow views of indicators, so that only that which is measurable should be measured and other phenomena are thus not considered important (Davies, 2001). In this way a lot of key issues get “lost in the matrix” (Earle, 2002). Thus donor demands have been creating a tendency to accounting, not accountability, and audit not learning (Edwards and Hulme, 1996). Worse, the types of bureaucratic forms of accounting upwards that have been developed mainly with Western NGOs in mind can pose particular problems for working with Southern organizations (Ashman, 2001).

Independent studies on the monitoring and evaluation of NGOs still often report a lack of reliable evidence on the impact of their projects and programs (Davies, 2001). While such criticism needs

to be heard and acted upon, some of it arises from the paradigm of the researchers themselves, who use logical positivist approaches to measuring impact and naturally critique policies and activities where they do not conform to logical positivist thought. Therefore, despite continuing critiques about deficiencies in monitoring and evaluation, by the mid-1990s functional upwards accountability of NGOs was already fairly well developed – often it had to be – but functional downwards accountability was weak, and strategic accountability in general was not strong, as short-term priorities still dominated (Najam, 1996).

Another development organization has taken a rights based approach when reassessing its work. In 1999 Action Aid announced its intention to base its operations on the UDHR. This means going beyond the traditional charity mindset and recognizing the human rights to education, food, water, health and shelter. Action Aid now defines what it does as working with communities to help them identify and demand their rights. This is a major break from its historical approach, which was based on child sponsorships, and perhaps illustrates their realization of the limits of such specific help when social, economic and cultural systems militate against better lives for all children (Scott-Villiers, 2002).

Other NGOs have made more moderate steps in this direction. For example, Oxfam International has invited some large Southern organizations to become full members and instituted associate status for major advocacy partners that do not meet the criteria for full memberships (Clark, 2003). Even some environmental NGOs that operate internationally have moved to improve their accountability to those directly affected by their work in the South. The World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) has few Southern members and therefore had a board comprised largely of Northern-based people.

The promotion of participatory methods of assessing development project plans and experience is in part a response to this challenge of enhancing the downwards accountability of development work. The simple idea of convening focus groups from communities, among other methods, to

discuss various proposals and their own ideas rapidly spread through the international development community during the 1990s, particularly when major funders and lenders such as the World Bank began to adopt the idea of participatory approaches to development (Cooke and Kothari, 2001).

The widespread uptake of this approach has not been without problems. On the one hand it poses a problem for upwards accountability as it is difficult to aggregate the huge amounts of contextual specific data coming from participatory methods (Davies, 2001). Key things such as the quality of the participatory processes, which often depends on the commitment and local knowledge of those managing the processes, are difficult to interpret from reports. Not only is this an administrative problem, but the processes themselves often leave a lot to be desired. Processes of participation have been industrialized by consultants so that many such processes are little more than an exercise in gaining consent for predetermined strategies. Therefore some have argued that the interest in these approaches has been self-serving and has not created real accountability to poor people (Cooke and Kothari, 2001). “Young men and women who look good and talk good are now seen in five star lobbies talking participation with donors. Lengthy consulting reports at highly inflated rates are prepared for NGOs by NGOs. The upper class has shown its alacrity yet again. They are taking full advantage of the new and generous opportunity being offered...” (Samad, 1993, in Zaidi, 1999, p267).

Another criticism of participatory methods is that they have placed the emphasis on the local level, when many of the processes contributing to negative local outcomes, such as international politics and trading relations, are extra-local. They focus on the victims of international processes rather than possible victimizers. This is in keeping with the mainstream view of Western-dominated institutions like the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank and bilateral aid agencies which often cast the problem of poverty and non-sustainability as the result of individual States’ situations in the South rather than oppressing global politics and economics



(Mawdsley and Rigg, 2002). This is compounded by the way donors require mechanistic summaries of project goals and achievements, rather than focusing on the underlying processes of maldevelopment and how to change them (Zaidi, 1999).

Consequently, some argue that the work of development NGOs is very limited, and worse, limiting other means of social change. The criticism is that they focus on specific projects and don't have the expertise, mandate, interest or political power to address the real determinants of poverty and inequality in the world today (Zaidi, 1999). Some view them as therefore allied to anti-State and neoliberal ideology (Kamat, 2003). This raises the difficult question of whether by their very existence and success NGOs distract and detract from an agenda that would be necessary to ensure delivery of adequate services to all. Taken together, the largest NGOs in Bangladesh, even including the Grameen Bank, only reach less than 20% of landless households (Edwards and Hulme, 1996). In other countries the figure is nearer 1% (Vivian, 1994). These people are negatively affected by NGOs if those NGOs' claims of delivering development then prevent other strategies from being pursued, such as different macroeconomic policies and more State intervention.

This negative impact is indirect, mediated through others and through policy discourse, which illustrates the limitations of any understanding of accountability that only considers simple direct relations between agents and objects. This analysis also raises the possibility that the whole external/procedural accountability agenda for development NGOs might add strength to this policy myth, as when organizations self-report to power holders, be it donors or the public, they will always look for the positives. It would be straightforward for groups like Oxfam or Christian Aid to report that their development projects are fairly insignificant and transient because of the negative effects of the system that generates their funders' income.

Since the early 1990s, a growing realization of the limitations of project-based development assistance led more development NGOs to engage in policy advocacy (Edwards and Hulme,

1996). NGOs in the West have become very adept at changing diverse issues, from hunger to harassment, debt to deforestation, into succinct issues of moral outrage—which the mass media can then report. This form of campaigning has been directed at governments, intergovernmental organizations and corporations, often with the intention of generating specific policy responses due to public pressure. This campaigning is itself a mechanism for holding such institutions to account, and providing affected persons with new means for being heard, and improving their situation (Bendell, 2000).

#### **2.2.4 Financial resources**

Dwindling financial resources constitute another major problem for Kenyan NGOs. It is largely due to two main factors: global economic recession, and political transformation-the geopolitics in the North and foreign policy. The most visible effects of this problem include reduction of services and the demise of weak NGOs.

This could however provide an opportunity for NGOs to review their mission and goals and engender sustainability in their programs of work. Dependence on Northern NGOs for support largely because of competition for funds is not sustainable in the long run and may result in duplication of roles as different NGOs place themselves strategically to receive resources from their northern allies. Equally problematic and attributable in part to the same trend is the rivalry, isolation and irregular, subjective documentation all geared toward fundraising and not maximizing on the synergies between NGOs working in the same fields.

### **2.3 Leadership styles**

There are a wide range of definitions of the concept of leadership and the role of a leader. Dictionary definitions identify a leader as one that provides guidance by going in front, or causes others to go with them. Leadership is defined as the capacity to lead. In a recent review of leadership theory Northouse (2004) identified four common themes that run through much of leadership theory: Leadership is a process, leadership involves influence, leadership occurs in a

group context, leadership involves the attainment of goals. Based on this analysis leadership was defined as ‘a process whereby an individual influences a group or individuals to achieve a common goal’. But it is clear that no one definition encapsulates all the facets of leadership. Consequently we must accept there will be a range of different interpretations and perceptions of leadership and what leaders do. Below are the various types of leaders.

**Paternalistic** leaders typically demonstrate a patriarchal or matriarchal style of leadership. Their approach is often built on established personal or kinship relationships. They can inspire great loyalty, and have strong, close, possibly even a familial relationship with staff and volunteers. But to outsiders they can appear autocratic, reliant on hierarchical ways of working or top-down organizational structures, and overly-dependent on traditional relationship which may not be sustainable in the long run.

**Activist** leaders are actively engaged in advocacy and lobbying work. They are highly motivated, often charismatic, and typically focused on a single issue. They have the ability to channel the anger or concerns of local communities and solidarity groups to achieve political imperatives. In practice they energize and inspire ‘followers’ with clearly articulated messages – sometimes at the expense of dealing with more mundane managerial or organizational issues.

**Managerialist** leaders are rated for their managerial and administrative abilities. They typically demonstrate an instrumental ability to manage organizations, and can effectively establish reliable systems and appropriate structures, as well as manage a diverse workforce with established roles and responsibilities. While they may not be comfortable with change or coping with diverse partners and external stakeholders, they demonstrate a ‘professional’ approach to development, have a track record in raising funds, meeting deadlines and undertaking commissions as a ‘contractor’.

**Catalytic** leaders typically act as strategic catalysts within the NGO context, and have the ability to promote and implement change. They demonstrate a wider world-view, and the capacity to take

a longer-term strategic view while balancing tough decisions about strategic priorities with organizational values and identity. Their success as change agents depends on their ability to delegate work to talented colleagues, so freeing time to engage actively with external stakeholders and partners, build coalitions and strategic alliances, and be involved in a variety of networks.

### **2.3.1 Leadership under NGO context**

There are worries about the lack of leadership talent to be found within the context of the non-profit sector as a whole. This ‘leadership deficit’ will become a matter of urgency as the sector expands over the next twenty years. It is estimated that in the US alone over half a million new senior managers will have to be developed for leadership positions in the period 2007–2016. What is also apparent is that many of these jobs will be filled by individuals recruited from outside the sector who will have had limited experience of running non-profits at a senior level.

Currently it is estimated that only 40 per cent of senior management positions in US non-profits are filled by internal appointments and that the remainder are recruited externally (Tierney, 2006).

In the 1990s the International Forum on Capacity Building, which was an international coalition of NGOs concerned with building the organizational and managerial capacity of the sector as a whole, consistently voiced its concerns at the quality and availability of appropriate leadership. It argued strongly for increased investment to develop a new generation of NGO leaders (1998 and 2001). CIVICUS, an international alliance of civil society organizations, similarly identified the lack of NGO leadership talent as a matter of particular concern. It suggested that this was partly a consequence of the rapid turnover of senior staff and the difficulty in replacing them, and that NGOs needed to do more to recruit and retain effective leaders (CIVICUS, 2002). Unfortunately much of our understanding of the way leaders work and what motivates them is based on research into the role and character of leaders in the business, political or military sectors. Furthermore, much of this research is based on studies in the developed industrialized countries of the North, with a particular focus on the individualistic, low power distance cultures of North America or

Europe (Kotter, 1996, Adair, 2002, Bennis & Nanus, 2004). Relatively little research has been undertaken on leadership in the non-profit or public sector, and what research there is has mainly been based on the experience of US non-profits and has focused on the work of Boards rather than individual leaders. Allison (2002) reviewed the number of books concerned with non-profit management carried by Amazon.com, and estimated that only about 10 per cent were concerned with non-profit leadership – virtually all of which were based on the US experience and were concerned with Board and Governance issues.

Much of the current leadership research is therefore not relevant to the different social, cultural and political environments in which NGO leaders work (Hailey & James, 2004). The INTRAC Praxis program is trying to address this gap (see the range of Praxis Papers and Notes in this area: e.g. James et al. 2005, James, 2005 a, b and c, Symes, 2006). While NGO-specific research and writing on leadership may be in short supply, it does exist and is growing as can be analyzed below.

### **2.2.1.1 Responding to Culture and Context**

Clearly leadership styles are contingent on the context in which they are applied. But they also depend on the ability of the individual's diagnostic skills and judgment to know what style to adopt and when to adapt their style to suit the circumstances. This influence of culture and context on leadership styles is highlighted in the recent research into NGO leadership in South Asia (see for example Smillie & Hailey, 2001) or sub-Saharan Africa (see for example Fowler et al., 2002; James, 2005a). The conclusions are supported by the findings of researchers analyzing the characteristics of leadership styles of African managers generally. Mintzberg (2006) refers to what he calls their 'engaging' management style, while Jackson (2004a) highlights the importance of a 'humanist' style in the African cultural context.

Any understanding of the role and performance of NGO leaders must incorporate the environment in which they work. Recent research into NGO leaders in Kenya, Malawi and Uganda highlights

the way in which they operate simultaneously in three different worlds – the global aid world, the urban context in which they live and work, and the rural village setting where many of their extended family still lives (James, 2005a). This research reveals how NGO leaders have to adapt to new leadership roles, the stresses arising from pressure of work, and the demands of organizational crises – commonly around financial shortfalls, internal conflicts or tensions between the staff and the Board. Kaplan (2002) concludes that the unrealistic and artificial demands placed by aid donors add to the pressure faced by local NGO leaders. The donor's emphasis on tight project schedules, over-hasty timeframes and quick results is both unrealistic, developmental bad-practice, and has a negative impact on the credibility and confidence of NGO leaders. Such demands have a detrimental effect on the ability of many NGO leaders to pursue long-term goals or develop a degree of financial sustainability.

NGO leadership also needs to be seen in the wider political and social context. For example, Fowler, Ng'ethe and Owiti's (2002) analysis of the determinants of civic leadership in Kenya emphasized the importance of the wider political and institutional framework in determining the performance of NGO leaders. NGOs, as part of an active civil society, are inherently part of a wider political process. As a result their work is susceptible to politically-inspired restrictions. NGO leaders are commonly perceived as a political threat that needs to be subverted or removed. Apart from the impact of such tangible political concerns there is also the unquantifiable and intangible influence of caste, class, religion and culture.

There is an ongoing debate as to the influence of culture on management strategies and leadership styles (Jackson, 2004a). Contradictory evidence suggests that on the one hand, the more participative and collective leadership style that many NGOs espouse is shaped by the collectivist nature of society found in much of the developing world; on the other hand, the more autocratic approach adopted by individual NGO leaders is the product of the high power distance dimensions common to these cultures. For example, the evidence from research in Uganda

suggests that such leaders face specific cultural pressures which, associated with the expectations of their staff, results in them playing a more paternalistic role than they might want to. However benign this role may be, it detracts from their ability to make hard decisions or play a more 'professional' managerial role (James et al., 2005). In turn this places individual leaders under great personal pressure. They have to meet the expectations and financial demands of family members, and manage the 'power distance' relations between themselves as managers and their staff. It has also been suggested that the paternalistic nature of many NGO leaders is a natural consequence of the high levels of commitment and shared sense of ownership common to many NGOs (Fowler, 1997).

The paternalistic nature of some leadership in the NGO sector is a matter of some concern. There are many anecdotal stories about the detrimental impact of paternalistic founder leaders, 'charismatic autocrats' or 'the guru syndrome'. On the one hand such leaders demonstrate drive and commitment, and a remarkable ability to mobilize people and resources; on the other hand they are criticized for dominating organizations, being unaccountable, and failing to adapt to changing circumstances. Chambers (1997) suggests that many NGO leaders achieve things through their 'guts, vision and commitment', but the way they use (or abuse) power is a 'disability' that jeopardizes organizational effectiveness. He argues such charismatic leaders are 'vulnerable to acquiescence, deference, flattery and placation'. They are not easily contradicted or corrected. As a result they actively suffocate promising initiatives that may threaten their power base, relationships or position of patronage.

Despite these concerns most of the recent research into NGO leadership emphasizes the significance of good leadership. An effective leader can transform an organization by providing direction, inspiring staff, mobilizing new resources while still maintaining a clear organizational identity, and promoting shared values.

### **2.3.1.2 Working Relationships and Participation**

As has already been noted leadership behavior is directly influenced by leaders' definitions of themselves in relation to their colleagues and work teams. As such leadership is not so much about individuals as it is about relationships. It is a dynamic process of mutual influence between leaders and followers. A noteworthy finding of the recent research among NGO leaders in Uganda has been the way in which leaders have embraced a more participatory leadership style. Traditionally dominant leaders are increasingly sharing decision-making with their staff and encouraging a more participatory culture in their organizations (James et al., 2005). One of the paradoxical issues that research has uncovered concerns the way in which

Successful NGO leaders manage the tensions inherent in being a strong individual lead while still appearing to be highly participative and collegial in the way they manage. Many NGOs in the South espouse collective decision-making and participatory management, yet have clear hierarchies and accept strong leadership.

To some, the concepts of leadership and participation seem incompatible. Yet what has emerged is that strong leadership and participatory management can be complementary and compatible. Research into South Asian NGOs shows that such 'participatory management' needs a particular mindset and specific management competencies. First and foremost, it means that successful leaders must be able to listen, and must be able to respond to what is being said. They have to be adept at managing cross functional teams and a range of decentralized operations. Their ability to lead such teams depends on their willingness and ability to listen, show empathy, and enter into meaningful dialogue, as well as their ability to inspire and convince the skeptical.

Collective management and effective team working has been crucial to the success of such local NGO leaders, and they all acknowledged the importance of their colleagues in their success (Smiley & Hailey, 2001). What is also striking from any review of this research is the different roles that such leaders have to play whatever the culture or context. Their success is determined



by their ability to work in a participative manner, be comfortable with sharing their leadership role, and work in a collective style. As a result many NGO leaders have a chameleon-like ability to play different roles and adopt different leadership styles. Yet they are also capable of undertaking the most basic management tasks, as well as balancing the demands of different stakeholders in ways that do not compromise their individual identity and values. These 'development leaders' display an extraordinary set of skills and competencies because of the complexity of the contexts in which they have to operate and the challenges they have to face.

## **2.4 Impact of NGO Development Projects**

Between 10% and 15% of all aid to developing countries (over \$6 billion) is channeled by or through Non- Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Although emergency assistance accounts for a significant (and in recent years rising) share of total NGO aid-flows, the majority of NGO aid is currently provided for development projects and programs.

In the past there has been little evidence with which to judge the contribution NGOs make to development. Very few NGOs, big or small, have a portfolio of representative evaluations of past projects which they place in the public domain. Where assessments have been carried out, especially using external evaluators, these have commonly focused on 'problem' projects, constituting an unrepresentative sample which, understandably, NGOs have not wished to distribute widely. Uncertainty about how to evaluate impact, combined with the high cost of undertaking evaluations which sometimes exceeds the cost of the project itself, has constrained NGOs from commissioning more impact assessments.

Over the past two decades official donors have increased their funding of NGO development projects (see ODI Briefing Paper 1995(4), NGOs and Official Donors). As these funds began to account for a significant part of the overall aid program, it became increasingly necessary for donor organizations to ensure that these funds were being used well. Because of the limitations of available assessments, donors started to commission or undertake for themselves their own impact

assessments.

Between 1988 and 1995, at least 11 official donors initiated assessments of the impact of NGO development activities part-funded by them. (These were Australia, Canada, European Union, Denmark, Finland, Germany, The Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden, and United Kingdom). A notable absence from this list is the United States which accounts for nearly 50% of total OECD donor aid to NGOs. Nevertheless, although the US Agency for International Development (USAID) has never commissioned an overall impact assessment, all large Private Voluntary Organization (PVO) projects in receipt of government funds have been required, at least since the early 1980s to be evaluated externally at completion.

#### **2.4.1 Evaluation methods used**

Donors tend to fund NGO development activities on a project-by-project basis; all the evaluations have therefore focused on the impact of these discrete projects. Because most donors have funded many hundreds of different NGO projects over the past 10 to 15 years (in 1994 alone, Sweden was funding over 2,000 NGO projects in over 100 countries), it was practical to assess only a small sample. The most common approach has been to select a small number of countries (usually between 4 and 9) in which a fairly large cluster of NGO projects are funded, and then, following discussion with the NGOs concerned, to choose a sample of projects for closer scrutiny.

For most of the projects, a two-tiered approach was used. First, they were assessed against the specific objectives for which the donor had provided the funds - if the project was to construct a school, has the school been built; if it was to bring clean water to a village, has it been supplied? Second they were usually assessed also in relation to a.; wider set of criteria, not least in order to try to judge how the lives of the beneficiaries had been helped. The criteria chosen were typically based on characteristics which NGOs highlight as important to their approach to development (poverty focus, innovativeness and flexibility) and on issues considered critical for development (gender focus, sustainability, environmental impact). In addition, a smaller number of impact

assessment studies (the Finnish, Swedish and British) attempted to move beyond projects to assess impact more broadly, while the Dutch initiated similar studies (its country profiles) later on. These broader assessments commonly included comparisons of the projects selected with other NGO projects in the country; an overall assessment of the role, influence and importance of NGOs in relation to wider development processes; and judgments of the advantages (comparative or absolute) of NGOs viz-a-viz official aid initiatives.

Three additional points about the methods used should be noted. First, because of the paucity of base-line and quantitative data, most assessments had to be based predominantly on qualitative information. Second, confidence in the judgments made was often helped by using a joint evaluation approach, combining the inputs of a minimum of two evaluators, one usually an external evaluator selected by the donor, and one from the country concerned. Third, the principal focus of the studies was on the impact of NGO activities, not on planning, management and capacity of the NGO itself.

## **2.4.2 Results of donor impact assessments**

### **2.4.2.1 The narrow perspective**

The studies conclude that the vast majority of projects assessed do succeed in achieving their narrower and immediate objectives: in some studies, over 90% were recorded as successes, and in most cases the figure was well above 80%. In some cases, a lack of data made it impossible to make any judgment, while failure to meet immediate objectives was frequently attributed to the following factors: a lack of communication between the executing NGO and the implementing agency; the influence of factors external to the project; and (least common) the diversion of funds and/or corrupt practices.

### **2.4.2.2 Wider Perspective**

The following paragraphs summarize some of the findings of the studies in relation to these broader criteria, drawing mainly on the findings of the Australian, British, Danish, Dutch, Finnish

and Swedish studies.

**Poverty reach.** A number of NGO projects appear capable of reaching further 'down' to the poor than comparable government or official donor programs. However, a high proportion of NGO projects aimed broadly at the poor were found not to be based on any community-based poverty assessments, and many of these failed to reach some of the poorest. NGO projects with the greatest ability to reach down to the poorest are those which cover whole communities. Yet many of these have to be large, and are therefore costly and require special skills to be run efficiently. The impact of projects on the poor could often not be gauged accurately for lack of data. Where judgments could be made, the evidence varied markedly, in the best, but rare, instances increasing income by 50% and more. Yet even successful projects fail to enable people to 'escape' from poverty; as the Dutch study argues, one should not expect such dramatic results from most NGO projects.

**Participation.** Participatory approaches are widely seen as a critical ingredient for both project success and sustainability and, in broad terms, the studies confirm a link between success and participation. But they suggest that participation tends to be far stronger when projects are up and running, and to be weakest both at the project design stage and when working out how to wind down projects. There is also evidence of a minority of projects achieving their objectives with little or no beneficiary participation.

**Gender.** It is rare to find an NGO which does not express its commitment to gender issues. However, the impact assessments indicate that a wide range of NGO projects remain 'gender blind' and fail to conduct a gender analysis or fail to address prevailing patterns of discrimination. Many projects reinforce traditional gender roles, though the studies also record some impressive examples of progress made, in South Asia more than in Africa.

**Environment.** The small scale of most NGO projects means that they have very little capacity to influence the natural environment either positively or negatively. Only a relatively few projects

funded by NGOs are concerned explicitly with the environment. Yet a number were found to have negative effects on the environment; these were often projects where not even a superficial environmental assessment was made.

**Replicability, flexibility and innovation.** Owing to the 'snapshot' nature of the studies, it was not possible to assess whether the projects examined might be replicated elsewhere in the future. Cases were found of NGOs failing to implement projects successfully which had followed a model that had been successful elsewhere, often because of the absence of necessary staff skills. Few of the projects stood out as being particularly innovative or flexible; where innovation was found, it was often merely new to a particular area or country, and thus a replication of other NGO efforts. Where striking examples of innovation were found, these were frequently the result of years of costly research and experimentation. Where flexibility was found it appeared to be linked to the (small) size of the project and the particular skills, strengths and attributes of the NGO implementing the project.

**Pre-project appraisal, evaluation and monitoring.** Many weak projects are characterized by superficial or non-existent pre-project appraisal, failure to undertake an analysis of community needs, and pressures to spend money quickly. Though monitoring and evaluation are now more common for projects run by larger NGOs, these tend to focus more on monitoring than on evaluation. Evaluation often still takes place only because donors require it, or when particular problems arise.

**Sustainability.** Donors are increasingly concerned about the financial sustainability of the NGO projects they fund. The impact studies reveal a high proportion of projects which are financially unsustainable, especially those serving poorer groups which are unable to recover total costs from user fees. Donors increasingly 'demand' financial sustainability; yet continue to fund projects where the prospects of achieving this remain poor.

**Cost-effectiveness.** The majority of projects assessed were exceptionally weak in terms of

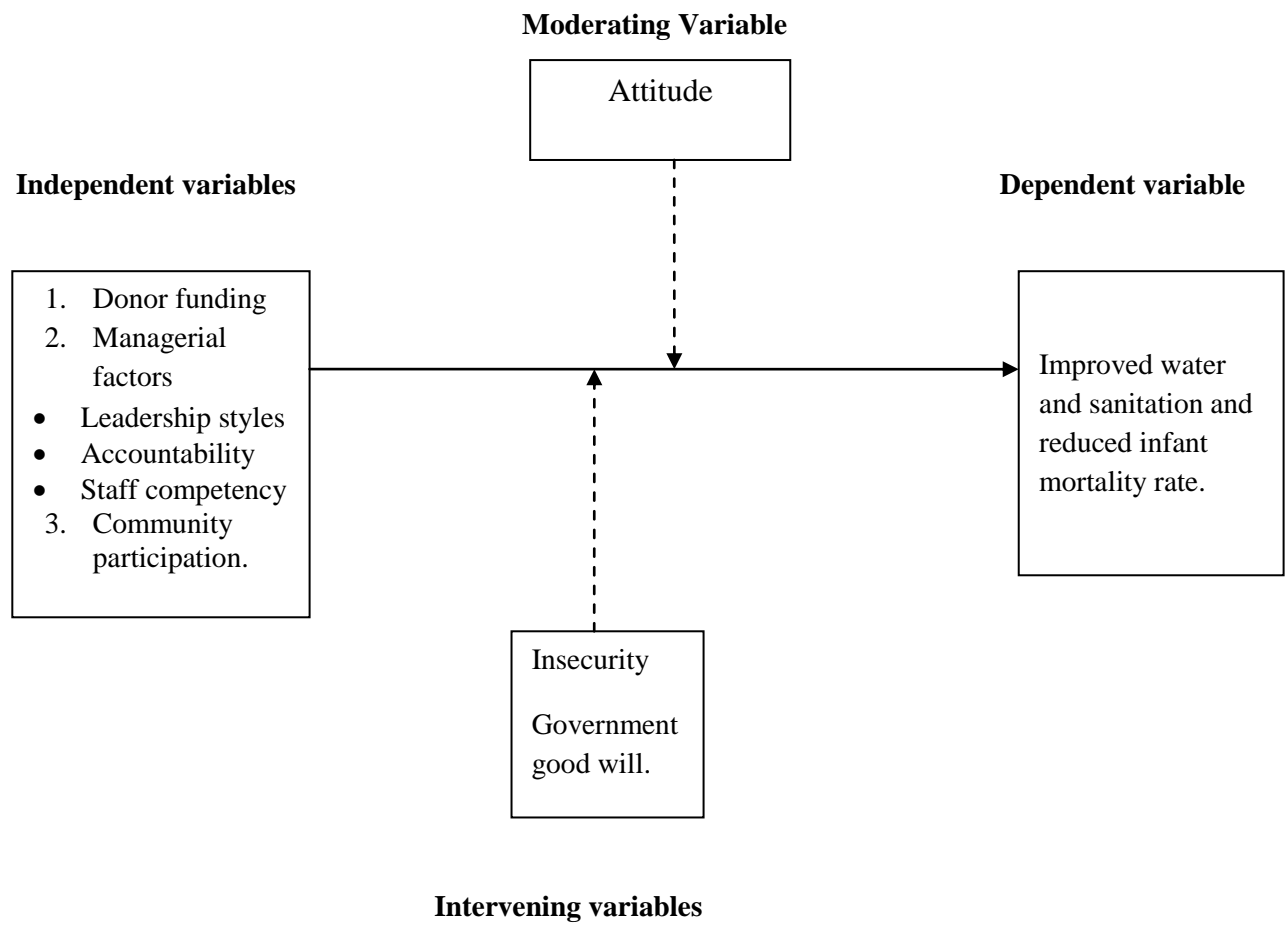
collecting and providing data on costs and relating these to the benefits achieved, thus making it difficult, if not impossible, to judge their cost effectiveness. Improvements in the lives of beneficiaries are commonly attributed to an NGO project without further analysis. Those studies (the Danish and Australian) which concluded that NGOs are cost-effective used the term simply to mean cheaper than official donor projects but failed to show how these conclusions were derived.

**Impact beyond the project.** Not all studies analyzed impact beyond the project, but unsurprisingly, the available evidence pointed to the importance that the economic and political context has on the ability of project activities to improve the lives of the poor. NGO projects have most difficulty in making an impact, and are most expensive to implement in terms of the cost per beneficiary, in the same context as government and official donor projects experience problems: namely in geographically isolated and economically marginal areas.

## **2.5 Conceptual framework**

The researcher sought to give conceptual framework about NGOs' service delivery to the host communities which he has used to analyze data. The conceptual data is focused on the literature about NGOs' service delivery which he has used to investigate the constraints which are indicated as independent variables in the figure below. This sub-topic explores to understand the concepts used in the study and conceptual framework; understanding service provision and NGOs' context in Kenya (Refer to the figure below)

**Fig.2.1 conceptual framework**



## **CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides comprehensive information on how the study was carried out. These include; research design, methods of data collection and data analysis. Also contain the type of sampling used in the data collection.

### **3.2 Research Design**

This study was both quantitative and qualitative in nature. It was qualitative because it employed a naturalistic approach that sought to understand phenomena in context – specific settings, such as real world setting where the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest (Patton 2001.p39). It is also qualitative because its findings were not arrived at by means of statistical procedures and quantification (Stranss and Corbin 1990 p. 17) but instead data was collected in form of text, statements and views. Thirdly, the study is qualitative because it focused on depth and detail like interviews, focus group discussions and observation.

### **3.3Target Population**

The target population was two thousand beneficiaries from the host communities. This population was drawn from all the six districts of Garissa County namely: Garissa, Balambala, Lagdera, Dadaab, Fafi and Ijara districts. The population composed of men, women and children particularly those in primary school.

### **3.4 Sampling procedure**

The researcher has used simple random sampling technique which enhanced equal representation and unbiased selection of the target population. Stratified sampling has also been used where equal



representation was paramount. For instance it was important to have separated men and women, boys and girls before carrying out the random sampling.

Out of the two thousand beneficiaries, a sample of four hundred was chosen which is twenty percent of the population. Reference was made to presentation by Richard M Jacobs, OSA, PhD, EDU 8603, and Educational Research about the sampling criteria.

### **3.5 Methods of Data Collection**

The study made use of both primary and secondary data. The secondary data was accessed from documents that were already available in the internet, text books, NGOs / government offices and print media. The primary data was collected using the questionnaires, Focus Group Discussions and interview schedules. The researcher developed questionnaires which were administered to the sample chosen and were tailored to suit the objectives of the study. The language used was simple which enhanced easy understanding during the administering of the questionnaires in the field.

### **3.6 Validity and Reliability**

As a measure to keep reliability, the researcher administered questionnaires only to the natives from the host community as deemed to have similar tastes and preference and socio-cultural values. For instance the researcher targeted the pastoral communities from the entire Garissa County. Also the researcher administered the questionnaires within one fiscal year with the assumption that all the NGOs operate under the same calendar. Test – retest method was also applied in this research. Validity was enhanced by tailoring the questions to focus particularly on NGOs’ service delivery. This explored much on the study topic prompting to answering of the research questions.

### 3.7 Operationalizing of Variables

Research question	Variables	Measurement	Indicator	Tools of analysis
Is there any relationship between service delivery and poor road infrastructure, poor community participation and insecurity in Garissa county?	Service delivery (IV) Infrastructure(IV)  Community participation(IV)  Insecurity(MV)	ordinal ordinal  ordinal  ordinal	Improved living standards  Efficient transport  Reduced conflicts  Restricted movement	Standard reports  Report tables
Is management or leadership styles a contributor to poor service delivery among the NGOs?	Management(IV)  Service delivery(IV)	ordinal  ordinal	Accountability, staff efficiency Improved living standards	Standard reports  Report tables
Has there been any significant impact realized as a result of service delivery by the NGOs in Garissa county?	Impact(DV)  Service delivery(IV)	ordinal  ordinal	Change in economic status Improved living standards	Standard reports  Report tables

### 3.8 Methods of Data Analysis

After administering the questionnaires and having been dully filled and submitted, the researcher embarked on data analysis using both descriptive and inferential techniques. Standard tables were used throughout the process of data analysis. This was done using computer software; SPSS i.e. Special Package for Social Scientists.

### **3.9 Ethical considerations**

#### **3.9.1 Permit from the relevant authorities**

The researcher sought permit from the ministry of State for the Development of Northern Kenya and Other Arid Lands to legitimize the research study. This permit was in form of an introductory letter by the Drought Management Officer Arid Lands Resource Management Project, introducing the researcher to his respondents. University of Nairobi also recommended on the study before the researcher embarked on the data collection in the field.

#### **3.9.2 Confidentiality of information**

The researcher in turn and in his introductory letter assured his respondents of the confidentiality of information collected from them and that the information acquired shall only be used for the purposes of the research study and not for any other purpose whatsoever. Saunders and Thornhill (2000) argue that Privacy is the cornerstone of ethical issues that confront those who undertake research.

#### **3.9.3 Acknowledgement of sources**

Sources of information in this study have been fully acknowledged with all the authors referenced under the reference. Those who contributed in one way or the other towards completion of this research study were also acknowledged especially the two supervisors from University of Nairobi.

### **3.10 summary**

This chapter has deliberated on the plan of the study, structure and the strategies which the researcher employed over the entire research process. It has extensively discussed about the design and methodology which had been adopted in carrying out the research. Also discussed in this chapter are: target population, sampling procedure, research instruments, validity and reliability of the research, operationalizing of variables, data collection procedures, data analysis technique and ethical consideration touching on the entire research study.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter focuses on the questionnaire return rate, data presentation, interpretation and discussion of findings. The presentation was done based on the research questions.

### **4.2 Questionnaire return rate**

Questionnaire return rate is the proportion of the sample that participated in the survey as intended in all the research procedures. Out of the 400 questionnaires administered to the respondents, 370 were returned and other respondents vanished with the questionnaires thus making a questionnaire return rate of 93%, which was quite significant.

### **4.3 Demography**

It comprised of gender, age and level of education.

**Table 4.1 Gender**

Road status	Frequency	Percent
Male	215	58
Female	155	42
Total	370	100

As indicated in table 4.1, respondents constituted of (58%) Male and (42%) female.

**Table 4.2 Ages**

Age	Frequency	Percent
<30	111	30
30-40	152	41
40-50	81	22
>50	26	7
Total	370	100

Table 4.2 shows the age of respondents. Majority (41%) were between 30-40 years of age, followed by (30%) for those below 30 years, (22%) 40-50 years and (7%) above 50 years of age.

**Table 4.3 Level of Education**

Level of education	Frequency	Percent
Primary	148	40
Secondary	115	31
Tertiary	81	22
University	26	7
Total	370	100

Table 4.3 indicates that (40%) of respondents were educated up to primary level, (31%) secondary level (22%) tertiary level and (7%) university level. There is a decline in percentage as level of education increases.

#### **4.4 Factors contributing to poor service delivery among the NGOs**

One of the objectives of the study was to establish the factors contributing to poor service delivery among the NGOs. The respondents were asked about the state of roads, what influence roads have on service delivery by NGOs, Security state in Garissa, Government involvement in ensuring that security was taken care of. It was thought to influence service delivery among the NGOs. Respondents were therefore asked on the status of roads in Garissa County and the results are shown in Table 4.4

**Table 4.4 How do you rate the status of Roads in Garissa County?**

Road status	Frequency	Percent
Very good	41	11
Good	69	19
Poor	130	35
Very poor	130	35
Total	370	100

As indicated in Table 4.4, majority of the respondents (70%) agreed that road status in Garissa county is poor. The rest (30%) said roads were in good condition.

Besides road status, the study tried to find out if road status affected service delivery in Garissa county and the results are as shown in Table 4.5

**Table 4.5 Does road status affect service delivery by NGOs in Garissa county?**

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	300	81
No	70	19
Total	370	100

As indicated in Table 4.5, majority of the respondents (81%) agreed that bad roads in Garissa county affected service delivery. Everybody who was interviewed said that roads in Garissa county are impassable while some areas are inaccessible due to lack of roads. The rest (19%) said roads in the county do not affect service delivery by NGOs. This is because everybody who was interviewed and claimed that roads were in good condition lamented on persistent insecurity in the study area and so road status did not bother them much.

The researcher went ahead to find out how road status affected service delivery and respondents attributed it to various reasons as indicated in Table 4.6

**4.6 How does road status affect service delivery?**

	Frequency	Percent
Delays in service delivery due to impassable roads	274	74
Road accidents	19	5
Insecurity on roads	77	21
Total	370	100



According to Table 4.6, it is clear that bad roads in Garissa led to delays in service delivery as majority of the respondents (74%) were concerned at the rate at which services reached the target beneficiaries. A negligible percentage (5%) said that road accidents were due to bad status of roads and as a result affected service delivery to a large extent. (21%) claimed that insecurity on roads had rendered services by NGOs stall while others took long to ensure that locals were served at the predetermined time.

The study also tried to find out if security was tolerable and the results are as shown in Table 4.7

**Table 4.7 How do you rate the security situation in the county?**

	Frequency	Percent
Very good	26	7
Good	59	16
Poor	107	29
Very poor	178	48
Total	370	100

As Table 4.7 shows, about 77% of the respondents said that security in Garissa was of much concern and affected service delivery to a large extent. Majority of them were concerned at the rate at which NGOs had largely been constrained by this factor and often services were not reaching the target beneficiaries. Asked if Security personnel breached their roles in ensuring that insecurity was rooted out, some claimed that there is some laxity in the police force and the National Security Intelligence Service (NSIS) thus affecting their efficiency while others sympathized as police officers had been killed in many instances.

23% of the respondents rated security in Garissa as either Very good or good. They attributed their responses to the extent at which Government had ensured that Alshabaab sympathizers were flushed out of the county thus improving security status in the area.

It was noted that majority of those who said security status in Garissa was poor were either educated up to primary or had gone through informal education. Nonetheless a number of those who had better academic credentials were hesitant and acknowledged that security status had been in control however the process was tedious. The study went further to investigate if government was keen in providing security in Garissa and the results are indicated in Table 4.8

**Table 4.5 Is Government keen in providing security in Garissa county?**

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	204	55
No	166	45
Total	370	100

According to Table 4.8, majority of respondents (55%) agreed with the fact that government had ensured security on roads was to the required standard to accommodate service delivery to the locals. Those who agreed felt that government had provided security personnel to ensure that NGOs were secure in the areas they served. This is so by providing security escort to NGO staff. A sizeable number (45%) said that government was not keen in ensuring that security was a priority in Garissa. They lamented that areas supported by NGOs were majorly affected and as a result constraint service delivery as roads leading to such areas were not safe.

The study went further to investigate whether there was any resistance from the host communities and the results were as indicated in table 4.9

**Table 4.9 Any resistance from host communities?**

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	56	15
No	314	85
Total	370	100

As to whether there was resistance from the host communities, there was a clear majority for those agreeing or disagreeing. About 85% of respondents said there was no resistance from the communities benefiting from NGO services. The rest (15%) disagreed. However it was noted that level of education and age of respondents were the main determinants of which side the respondent was taking. It was clear that majority of the middle aged respondents with good academic credentials i.e. secondary up to university did support the idea that host communities were resistant while respondents above 50 years of age did not support it.

#### **4.5 Effective development approaches that are contemporary and compatible to the host communities.**

The study also sought to establish effective approaches that are contemporary and compatible to the host communities.

To start with, the study investigated if community was involved in projects funded by NGOs and the responses were as in Table 4.10

**Table 4.10 Is the host community involved in projects funded by NGOs?**

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	96	26
No	274	74
Total	370	100

According to Table 4.10, majority of the respondents (77%) disagreed while the rest (26%) said they .were involved in projects and were even assigned administrative positions. However it was clear that majority did not engage themselves in such projects and so did not have any information as pertains what NGOs does in particular. The study went further to investigate what exactly the community did on the projects funded by NGOs and this was directed to the (26%) of the respondents who agreed that they were involved in projects and the answers were as shown in Table 4.11

**Table 4.11**how is the community involved in projects funded by NGOs?

	Frequency	Percent
Evaluation and survey	48	13
Attending project based forums	48	13
Locals empowered and awarded with project contracts	140	38
Engaging locals in sustainability initiatives	134	36
Total	370	100

As shown in table 4.11 above, (36%) of the respondents said they were involved in sustainability initiatives. The initiatives they say were mainly targeted at ensuring that projects were income generating to be able to be self-sustaining. (38%) of the respondents mentioned that NGOs had awarded them with project contracts and as a result they were able to maximize resources since they were aware same projects will benefit them. They also expressed their excitement that they were mandated to manage the projects on their own and upon exit by the donor. (13%) of the respondents were actively involved in project based forums and the remaining (13%) said they were involved in the initial stages of the projects including decision making. Education and age was categorically noticeable among the respondents. Majority of the respondents below 40 years and educated said they were part of the reconnaissance team and involved in key decision making strategies while those above 50 years of age and illiterate said they were involved in sustainability initiatives. The

study went further to establish the nature of NGOs projects in Garissa County and the responses were as shown in Table 4.12

**Table 4.12** which projects would you suggest NGOs should increase funding?

	Frequency	Percent
Water and sanitation	107	29
Nutrition	63	17
Agriculture	48	13
Microfinance	33	9
Child protection	11	3
Health	37	10
Education	11	3
Food security	60	16
Total	370	100

As indicated in table 4.12 above, a sizeable number (29%) of the respondents stated water and sanitation as a major project which requires more attention. Respondents were concerned about water and sanitation as this affected their day to day undertakings. It was however noted that projects run across all economic areas in almost equal measure since various NGOs each dealt with a specific project. The rest of the respondents were interested in various fields depending on where they thought was not fully explored. This included Nutrition (17%), Agriculture (13%), Micro-finance (9%), Child protection (3%), Health (10%), Education (3%) and Food security (16%). The study went further to investigate the cost of projects initiated by NGOs and the answers were as in Table 4.13

**Table 4.13 Cost of projects ever implemented by NGOs**

	Frequency	Percent
<1M	133	36
1-5M	155	42
5-10M	59	16
>10M	23	6
Total	370	100

Table 4.13 clearly shows that (78%) of respondents estimated the cost of projects to below 5M. The study found that the cost of projects were manageable which meant that they were not complex. However no one was certain if all the projects completed were self-supporting and produce revenue within a certain period of time. (22%) of the respondents thought that the cost of the projects was high above 5M hence demonstrated complexity. However this implied that NGOs were investing immensely to ensure that living standards of the community was raised to above average. The study also sought to establish whether the community was satisfied with the project approach adopted by NGOs and the responses were as shown in Table 4.14

**Table 4.14 Are you satisfied with the project's approach adopted by NGOs?**

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	192	52
No	178	48
Total	370	100

According to Table 4.14 (52%) of respondents said they were satisfied with project's approach by NGOs while (48%) disagreed. It was evident that majority of those who live in remote areas acknowledged NGOs approach as they emphasized on improved nutrition, water supply, and reduced poverty. This was attributed to the realization of NGOs that most impoverished groups live in rural areas. The study went further to investigate what people wish could be done to improve service delivery by NGOs in Garissa County and the results were as n Table 4.15

**Table 4.15 what can be done to improve service delivery by NGOs in Garissa?**

	Frequency	Percent
NGOs to partner with government	33	9
Improve infrastructure	45	12
Increase funds	51	14
Improve Security	51	14
More and skilled workforce	71	19
Locals be sensitized and empowered	119	32
Total	370	100

Table 4.15 indicates that a high number of respondents (32%) had perception that the community had no idea what NGOs' main objective was. The respondents suggested that NGOs or credible authorities be engaged to disseminate information and sensitize the community on emerging issues through workshops, community education and public awareness approach or through adverts. (19%) of the respondents urged on the need to have skilled and knowledgeable workforce, (14%) suggested



on the need to increase funds, (14%) of the respondents lamented security was of much concern and authorities should seek ways of enhancing for better and accessible services to the locals in the remote areas. Infrastructure was another major issue raised by (12%) of the respondents. Roads are not good to facilitate movement of people and goods, provision of safe water in the rural areas, provision of energy etc. The community urged the concerned authorities to improve on infrastructure and as a result NGOs will be palpable in Garissa County. (9%) of the respondents highlighted partnership as the way to improve service delivery by NGOs. Government came in handy as the major partner capable to streamline major constraints. However when asked if government provided enabling environment to NGOs, respondents were so upbeat with almost (100%) saying government was so supportive to the extent of providing security escort to NGO personnel.

#### **4.6 To compare the number of donor funded programs against the living standards of the people from the host communities.**

The study also sought to find out and compare number of donor funded programs against host communities' living standards. The researcher asked the respondents the number of NGOs they knew about who had worked in Garissa county for the last two years and the responses were as shown in Table 4.16

**Table 4.16 How many NGOs have worked in Garissa county for the last two years?**

	Frequency	Percent
<10	211	57
10-20	70	19
20-30	70	19
>40	19	5

Total	370	100
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Table 4.16 indicates that (57%) of the respondents knew less than 10 NGOs that operate in Garissa county. Based on their responses, most of the respondents knew those they have benefitted from or have worked together to achieve certain goals. (19%) each knew between (10-20) and (20-30) NGOs while (5%) were aware of more than 40 NGOs.

Education and age was a clear factor as those above 50 years and illiterate were aware of existence of a myriad of NGOs and which they had benefitted from. However, they barely named these institutions and so they approximated their figures. Respondents who had gone up to colleges, universities and some up to secondary level were able to distinguish NGOs and their roles. The study went on to investigate the nature of projects carried out by NGOs and the responses were as indicated in Table 4.17

**Tables 4.17What are the nature of NGOs’ projects implemented in Garissa County?**

	Frequency	Percent
Water, Sanitation and Hygiene	159	43
Food Security/Nutrition	130	35
Agriculture	48	13
Child protection	33	9
Total	370	100

Table 4.17 indicates that (43%) of respondents said NGOs’ nature of projects in Garissa country involved Water, Sanitation and Hygiene. They expressed their satisfaction on water quality management, disease surveillance and prevention. Also were satisfied with the NGOs’ efforts to

ensuring that the host community was sensitized on key interventions which helped curb health burdens that might result from exposure to unhygienic environment. (35%) of respondents highlighted food security as one major initiative that NGOs have ever implemented. They acknowledged the fact that NGOs have made the community access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food which has sustained a healthy and active life. (13%) believed NGOs have made it easy for the community to undertake agriculture. These included supply of facilities, equipment, access to water for irrigation and ready market for their supplies. Agriculture activities include cattle rearing, growing crops such as tomatoes, bananas etc. particularly along the Tana river.

The remaining (10%) of respondents said child protection was a major initiative that NGOs have embraced. However they had cultural limitations which hindered NGOs from actively helping out the community in ensuring children had full access to education and protection against child labor.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.1 Summary and Conclusion**

#### **5.1.1 Factors contributing to poor service delivery among the NGOs**

Majority of the respondents lamented about road status, a clear show that Road status in Garissa County is in bad state. This was a major cause of poor service delivery and in fact in some areas roads were impassable. This was almost unanimously agreed by respondents. Everybody who was interviewed said that roads in Garissa are impassable while some areas are inaccessible due to absence of roads. It was noticeable that bad roads in Garissa county led to delays in service delivery as majority of the respondents were concerned at the rate at which services reached the target beneficiaries. A negligible percentage said that road accidents were due to bad status of roads and as a result affected service delivery to a large extend. Therefore there is need by concerned authorities to ensure roads are constructed or repaired to streamline operations carried out by NGOs and other bodies. Others claimed that insecurity on roads had rendered services by NGOs stall while others took long to ensure that target beneficiaries were served at an appropriate time.

More so insecurity on roads was of concern to the host community as this prompted NGOs to stop deliveries to some specific areas which were thought to pose security risks. Consequently, these affected service deliveries to a large extend. Majority of them were concerned at the rate at which NGOs had largely been constrained by this factor and so services were not reaching the needy. Asked if Security personnel breached their roles in ensuring that insecurity was rooted out of the county some claimed that they had not been properly trained on the process and thus affecting their efficiency while others sympathized as police officers had been killed in many instances. They attributed their responses to the government efforts to flush out Alshabaab sympathizers from the county in a bid to boost security status. It was noted that majority of those who said security status in

Garissa was poor were either educated up to primary or had gone through informal education. Nonetheless a number of those who had better academic credentials were hesitant and acknowledged that security status had been improved. However, the process was tedious.

Majority agreed with the fact that government had ensured that security on roads was to the required standard to facilitate service delivery to the host communities. Those who agreed felt that government had provided security personnel to ensure that NGOs' staff were secure in the areas they served. This was enhanced by providing security escort to NGO staff. A sizeable number said that government was not keen in ensuring that security was a priority in Garissa county. They lamented that areas supported by NGOs were majorly affected and as a result constrained service delivery as roads leading to such areas were not safe. As a result of this, government should increase security personnel and provide more training to back them with more skills in handling terrorists.

As to whether there was resistance from the host communities, there was a clear majority for those agreeing or disagreeing. Respondents said there was no resistance from the communities benefiting from NGOs' services. However, it was noted that level of education and age of respondents influenced the feedback. It was clear that majority of the middle aged respondents with good academic credentials i.e. from secondary up to university levels did support the idea that host communities were resistant while respondents above 50 years of age did not support it. There is need therefore by NGOs, government agents and other concerned authorities to sensitize communities on the relevance and importance of projects in nation building.

#### **5.1.2 Effective development approaches that are contemporary and compatible to the host communities**

The study also sought to establish effective approaches that are contemporary and compatible to the host communities. Majority of the respondents said they were not involved at any stage of the

project while minority said they were involved and were even assigned administrative positions while others were involved in sustainability initiatives which were meant to ensure those projects were generating income for reasons that will ensure project continuity upon exit by the donor. They said that NGOs had awarded them with project contracts and as a result they were able to maximize resources since they were aware same projects will benefit them. They also expressed their excitement that they were mandated to manage their projects as part of ownership. A few respondents claimed that they were actively involved in project oriented forums while the rest few said they were involved during the initial stages of project cycles which included needs analysis through baseline surveys. Education and age was categorically noticeable among the respondents. Majority of the respondents below 40 years and who are educated said they were part of the reconnaissance team and involved in key decision making strategies while those above 50 years of age and illiterate said they were involved in sustainability initiatives. However it was clear that some respondents did not engage themselves in such projects and so did not have any information as pertains what NGOs do in particular apart from food donation.

A sizeable number of the respondents stated water; sanitation and hygiene (WASH) as a major sector which requires more attention. Respondents were concerned about WASH as this influenced their living standards. It was however noted that projects run across all economic areas in almost equal measure since various NGOs each dealt with unique projects. The rest of the respondents were interested in various fields depending on where they thought was not fully explored. This included Nutrition (17%), Agriculture (13%), Micro-finance (9%), Child protection (3%), Health (10%), Education (3%) and Food security (16%).

Respondents estimated the cost of projects to below 5M. The study found that the cost of projects were manageable which meant that they were not complex however no one was certain if all the

projects completed were self-supporting and produce revenue within a certain period of time. (22%) of the respondents thought that the cost of the projects was high above 5M hence demonstrated complexity however this implied that NGOs were investing immensely to ensure that living standards of the community was raised to above average.

NGOs' project approaches were tackled and majority of respondents said they were satisfied with project's approach by NGOs. It was evident that majority of those who live in remote areas acknowledged NGOs approach as they emphasized on improved nutrition, water supply, and reduced poverty. This was attributed to the realization of NGOs that most impoverished groups live in rural areas.

While a few respondents had perception that the community had no idea what NGOs' main objective was, others said sensitization was carried out by NGO personnel which ensured community's knowhow. The respondents suggested that NGOs or other credible authorities be engaged to disseminate information and sensitize the community on emerging issues through workshops, community education and public awareness approach or through adverts. Others urged on the need to have skilled and knowledgeable workforce, while the rest suggested on the need to increase funds and authorities should seek ways of enhancing for better and accessible services to the locals in the remote areas. Infrastructure was another major issue raised by respondents. Roads are not good to facilitate movement of people and goods, provision of safe water in the rural areas, provision of energy etc. The community urged the concerned authorities to improve on infrastructure and as a result NGOs will be palpable in Garissa County. Partnership was another respondent's key interest and said that was the way to improve service delivery by NGOs. Government came in handy as the major partner capable to streamline major constraints. However when asked if government provided

enabling environment to NGOs, respondents were so upbeat with almost (100%) saying government was so supportive to the extent of providing security escort to NGO personnel.

There is need therefore to ensure community is involved when initiating any project as this will not only educate them but also ensure they are empowered, feel appreciated and prepare them to be independent. As a result of this the community shall be in a position to sustain their own projects.

### **5.1.3 The number of donor funded programs against the living standards of the host community.**

The study also sought to find out and compare number of donor funded programs against host community's living standards. Majority of respondents knew less than Ten NGOs that operated in Garissa County. Based on their responses, most of the respondents knew those they had benefitted from or have worked together to achieve certain goals. (19%) each knew between (10-20) and (20-30) NGOs while (5%) were aware of more than 40 NGOs.

Education and age played a major role as those above 50 years and illiterate were aware of existence of a myriad of NGOs and which they had benefitted from. However, they barely named these institutions and so they approximated their figures. Respondents who had gone up to colleges, universities and some up to secondary level were able to distinguish NGOs and their roles. (43%) of respondents said NGOs' nature of projects in Garissa county involved water and sanitation and hygiene (WASH). They expressed their satisfaction on water quality management, disease surveillance and prevention, and ensured the community was sensitized on interventions to curb health burdens that might result from exposure to unhygienic environment. (35%) of respondents highlighted food security as one major initiative that NGOs have embraced. They acknowledged the fact that NGOs have made the community access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to sustain a healthy and active life. (13%) believed NGOs have made it easy for the host community to



undertake agriculture. These included supply of farm inputs, facilities, equipment, access to water for irrigation and ready market for their supplies. Agriculture activities include livestock rearing, crop farming such as growing of tomatoes, vegetables, melons, bananas etc. The remaining (10%) of respondents said child protection was a major initiative that NGOs have embraced. However they had cultural limitations which hindered NGOs from actively helping out the community in ensuring children had full access to education and protection against child labor.

## **5.2 Recommendation**

Based on the findings of the study, below are the recommendations made by the researcher:

It was discovered that the host communities had not been sensitized on the significance of various projects in terms of long term effect to the community; neither has it been involved in project initiatives and formulation. This study recommends the need for the relevant authorities to educate and empower the host communities in the areas touching on project cycle and ownership through trainings and workshops.

It was found that factors affecting smooth operation by the NGOs were mainly roads and security. There is need therefore for the Kenyan government to construct more roads, improve the existing ones and enhance security in the county.

In order to make projects more sustainable, NGOs should initiate easy to manage projects which the community will be able to handle on their own upon exit by the donor.

Most projects carried out were initiated by NGOs without the knowledge of the community and as a result the community did not own it. The Government and NGOs should come up with mechanisms and policies which are compatible to the host community and ensure the same community is well informed and educated prior to start of any given project. In fact donor community should adopt a “bottom up” approach as opposed to “top down approach” for projects’ sustainability.

For purposes of monitoring, this study also recommends that donors share the projects' costs with the beneficiaries and also share audit results after completion of such projects. Doing this will boost accountability and may reduce corrupt deals among the implementing Agencies. This recommendation is based on the fact that all those interviewed were uncertain of the project costs ever implemented in their localities.

### **5.3 suggestions for further studies**

This study suggests the following for further research: The need to replicate this study in other Counties so as to compare results, the need to study the role and influence of social, political, religious and cultural aspect of the host communities on NGOs service delivery in Garissa County and finally the need to carry out research on the best way to seize insecurity in the County.

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### **Appendix I: Work Plan**

This was the estimated time plan of the study. It was essential in that it enabled the researcher assess the feasibility of conducting the research within the scheduled time frame. It also enabled the researcher stay on schedule as the research progressed.

<b>No.</b>	<b>Activity</b>	<b>Duration</b>	<b>Period</b>
1.	Proposal writing	3 Months	Jan- March 2013
2.	Data collection	3 Months	March –May 2013
3.	Data analysis and writing chapter 4and 5	1 Month	June 2013
4.	Research Report Writing	1 Month	July 2013
5.	Submission of draft report for examination		July 2013
6.	Submission of final copy		August 2013

## Appendix II: Budget

This is the estimated cost of the research process.

No.	Activity	Cost	Total cost
1.	<b>Proposal writing</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Literature review (travel and photocopy)</li><li>- Typing, photocopy and binding</li></ul>	30,000 15,000	45,000
2.	<b>Data collection</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Research instruments (typing, piloting and printing)</li><li>- Administration (Transport and subsistence)</li></ul>	10,000 50,000	60,000
3.	<b>Data analysis</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Coding and entry into SPSS</li><li>- Print outs</li></ul>	10,000 5,000	15,000
4.	<b>Research reports</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Draft , typing and copying</li><li>- Final copy for Examination</li><li>- Final copies and binding for submission</li></ul> <b>TOTAL</b>	5,000 5,000 8,000	18,000  <hr/> <b>138,000</b>

### **Appendix III: Transmittal Letter**



#### **UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI**

**TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN.**

**RE: ROTICH FELIX KIPKEMOI:**

This is to certify that the above named person is a bonafide student of University of Nairobi, Garissa Extra-Mural Centre, currently undertaking his masters program in Project Planning and Management. This program demands that students in their final semester write a thesis as a requirement subject to approval by the university senate before the award of the degree.

It is therefore on this basis that the university calls upon you to give the bearer of this letter the necessary support especially during this period of data collection.

Any support accorded to him/her shall be appreciated.

Thanks in advance,

Sincerely,

Mohammed Noor,

Centre Administrator.



## **Appendix IV: Questionnaire**

### **Questions directed to the beneficiaries**

#### **Introductory Letter**

Dear respondent,

My name is **Felix Kipkemoi Rotich**, a student of University of Nairobi undertaking a master degree program in **Project Planning and Management**. This program demands that students carry out research in their final year of study and write a Research Project Report, subject to approval by the university senate before the award of the degree. The questionnaire hereunder would assist me acquire the necessary information for my research study.

I therefore, humbly request you to spare some little time and fill this questionnaire as appropriate and without bias. Any information you give shall be treated as confidential and shall be used only for purposes of this research.

Queries can be raised through my personal contacts below.

**Cell-phone number: 0721 779 519**

**Email address: felixkipkemoi@yahoo.com**

Thanks in advance,

Sincerely,

Felix Kipkemoi Rotich.

## **SECTION A: Background information.**

**Instruction: tick as appropriate.**

1. Gender: Male [   ]      Female [   ]
2. Level of Education: primary [   ]      secondary [   ]      Diploma [   ]      Degree [   ]  
Masters [   ]      other specify.....
3. Age (Yrs): Below 30 [   ]      between 30 and 40 [   ]      between 40 and 50 [   ]      Above 50 [   ]
4. Marital Status: Single [   ]      Married [   ]      Divorced [   ]      Widowed [   ]
5. District of residence.....

## **SECTION B: General questions touching on the research variables**

6. How do you rate security in Garissa County for the last 2 years?

- a) Very good [   ]
- b) Good [   ]
- c) Poor [   ]
- d) Very poor [   ]

7. Has the Kenyan government been keen in providing security for its citizens especially in Garissa County? YES [   ]      NO [   ]

Explain your answer

above.....  
.....  
.....

8. How do you rate the status of roads in Garissa County?

a) Very good [    ]

b) Good [    ]

c) Poor [    ]

d) Very poor [    ]

9. Do you think the status of road infrastructure affect service delivery by the NGOs working in Garissa County? YES [    ]    NO [    ]

If yes, briefly

explain.....  
.....

10. Has the community been involved in any of the projects funded by the NGOs? YES [    ]  
NO [    ]

If yes, how has it been

involved?.....  
.....

11. About how many NGOs do you know that are currently working in Garissa County?

a) 1 -10 [    ]

b) 10 – 20 [    ]

c) 20 – 30 [    ]

d) More than 30 [    ]

12. What are the nature of projects implemented by the NGOs you have ever known of?

- a) Water and sanitation [    ]
- b) Nutrition [    ]
- c) Agriculture [    ]
- d) Micro-finance [    ]
- e) Child protection [    ]
- f) Health [    ]
- g) Education [    ]
- h) Food security [    ]
- i) Other

specify.....

13. What kind of projects do you think NGOs should increase funding?

- a) Water and sanitation [    ]
- b) Nutrition [    ]
- c) Agriculture [    ]
- d) Micro-finance [    ]
- e) Child protection [    ]
- f) Health [    ]
- g) Education [    ]
- h) Food security [    ]
- i) Other

specify.....

14. On average, what could be the cost of the projects ever implemented in your locality?

- a) Less than 1million [    ]

- b) 1 – 5million [    ]
- c) 5 – 10million [    ]
- d) More than 10 million [    ]
- e) Other specify.....

15. Have you ever benefitted from any NGO funding either directly or indirectly? YES [    ]  
NO [    ]

If yes, how did you  
benefit?.....  
.....

16. Are you satisfied with the project cycles/approaches adopted by NGOs in the process of project  
implementation? YES [    ]    NO [    ]

If no explain  
why.....  
.....

17. Has there been any resistance from the host communities against NGOs' projects?

YES [    ]    NO [    ]

18. What do you think can be done to improve service delivery by the  
NGOs?.....  
.....

**END. Thanks for your cooperation.**

