



**SYLLABUS**

**Concepts and Functions**

Definition, Introduction, NGOs, Interest Groups, Pressure Groups, Lobbies and Private Voluntary Organizations, Study, NGOs and their Independence from Governments, NGOs, Political Parties and Ethnic Minorities, NGOs and their Relations with Business and Commerce, NGOs and the Political Use of Violence, Different Types of Structures among NGOs, Spread of NGOs, Types of NGO Activities, NGOs, Social Movements and Civil Society, Political Influence of NGO.

**Environment and Taxonomy**

Introduction, Types of NGOs, Evolutionary stages of development NGOs, Management of non-governmental organizations, NGO characteristics, NGO Strengths, NGO Weaknesses, NGO-GO Configurations in Training, Collaboration with NGOs.

**Issues in NGO Management**

Introduction, Concentration of power, Staff, Accountability, Fund-raising, Fund-raising, Organizational continuity: Development of new leaders.

**Problems of NGOs**

Introduction, NGOs have a problem of legitimacy, Risk Challenges, NGOs Prioritizing the Problems, NGOs Demands for Particular Types of Support.

**Strategy and planning for NGOs**

Introduction, Definition, Strategic Planning and Leadership, Benefits of Strategic Planning, Planning Approaches, Execution, Key Issues Identified.

**Suggested Reading:**

1. Effects of regulatory mechanisms on the function of human rights NGOs: Regulating the 'right to association'...to foster or to tamper? By Desset Abebe
2. Ngos And Government Organisation Role Duties And Function by N C Dobriyal
3. Local Organizations in Decentralized Development: Their Functions and Performance in India (Directions in Development... by Ruth Alsop and Bryan Kurey
4. Formation and Management of NGOs: Non Governmental Organisations by Abraham Anita
5. Strategic Management and Policy Issues of NGOs by O.P. Goel
6. NGOs as Legitimate Partners of Corporations: A Political Conceptualization (Issues in Business Ethics) by Dorothea Baur

## **Lesson 1– Concepts and Functions**

### Learning Objectives

- To explain about the non government organisation.
- To analyse NGO and its associated groups.
- To recognise NGO activities.
- To explain about NGOs and its political parties.
- To identify different types of structures among NGOs.

### **1.1 Definition**

The term, "non-governmental organization" or NGO, came into currency in 1945 because of the need for the UN to differentiate in its Charter between participation rights for intergovernmental specialized agencies and those for international private organizations. At the UN, virtually all types of private bodies can be recognized as NGOs. They only have to be independent from government control, not seeking to challenge governments either as a political party or by a narrow focus on human rights, non-profit-making and non-criminal.

The structures of NGOs vary considerably. They can be global hierarchies, with either a relatively strong central authority or a more loose federal arrangement. Alternatively, they may be based in a single country and operate transnational. With the improvement in communications, more locally-based groups, referred to as grass-roots organizations or community based organizations, have become active at the national or even the global level. Increasingly this occurs through the formation of coalitions. There are international umbrella NGOs, providing an institutional structure for different NGOs that do not share a common identity. There are also looser issue-based networks and ad hoc caucuses, lobbying at UN conferences. In environmental politics, this occurs in the unique form of the nine "Major Groups".

At times NGOs are contrasted with social movements. Much as proponents of social movements may wish to see movements as being more progressive and more dynamic than

NGOs, this is a false dichotomy. NGOs are components of social movements. Similarly, civil society is the broader concept to cover all social activity by individuals, groups and movements. It remains a matter of contention whether civil society also covers all economic activity. Usually, society is seen as being composed of three sectors: government, the private sector and civil society, excluding businesses.

NGOs are so diverse and so controversial that it is not possible to support, or be opposed to, all NGOs. They may claim to be the voice of the people and to have greater legitimacy than governments, but this can only be a plausible claim under authoritarian governments. However, their role as participants in democratic debate does not depend upon any claim to representative legitimacy.

## **1.2 Introduction**

The term non-governmental organization or NGO was not in general currency before the UN was formed. When 132 international NGOs decided to co-operate with each other in 1910, they did so under the label, the Union of International Associations. The League of Nations officially referred to its "liaison with private organizations", while many of these bodies at that time called themselves international institutes, international unions or simply international organizations. The first draft of the UN Charter did not make any mention of maintaining co-operation with private bodies.

A variety of groups, mainly but not solely from the USA, lobbied to rectify this at the San Francisco conference, which established the UN in 1945. Not only did they succeed in introducing a provision for strengthening and formalizing the relations with private organizations previously maintained by the League, they also greatly enhanced the UN's role in economic and social issues and upgraded the status of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) to a "principal organ" of the UN. To clarify matters, new terminology was introduced to cover ECOSOC's relationship with two types of international organizations. Under Article 70, "specialized agencies, established by intergovernmental agreement" could "participate without a vote in its deliberations", while under Article 71 "non-governmental organizations" could have "suitable arrangements for consultation". Thus, "specialized agencies" and "NGOs" became technical UN jargon. Unlike much UN jargon, the term, NGO, passed into popular usage, particularly from the early 1970s onwards.

Many diverse types of bodies are now described as being NGOs. There is no generally accepted definition of an NGO and the term carries different connotations in different circumstances. However, there are some fundamental features. Clearly an NGO must be independent from the direct control of any government. In addition, there are three other generally accepted characteristics that exclude particular types of bodies from consideration. An NGO will not be constituted as a political party; it will be non-profit-making and it will not be a criminal group, in particular it will be non-violent. These characteristics apply in general usage, because they match the conditions for recognition by the United Nations. The boundaries can sometimes be blurred: some NGOs may in practice be closely identified with a political party; many NGOs generate income from commercial activities, notably consultancy contracts or sales of publications; and a small number of NGOs may be associated with violent political protests. Nevertheless, an NGO is never constituted as a government bureaucracy, a party, a company, a criminal organization or a guerrilla group. Thus, for this article, an NGO is defined as an independent voluntary association of people acting together on a continuous basis, for some common purpose, other than achieving government office, making money or illegal activities.

### **1.3 NGOs, Interest Groups, Pressure Groups, Lobbies and Private Voluntary Organizations**

In discussion of politics within countries, a distinction is often made between interest groups and pressure groups, but it is taken for granted that both types of private groups have an impact upon government policy-making. The term, interest group, is biased towards consideration of groups such as companies or trade unions. Use of the term is unsatisfactory, as it tends to imply that such groups are only concerned with economic policy, that they only act to safeguard their own economic position and that only groups with substantial economic resources can have an impact on politics. None of these propositions is valid. Major economic actors are also concerned with values beyond the accumulation of wealth. At the minimum, they also pursue security and status. At the maximum, they have a wider responsibility towards health and safety, social welfare and environmental values. The term, pressure group, invokes a wider range of groups. Its use is intended to cover those, such as environmentalists and human rights groups, who are pursuing goals that do not directly benefit them. It emphasizes the processes by which groups mobilize support to promote their political values. The contrast between interest groups and pressure groups can be used to

suggest a contrast between objective goals and subjective goals and hence privilege the pursuit of economic returns over environmental values and other abstract values.

In the United States, a similar distinction is made, with stronger, but different, normative connotations. Mention of a lobby seems to imply the illegitimate use of wealth in a secretive manner, while private voluntary organizations or public interest groups convey a positive image. There is a logical problem with the distinction in that membership of a lobby is both private and voluntary. These terms are also unsatisfactory as the latter two suggest charitable activity and do not readily bring to mind campaigning groups nor those who are concerned with global issues, such as Greenpeace and Amnesty International. "Public interest" appears to cover the general good, in an objective manner, but it is an essentially-contested concept, both with respect to what is "the public" and with respect to identifying "the common interest". One person's view of the public interest may be seen by another person as the assertion of unacceptable values, ideological extremism or special pleading.

The distinction between interest groups and pressure groups or between lobbies and private voluntary organizations has no analytical value. All pressure groups or voluntary organizations have some interests to protect, even if it is only the maintenance of their reputation, increasing the number of active supporters and gaining sufficient income to communicate effectively. Altruistic charities use sophisticated public relations campaigns to raise funds and standard lobbying techniques when government taxation policy affects their income. Equally, all interest groups and lobbies are of political importance, precisely because their pressure influences social and political outcomes. They do not necessarily operate in a secretive manner in the corridors of power and they do at times seek to mobilize public support. When they engage in political debate, company representatives often argue for general abstract values that go beyond their specific concrete interests. Companies can only challenge the public interest – or more precisely public opinion – at the risk of damaging their public reputation, their brand values and their income. Many companies more positively promote what is often seen as the public interest. They may donate profits to charitable activities, identify directly with environmental values to benefit from green consumerism or even reduce consumption of energy and raw materials to reduce costs. Trade unions usually go much further than companies in making explicit their endorsement of a wide range of political values. They also allocate money, personnel and other resources to campaigning, both independently and in coalition with other pressure groups.

Whatever one might think of these terms from the discourse on politics within countries, they are never used in global politics. Because diplomats like to claim that they are pursuing "the national interest" of a united society, they will not admit to relations with interest groups or pressure groups and they prefer the bland title, non-governmental organizations. The thinking behind the concept of a public interest group has been transferred to some people's attitudes to NGOs. There is a desire to limit access to the UN system to "proper" NGOs, but all this means is that groups supported by the person concerned should be included and other groups excluded. The other terms such as:

- interest group,
- pressure group,
- lobby and private voluntary organization

could be applied legitimately to most NGOs. However, there is mutual connivance in most political processes at the global level to hide behind the uncontroversial catch-all term NGOs. The only significant exception, which is discussed below, is the tendency in global environmental politics to talk about "Major Groups". This sounds more positive, but it is still a vague term, devoid of any direct association with participation in policy-making.

In the logic of the language, there is no difference between a non-governmental organization and a private voluntary organization, but NGO still carries neutral connotations and applicability to a diverse range of political actors, whereas PVO suggests moral approval of a more limited range of groups. In practice, it is impossible to agree any general terms to distinguish praiseworthy from unacceptable groups, either in domestic politics or in global politics, because such a distinction is a subjective choice made on the basis of each observer's own value preferences.

## **1.4 Study**

In academic study of international relations, the term "transnational" was adopted to refer to any relationship across country boundaries, in which at least one of the actors was not a government. It was adopted in order to deny the assumption that international relations was the same as inter-state relations, or more precisely intergovernmental relations. It came into currency in the 1970s as a result of economic and environmental questions being recognized as a high priority for the global agenda. It is immediately apparent that the academic concept

of a transnational actor is quite different from the political concept of an NGO. Firstly, it excludes all NGO activity that is confined to a single country. Secondly, it includes all the other non-governmental actors that have been defined as being outside the world of NGOs. It is commonplace to refer to transnational companies, transnational criminals, transnational guerrillas and transnational terrorists. In global politics, it is rare for any reference to be made to transnational NGOs, presumably because an NGO's involvement in global politics ipso facto makes it transnational.

## **1.5 NGOs and their Independence from Governments**

The most difficult question about the independence of NGOs is whether they come under governmental influence. Individual governments do at times try to influence the NGO community in a particular field, by establishing NGOs that promote their policies. This has been recognized by quite common use of the acronym GONGO, to label a government-organized NGO. Also, in more authoritarian societies, NGOs may find it very difficult to act independently and they may not receive acknowledgment from other political actors even when they are acting independently. Beyond these unusual situations, there is a widespread prejudice that government funding leads to government control. In the field of human rights, it would damage an NGO for such a perception to arise, so Amnesty International has strict rules that it will not accept direct government funding for normal activities. On the other hand, development and humanitarian relief NGOs need substantial resources, to run their operational programs, so most of them readily accept official funds. While these NGOs would like the security of a guaranteed budget for their administrative overheads, governments generally only want to support field costs for projects.

Nominally NGOs may appear to be independent, when they design their own programs, but government influence can arise indirectly if the program is designed to make it more likely that government grants or contracts will be forthcoming. On the other hand, confident experienced NGOs can appeal for funding for new approaches and in so doing cause government officials to re-assess policy. The best example of this is the way in which NGOs, particularly the International Planned Parenthood Federation, dragged governments into adopting population programs. There is no obvious method to identify the direction of influence, without detailed knowledge of the relationship between an NGO and a government. Environmental NGOs may have either type of funding relationship.



Conservation and research groups may happily obtain government funds to support their programs: some are innovative and some are not. Beyond these situations, radical campaigning groups may be unwilling and unable to attract government funds.

## **1.6 NGOs, Political Parties and Ethnic Minorities**

While a political party is not regarded as an NGO and cannot gain recognition at the UN, a small number of transnational groupings of political parties do gain consultative status with ECOSOC. There are also several groups of parliamentarians with consultative status. No problems have arisen with either group, because they have carefully avoided trying to involve the UN in the "internal affairs of states". Human rights NGOs feel aggrieved that the same principle is applied to them, even though one of the purposes of ECOSOC is "promoting respect for, and observance of, human rights". In May 1968, ECOSOC Resolution 1296 (XLIV) specified that NGOs "should have a general international concern with this matter, not restricted to the interests of a particular group of persons, a single nationality or the situation in a single State". While this provision was dropped from the revised text in July 1996, it is still applied in practice. On this basis, the Indian government can block the World Sikh Organization from gaining UN recognition. Christian Solidarity International also lost its consultative status in October 1999 after it had allowed the guerrilla leader, John Garang, to speak on its behalf, at the Commission on Human Rights.

The recognition of minority rights is such a complex question that it is handled very differently in different countries. In both North and South America, the minority communities who are descendants of the inhabitants prior to the arrival of the great waves of European settlers are given the privileged title of "indigenous peoples". The term has also been adopted in Australia and New Zealand and a few other countries. On the other hand, governments in various ethnically diverse countries do not wish to accord any special recognition to minorities. The compromise is that the UN refers to indigenous people, as individuals who have rights, and not to indigenous peoples (note the plural). This avoids recognition of any collective identity or any claim to the right of self-determination. The restrictions deriving from Resolution 1296 mean the organizations with consultative status are mainly global or regional coalitions of ethnic minorities. However, special procedures have been adopted in both the Commission on Human Rights and the Commission on Sustainable Development to allow participation by a wider range of indigenous organizations. In addition, in July 2000,

ECOSOC established a Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues, consisting of sixteen independent experts, half of whom are nominated by indigenous organizations. Through a variety of complex issue linkages, these NGOs can be important in environmental politics, notably in the conservation of rainforests. While they are only present in the UN system under the auspices of the arrangements for NGOs, indigenous people are often keen to claim a unique status that is separate from and superior to the representatives of NGOs. As a result, their alliance with environmentalists does not always operate smoothly.

## **1.7 NGOs and their Relations with Business and Commerce**

A few intergovernmental economic organizations do allow an individual company to have access under their provisions for NGOs, but this is only in cases where there are loose ad hoc procedures and there are no formal institutional arrangements. However, as with political parties, non-profit-making federations of companies, established for industry-wide collaboration and to act as lobbies, are widely accepted. From the earliest days of the UN, bodies such as the International Chamber of Commerce, the International Organization of Employers and similar organizations for particular economic sectors have been included among the NGOs. Until the 1990s, they were not of much significance in the UN itself, but they have always been important in the specialized agencies. The more technical the question under discussion, the more the policy-making process will draw on their expertise.

One of the outcomes of the 1992 Rio Earth Summit, the UN Conference on Environment and Development, was to draw companies into global environmental politics and hence more into the work of ECOSOC. Sectoral bodies are prominent when questions such as energy or transport are on the agenda. In addition, issue-oriented commercial groupings have been formed. The most prominent is the World Business Council for Sustainable Development, a successor to various lobbies that focused on the Earth Summit, to promote environmentally friendly business. The oil companies have sound environmental credentials in some forums, but not in others. The Oil Companies International Maritime Forum is making a useful contribution to the reduction of oil pollution at sea, but the Global Climate Coalition opposes reductions in oil consumption. OCIMF is registered as an NGO by the International Maritime Organization, and the GCC is admitted as an observer to the sessions of the Conference of the Parties to the Framework Convention on Climate Change.

At the World Economic Forum in Davos in January 1999, the UN Secretary-General, Kofi Annan, explicitly called upon companies to widen their social responsibilities by entering into a Global Compact with the UN. Companies that do so agree to endorse nine principles, covering promotion of a set of core values in the areas of human rights, labor standards and protection of the environment. Soon afterwards, global business organizations, several hundred companies and the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions responded positively, but only a handful of human rights, environment and development NGOs did so. There remains a deep suspicion among many such NGOs about the possibility of companies implementing commitments to social responsibility.

Despite the suspicion of business, some NGOs have chosen to engage directly in collaborative arrangements to formulate and monitor statements of business ethics. This has been done both on an industry-wide basis and with individual companies. For example, WWF (known as the Worldwide Fund for Nature until July 2000) took the lead in forming the Forest Stewardship Council in 1993 and the Marine Stewardship Council in 1996. Each Council works to promote sustainable practices, with participating companies gaining the benefit of having their products endorsed by the NGOs as being environmentally friendly. Similarly, various companies are having environmental and/or social audits undertaken on an annual basis, by independent assessors.

## **1.8 NGOs and the Political Use of Violence**

There has been no compromise in any political system with the idea that the use of violence is not a normal part of the political process. In the UN, aggressive behavior by individuals is sufficient to raise the question of suspension of an NGO's consultative status. In the exceptional circumstances where a group of guerrillas wish to claim their use of violence is acceptable as part of the struggle against an oppressive regime, the group does not call itself an NGO. Their supporters call them a national liberation movement, whereas their opponents call them terrorists. Sometimes these groups gain admittance to intergovernmental organizations, as if they were the governments of recognized states. At the UN, they have never been classified as NGOs, but a few have been given a different status, as observers at the General Assembly and at UN conferences. Within individual countries, there are rare examples of the use of violence as a deliberate tactic, by groups that would normally be referred to as NGOs. A clear example is the Animal Liberation Front in the United Kingdom.

They are simply regarded as criminals by the government and by the public, including many who support their goals. A commitment to non-violence is the best respected of the principles defining what an NGO is.

## **1.9 Different Types of Structures among NGOs**

There is a great variety of ways in which NGOs are structured. The classic model is of a membership organization, coordinated in a geographically-defined hierarchy. Individual people work in local groups, which co-ordinate in provinces and then have a headquarters in the capital city for the country as a whole. Such country-wide organizations are called national NGOs. Frequently, the national NGOs combine in an international NGO, or INGO, which may consist of regional groups of countries and be capped by a global body. Not all the levels of the hierarchy need exist. Many countries are too small to have provincial structures. Smaller specialist NGOs may simply enroll individual members at the national level, without having any local branches. Occasionally, individuals are enrolled at the international level. On the other hand, in large organizations, the international level often seems relatively remote and attracts little attention, even among the NGO's own members. The group running a local family planning clinic does not necessarily know about the work of the International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF) at the UN World Conference on Women in Beijing. Nevertheless, such global organizations with their membership measured in millions do maintain a democratic policy-making process. While some may hold direct elections for key posts at the national level, the responsibility to the membership at the global level is always indirect, via some international council or assembly of national representatives.

It should be noted that one of the ambiguities about the term, NGO, is whether it is referring to a local, provincial, national, regional or global body. Until the early 1990s, the matter was generally straightforward in academic, news media or political discussions. The overwhelming majority of local and provincial NGOs never engaged in transnational activities. Thus NGO, by itself, usually meant a national NGO and regional or global bodies were called international NGOs. National NGOs did engage in transnational development and humanitarian activities, but, with very few exceptions, they were not, in their own right, participants in international diplomacy. When they wanted to exercise political influence at the global level, they did so through the appropriate INGO. In the 1990s, there was a great

upsurge in local organizations becoming active at the global level, particularly on environmental issues, because of the Rio Earth Summit in June 1992, and on social issues, because of the Copenhagen Social Summit in March 1995. Since then, the term INGO has not been used so much and NGO, by itself, has come to cover both national and international NGOs. As an expression of the new politics, various terms then were popularized to refer to local NGOs. Grass-roots organizations, community based organizations (CBOs), and civil society organizations (CSOs), all came into currency. There is still an ambiguity whether these newer terms cover organizations that only operate at the local level or also include local branches of national organizations. Grass-roots and community organizations clearly refer solely to the local level, but civil society has connotations of any level within a single country. Indeed, it has become quite common to refer to global civil society.

Linguistic usage in the legal atmosphere at the UN used to be somewhat different. When the UN was formed, any involvement of private individuals or groups in its work constituted deviation from the norm of diplomacy being the exclusive preserve of "states". Thus, a national organization, as mentioned in Article 71 of the UN Charter, was any NGO based in a single country. No distinction was made between an organization that covered a large constituency, over the whole country, and an organization based solely in a local community or a small section of the population. The lack of any distinction did not matter, as participation by either country-wide or more limited national NGOs was so rare in the permanent UN organs. Participation began on a small scale in the 1970s at UN conferences, on an ad hoc basis. When the ECOSOC rules were changed in 1996, to admit "national NGOs" to consultative status as a matter of routine, the presumption became that a national organization was a country-wide membership organization or a federation of local groups or an umbrella group that is a coalition of NGOs operating in different fields. As is common at the UN, practice has not been consistent: a few local NGOs have been admitted as "national NGOs" to consultative status. The Rio conference also produced a term that has only been used in environmental politics at the UN. "Major Groups" refers to a system of categorizing NGOs from all levels, for the purposes of participating in UN policy-making processes.

Hereafter, use of NGO alone will imply that any or all levels are included, while local, national or global will be used when the meaning must be restricted to that level. Terms such as CBOs and Major Groups will also be used in the appropriate political context.

Changes in Terminology Covering NGOs

Level of Organisation	From 1945 to Early 1990s	Early 1990s Onwards
Local	National NGO, at the UN Not discussed elsewhere	Grass-roots, community based or civil society organization, or local NGO
Provincial (USA - state)	National NGO, at the UN Not discussed elsewhere	Civil society organization or local NGO
National	National NGO, at the UN NGO, outside the UN	NGO or national NGO or civil society organization
Regional	International NGO	NGO or civil society organization
Global	International NGO	NGO or Major Group or civil society organization

A minority of NGOs conform to the model of a global democratic hierarchy, in which any person may become a member. One variant is for the NGO to have subscribers or supporters, providing income, receiving newsletters and responding to calls for action, but not having any democratic control either over expenditure or over policy priorities for the organization. This is common among altruistic NGOs, promoting social welfare and poverty alleviation, and also among environmental NGOs. Another variant is for a specific status or participation in some activity to be a prerequisite for membership. Thus trade unions are only open to those employed in certain occupations (sometimes very broadly defined). Similarly, professional, scientific and technical bodies are only open to people with the relevant qualification. Such organizations may then be grouped on a functional basis rather than a geographical basis, before they form national and/or international federations. Trade unions do maintain democratic decision-making structures (at least in principle, if not always in practice). However, professional, scientific and technical bodies have professional norms that override democratic norms and members may be expelled for violating the professional

norms. A third variant is a religious organization. The major religions do all have complex hierarchies, from the local faith community through to global spiritual authorities. None of them claim to be democratic: authority is based on faith, a holy text, the charisma of individuals or a hierarchical tradition. To some it will be surprising to discuss trade unions, professional bodies and religious organizations as if they are NGOs. Indeed, the leaders of all three will usually deny they are NGOs. Nevertheless, they are treated on the same basis as NGOs throughout the UN system, with the exception of the special place for unions in the International Labour Organisation's tripartite system of governance.

### **1.9.1 Coalition-Building among NGOs**

Once NGOs do decide to influence public policy, they organize, in broad coalitions, specifically for this purpose. This means there is a large number of NGOs that bear no resemblance to the classic model of a unified hierarchy. Coalitions may take the form of umbrella INGOs, networks or caucuses. In the days when the main form of communication was by mail and even transnational telephone conversations were expensive and time-consuming to arrange, multi-national coalitions generally took the form of institutional structures. Many international women's organizations, the International Council of Voluntary Agencies and the World Conservation Union are examples that date from this era. They are referred to as umbrella organizations, to signify the presence under the single umbrella of a variety of different NGOs that do not share a common identity. In the 1960s, direct transnational telephone dialing was established and air travel became sufficiently cheap for individuals to meet occasionally. Then in the 1970s the news media gradually used satellite communications, so that events in one place were shared around the world as television images. These processes encouraged the formation of looser issue-based networks of NGOs to exchange information, mobilize support and co-ordinate strategies. At this stage, networks still required some degree of formal organization, with enough resources being raised to pay the salary of a network administrator and associated costs for the paperwork. The International Baby Foods Action Network was the prototype, followed by similar networks on pesticides, rainforests, climate change and other questions. The advent of e-mail and the web in the 1990s then meant that the costs of running a network dropped substantially and individual people could afford to take part in sophisticated instantaneous global communications. The number of networks increased dramatically and they no longer needed any formal structure. Once a lead organization or even a lead individual establishes technical

and political communication skills, a coalition of thousands of NGOs can be formed rapidly and their influence focused on specific targets. The International Campaign to Ban Landmines, the Coalition for an International Criminal Court and Jubilee 2000 are the most spectacular examples. However, the impact of technological change should not be exaggerated. The most effective modern networks still derive their impact from being coalitions of well-organized NGOs. Although communication costs are now minimal, it is still essential to have sufficient resources at the center, even if they are provided by a single member of the network, for at least one person to devote most or all of his/her time to servicing the network.

A variant of the global network is a global caucus. This arises when a group of NGOs come together as lobbyists at an international diplomatic event, such as a UN agenda-setting conference or a UN forum for negotiating on the formulation or implementation of a treaty. The caucus will be highly focused on achieving specific outcomes from the diplomatic process. The impression is given that such a caucus is an ad hoc grouping that only exists during the two or three weeks of the relevant diplomatic meetings. It may be accurate that the particular combination of NGOs having the particular political purpose will never meet again. However, a successful caucus will be well prepared and will carry forward procedural expertise, substantive knowledge, political status and diplomatic contacts gained in one forum through to the next forum, handling similar questions. Key organizations and key individuals provide continuity. Women's organizations and environmentalists are among the most successful operating in this way.

When we consider something as loose and transient as a caucus, it is perhaps inappropriate to call it an organization. Nevertheless, structured umbrella coalitions, networks and caucuses are all handled in the same way by governments. In the UN system, all transnational actors have to accept the label "NGO", in order to participate. They may be present under the label of the coalition or of its constituents or through both routes. Umbrella INGOs have consultative status and networks usually are listed, but caucuses rarely have any formal recognition. Coalitions that focus on policy outcomes in a particular country or a particular intergovernmental organization will tend to take the form of an umbrella organization. Coalitions that focus on issues tend to take the form of a network or a caucus, with different members being active in different policy forums.



In global environmental politics, there is a unique set of caucuses – the system of "Major Groups". The term was adopted at the Earth Summit, when *Agenda 21* devoted one of its four sections to "Strengthening the Role of Major Groups". The preamble argued that "one of the fundamental prerequisites for the achievement of sustainable development is broad public participation in decision-making" and this must be done as a "real social partnership" with "individuals, groups and organizations". The aim was for the UN to move beyond the traditional reliance on the established NGOs, in two ways. Communication must reach down to individuals at the level of local communities and particular sectors of society of importance for the environment must be mobilized. The section devoted separate chapters to nine Major Groups, under the following headings.

- Global action for women towards sustainable and equitable development
- Children and youth in sustainable development
- Recognising and strengthening the role of indigenous people and their communities
- Strengthening the role of non-governmental organizations: partners for sustainable development
- Local authorities' initiatives in support of *Agenda 21*
- Strengthening the role of workers and their trade unions
- Strengthening the role of business and industry
- Scientific and technological community
- Strengthening the role of farmers.

The choice of these nine groups was the arbitrary and incoherent outcome of negotiations at UNCED. It was influenced by the personal concerns of Maurice Strong and by the lobbying of NGOs who were accredited to the conference. It is arbitrary to single out women but not men; the young but not the elderly; indigenous people but not other minorities; unions but not professional associations; business and industry but not commerce, finance and services; natural scientists but not social scientists; and farmers but not fishing communities. It is anomalous, but understandable, to emphasize one level of government, local authorities, when they have responsibility for all the Major Groups. Above all it is incoherent to have NGOs as one of the Major Groups, when *all* the other eight (including associations of local authorities) are represented in the UN system via the ECOSOC "arrangements for consultation with non-governmental organizations". This incoherence arises because many in

the other Major Groups did not wish to be labeled as NGOs and there had to be a category to encompass environment and development NGOs.

In the Commission on Sustainable Development set up after the Earth Summit, special arrangements were made to allow for participation by all the new groups that had engaged with the UN for the first time at Rio. Any NGO that had been accredited for UNCED was allowed to apply for Roster NGO status at sessions of the CSD and later was given a special fast-track procedure for gaining full status with ECOSOC. Although the CSD is constitutionally a standard subsidiary body of ECOSOC, it has developed its own procedures for relating to NGOs. Rather than each NGO attempting to exercise its participation rights separately, the NGOs are organized into the nine Major Groups from *Agenda 21*. These categories are used both by the NGOs in their own caucusing and in the formal proceedings. In addition, the CSD has gone beyond the normal consultative arrangements to hold various types of formal, and informal, panels and seminars. Notably, each of the annual sessions starts with the appropriate Major Groups making presentations in special "stakeholder dialogues" on the different substantive agenda items for that year. In pragmatic terms, the illogicality of having NGOs as one of the nine groups of NGOs serves a useful function, in enabling any organization that does not fit elsewhere to be included. This Major Groups system has only operated in the CSD and in other processes that have been derived from UNCED.

### **1.10 Spread of NGOs**

It used to be widely argued that NGOs were predominantly a feature of Western societies. This false proposition was derived from a mixture of ignorance, Western presumptions of their superiority in the Cold War and nationalist rhetoric from authoritarian regimes. All societies in modern times have had large numbers of NGOs at least at the local level. Under the most authoritarian regimes or in the least developed countries there are still self-help co-operative groups, community welfare associations, religious groups, professional and scientific associations, sports and recreational bodies, etc. Even Romania during the dictatorship of President Ceaucescu was host to the International Federation of Beekeepers' Associations. The presence or absence of a democratic political culture is one of the major variables determining the number of NGOs, but the size of a country, its ethnic, religious and cultural diversity, the complexity of its economy and the quality of its communication

infrastructure are also of crucial importance. Thus there are tens of thousands of NGOs in countries such as Bangladesh and India, while there are relatively few in Iceland or Finland.

A particular source of controversy is the idea that the major NGOs are "Northern". Many people are still trapped by the mental prejudice that organizations have to be situated in geographical space. It might be a practical necessity for an international NGO to have a headquarters office in a particular building, but the location of the office in a North American or a European city does not convert a global NGO into a Northern NGO. Equally, the historical origins of an organization being formed in a particular country do not mean it is currently a Northern rather than a global organization. The proper criteria for assessment whether an organization is global are the location of its membership, the staffing of its headquarters, the sources of its funding and the content of its programs. An organization, such as Amnesty International, with 56 National Sections, groups in some 40 other countries, an International Secretariat from over 50 countries and an African Secretary-General is a global NGO, even if it started in Britain and has its headquarters in London. Due to the spread of democracy and the improvements in communications, many international NGOs that started in individual countries became global at the end of the twentieth century.

### **1.11 Types of NGO Activities**

Much as observers wish to gain greater understanding by defining different categories of NGOs, it is not possible to do so. We may distinguish different activities, but specific NGOs will often change the balance of the activities they pursue. The most common distinction is between operational and campaigning NGOs. This may be interpreted as the choice between small-scale change achieved directly through projects and large-scale change promoted indirectly through influence on the political system.

Operational NGOs have to mobilize resources, in the form of financial donations, materials or volunteer labor, in order to sustain their projects and programs. This process may require quite complex organization. Charity shops, staffed by volunteers, in premises provided at nominal rents and selling donated goods, end up providing finance to the national headquarters. Students in their vacations or during a break in their education provide labor for projects. Finance obtained from grants or contracts, from governments, foundations or companies, require time and expertise spent on planning, preparing applications, budgeting, accounting and reporting. Major fund-raising events require skills in advertising, media

relations and motivating supporters. Thus, operational NGOs need to possess an efficient headquarters bureaucracy, in addition to the operational staff in the field. Campaigning NGOs will carry out much the same functions, but with a different balance between them. Fund-raising is still necessary, but on a smaller scale and it can serve the symbolic function of strengthening the donors' identification with the cause. Persuading people to donate their time is necessary, but, in addition to a small number of people giving a great deal of time, it is also necessary to be able to mobilize large numbers for brief periods. External donors may not impose onerous administrative burdens, but supporters still have to be supplied with information on an efficient regular basis. Major events will aim to attract favorable publicity rather than raise funds.

Therefore, despite their differences, both operational and campaigning NGOs need to engage in fund-raising, mobilization of work by supporters, organizing special events, cultivating the media and administering a headquarters. Only the defining activities – implementing projects or holding demonstrations – serve to differentiate them. In reality, the distinctions are not as sharp as the labels suggest. Operational NGOs often move into campaigning when projects regularly face similar problems and the impact of the projects seems to be insufficient. All the large development and environment operational NGOs now run some regular campaigns, at least by supporting campaigning networks. Similarly, campaigning NGOs often feel they cannot ignore the immediate practical problems of people in their policy domain. Human rights NGOs and women's NGOs end up having programs to assist the victims of discrimination and injustice.

Various other types of NGOs can be regarded as promoting change by variants on these two primary functions. Research institutes have special forms of operational programs, in which the goal is to increase knowledge and understanding. They range across a spectrum from those promoting an academic, non-political image to those collating and disseminating information for campaigning purposes. Professional bodies, trade unions, recreational groups and associations of companies provide program activities required by and for their members, but they may also campaign to enhance the economic interests and the status of their organizations. These categories and several others have some practical value for everyday discourse, but they do not provide the basis for an analytical classification of NGOs.

The most effective way to distinguish between NGOs is to obtain precise data on a range of different variables. The number of full-time employees, the number of members and the

funding of the annual budget give measures of the size of any NGO. Opinion poll data on recognition of and support for an NGO or its goals, along with the frequency of positive mentions in the news media, give measures of its political strength. There are also more subjective variables, such as the professional skill, knowledge and experience of the personnel that matter for both operational and campaigning purposes.

## **1.12 NGOs, Social Movements and Civil Society**

Among some political activists, there is a tendency to see organizations, particularly hierarchical organizations, as conservative and oppressive. As a result NGOs may be seen as part of the established order. This view is enhanced by the fact that prominent NGOs may have a long history, complex structures, technical literature and a leadership who engage more with global politics than with their members or supporters. Thus at times NGOs are contrasted with the 'new social movements'. These can be portrayed as dynamic, innovative and non-hierarchical. The idea of a movement simultaneously invokes two dissimilar ideas: the political impact of mass action, by very large numbers of people, and the role of the individual person, independently making his/her own voice heard. The oldest example is the labor movement, going back to the nineteenth century. Since the 1960s, there have been references to the new social movements, such as those for peace, women's rights, development, the environment and anti-racism. They were 'new', partly because they were not based on class divisions and partly because new methods of mass mobilization became possible. In December 1999, a higher level of aggregation, into a diffuse and incoherent coalition, was recognized as the anti-globalization movement, when mass demonstrations disrupted the Seattle Ministerial Conference of the World Trade Organization. In practice, the conservative/radical contrast between NGOs and social movements cannot be sustained. There are both conservative and radical NGOs and many other shades of political opinion along the spectrum. There are some writers, including some academics, who refer to 'progressive' social movements, as if all social movements were progressive. This ignores the existence of reactionary social movements, such as neo-fascists and racists, who cannot be distinguished from other movements by any objective criteria.

In addition, NGOs should not be contrasted with social movements, because NGOs are essential components of social movements. If an idea is to catch the imagination of people, it has to be articulated by leaders through speeches, pamphlets or visual images. If the

idea is going to reach large numbers of people, resources have to be mobilized and allocated to communication processes. If demonstrations are to occur, they have to be organized. If a movement is to achieve change, priorities have to be selected and targets designated. If a protest lasts more than a few days to become a movement, existing organizations or new organizations will provide the skeleton that transforms an amorphous mass into a strong body. This is not to say that social movements are composed solely of NGOs. A social movement consists of a range of organizations who collaborate for some common purpose that is sufficiently compelling to generate a sense of collective identity, *along with* all the people, within and outside the organizations, who identify with the common goals and the collective identity. Thus, a social movement is more than a coalition of NGOs and less than society as a whole.

In the 1990s, four mutually-reinforcing processes of change led to emphasis on the concept of civil society. There was an explosion in global communication facilities; the new forms of private association, from transnational community organizations to networks and caucuses, were recognized; the fall of communist regimes in Eastern Europe and military regimes in developing countries promoted participation in the new democratic systems; and the major UN conferences produced an unprecedented scale of global public engagement with intergovernmental events. In addition, the secretariats of the UN and other intergovernmental organizations sought to overcome the crises generated by the unilateralism of United States administrations and the failure of Congress to deliver US financial obligations, by appealing to global civil society as a source of legitimacy for international co-operation.

The simplest, most common, meaning given to "civil society" is all public activity, by any individuals, organizations or movements, other than government employees acting in a governmental capacity. In the broadest sense, it encompasses all social, economic, cultural and political relations, but the emphasis is usually on the political aspects of these relations. Thus, it can be used in reference to any level from the local to the country as a whole, or even global interactions. It also clearly goes beyond traditional NGOs to all forms of networks, caucuses and movements. As a result, it serves as a political tool for all those who want to promote innovative, wider and deeper levels of political participation.

Unfortunately, civil society is also imbued with contradictory and contested meanings. In contrast with the paucity of civil society activities in former authoritarian regimes, it is sometimes implied that civil society is in opposition to government. However, academics

who adopt the "critical theory" approach of Habermas take the opposite view. They see civil society as integrated with the state in maintaining bourgeois hegemony in capitalist societies. This approach is virtually unknown outside non-academic circles. A second confusion is whether civil society includes or excludes the economic activities. For some, civil society encompasses everything except government, but for others there are three quite separate realms: government, civil society and the economy. On the basis of the former assumption, the United Nations used the term civil society to express its desire to strengthen its relations with both companies and NGOs. The result was furious protests from those NGOs who blame companies for social exploitation, poverty and environmental degradation. In particular, they were most upset to find the UN website providing links to its relations with both business and NGOs from a single civil society web page. (The protests did lead to the UN adopting a wording that separated business from civil society.) Lastly, as with several other terms, some people wish to see civil society solely in a positive light and exclude actors of whom they disapprove. Not only criminals and drug dealers, but also "reactionary" NGOs, are occasionally referred to as "uncivil society". Despite these various problems, civil society is a useful way of going beyond the traditional NGOs and referring to all the ways in which diverse non-governmental actors are mobilized. Nevertheless, it is necessary to be explicit on whether economic actors are being included or not.

### **1.13 Political Influence of NGO**

This is obviously not the case, irrespective of the political situation or the issue under consideration. At any specific point in time, an NGO may have little contact with those who are not members. On the other hand, a change in society that is salient to the group can motivate an introspective NGO to engage in sustained political action. It is certainly not true that all NGOs are active in global politics. It is not even true that all NGOs attempt to influence politics at the country level, in the narrow sense of direct engagement in the debate over public policy. However, politics may also be seen, more broadly, as the process by which any set of people reaches a collective decision. This means that attempts by an NGO to mobilize individuals and change their personal behavior, to win support from a religious group or a trade union, or to articulate their values in the news media are all forms of political action. Legal systems may classify raising money for purposes such as poverty alleviation, disaster relief or environmental conservation as non-political, but the legal distinction between charitable and political activity is always based on an arbitrary, illogical and

controversial definition of politics. Many NGOs will not see themselves as engaging directly in public policy, but their activities are always a social expression of values. Hence, NGOs are very likely to be political in the broadest sense of affecting social discourse and can often have an indirect effect on politics in the narrow sense of shaping public policy.

The point of this debate about terminology is to emphasize that NGOs are not just well-meaning, uncontroversial, non-political groups. Furthermore, there is no difference between the role of NGOs in domestic and in global politics. At both levels, they are diverse, controversial and of major political significance. The impact of a particular NGO may vary across time and place, and from one issue to another, but collectively NGOs generate the dynamics of political change. We have seen that there is often an assumption that NGOs are operating for the general public good or even that they are "progressive". However, there is such diversity to the values advocated by different NGOs that they oppose each other, as well as putting pressure on governments and companies. Many women's NGOs oppose religious NGOs on questions of sexual and reproductive behavior. Hunters, farmers and fishing communities oppose animal rights groups. Environmental and development NGOs have different perspectives on sustainable development from each other. Many radical NGOs are hostile to reformist NGOs who accept incremental change. It is not logically possible for anybody neither to support all NGOs nor indeed to be hostile to all NGOs.

Many government leaders express quite hostile attitudes to NGOs, even in some democratic societies. In as much as this is a general sentiment, it is irrational. There are particular factors that explain the irrationality. Firstly, the increased impact of NGOs has caused resentment among those whom they criticize. Secondly, the claim by some NGOs that they are the "voice of the people" and hence have greater legitimacy than governments is deeply offensive to government officials. As they are quick to point out, it is also a ludicrous claim. Thirdly, the violence and the extreme revolutionary and/or nihilistic attitudes associated with some of the participants in a series of anti-globalization demonstrations, starting at Seattle in 1999, diminished the status of the other NGOs at the demonstrations. In some circles, there was even a generalized negative impact upon NGOs from the terrorist attacks upon New York and Washington in 2001. Nevertheless, virtually all government leaders, in both domestic and global politics, including those who have expressed hostility, will work with NGOs when they expect the most active NGOs to be allies, in support of their current political goals.



There is often confusion about the role of NGOs in democratic political processes. Denial of their democratic legitimacy arises when democracy is simply reduced to the right to take part in governmental decision-making. Clearly, on this limited basis, NGOs cannot claim a greater legitimacy than elected governments. Many NGOs themselves do not have democratic procedures within their own organizations and many only represent a small number of people. Even the minority of NGOs that elect their leaders, have conferences to decide their policies and have millions of members, still have no basis to claim a right to take decisions on behalf of society as a whole. These arguments were obscured in the 1970s and 1980s when many NGOs significantly expanded their membership and their activities. In this period, more governments were authoritarian than democratic. Under regimes that are communist, feudal, fascist, military dictatorships or corrupt oligarchies it might be reasonable to claim NGOs are more representative of society as a whole, but such regimes have become the exception in a world of democracies from the 1990s onwards.

However, a wider view of democracy totally legitimizes the role of NGOs. Democracy is not just the holding of elections every four or five years. It is also the continuous process of debate, in which the legislature, the political parties, the media and society as a whole put questions on the political agenda, formulate alternative policy proposals and criticize the policy of the government. On this basis, any NGO has a right to participate, however large or small and however representative or unrepresentative of a particular sector of society it may be. Indeed, in both domestic and global politics, policy-making could not be democratic without the active participation of NGOs. Nevertheless, their legitimate role in sustaining an independent civil society does not give them any right to supplant the role of governments.

### **Review Questions**

1. What are NGOs? State with example?
2. What is the prime concept behind formation of NGOs?
3. What are the features of NGO management?
4. What is the distinction between interest groups and pressure groups?

### **Discussion Questions**

Discuss the different structures among NGO with an Example.

### **Application Exercises**

1. Explain NGOs and the Political use of violence?
2. What are the relations of NGO in terms of business and commerce?
3. What is the role of political parties in NGO management?

## **Lesson 2– Environment and Taxonomy**

### **Learning Objectives**

- To explain about existence of non government organisations.
- To study the different types of NGOs.
- To recognise stages of development NGOs.
- To explain about the management of non-governmental organizations.
- To identify the features of NGOs.

### **2.1 Introduction**

A non-governmental organization (NGO) is an organization that is not part of a government and was not founded by states. NGOs are therefore typically independent of governments. Although the definition can technically include for-profit corporations, the term is generally restricted to social, cultural, legal, and environmental advocacy groups having goals that are primarily noncommercial. NGOs are usually non-profit organizations that gain at least a portion of their funding from private sources. Current usage of the term is generally associated with the United Nations and authentic NGOs are those that are so designated by the UN.

Because the label “NGO” is considered too broad by some, as it might cover anything that is non-governmental, many NGOs now prefer the term private voluntary organization (PVO). A 1995 UN report on global governance estimated that there are nearly 29,000 international NGOs. National numbers are even higher: The United States has an estimated 2 million NGOs, most of them formed in the past 30 years. Russia has 65,000 NGOs. Dozens are

created daily. In Kenya alone, some 240 NGOs come into existence every year. The International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement is the world's largest group of humanitarian NGO's.

Though voluntary associations of citizens have existed throughout history, NGOs along the lines seen today, especially on the international level, have developed in the past two centuries. One of the first such organizations, the International Committee of the Red Cross, was founded in 1863.

The phrase non-governmental organization came into use with the establishment of the United Nations in 1945 with provisions in Article 71 for a consultative role for organizations that neither are governments nor member states. The definition of international NGO (INGO) is first given in resolution 288 (X) of ECOSOC on February 1950: it is defined as 'any international organisation that is not founded by an international treaty'. The vital role of NGOs and other "major groups" in sustainable development was recognized in Agenda 21, leading to revised arrangements for consultative relationship between the United Nations and non-governmental organizations.

Globalization during the 20th century gave rise to the importance of NGOs. Many problems could not be solved within a nation. International treaties and international organizations such as the World Trade Organization were perceived as being too centered on the interests of capitalist enterprises. In an attempt to counterbalance this trend, NGOs have developed to emphasize humanitarian issues, developmental aid and sustainable development. A prominent example of this is the World Social Forum which is a rival convention to the World Economic Forum held annually in Switzerland. The fifth World Social Forum in Porto Alegre, Brazil, in January 2005 was attended by representatives from more than 1,000 NGOs.

## **2.2 Types of NGOs**

There are numerous possibilities to classify NGOs. The following is the typology the World Bank uses 1:

### **2.2.1 Operational NGOs**

Their primary purpose is the design and implementation of development-related projects. One categorization that is frequently used is the division into relief-oriented or development-oriented organizations; they can also be classified according to whether they stress service

delivery or participation; or whether they are religious and secular; and whether they are more public or private-oriented. Operational NGOs can be community-based, national or international.

### **2.2.2 Advocacy NGOs**

Their primary purpose is to defend or promote a specific cause. As opposed to operational project management, these organizations typically try to raise awareness, acceptance and knowledge by lobbying, press work and activist events. Nongovernmental organizations are heterogeneous group. A long list of acronyms has developed around the term 'NGO'.

These include:

- INGO stands for international NGO, such as CARE;
- BINGO is short for business-oriented international NGO;
- RINGO is an abbreviation of religious international NGO such as Catholic Relief Services;
- ENGO, short for environmental NGO, such as Global 2000;
- GONGOs are government-operated NGOs, which may have been set up by governments to look like NGOs in order to qualify for outside aid;

QUANGOs are quasi-autonomous non-governmental organisations, such as the W3C and the International Organization for Standardization (ISO), which is actually not purely an NGO, since its membership is by nation, and each nation is represented by what the ISO Council determines to be the “most broadly representative” standardization body of a nation. Now, such a body might in fact be a nongovernmental organization—for example, the United States is represented in ISO by the American National Standards Institute, which is independent of the federal government. However, other countries can be represented by national governmental agencies—this is the trend in Europe.

## **2.3 Evolutionary stages of development NGOs**

Three stages or generations of NGO evolution have been identified by Korten's. Three Generations of Voluntary Development Action. First, the typical development NGO focuses

on relief and welfare, and delivers relief services directly to beneficiaries. Examples are the distribution of food, shelter or health services. The NGO notices immediate needs and responds to them. NGOs in the second generation are oriented towards small-scale, self-reliant local development. At this evolutionary stage, NGOs build the capacities of local communities to meet their needs through 'self reliant local action'. Korten calls the third generation 'sustainable systems development'. At this stage, NGOs try to advance changes in policies and institutions at a local, national and international level; they move away from their operational service providing role towards a catalytic role.

### **2.3.1 Purposes**

NGOs exist for a variety of purposes, usually to further the political or social goals of their members. Examples include improving the state of the natural environment, encouraging the observance of human rights, improving the welfare of the disadvantaged, or representing a corporate agenda. However, there are a huge number of such organizations and their goals cover a broad range of political and philosophical positions. This can also easily be applied to private schools and athletic organizations.

### **2.3.2 Methods**

NGOs vary in their methods. Some act primarily as lobbyists, while others conduct programs and activities primarily. For instance, such an NGO as Oxfam, concerned with poverty alleviation, might provide needy people with the equipment and skills they need to find food and clean drinking water.

### **2.3.3 Networking**

The International Freedom of Expression eXchange (IFEX), founded in 1992, is a global network of more than 60 non-governmental organizations that promote and defend the right to freedom of expression.

### **2.3.4 Consulting**

Many international NGOs have a consultative status with United Nations agencies relevant to their area of work. As an example, the Third World Network has a consultative status with the UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) and the UN Economic and

Social Council (ECOSOC). In 1946, only 41 NGOs had consultative status with the ECOSOC, but this number had risen to 2,350 in 2003.

## **2.4 Management of non-governmental organizations**

Two management trends are particularly relevant to NGOs: diversity management and participatory management. Diversity management deals with different cultures in an organization. Intercultural problems are prevalent in Northern NGOs that are engaged in developmental activities in the South. Personnel coming from a rich country are faced with a completely different approach of doing things in the target country. A participatory management style is said to be typical of NGOs. It is intricately tied to the concept of a learning organization: all people within the organization are perceived as sources for knowledge and skills. To develop the organization, individuals have to be able to contribute in the decision making process and they need to learn.

### **2.4.1 Relations**

The relationship among businesses, governments, and NGOs can be quite complex and sometimes antagonistic. Some advocacy NGOs view opposition to the interests of Western governments and large corporations as central to their purpose. But NGOs, governments, and companies sometimes form cooperative, conciliatory partnerships as well.

### **2.4.2 Staffing**

Not all people working for non-governmental organizations are volunteers. Paid staff members typically receive lower pay than in the commercial private sector. Employees are highly committed to the aims and principles of the organization. The reasons why people volunteer are usually not purely altruistic, but self-serving: They expect to gain skills, experience and contacts.

There is some dispute as to whether expatriates should be sent to developing countries. Frequently this type of personnel is employed to satisfy a donor, who wants to see the supported project managed by someone from an industrialized country. However, the expertise these employees or volunteers may have can be counterbalanced by a number of factors: the cost of foreigners is typically higher, they have no grassroots' connections in the

country they are sent to and local expertise is often undervalued.<sup>2</sup> The NGO-sector is an important employer in terms of numbers. For example, by the end of 1995, CONCERN worldwide, an international Northern NGO working against poverty, employed 174 expatriates and just over 5,000 national staff working in ten developing countries in Africa and Asia, and in Haiti.

### **2.4.3 Funding**

Large NGOs may have annual budgets in the millions of dollars. For instance, the budget of the American Association of Retired Persons (AARP) was over \$540 million dollars in 1999. Human Rights Watch spent and received US\$21, 7 million in 2003. Funding such large budgets demands significant fundraising efforts on the part of most NGOs. Major sources of NGO funding include membership dues, the sale of goods and services, grants from international institutions or national governments, and private donations. Several EU-grants provide funds accessible to NGOs.

Even though the term 'non-governmental organization' implies independence of governments, some NGOs depend heavily on governments for their funding. A quarter of the US\$162 million income in 1998 of the famine-relief organization Oxfam was donated by the British government and the EU. The Christian relief and development organization World Vision US collected US\$55 million worth of goods in 1998 from the American government. Nobel Prize winner Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF) gets 46 percent of its income from government sources.

## **2.5 NGO characteristics**

NGOs are defined here as non-membership development-oriented organizations. Our concern here is with the stronger of the south-based NGOs that provide services either directly to the rural poor or to grass-roots membership organizations, and with the local branches of international NGOs that enjoy varying degrees of autonomy. They are therefore distinct from (but, as discussed below, often linked with) formal and informal membership organizations such as farmers' associations. But even within this definition, there exists wide diversity of origins and philosophy. Some NGOs were set up by left-leaning professionals or academics in opposition to the politics of government or its support for or indifference to the prevailing patterns of corruption, patronage, or authoritarianism. Some are based on religious principles,

others on a broadly humanitarian ethos, and yet others were set up as quasi-consultancy concerns in response to recent donor-funding initiatives.

Some NGOs reject existing social and political structures and see themselves as engines for radical change; others focus on more gradual change through development of human resources (usually through group formation) to meet their own needs or to make claims on government services; yet others focus more simply on the provision of services (e.g., advice, input supply) largely within existing structures. Their ideological orientations also differ widely in relation to agricultural technology: many are concerned with low external input agriculture, others pursue fundamentally organic approaches, 2 and, especially in the case of Andean societies, some are concerned to strengthen or reinstate traditional agricultural practices which formed the basis of social organization.

Of crucial importance when considering NGO-GO links is that NGOs are independent: they are not mandated to collaborate with research and extension services in the way that government departments might be. They will therefore collaborate only if GOs have something useful to offer.

## **2.6 NGO Strengths**

- The majorities of NGOs are small and horizontally structured with short lines of communication and are therefore capable of responding flexibly and rapidly to clients' needs and to changing circumstances. They are also characterized by a work ethic conducive to generating sustainable processes and impacts.
- NGOs' concern with the rural poor means that they often maintain a field presence in remote locations, where it is difficult to keep government staff in post.
- One of NGOs' main concerns has been to identify the needs of the rural poor in sustainable agricultural development. They have therefore pioneered a wide range of participatory methods for diagnosis<sup>3</sup> and, in some contexts, have developed and introduced systems approaches for testing new technology, for example in Chile. In some cases, these approaches have extended beyond farming systems into processing and marketing, as with Soya in Bangladesh, sesame in the Gambia, and cocoa in Bolivia.



- NGOs' rapport with farmers has allowed them to draw on local knowledge systems in the design of technology options and to strengthen such systems by ensuring that the technologies developed are reintegrated into them.
- NGOs have also developed innovative dissemination methods, relying on farmer-to-farmer contact, whether on a group or individual basis.
- In some cases, NGOs have developed new technologies such as soya production in Bangladesh or management practices such as the sloping agricultural land technology in the Philippines, but more often they have sought to *adapt* existing technologies, such as PRADAN's efforts in India to scale down technologies developed by government for mushroom and raw silk production and so make them accessible to small-scale farmers.
- Undoubtedly, one of the main strengths of NGOs has been their work in group formation. This has been in response to perceived needs at several levels:
  - To meet the technical requirements of certain types of innovation. Thus, Action for World Solidarity in India worked with grass-roots organizations to achieve simultaneous action in an integrated pest management programme. In the Gambia and Ethiopia, NGOs helped farmers to organize local informal seed production in ways to avoid undesirable cross-pollination.
  - To manage "lumpy" assets. In Bangladesh, NGOs have helped to organize landless labourers to acquire and operate water-pumping technology.
  - To manage common property resources. Many examples exist of formal and informal associations, often supported by NGOs, which manage irrigation water. In other cases, NGOs have supported group efforts in soil and water conservation, whether on private land or on a micro-watershed basis involving both private and common land. They have also helped in managing common grazing and forest land in a sustainable fashion in relation both to technology and the creation of a capacity to make demands on government over, for example, access issues.

## 2.7 NGO Weaknesses

- NGOs' small size means that their projects rarely address the structural factors that underlie rural poverty. Small size, independence, and differences in philosophy also militate against learning from each

other's experience and against the creation of effective forums, whether at national or provincial levels.

- Some "fashionable" locations have become so densely populated by a diversity of NGOs that problems have arisen not merely of competition for the same clientele, but of some undermining the activities of others.
- NGOs have limited capacities for agricultural technology development and dissemination and limited awareness of how to create effective demand-pull on government services.
- Some NGOs are more accountable to external funding agencies than to the clientele they claim to serve. Donor pressure to achieve short-term impacts, combined with a lack of cross-learning, has led in some cases to the promotion of inappropriate technology, such as protected horticultural systems in the Bolivian Andes.
- Many NGOs place great emphasis on voluntarism. Whilst such concepts as "volunteer extension workers" have great intuitive appeal and reflect widely commended values, they are some times promoted at the expense of financially sustainable alternatives. This was evident in SIDA's farm-level forestry project in North Vietnam, for instance, where the scope for supporting an emerging private nursery sector in the provision of technical advice was ignored, and complex and largely voluntary advisory services at the village level were promoted instead.

### **2.7.1 Examples of potentially replicable NGO-GO interaction**

The examples that follow illustrate the types of NGO-GO configurations that offer potential for replication and adaptation in three areas: providing technical advice and feedback, training, and working with groups.

### **2.7.2 NGO-GO Configurations for Providing Technical Advice and Feedback**

This chapter argues that the extreme institutional position in which all extension services are provided by the public sector is likely to be inefficient. At the other extreme, only in very specific circumstances can government hand over large parts of the extension function entirely to NGOs. This has been done in Chile, where government has contracted private

technology companies to cater to the larger commercial farmers, and NGOs for small subsistence-oriented farmers.

However, similar attempts in India have been largely unsuccessful. A proposal in the Eighth Plan to hand over the entire range of technology transfer and training activities to NGOs in parts of Gujarat, Rajasthan, Orissa, Kerala, and West Bengal, with some technical support from the state agricultural universities and departments of agriculture, has generated only a lukewarm response from NGOs. One reason for this is the NGO concern that many of the technical recommendations from NGOs that they would be expected to disseminate are not relevant to small-scale farmers. Another reason is that mechanisms for bottom-up feedback in existing technologies and for the articulation of demands for new technologies remain weak.

An attempt by the secretary of state for agriculture in Rajasthan to hand over responsibility for extension to NGOs in Udaipur District - renowned for its high density of NGOs - provoked a reaction that is likely to be typical of NGOs in many countries: namely, that by doing so the state is abrogating what is properly its responsibility to ensure a regular supply of technologies relevant to small-scale farmers.

Models developed elsewhere to provide a division of tasks more closely corresponding to the respective comparative advantages of the two sides have been more successful. One of the best-known models is in eastern Bolivia, where public sector extension services have long been characterized by chronic weakness. Under a new strategy devised in 1989, Centre for Tropical Agricultural Research (CIAT) established a coordination unit - the Technology Transfer Department (DTT) - whose role was not to work directly with farmers, but with various intermediate users of technologies who had their own local extension services. NGOs are one of the most important types of intermediate users.

The DTT has subject-matter specialists and zonal specialists whose work is supported by a communications section. The subject-matter specialists (SMSs) are in regular contact with their corresponding CIAT researcher and collaborate on some research work. They package research information for delivery to intermediate users and are mandated to transmit feedback on farmer needs to the researcher.

Frequently, technologies developed in the experimental centers are still not ready for transfer. SMSs therefore carry out on-farm adaptive trials, in addition to ensuring that extensionists

pass on the appropriate messages to farmers. Other duties of the SMSs include preparing technical bulletins for extensions, enhancing feedback and advice to extensionists and explaining how to give talks to farmers.

Informal collaborative arrangements rely heavily on the initiative of GO staff to feed lessons back into the next round of the research and extension agenda. In Bolivia, feedback was encouraged through a range of instruments, including NGO representation on the research planning committee of the local research station, and consultation with a number of zonal substations, part of whose function was to assemble users' views on the technologies being made available.

A different type of formal arrangement being developed in Udaipur District of India is a quarterly forum hosted by a "hybrid" NGO-GO institution - a government Farm Science Centre located in an NGO - in which interested NGOs and GOs participate. In essence, it is intended to promote familiarization by allowing cross-visits to be set up to each other's programmes, to allow training courses to be designed to meet NGOs' requirements, and to allow NGOs to "feed back" on currently available technologies and to voice further technology needs that are not currently being met. The forum is also intended to develop lessons for future interaction from efforts to monitor the process and impacts of current NGO-GO interaction within the district. The forum is beginning to make progress in some of these areas, but a major difficulty remains in the form of pre-programmed "targets" that the Department of Agricultural Extension has to meet each season in terms of, for example, the number of demonstrations of a given type. The forum has had the added benefit of facilitating substantive interaction among NGOs which otherwise meet on a monthly basis, but only for administrative purposes, and among the large number of NGOs in the district.

What remains to be addressed is the scope for similar formal links between NGOs, the membership organizations they are working with, and the NGOs which control large areas of land suitable for grazing or fodder collection. Although the central government has approved wider access by villagers to such land under "joint management" arrangements, parts of the land have been encroached upon by wealthier farmers, and local-level officials find it difficult to rectify this so as to make the land accessible to village groups.

## **2.8 NGO-GO Configurations in Training**

Some of the farmer training conducted by NGOs is linked more strongly with NGOs' programmes and targets than with farmers' needs. Much training is given in a classroom environment, without the practical content necessary to engage farmers' interests. NGOs have sought to work with GOs to address these shortcomings in several contexts:

- In Gujarat, India, the Aga Khan Rural Support Project (AKRSP) identified village training needs through discussions with farmer groups. Initially, AKRSP organized government provision of this training, but the courses were formal in style (lectures in a classroom), and farmers' evaluations showed that they had learned little of practical value from them. In response, AKRSP developed an alternative needs-based training and dissemination methodology which it tested over several areas. Government staff were then brought in to observe, participate in, and finally adopt the methodology. Successful adoption was reinforced by informal networks and exchange of experience at workshops and consultations. AKRSP, along with Myrada, has also been instrumental in training GO staff in participatory methods.
- In a different context, the International Institute for Rural Reconstruction in the Philippines brought together resource people from NGOs at a one-week workshop, the objective of which was to produce a completed Agro forestry Resources Training Manual. The manual is now widely used.
- Clearly, there are also many instances in which NGO staff benefit from the skills which GO staff are able to impart; training in grafting techniques, for instance, has been found useful by a number of NGOs.

### **2.8.1 NGO-GO Configurations in Group Formation**

Substantial scope exists for GOs to benefit from NGOs' group-organizing skills. In India, for instance, recent modifications to the training and visit extension system now require village-level extension workers to interact with groups of approximately twenty farmers instead of with individual "contact farmers." However, extension workers are not trained in group formation skills, and groups that they form are unlikely - if they survive at all - to become interested in anything other than the testing of immediately available technology. The examples cited above illustrate how NGOs can effectively organize groups around integrated pest management, soil and water management, and the management of common property resources and capital assets.

## 2.9 Collaboration with NGOs

The foregoing has several implications for extension services which aim to develop closer links with NGOs:

- Explicit recognition of the wide diversity of NGO types will be necessary. Not all Many NGOs seek to support the establishment and growth of membership organizations capable of meeting their technology requirements over the longer term either from their own resources or by creating demands on government services or by a combination of both. Thus in seed supply, Cromwell and Wiggins, for instance, quote numerous examples of ways that NGOs have supported local groups to produce seed, including vegetable and soya bean seed production in Bangladesh, and the multiplication of planting material for potatoes in the Ecuadorian Andes. In other countries (e.g., Nepal, the Gambia) local seed production initiatives have arisen plant breeding focused more fully on the needs of the rural poor, and the facilitation of linkages among the various agencies concerned with seed production and distribution. Some of these efforts see viable commercial arrangements as an essential feature of long-term sustainability. Thus PRADAN, in India, in an effort spanning several years to support the introduction of chrome-leather tanning by a local group, encouraged links with commercial lending organizations and private leather traders, not least because the latter could give accurate feedback on product quality. In a more complex example of experimenting over several years with several types of women's groups for poultry production, the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee finally devised a multitier structure embracing rearing, local feed production, and health care by women paravets. These women drew on government for the necessary vaccines, earned a living by charging for injections, and provided elements of the extension function by giving advice on management and nutrition to those who paid for vaccinations will be willing to enter into a collaborative "service delivery" relationship with government, and those that do will do so only if GOs have something to offer appropriate to their clients' needs. Extension services therefore need to search for links with NGOs from a position of confidence that the research-extension system already has, or at least has the capacity to generate, something useful to NGOs and their clients.

- Close interaction will be impossible if extension departments expect NGOs merely to assist in fulfilling preset targets such as the achievement of a given number of demonstrations of a given kind each season. GOs will have to bring an open agenda into the relationship, where possible keeping some resources "unallocated" in order to be able to respond to needs as they are articulated by NGOs.
- Very specific efforts will have to be made to convey both feedback on existing technologies and NGOs' requirements for new technologies to researchers. In many GOs, reward systems provide no incentive among either researchers or extensionists to respond to feedback.
- GO and NGO staff can jointly participate in training courses in the action-oriented methods such as participatory rural appraisal favoured by NGOs. The relevance of these to individual NGO staff will vary, but their capacity to enhance awareness of farmers' perspectives is important.
- Depending on their philosophy, NGOs are concerned to develop local capacities for experimentation which build solely on farmers' indigenous knowledge or on this and relevant "outside" ideas. This strategy may contribute to rural advancement in its own right, and the capacity it creates may prove a useful independent source of innovations in the absence of usable technologies from government. Alternatively, where GOs are willing and able to work with the poor, it will be a useful complement to what extension service can offer.

Predictably enough, it is the group-organizing and human resource development skills of NGOs which have tended to complement the technical skills and facilities available to government. Less predictable are the types of interaction that might evolve in specific settings: much appears likely to develop on an ad hoc basis in response to the individual characteristics of NGOs and the settings in which they work. However, it is becoming increasingly clear that a formal forum is required for certain types of interaction, including training, the joint planning of research and extension agenda, and the securing of joint management agreements for soil and water, fodder, and grazing resources. The task for the coming decade will be to develop these in ways which are non-threatening both to the organizations involved and to the informal interaction they already undertake and, as a prior requirement, to develop the mutual trust and awareness of each other's activities on which formal interaction depends.

### **Review Questions**

5. Write short note on NGO?
6. What do you mean by Operational NGO?
7. What are the stages or generations of NGO?
8. What are the different methods adopted by NGO?

### **Discussion Questions**

Discuss the different types of NGOs with example?

### **Application Exercises**

4. Explain the different characteristics of NGO?
5. How will NGO be able to receive the fund?
6. Explain the role of volunteers in NGO?



## **Lesson 3– Issues in NGO Management**

### **Learning Objectives**

- To explain about special events.
- To study the different types of financial abuse.
- To recognise the concentration of power.
- To explain about fund raising.
- To identify the features of Self-help organizations.

### **3.1 Introduction**

Self-help organizations of people with disabilities face most of the management problems common among NGOs, such as lack of funds and shortage of office staff. However, some management issues are more prominent than others, because of the situations that people with disabilities face. This section will discuss common management issues experienced and some approaches employed by self-help organizations to resolve those issues.

### **3.2 Concentration of power**

#### **3.2.1. Confusion of the roles of president and executive**

A NGO's president or chairperson should be a volunteer. The president's role is to represent an organization and to chair the board of directors. The board, with the approval of the general assembly, will set the organization's policies and plans. The role of an executive secretary, director, or manager, by contrast, is to implement those policies and plans.

In some self-help organizations, however, one person fills the roles of both positions. This may lead to the concentration of power in that individual because of the absence of a check-and-balance mechanism. To avoid this problem, when an organization grows, it should make sure to create an executive position, directly accountable to the board of directors and not in charge of it.

### **3.2.2. One-person organizations**

One person may dominate even a seemingly democratic decision-making process, usually as a result of a high level of education, social status or ability to articulate opinions. This may result in one-person control of the organization.

### **3.2.3. Imbalance of skills and experiences among members**

People who have acquired disabilities late in life often dominate the leadership positions of self-help organizations, especially organizations of people with locomotor disabilities. This is because they usually have a higher level of education, and more work and social experience, from the period before they acquired their disabilities. People who were born with disabilities or acquired them in early childhood, by contrast, may lack education and experiences in socialization and work. These conditions may make it difficult for them to take leadership roles in self-help organizations.

### **3.2.4. Unmet need for training**

Concentration of power in an organization may occur because many people with disabilities are not familiar with organization decision-making processes. They may not have been given any opportunity to make decisions in their own lives, let alone in their organizations. In such cases, members (especially board members) should receive opportunities to be trained in making appropriate decisions. The executive director or executive staffs are responsible for arranging such training.

## **3.3 Staff**

Many self-help organizations depend on the goodwill of committed members who can volunteer time and energy to helping the day-to-day operation of the organization. That operation (e.g., initiating and responding to correspondence) is difficult for self-help organizations, because of both language problems and a lack of personnel resources. When these difficulties lead to poor operation, it contributes to a perception of organizations of people with disabilities as being uncooperative and ineffective. Self-help organizations in such a situation need to improve their operation by recruiting volunteers or by raising funds to hire regular staff.

When a self-help organization grows, there is a need to develop paid positions within it. Paid staff should receive adequate salaries and other benefits on par with the staff of other NGOs working in the same community. However, members should take caution. Over-dependence on professional staff may weaken the participation of elected board members in the organization's management and decision-making processes. Elected members of self-help organizations need to remember that they are not employing full-time personnel to abrogate their own responsibilities and leadership.

### **3.4 Accountability**

There are many levels of accountability in self-help organizations. All members should commit themselves to promoting their full participation and equality in society. At the next level, leaders of a self-help organization should see themselves as facilitators who are accountable to all members, including those from urban slums and rural areas.

#### **3.4.1. Accountability for rural members**

Members in rural areas have particular difficulty participating in activities and receiving information on activities of a large self-help organization. Often, the organization head office is located in the national or provincial capital or a large city, with the majority of board members belonging to an urban elite class. For their convenience, meetings tend to be organized in the city bases. This situation gives urban members little exposure to problems faced by people with disabilities in rural areas.

To improve the situation for rural members of self-help organizations, board members should do the following:

- Spend some time listening to and consulting with rural people with disabilities;
- Guarantee fair representation of rural disabled members (with adequate training in making decisions) on the decision-making body, taking care to avoid tokenism;
- Rotate meeting sites between urban and rural areas.

#### **3.4.2. Accountability of those who have received privileges on behalf of organization**

Only a few organization members can make overseas trips for training, seminars or meetings. Often, these are top leaders who do not share information and knowledge gained abroad with the rest of the membership. Organizations need a fair selection process for sending members abroad and a mechanism by which information and knowledge thus gained can be shared with all members. FDPA has developed guidelines for such mechanism.

### **3.4.3. Financial abuse**

Self-help organizations often have poor financial management. Many self-help organizations do not keep up with the standards that donors require. As a consequence, they lose the trust of donors, and lose funding as a result. At worst, they may face outright financial abuse.

## **3.4.4 Preventing abuses of funds within a self-help organization Introduction**

### **3.4.1.1 Introduction**

Almost every organization, even a charitable organization, will eventually be troubled by the abuse of its resources, especially financial resources. In some cases this abuse may be minor; in other cases, it can be devastating and even fatal to an organisation. The abuse may be obvious, or it may be hidden or justified through the use of such terms as "spoiled goods", "natural wastage", "commission", "staff perks", "petty cash", "miscellaneous expenses", or even "accepted practice".

Lost resources are not the only problem resulting from financial abuse. A common reaction to the discovery of financial abuse is a lack of trust from those dealing with the organization, which may include the general public. This can result in suspicion, recrimination and counter-recrimination between elected officers, staff, members and donors. This may even intrude into the personal lives of those concerned with the organization, whether connected with the abuse or not. Furthermore, volunteers and donors may become unwilling to offer further assistance and funding and membership may decline. Clearly, then, financial abuse can be a severe problem, and organizations must make every efforts to prevent, eradicate or reduce it.

### **3.4.1.2 Types of financial abuse**

There are three main types of financial abuse. Each of these may involve cash, cheques, stamps, equipment, services or any other resources (including facilities and assets) of an organization.

The most obvious type of financial abuse is deliberate and intentional abuse, where a person or persons, inside or outside the organization, set out to convert, embezzle or otherwise transfer resources from the organization to their own personal use. This is simple theft; once detected, it is relatively easy to deal with.

The second category of abuse is management abuse, where management uses, or allows the use of, resources for purposes other than their original intention. For example, people in the organization may use funds which have been reserved for a specific project to pay for general administrative costs, or use official telephones for private calls.

The third category of financial abuse is inefficiency, where funds or resources are not used to their best advantage. For example, the organization may not consider competitive quotations for the purchase of capital equipment; it may be over-staffed; it may use premium quality paper for drafting when scrap paper is entirely suitable.

What the three categories of abuse have in common is opportunity. Deliberate abuse can only happen when its perpetrators are given the opportunity to steal. Management abuse and inefficiencies can only happen when their perpetrators are given the opportunity to spend without control, or to continue inefficiency because of a lack of control, accountability or information. The application of standard rules of conduct or procedures and systems can reduce these opportunities and thus prevent, or at least detect, financial abuse at an early date. The organization can then take appropriate action.

Three examples, taken from the same national organization, illustrate how abuses can occur.

### **Example 1**

A national organization of people with disabilities wanted to purchase its own headquarters office. Approximately US\$ 125,000 was required for the full purchase price; the organization had only US\$ 16,000 in the bank, in a long-term investment account. The organization identified suitable premises, but the deposit for the building was more than the value of the organization's long-term investment. Consequently, the Executive Committee (ExCo) of the organization instructed the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) to borrow money from the organization's bankers against the long-term investment, and use the borrowed money to find

a suitable short-term investment that would boost the amount available for deposit. The CEO quickly came up with a business that was looking for investors, and which promised to repay a 30 day investment with the unlikely sum of 25 per cent interest.

The organization rushed into the investment - and lost its entire savings. Confidence in the organization's management by the membership, the Government, the national disability co-ordinating agency donors and bankers hit an all-time low. The national organization, which had previously been doing well, came to within a few dollars of bankruptcy and enforced closure. This serious problem was caused by the following abuses:

1. The ExCo's initial decision to instruct the CEO to seek an investment had not been ratified by the organization's full Board of elected officers. This was contrary to the organization's constitutional regulations. In addition, the decision to invest in the business was not approved by all the ExCo members, and neither was it ratified by the full Board. Once again, this was contrary to constitutional regulations.
2. In order to make the investment, the organization obtained the short-term bank loan by telling the bank that the money would be used for the building deposit. No mention was made of the 30 day business investment. To obtain the short-term loan, the organization presented the bank with the minutes of a fictitious board meeting. Those who had signed the letter to the bank (the organization's President, Treasurer and CEO) could have faced criminal charges, but the bank was happy to recover its funds from the long-term deposit which secured the short-term loan.
3. Those who made the decision to invest did not consult professional financial advisers. The organization's bankers could have provided advice free of charge and conducted a credit rating on the business.
4. Those who made the decision to invest failed to consult professional lawyers to secure their investment.
5. The CEO, who had been appointed as a partner in the business on the instruction of the President, was instructed to keep close watch on how the invested sum was used, and to regularly report to the Board - but did not do so.

6. The ExCo failed to monitor the investment, even when the invested sum was not returned within 30 days. It also did not inform the full Board until ten months later, only days before the Members' Annual General Meeting.
7. Those members of the full Board and ExCo who were not a party to the investment decisions failed to detect that a substantial part of the organization's assets had been compromised, until the independent audit report 10 months after the event.
8. Middle management staff who knew of the problem failed to report it to the uninformed Board members and the general membership..

After the full Board became aware of the situation, it initially appeared to attempt to hide the situation from the membership at the Annual General Meeting by allowing the CEO to produce no draft audit accounts. Members at the Meeting forced the issue and finally received copies of the draft audit account.

### **Example 2**

Certain Board members of the national organization wished to borrow money from it. In order to legitimize this action, they consulted the organization's constitution and used a paragraph out of context. The borrowing went undetected during the initial year. Nobody present at the Annual General Meeting questioned this item in the annual audited accounts until the second year. Although the majority of funds were eventually repaid, this action amounted to management abuse, and caused membership to lose trust in the Board.

The organization also approved a \$3,000 loan to its CEO, contrary to its own constitution and employment policy. The loan went unpaid even though the CEO (who was responsible for the preparation of salary payments) was supposed to make monthly deductions from his salary and repay the loan within six months. This was management and inefficiency abuse on the part of the Board and deliberate abuse on behalf of the CEO.

### **Example 3**

On appointment, the CEO was advised he would be responsible for his own transport to and from home to the place of work (a journey of about 30 km each way), and that the organization's sole vehicle could only be used on rare occasions when working exceptional,

unsociable hours. Yet, soon after his appointment, the CEO began to take the vehicle home on a daily basis.

Nobody took corrective action, and the CEO took more and more liberties as time went by. Often, the CEO would not arrive at work until after normal working hours, thus depriving the organization of the legitimate use of the vehicle. The CEO claimed to be taking the vehicle home each night to ensure its safety, but there was no real reason why the vehicle should not have been parked overnight at the organization's premises. The CEO used the vehicle to transport his children to school and produce from his smallholding to town. This abuse lasted for two years until the CEO's suspension (as a result of the actions described in example 1). It is conservatively estimated that this problem consumed a distance of some 32,000 km and US\$ 8,000 of the organization's funds.

### **3.4.1.3 Discussion**

As a result of the problems described in each of these three examples, this organization lost some US\$ 27,000 within the space of two years - 20 per cent of the organization's expenditure over that period. The obvious common factor in all the problems is the action of the CEO. However, in each case the organization also demonstrated a lack of certain helpful characteristics that could have prevented the problem. They are listed here:

- a) supervision and management of the organization by the elected Executive and Board;
- b) attention to the job descriptions of elected executives;
- c) questioning of how resources were being used by staff and the general membership;
- d) regard for procedures and systems;
- e) monitoring of decisions and instructions by the Board.

In addition, during the time of these abuses, the organization (under the direction of the CEO) did not keep its bookkeeping up to date. Furthermore, apart from the independent annual audit inspection, nobody attempted to produce meaningful management information from the books of account. Neither did the Board attempt to translate the information in the annual



audited accounts into a format which could be understood by the vast majority of members of the organization, who were not financially literate.

The case study demonstrates the dangers faced by placing too much trust and control in one person (the CEO), and the importance of the role of elected executives as custodians of an organization. It also highlights the need for ordinary members of an organization to help ensure that their organization is being run correctly.

#### **3.4.1.4 Preventing financial abuse: tips for ordinary members**

Ordinary members of an organization are often in the best position to speak out and prevent the kind of abuse described here. The following methods of detecting, preventing and dealing with financial abuse are aimed at those ordinary members.

An organization's members have the right to know what is going on in it. They can and should attend general members' meetings, listen to and read reports which are presented - and speak out if they don't understand these. They can ask the Board to explain more clearly what has been, or is being, done. If members are still not satisfied with the way the organization is being run, they can take the following actions:

- (a) Read the organization's constitution. The constitution is there to protect members' rights, and they may find that they have the right to convene a special general members' meeting to discuss their concerns.
- (b) Speak to other members of the organization and find out if they share the concerns.
- (c) Write formally to the President, informing him or her of their concerns.
- (d) Contact the government Registrar of NGOs or Commissioner for Charities and ask them to make enquiries. As a last resort, if they have strong suspicions that money is being abused, they may contact the police or ask one of the organization's major donors to conduct an investigation.

#### **3.4.1.5 Basic actions**

Financial abuse can be likened to illnesses: some are unpleasant but minor; others start as minor but become critical if not treated; still others can be immediately and obviously

disabling or fatal. The three basic actions to prevent the problems caused by abuse are also similar to ways of dealing with disease. In order of priority, they are: prevention; early detection; and management (or treatment).

**Prevention** is better than cure. It is essential that organizations take measures to prevent financial abuse. Such measures include the following:

- (a) Open, clear and transparent accountability by elected officers and staff. This means clearly defined roles for elected officers and clearly defined job descriptions for staff; levels of responsibility and accountability should be clearly defined along with these.
- (b) Wise and efficient use of assets and resources. This includes effective, regular control, monitoring and supervision of assets and resources.
- (c) Open, clear accounting and bookkeeping practices where the books of account are kept up to date.
- (d) Preparation, monitoring and control of budgets.
- (e) Regular banking and primary support documentation for income and expenditures.
- (f) Multiple signatures for cheques, financial withdrawals and transactions.
- (g) Regular internal auditing by the treasurer, secretary, president or an independent auditor.
- (h) Regular periodic (usually annual) auditing by an independent person, preferably an auditor or chartered accountant.
- (i) Elimination or reduction of opportunity and temptation for abuse.
- (j) Training of the Board and staff in matters such as duties and responsibilities, procedures, systems and handling of cash.
- (k) Presence of at least two people whenever cash is handled, as much as possible.
- (l) Public announcements that abuses will not be tolerated and that anyone caught abusing the organization's resources will be dealt with severely and publicly.

**Early detection.** Detection of abuse relies not only on the elected executive, board members and staff, but on all who have business with an organization, including the ordinary membership and donors. In addition to the measures suggested under prevention (above), concerned parties can do the following:

- (a) Monitor resources and assets. This will include:
  - physically checking items against an asset register;
  - inspecting vehicle log books;
  - examining postage-stamp registers;
  - examining petty-cash books and receipts, and reconciling cash on hand;
  - carrying out bank reconciliations to ensure that the bank account balances;
  - checking time sheets;
  - examining random bills and expenses.
- (b) Monitor expenditure and income against the prepared budget.
- (c) Update the books of account.
- (d) Carry out spot checks.
- (e) Ensure that procedures and systems are in place and are being observed.
- (f) Regularly share information between staff, board members and the organization's membership.
- (g) Ensure direct, confidential communication opportunities between staff and Board members.

Swift and immediate **management of abuse** is required as soon as abuse is detected. Those concerned must immediately stop the opportunity for it to continue. Second, they must investigate the abuse, find out who the perpetrators were, how the abuse operated and estimate or quantify the extent of the abuse. Third, they should introduce systems to prevent the abuse recurring. Fourth, they should deal with the perpetrators and try to recover the lost funds/resources. Finally, they need to decide how to inform the organization's members and, if necessary, the public or donors (possibly including the Government).

### 3.4.1.6 Considerations

The following matters should be considered in dealing with financial abuse.

**Insurance:** Concerned parties should find out how much it will cost to insure assets against theft or loss, as insurance may be one way of limiting the financial damage to the organization.

**Legal action:** If a particular abuse amounts to a crime, such as theft, fraud or embezzlement, then the matter should be reported to the police. In some countries, reporting a crime is mandatory. Under most legal systems, if criminal proceedings are undertaken, it prevents any civil action for the recovery of funds until after the criminal case has been heard. But in many cases of small abuse, or cases where the perpetrator(s) have no assets, civil action may not be a cost-effective method of dealing with the offence.

**Going public:** When abuse is detected, openness is generally the best policy, but that does not mean that telling the public immediately is the best choice. The organization should, first of all, keep its members up to date on the situation. If a specific donor's money or assets have been abused, the organization should inform that donor about both the loss and the actions it is taking. Rumour can be more destructive than the truth, so the organization should prepare a press release and send this to various news agencies before any rumours can start, if there is a good chance of the abuse becoming public. A lawyer or legal adviser should check any press release before it is circulated, to ensure that the organization does not fall foul of any libel infringements or jeopardize future court action. The organization should appoint an official spokesperson to deal with enquiries and refer all enquiries to that person, rather than allowing others to communicate directly with the press.

**Reports:** Those writing reports concerning abuse should refer only to known, provable facts. They should not speculate, assume, presume or use emotive words.

**Further training:** After taking the immediately necessary actions, the organization may wish to consider providing further training or refresher training for its staff, volunteers or board, in order to prevent or reduce the opportunity for a repetition of the abuse.

### 3.4.1.7 Systems and procedures

The most important and effective weapons against abuse are the systems and procedures designed to protect the efficiency and security of an organization and its assets. It is not enough for the systems to be designed and in place; those using the systems must understand them. This may involve training or the production of procedural manuals. Most importantly,

staff, volunteers and board must adhere to the systems and put them into practice. This involves management, supervision and discipline. All organizations are different, but in addition to the guidelines already provided in this article, the following general guidelines may be useful.

**Primary Documentation** (also known as supporting documentation): Recording and secure filing of primary documentation is vital. Primary documentation consists of the pieces of paper used to make or receive payments, such as receipts, invoices, statements, quotations, deposit slips, cheque stubs and bank statements.

**Receipts:** The organization should write receipts for all money entering the organization, usually at the same time the money is received, and give the top copy of the receipt to the person making the payment. Those collecting cash should generally work in teams of at least two people, protecting them from allegations against them and helping ensure that all the money collected finds its way into the organization. If the cash box cannot be immediately emptied and counted, the organization should give the collectors a receipt for a sealed tin when they return it. When staff or volunteers collect money for fund-raising events (such as dances), they should be issued with a receipt when they bring the money to the organization. Purchasers of tickets do not need a receipt; the ticket itself functions as a receipt.

**Banking:** The organization should put income into the bank as soon as possible, saving and filing deposit slips or bankbooks. Income receipt vouchers can supplement the deposit slips and provide details of the money's source. The organization should not leave cash in the office premises for longer than is necessary, and staff should not use income for petty cash.

**Expenditures:** The organization should use payment vouchers, and attach or file any invoices, statements and receipts with them. It should not use ambiguous descriptions, such as "various", "sundry" or "miscellaneous", on payment vouchers. The person who prepares a payment voucher should not also sign cheques. Cheques should be signed by at least two people, usually the Treasurer and the President. The organization should avoid using cheques made payable to "bearer" or "cash", and use crossed cheques. Cash should only be used for small amounts (petty cash), with petty cash vouchers be used for all payments. Someone other than the cash handler should make spot checks on petty cash.

**Bookkeeping:** The organization should keep books of account up to date, preferably on at least a weekly basis. Someone other than the bookkeeper should periodically check the bookkeeping entries against the primary documents.

**Use of non-cash resources:** The organization should keep log books or registers for its non-cash assets and resources, such as vehicles, stamps, photocopying, telephones, stationery, premises and furniture. The log books should record who is using the resources, for what purpose. A recent analysis of one organization's fax bills revealed that over 60 per cent of fax machine usage was not related to the organization's work, but by keeping a register, the organization could recover the cost of the non-work-related usage.

**Checks, monitoring and reporting:** Having procedures and recording information about income and expenditure and use of assets and resources is not enough by itself. The information must be monitored, checked and analyzed. For example, someone other than the invoice writer must examine invoices to make sure that the organization actually received the goods or services and that they were not used by others; non-cash asset registers must be periodically examined; actual expenditures must be compared with budgets. When checks and monitoring are complete, then the board and members should receive the information through reports. Reports may not need to be detailed, but they should provide decision makers and members with enough information to reassure them that the organization's financial affairs are in order and going according to plan.

**Appropriateness:** Any and all of the above systems and procedures must be appropriate for their purpose and understood by the people who will use them. For example, there is no point in setting up a complex accounting process which requires a qualified bookkeeper or accountant if the organization has no access to anyone with those qualifications, or if it is impossible to get the necessary stationery to support the system.

### **3.5 Fund-raising**

Many self-help organizations face difficulties in generating funds to meet operational costs, including personnel costs, office rent and communication expenses. Many donors do not usually provide funds for operational costs. Thus, special fund-raising events become an important means for generating these costs.

### 3.5.1 Fund-raising in the Fiji Disabled Peoples Association (FDPA)

#### **3.5.1.1 Development, growth and initial funding of the FDPA**

In the 1960s and 1970s, Fijian people with disabilities gathered informally in the capital city of Suva to make their lives more interesting and enjoyable, and to provide mutual support. They bonded through sports, socializing and music as well as recognizing the common bond presented by their disabilities. At this informal stage, members paid their own way.

By the end of the 1970s, there was growing international perception of the need for a reappraisal of policies and social attitudes regarding disability. In response, the United Nations declared the year 1981 as the International Year of Disabled Persons. This prompted Governments and communities to take a more thoughtful and planned approach to disability issues. In Fiji, concerned parties convened to discuss needs and future direction. They soon realized that a great amount of work was needed, and the Government recognized that it could not do everything necessary without assistance from NGOs. The United Nations initiative gave people with disabilities confidence that their concerns were legitimate and that they had the right to attempt to improve their lives and opportunities. Incorporation of the Fiji Paraplegic and Disabled People's Association soon followed in 1983.

Through the 1980s interest continued to increase and several formal events were undertaken, including sports, training, and seminars/workshops. The group was still largely self-funding, with sporadic injections of project-specific funding from outside donors. Often the donor organizations initiated these grants. Management of the group was by consensus, and volunteers provided what little administration was needed from their own resources. Thus costs were kept to a minimum. Social and community events were organized which included modest fundraising through raffles, card games and gunu sede(8) activities. These funds were used for social and sports events, contributions to members in need, purchase of medical supplies and the like.

In 1988 the Association renamed itself the Fiji Disabled Peoples Association (FDPA), acquired permanently rented office premises, and took on its first full time employees, one local officer and one Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) volunteer. This milestone in FDPA's

history was the beginning of a continuing and largely rewarding relationship with the media and local business houses. Representatives from Government and other prominent personalities attended the office opening and contributions from the business community for furniture, equipment and stationeries were received. The presence of the British Ambassador and the British Government's willingness to underwrite initial costs added prominence and respectability.

The opening publicity generated a further leap in awareness of disability issues and raised expectations of those with disabilities. Such expectations themselves were a generating force; the Association's Board and staff had to become performance-oriented. Not only that, but they had to show the public what they were doing, involving accountability and further use of the media.

This full-time presence of the Association came, of course, at a dollar cost. Regular funds were now needed to pay core costs, such as rent, electricity, rates, salaries, stationery, telephone, postage and insurance. From 1988 until 1994, the British Overseas Development Administration (ODA) provided 100 per cent core funding for FDPA. Annual grants from ODA were released on a quarterly basis against a submitted, costed annual budget. ODA was assisted by the Pacific Field Office of VSO, the British volunteer sending agency, which provided local monitoring and implementation support.

Core costs are the essential costs involved in keeping the organization operating but do not include project specific costs. In other words, they do not include costs of launching and running individual projects, such as workshops, the production, printing and distribution of posters, brochures and newsletters, and community-based rehabilitation programmes. Funds to operate projects had to be self-generated, or funded from other sources, such as corporate donors or Governments.

In addition to undertaking a monitoring role, VSO assisted the Association by providing qualified British development volunteers from 1988 to the present time, with a one year gap in 1993-4. Until 1996 the in-country costs of these volunteers were included in the core budget funded by ODA, while VSO funded flights and the remaining volunteer support costs.

ODA core funding of FDPA had grown from less than F\$20,000 in 1988 to F\$92,000 for 1993. 1993 was also the year ODA carried out a major review of its grant in aid to the Pacific, and in the context of a global rationalization, ODA took the decision to negotiate a planned withdrawal from funding of disability programmes in the Pacific.



Clearly, this was going to affect FDPA greatly, and the Association had to prepare itself to become more financially independent. With funding from ODA, the Association was encouraged to consider longer-term strategic and operational planning. A series of planning meetings and seminars were held which culminated in October 1993 when the foundations for the future operation of the Association were laid, and FDPA's first three year strategic and operational plan was agreed on. Withdrawal by the donor was negotiated on the basis of the plan, with ODA agreeing to fund 100 per cent of core funding in 1994, 50 per cent in 1995 and 30 per cent in 1996, thus giving the Association the chance to progressively adjust its core funding base.

FDPA planned to meet its core costs through a simple strategy. It would review all planned activity and divide anticipated costs into one of two categories - core costs, or project costs. Core funds, raised through fundraising, member subscriptions and income-generating activities, would meet the essential costs of keeping the Association and office functioning. Project funds, on the other hand, would be sought from Government and other donors to meet specific project-related costs. If project funds were not forthcoming, then expenditure could be deferred until funding became available. Although this strategy was simple, it was not easy to implement. There was initial reluctance by the Board and Chief Executive Officer to identify staff who were to be designated as project-specific, and their costs continued to be a burden on the core budget. This process was not begun until 1996, by which time unhealthy inroads had been made into financial reserves. Neither did FDPA initially identify and quantify income and cost centres, nor exercise effective budgetary control and monitoring. As a result, valuable time was lost and scarce reserves consumed on core costs. Others would do well to learn from this experience: if a strategy is devised and agreed upon, then it should be implemented without delay.

### **3.5.1.2. Common methods of fund-raising**

For fund-raising, FDPA first considered the conventional methods, which are tried and tested and have proved their worth over the years. These methods include the following list (which is not exhaustive):

- (a) Dances and balls;
- (b) Musical events;

- (c) Raffles;
- (d) Sponsored walk- or wheel-a-thons;
- (e) Bring-and-buy (jumble or garage) sales;
- (f) Street collections;
- (g) Barbecues.

FDPA successfully raises approximately 40 per cent of its headquarters' core operating costs through these activities, and branch offices rely almost entirely on them. Their success depends on good publicity, the use of the media, and the good will of friends of the Association who provide services or goods, such as entertainers or event venues, free of charge. This type of activity can be time-consuming to organize, and may lead to "donor fatigue" if held too often. FDPA has found that nine to ten events of this kind each year is about optimum in Fiji.

FDPA saw a need for continued, sustainable income and for professionally produced project proposal submissions. In response, it appointed a full-time Project Development and Fundraising Officer. Organizations which do not need full-time officers may wish to set up a Board sub-committee using volunteers to carry out this work.

### **3.5.1.3 Fundraising guidelines**

Organizations should consider the following guidelines in raising funds:

- (a) Emphasize the "fun" in "fundraising"; give supporters entertainment and value for their money.
- (b) Make the proper provision for financial accountability. Properly number the tickets for dances, balls, dinners and raffles, and the sponsorship forms for walk- or wheel-a-thons.
- (c) Record the ticket numbers given to sellers, to keep track of how much money should be returned. Issue receipts to ticket sellers when they return money from the sale of tickets.

- (d) Give some complimentary tickets to those who have provided services free of charge or otherwise been especially helpful. Remember, however, that the object of the exercise is to raise money. Keep a record of the complimentary tickets.
- (e) Carefully record expenditure and income for each event so you can see how much net income the event has generated.
- (f) Publicize the event. Call on the media, use posters, telephone or fax known supporters, advertise, etc.
- (g) Evaluate the event. Compare one event with another. This will help identify criteria that make for a successful event. Identify which events were more successful than others, and analyze what factors may have made them successful (e.g., weather, timing, location, publicity, value). Decide whether the investment of time and money was worthwhile; in doing so, take into consideration the subsidiary benefit of these events, which is to generate public awareness of the organization and the issues.
- (h) Involve members in fundraising, as ticket sellers or organizing volunteers. Member participation is important. It gives members a sense of purpose and belonging, and a feeling they are doing something worthwhile for their own cause. It also demonstrates members' interest in what is being done, and raises awareness by showing that people with disabilities can have fun and participate in community activities.
- (i) As far as possible, make event venues fully accessible to members and convenient for the supporting public.
- (j) Remember legalities, formalities and courtesies. The organization may need to seek formal permission for an event, or obtain a licence from the relevant authority. For example, raffles may be subject to legislation dealing with gambling, or street collections may need permission from local government authorities, District Officers or central Government. In some cases it may take time to obtain a licence. Plan well in advance (including publicity). If there is doubt about the legality of the event, check first with the police or local authority.

- (k) Any event occurring in a public place may require approval by police or local government authorities, or both. Even if approval is not required, police should be informed, provided with the time of the event and invited to be present if money will change hands in public places, or if there may be a traffic hazard from people using roads (such as in sponsored walks) or from parked cars.
- (l) Thank all those who helped and supported the event, regardless of how successful it was. The organization will surely need their help again. In addition to thanking people personally, FDPA usually places an advertisement in the daily newspaper; this also provides an opportunity to publicize the organization further.
- (m) Emphasize novelty and variety. Regular social events are generally not successful, as supporters become bored with attending the same thing time and again unless one can find the right market niche. FDPA has tried to add variety to dances and musical events by introducing different "themes"; e.g., jazz, cowboy night, rhythm & blues, music and dress from the 60s and 70s, masquerades.

#### **3.5.1.4 Special events**

In addition to the more conventional fundraising activities described above, FDPA organizes three or four special events each year. These are useful in providing a supplement to the more regular fundraising activities and, with co-operation from the media, usually focus a higher level of publicity.

Auctions: Businesses and other organizations often find it easier to donate goods and services rather than cash; auctions use this fact to an organization's advantage. FDPA wrote to a number of businesses seeking donations of goods to be put up for auction. This attracted gifts of plane tickets, restaurant meals, resort and hotel accommodations, electrical appliances, household items, sporting goods, and more. (FDPA then raised the value of two donated rugby balls by inviting the winners of the regional under-21 rugby tournament to sign them.) The auctioneer was a prominent hotelier; the auction included some small, cheap novelty items (such as a hot water bottle) so that everyone could join in the bidding. The British Ambassador and family offered a prestigious venue for the auction. FDPA billed the event as a "Cheese and Wine evening with Auction" and sold tickets at \$6.00 each. FDPA contacted embassies, diplomatic missions, grocery store owners and others to provide of cheese, wine

and snack foods; the response was better than expected, demonstrating donors' good will. The auction was a splendid evening and alone raised over eight per cent of FDPA's annual core cost target.

**Film premiere nights.** An organization can persuade a local cinema to allow the NGO to sell tickets to the opening night of a new film. A fixed charge, paid from ticket sales, is made for the use of the cinema. Usually, because it is an opening night and for a good cause, people are willing to pay a little more for their tickets. A film dealing with disabilities, such as "My Left Foot" or "Shine", is ideal, but not essential.

**Marathons.** Over the last three years FDPA (Rewa Branch) organized two around the island wheel-a-thons. The most recent of these was intended to raise funds for the building of a branch office and meeting hall. The wheel-a-thon took a week from start to finish, covered a distance of approximately 450 kilometres and was a high-profile media event. Prominent community figures opened and closed the event, and welcomed the team in each major town and city en route. FDPA informed schools, businesses, town councils, hotels and restaurants along the route of the date and time of the team's arrival, so that collections could be held and refreshments provided. A national vehicle dealership provided support vehicles and drivers free of charge. A telephone company donated a cellular phone and paid call charges. This enabled the team to keep in touch with the FDPA office and, importantly, with the media, who could then relay several live radio broadcasts. A great deal of advance preparation, logistics and co-ordination, involving well over 150 letters or faxes and numerous telephone calls, were required to make the event a success.

**Chartered Ship.** FDPA's Suva branch, with assistance from the owners of a ship, recently organized a round-the-bay sunset cruise. Poor weather made this event less successful than anticipated. Fortunately, the Suva branch took the precaution of having the event underwritten by the ship's owners, so that if it failed to raise sufficient funds to meet direct costs, the branch would not be left holding the bill.

### **3.5.1.5 National Awareness Week**

Since 1988 FDPA has declared the first week of June each year as a week for national awareness. The week includes elements of fundraising and membership recruitment. This is

FDPA's largest single fundraising activity of the year; it is sponsored by radio, TV and the national press. In past years, the week has contributed up to 35 per cent of FDPA's annual core costs. Because FDPA has been regular and reliable about holding the awareness week, the media and regular donors now know each year that the week will take place, and make arrangements accordingly. In addition, other NGOs know that this is the FDPA fundraising week, and generally do not schedule their events to clash with FDPA.

Planning begins months in advance and involves not only the Fundraising and Project Development officer, but the entire staff and many volunteers from affiliated NGOs and members. The week is not a single event but a series of events, at least one on each day of the week. Some events are pure fundraising, some directed towards members, some directed to Government or other specific targets, some for awareness raising and education, and some just for fun. The week is a team effort, but it takes a tremendous amount of organizing. The Fundraising and Project Development officer has to use all his or her skills in management, supervision and delegation to coordinate and make sure that events go ahead on time and as planned.

In past years, FDPA has assisted with Gold Heart day, a day organized by Radio Fiji and the Variety Club to raise funds for children with disabilities, to ensure that the week has maximum publicity and coverage. FDPA assists Radio Fiji with its Gold Heart day by selling gold heart badges and returning the proceeds to Radio Fiji, which in turn passes them on to special schools. Radio Fiji reciprocates by providing FDPA with significant publicity for the week, advertising events and broadcasting interviews with FDPA staff, members, other disability-oriented NGOs and relevant government officers. In addition, Fiji TV One provides advertising to FDPA and Radio Fiji for their fundraising efforts, and both major daily newspapers cover events and usually print disability- awareness supplements.

It is useful to have a special emblem or mascot for the week with which the general public can identify. The Gold Heart badges provide this to some degree, but FDPA also has its own mascot: Lucky the clown. The clown (a member of the staff made up in a clown's outfit) is present at all events and tours the town during the late afternoon and evenings, visiting night clubs and other entertainment centres.

The "week" actually lasts eight days. This way, it is possible to have both the opening and closing event on a Saturday, when a good public turnout can be expected. During the opening and closing events, the business community and the media contribute to awareness week by

providing venues, entertainers, entertainment, services and prizes at free or reduced prices, and patronizing events. Business staff also provides assistance by setting up and attending stalls and carrying out collections. This helps to minimize costs, maximize the financial benefits to FDPA and provide supporters with enjoyable and exciting events.

### **3.5.1.6 Future special events**

The United Nations has declared an International Day of Disabled Persons, to raise the general public's awareness of the needs and rights of people with disabilities. By making use of the general publicity surrounding the day, NGOs can enhance their own fundraising and awareness-raising activities.

FDPA has also begun talks with the Fiji Philatelic Bureau to discuss getting a first-day stamp issue dedicated to the Association's work. Pre-planning is essential for a promotion like this; the Philatelic Bureau has already determined its first-day stamp issues for the next two years. In addition, the FDPA is considering issuing its own limited-edition first-day covers (envelopes), which may be marketed through prominent international philatelic concerns.

### **3.5.1.7 Membership fees and internal fundraising.**

Membership fees are one way of raising funds, but they must be considered carefully. People generally join an organization to get some benefit from being a member. The primary purpose of FDPA is to advocate and lobby on behalf of people with disabilities, and the benefits of membership may not be immediately apparent to individual members. Furthermore, FDPA's strength is that it speaks for a large number of those with disabilities, and many prospective members claim they cannot afford membership at \$5 per annum. Organizations must ask whether they want a large membership at a nominal membership fee, or a small membership at a larger membership fee. Note that, although 1,000 members paying \$1 each raises the same income as 200 members paying \$5 each, with 1,000 members the organization has a greater voice, more impact, and more opportunity of raising funds. For these reasons, FDPA will review membership fees at its next annual general meeting.

Internal fundraising means raising funds from members. In 1996, FDPA tried to return to its social origins and resurrect a members' Social Club. A three-person committee, two members of which were staff, organized weekly events for members. Initial response was good, but the number attending events fell when people realized that not all profits were returned to the

direct benefit of the club itself. Organizing events was draining on staff who volunteered time, and after less than six months, the club expired from lack of interest by members. The club had contributed about \$200 to core costs and purchased assets such as a video board, dart board and playing cards. The lesson to be learned is that fundraising through internal social events should be driven by membership demand, rather than imposed. Interestingly, less than a year since the club ceased, the members themselves now wish to reconsider its establishment.

Other ways of internal fundraising include selling goods (such as greeting cards, calendars, or novelty items) to members at discounted prices, through over-the-counter sales or mail order. This has worked for FDPA when a corporate supporter (an exporting clothing manufacturer) donated clothing "seconds" to the Association for onward sale to its members. Future items for possible sale include a souvenir presentation calendar planned for the year 2000; the calendar will feature the 12 posters to be developed between 1997 and 1999 as part of the "Celebration 2000" advocacy programme.

### **3.5.1.8 Income-generating activities, corporate donors and sponsorship**

FDPA has not yet established any sustainable income-generating activities. However, it is currently setting up two such activities. The first of these is a facility for repairing, refurbishing and manufacturing wheelchairs and other assistive devices. Several years of research and planning have already been carried out, including a market-research study conducted by students and staff of the University of the South Pacific. The South Pacific Disability Trust Fund and commercial groups in New Zealand have offered financial and technical assistance. The business will require an initial investment of approximately \$20,000.

On a smaller scale, the FDPA "Pathfinders" youth group will shortly start making paper by hand, using recycled materials. Initially, this will be a small-turnover, high-value product directed mainly at expatriates and tourists. It is labour-intensive, involving little capital and therefore low risk; such a situation is ideal for youth groups and self-starters. The same youth group is researching the feasibility of setting up a regular car-wash business as a project to generate employment and income for youth.



Any income-generating project is a business. As such, it is likely to be in competition with other businesses, and must be operated efficiently and effectively on commercial lines if it is to succeed. The organizers of such a project must carry out market research to find out who, if anyone, will buy the product or service in question before committing a large investment. Note that feasibility studies should include provision (through a depreciation reserve) for reinvestment of capital equipment. Other possible business schemes include collecting used stamps and telephone cards for sale to collectors.

### **3.5.1.9 Publicity and the media**

Publicity, usually generated through the media, is critically important to achieving the primary objectives of many self-help organizations: to bring about awareness of the issues, to educate the general public, to lobby on behalf of people with disabilities and to raise funds for continued operation. Without media and other publicity, FDPA would be muted and less effective.

FDPA has carefully fostered a relationship with the press, radio and television. It has found the following actions generally effective for an organization dealing with the media:

- (a) Encourage the personal support of people in the media, inviting them to events. Familiarize them with the organization, its goals and ambitions, and especially its needs. Solicit the ideas of media people, so that they become involved.
- (b) Make use of the free community-service announcements provided by many television stations, radio stations and newspapers.
- (c) Give the media interesting stories about the organization, what it is doing, and what it needs.
- (d) Avoid being too demanding. Asking too much too often can earn the tag "here they come again". One large request can be better than many small ones.
- (e) Plan yearly requirements. Sit with media representatives to discuss working together.
- (f) Be prepared when asking for media assistance. Fully explain the event, how it is to be run, where funds raised will go, how much will go on event expenses, and

why media assistance is needed. Ask for their professional suggestions of how they may best be of assistance.

- (g) Show media representatives how they may benefit from being involved (e.g., through banners and other media recognition of their participation).
- (h) Have a definite person in the media to contact. Ask who else to deal with; do not go to a higher level of the media organization, ignoring the main contact person.
  - a. Never ask for personal favours while on the air, regardless of how close a relationship may be with a media representative. It will likely annoy and embarrass them.
- (i) Suggest personality involvement. Ask who to send new releases to, how often they like would to receive them, and whether there will be opportunities for live interviews and name association.
- (j) Make sure to follow up every point discussed with media representatives in writing. As well as making it more likely that requests will be granted, this demonstrates a professional approach.
- (k) Since media organizations are looking for a marketing advantage in being associated with charitable organizations, give them something to work with.
- (l) Put forward many ideas. The more ideas advanced to the media and the more ways media organizations can benefit, the better the chance of getting them involved.
- (m) Never take the media for granted. Show them you are grateful for their support.

### **3.6 Gender sensitivity**

Many women with disabilities are involved in the activities of self-help organizations. However, few are in decision-making or management positions. To meet the needs of women with disabilities within the organization, specific measures need to be implemented (e.g., gender sensitivity training for all leaders and members, establishment of women's committees and equal training opportunities for women with disabilities). Gender equity must be a goal at every level of an organization, not just its lower ranks.

### **3.6.1 The Women's Committee in the Asian Blind Union**

#### **3.6.1.1 Introduction**

This study is about the development of a focus on gender issues within a self-help organization of blind people. It describes events responsible for the creation of a women's committee in the Asian Blind Union (ABU), as these are directly related to blind women's increased participation in ABU. Some of the facts described within may annoy or hurt some colleagues, but the purpose of narrating those facts is purely constructive - to share ABU's experience with women with disabilities in other organizations who may have faced similar difficulties. They may be encouraged in assuming a more active role in the self-help movement if they find their experience is not so different from that of the women in ABU.

ABU is one of the seven regional unions of the World Blind Union (WBU), a single international forum of organizations for the blind in the world, whose members come from 170 countries and belongs to 600 national-level organizations. Every country has a certain number of seats in WBU; each delegate represents his or her organization and country. Delegates are often the leaders of a national organization. WBU and ABU have executive boards and sub-committees to look into specific areas of concern. The Committee on the Status of Blind Women enjoys a special status of importance in WBU. The chairperson of this Committee becomes the ex-officio of the executive board and all regional unions. This arrangement is supposed to be replicated in the regional unions of WBU.

The regional union's chair is elected or appointed by its executive. The seven regional chairs and the international chairperson of the women's committee form the international committee on the status of blind women at WBU. Similarly, the national organizations are expected to have a focus on gender issues, and to this effect, a formal structure is also expected to function at the local level.

WBU and its regional unions derive knowledge from the experience of national-level organizations; in turn, WBU disseminates the knowledge it gains through its world-wide network. WBU is built on this foundation. The developments and concerns of the national organizations influence the workings of WBU and, above all, the policy decisions at the international and regional level.

Gender concerns surfaced in the WBU at its very inception, but have gained momentum in the past decade. The relatively low participation rates of blind women in WBU and its regional unions have helped lead to a fairly gender-indifferent environment in the organization for a long time. But gender representation has become more balanced at the physical, intellectual and functional levels within WBU over the past decade. This is well recognized, and it has a clear bearing on the thinking and functioning of WBU's regional and national affiliates.

### **3.6.1.2 NAB: a national affiliate in ABU**

The National Association for the Blind (NAB) in India is one of the national affiliates of WBU and ABU. It has two seats on the boards of WBU and ABU. In the early 1980s, a committee on the status of blind women was set up in Bombay at the NAB headquarters. This action resulted in the setting up of an impressive women's department at Ray Road, Bombay. The department looks like a small institute, but undertakes several activities for the empowerment of blind women. These include training in leadership, communication and independent travelling skills, home management, switchboard operation, tailoring, jewellery making, packing and assembly-line operations. The centre has a marketing division that ensures the sale of products in national and international markets. The department brings out a women's magazine, and has also instituted a Neelam Kanga Award to recognize outstanding professional blind women. Similarly, the branches of NAB in Haryana, Karnataka, Uttar Pradesh and Delhi have a focus on gender issues. NAB Gujarat, in collaboration with the Blind Men's Association, implements a large Community-Based Rehabilitation Project which allows wider contact with blind women in rural and developing areas. Despite the sensitivity at NAB towards special concerns of blind women, both seats at the WBU were represented by (very capable) male NAB members until 1996, even though there were blind women with outstanding abilities within the organization.

### **3.6.1.3 History**

In 1993, NGOs were forming forums at the state and city level to lobby for the enactment of a comprehensive law to protect the rights of people with disabilities in India. The meetings of such forums would often involve two or three women and 20 to 30 men. Women would often encourage each other to attend these meetings; those who were mobile would help others who could otherwise not reach the meetings. The women put forth some gender-related

suggestions to be included in the draft bill for which the Government of India had invited the views of people with disabilities. These suggestions were not included, as many male colleagues believed gender-specific recommendations in a law would be inappropriate.

In 1994, the committee took an initiative to review the impact of its existing policies and programmes, as the members felt an acute need for change to make them more relevant. A new charter of the committee was drawn up and a memorandum of demands, based on this exercise, was submitted to the Welfare Minister of the Government of India. At this time, NAB involved Mrs. Promila Dandavate, a veteran women's leader of a political organization, to help bring about unity with larger women's organizations. Together, they attempted to get recommendations more favourable to women incorporated in the Disability Act.

As enacted in 1995, India's disability law has only two clauses targeting women: one to ensure the representation of disabled women on all the decision-making bodies envisaged in the Act, and one to submit a gender-disaggregated report on the implementation of the Act by the Chief Commissioner to the Parliament. Women in NAB were not satisfied with this arrangement, but were happy that the law ensured some visibility of the women in policy matters as a starting point.

#### **3.6.1.4 The first meeting in ABU**

In June 1995, owing to the obligation of the newly enacted law, the Government of India included one blind woman in the official delegation to the United Nations to take part in the ESCAP Meeting to Review the Progress of the Asian and Pacific Decade of Disabled persons. Sawart Pramoonslip of Thai Blind Union invited the author to participate in the proceedings of their meeting on 25 June 1995. In this meeting, other blind women participating in the ESCAP Review Meeting were also present; they came from Bangladesh, Bhutan, Fiji, Indonesia and Thailand. The main issue discussed at this meeting was blind women's low rate of participation in ABU; out of a delegation of 42 from Asia to WBU at the time, there was only one woman delegate. Indeed, in the history of ABU, there had never been more than one woman delegate. This became a matter of concern for all who were present at this meeting. Another problem was that the Women's Committee of ABU had no Chair during the current term.

- (a) Women in Asia should use the period between June 95 and June 96 in preparing themselves for taking part in the Fourth General Assembly of ABU, in which

they could ensure that a Chair would be properly appointed for the Women's Committee;

- (b) Women should share their concerns with each other and keep each other informed of the happenings in their countries, enriching each other with such knowledge;
- (c) Women should form an informal working group and elect a convenor (the group was formed and a convenor, Anuradha Mohit, was elected at the meeting);
- (d) Women were not visible at the regional and international level because only a few women held important positions in the NGOs, although many women were active at the lower level of the NGOs' functioning.

The participants in the Bangkok meeting returned in high spirits with a new awareness and a determination that gender would be included in their organizations' agenda at the local level. The objective was to emancipate women from the confinement of ignorance, economic dependence, low self-esteem and low aspirations, and above all to create a society free from the fear of physical, emotional and mental exploitation, within the parameters of their limited strength, limited access to information, and resources.

### **3.6.1.5 A war of letters**

One Indian man soon sent a letter to the Chairperson of ABU. The letter writer had strong reservations that giving recognition to the informal blind women's group might keep on hold all the rules and regulations of WBU. He also abhorred the idea of Asian women imposing an Indian as their convenor. After a few days, the Chairperson of ABU sent a reply which supported the objections raised by the "law-abiding ABU delegate" and levelled charges against the Secretary General of WBU.

The Secretary General's reply expressed full support to the rule of law and sanctity of the constitution, but underlined the need to further the struggle for the rights of visually disabled women and the need to take a positive view of the matter. He emphasized the importance of participation of regional bodies in the work of WBU. He also advised the letter writer to respect the decisions of women members in having elected a woman convenor themselves. This exchange of letters went on for a number of rounds. It made women members more aware of the need for circumspection and of their active role in ABU. They realized that they

would need to be vigilant and tactful, differentiating friends from foes. Above all, they would need to attract more blind women into their organizations.

### **3.6.1.6 New challenges**

After a great deal of effort on their part and that of sympathetic senior members, three women attended the Fourth General Assembly of ABU on the official delegation, one each from India, Malaysia and Thailand. They had actively lobbied with their male colleagues from national organizations to get the working group of blind women ratified for official status by the ABU Assembly a difficult task. They also participated in the General Assembly discussions on comprehensive planning of education of the visually handicapped and employment of blind people. All the women participants were cooperation in the deliberations. One participated in the Resolution Committee. Above all, the women delegates gave evidence of their mature understanding in their efforts for furthering the cause of women's participation.

On the third day of the Assembly, elections to all the posts were conducted and completed except for the Chair of the Women's Committee. Suddenly signs of tension began to be felt in the otherwise positive and congenial atmosphere. Tension, barely perceptible at first, slowly started building up. And then, it was revealed that the ABU Chairperson had virtually turned down the proposal for appointment of the Women's Committee Chairperson.

Women delegates were determined to use all available options to turn the decision in their favour. They approached representatives of funding agencies, officers of WBU, women sympathizers and sympathetic male delegates for their help. Together, they persuaded ABU to display a more positive stance towards the selection of a Women's Committee Chairperson.

The ABU Chairperson spoke in stringent tones about outside interference, which he said he could not tolerate. He had, therefore, deferred the election to the post of Chairperson. But he soon abandoned this position and announced that Anuradha Mohit could make positive contributions to the work of the ABU as the Chairperson of the Women's Committee. He invited other nominations. As none came up, her election was unanimous. Despite the questionable circumstances, most colleagues promised support to her and women delegates adopted an encouraging tone.

### **3.6.1.7 Preparation of the report on the status of blind women in Asia**

At the first World Blind Women's Forum in Toronto, women members of ABU were asked to present a report on the status of blind women in Asia. This was a difficult task, partially because time, information and resources were scarce, and also because women with disabilities were not in the habit of documenting their experiences or observations (especially in a foreign language like English), making it difficult to express their views.

Immediately after the appointment of the Chair of the Women's Committee in Asia, the committee had its first time-bound assignments. This provided a new found incentive to make blind women active. They were busy rummaging through files and reports available from NGOs and libraries. Most of this information was in the control of men, who occupied important positions in the organizations. However, women in Bangladesh, India and Sri Lanka got full support from their male counterparts in compiling gender-relevant reports for the world forum. They had to cull information from the contents of the reports presented by Governments and NGOs at various international forums. There was hardly any direct reference to the information they sought, but the exercise gave them insight into the thinking of women's organizations and the international and national stands on the rights of people with disabilities generally. They did benefit substantially from the publications of ESCAP and the International Labour Office.

#### **3.6.1.8 Second informal meeting of blind women**

Eleven Asian women participated in the first World Blind Women's Forum, from nine different Asian countries. They took a day to reflect on the decisions taken at the World Forum, consolidate gains and chalk out a tentative agenda for the ensuing Women's Committee in Asia. Highlights of their meeting were the following:

- a. Women felt there was an absence of a forum within national organizations to articulate their concerns and ideas, as most national organizations have either a weak women's committee or none at all.
- b. ABU should use human and material resources in its empowerment programmes to reverse the illiteracy, unemployment and low social status of blind women.
- c. The media should be sensitized to blind women's concerns, thus moulding public opinion in their favour, generating a national debate



around their issues, developing skills among blind women for writing articles and documenting experiences in order to share them at all levels.

- d. Blind women need leadership training seminars and workshops at all levels, taking into consideration the different needs and levels of understanding of blind women.
- e. The women's committee should take steps towards developing and strengthening blind women's networks at local, national and regional levels for sharing expertise, skills, experience, material and information in order to empower each other and build their solidarity.

These concerns had a direct bearing on the emergence of the Plan of Action of women's committee in Asia today. This meeting was extremely useful, as they had anticipated little other possibility of direct interaction in the near future, and their past experience of international forums had involved limited benefit, as participants often did not get the opportunities to reflect on the decisions and plan future agendas in the light of collective decisions that emerged.

### **3.7 Organizational continuity: Development of new leaders**

Many self-help organizations have not trained younger members for management and leadership positions. As a consequence, the organizations face difficulty in recruiting new members and breaking the status quo. In order to create and maintain an active organization, leaders should always look to the succession of leadership to the younger generation. The true test of a person's leadership is in what happens when he or she is no longer a leader

#### **Review Questions**

- 9. What is NAB? Explain?
- 10. What do you mean by Organizational continuity?
- 11. Write short note on first meeting in ABU?
- 12. What are the features of World Blind Women's Forum?

#### **Discussion Questions**

Discuss Fund raising? Explain the different methods adopted for doing this?

### **Application Exercises**

7. Explain the Women's Committee in Asian Blind Union?
8. Explain the role of **Publicity and the media**?
9. Explain future special events in United Nations?

## **Lesson 4– Problems of NGOs**

### **Learning Objectives**

- To explain about different problems of NGO.
- To study the problems of legitimacy.
- To recognise the role of NGOs as global governance.
- To explain about risk challenges.
- To identify the features of NGO in terms of growth of nation.

### **4.1 Introduction**

An NGO cannot achieve its vision for a better society on its own. Community needs are too numerous and society's problems are too complex. Your NGO needs to work with other NGOs and your government to accomplish your goals.

Through partnerships with other NGOs, and the public sector, you gain access to new resources, including funding and in-kind support as well as information, expertise and skills. When an NGO is just starting, it might find rent-free space for its activities through relationships with other NGOs, a local government office or a university. Partnerships with other NGOs might allow you to reach new target populations with your public education messages and broaden your base of popular support for your mobilization efforts. In short, partnerships can be an important vehicle for young NGOs to build visibility and capacity.

Partnerships take different forms, ranging from informal and casual to formal and structured. You can have relationships where you talk to each other regularly to share information, ideas and experiences. You can also have highly organized, collaborative relationships where you design projects, raise money and run the projects together.

When you are developing your near-term project plans and long-term strategic plans, think carefully about who you want to build partnerships with and what form the partnerships should take. In this chapter, we use a hypothetical NGO, Citizens Fighting Corruption, which

focuses on rooting out local corruption, to explore how different partnerships are built, and the benefits and challenges they present.

#### **4.1.1 Relationships with National and Local NGOs**

Other NGOs can be sources of information and ideas, partners for projects, and allies for your cause. Get to know the ones working in your community and their issues, target populations and services. They can be especially helpful when you are just starting up and trying to define your mission and carve out your niche. Later, as you plan new projects and activities, you will want to know who is doing similar work so you can coordinate your efforts and avoid duplication. Make it a point to get to know other NGOs in your area, even if they are pursuing different missions. They probably care about your issue and may become strong allies.

You also need to know who is working on your issue in other cities and at the national and international levels. NGOs can learn from each other by sharing experiences and lessons learned. If Citizens Fighting Corruption wants to address corruption at the municipal procurement office, it could learn about strategies used by groups in other cities and how effective they were.

NGOs working on the same issues in different places can work together to address the root causes that cross geographic boundaries. When anti-corruption groups from various localities get their heads together, they might realize that what's really needed is a national law. That would open the possibility for them to coordinate their efforts in a nationwide campaign to pressure legislators to pass such a law.

But make no mistake, effective partnerships take time to build. NGOs often see each other as rivals, competing for resources, support, visibility and even public praise. To begin to see each other as partners, you need to get to know each other and build trust. You can start by contacting another NGO for a meeting to get acquainted.

Once you know each other, you can share information about activities, conferences, training opportunities and funding opportunities. Telephone calls, meetings and email are good ways

to keep in touch. Another way to build trust is to support one another's work by publicizing and attending each other's events, volunteering for each other's activities, and providing letters of support for grant proposals.

Citizens Fighting Corruption has conducted a survey about perceptions of corruption. After compiling the results, it invites other NGOs to a briefing to share and discuss the results. That opens communication channels with other groups that have the same concern about corruption. Likewise, Citizens Fighting Corruption makes every effort to accept invitations from other NGOs to expand its network of allies.

#### **4.1.2 Coordinating Efforts**

As NGOs build trust with each other, they can coordinate their efforts more closely. Before you combine your efforts, however, make sure you agree on certain things:

- A shared vision. While each NGO should have its own distinct mission, a shared vision will help like-minded groups set common goals and deliver a common message for change. For example, if anti-corruption NGOs working in different parts of a country come together to develop a shared vision for what a corruption-free government looks like, they can establish a national platform that will provide a clear direction and sense of purpose for all.
- Common goals and a coordinated strategy for achieving them. Citizens Fighting Corruption and its related NGOs know all too well that they face potent opposition from the beneficiaries of corruption. By forming a united front with like-minded NGOs, Citizens Fighting Corruption reduces the opportunities for corrupt elements to play NGOs off each other and nullify their efforts.
- Coordinated outreach and education. Create a division of labor among cooperating NGOs as to who shares information or conducts trainings with different target audiences. This is needed to avoid duplication of effort. Citizens Fighting Corruption is working with another NGO that focuses on fair elections. Both want to educate voters to recognize election fraud and blow the whistle on it when they see it. The two NGOs realize that they can increase their effectiveness by pooling their knowledge

and skills in joint education workshops and campaigns. Those steps enable them to expand their work into new neighborhoods.

Solutions to large global challenges often start with small, local actions. When you see a need or a problem in your community, you can make a difference by standing up and taking action. An artist may see youth in his neighborhood with nothing to do after school and start an informal art program. An educator may notice that young girls from poor families don't attend school regularly and set up a Saturday tutoring program. A nurse may learn that women in her community are uninformed about basic health services and organize informational workshops.

But, no matter what kind of challenge or opportunity you face, you can accomplish more when you have more resources and people supporting your goal than when you act alone. This is why you start a nongovernmental organization (NGO).

Starting an NGO requires many kinds of support. You need volunteers, people who provide resources and advocates who believe in your efforts. Launching projects and activities demands multiple skills and forms of support. You need to make plans, reach out to the community, recruit volunteers, raise funds, monitor projects and evaluate results. Sustaining an NGO over time demands an even greater level of commitment, skills, systems, support and resources. This chapter provides an overview of the key components to start and sustain an NGO. As we discussed in the introduction, when an NGO is legitimate and accountable, transparent, and connected to the community and then it deserves to be sustained. Sustainability refers to the capacity of an NGO to maintain its activities over time. Often, when we hear the term sustainability, the first thing that jumps to mind is money. But sustainability is about much more than that. It starts with the organization's vision and mission.

The NGO's vision describes the long-term changes you seek and how people's lives will be better thanks to your work. Your mission is the unique way your organization contributes to turning that vision into reality. It is necessary that you put your vision and mission into writing.

When the leaders of an NGO share a powerful vision and a clear mission, the NGO has a much better chance to be successful. Without a vision, your NGO will find it hard to inspire others to join your cause. An ill-defined mission leaves an NGO without focus and direction. NGOs with unclear missions often dissipate their energy in many unrelated projects or activities, leaving little impact. Writing vision and mission statements is one of the most important things you, the founders of an NGO, do. Vision and mission statements set the tone for your future work. In the beginning, set aside time for your core leadership team to come together and define your NGO's aims and means to accomplish them.

As your NGO gains experience, or as new needs emerge in the community, you will likely need to refine your mission. Imagine a lawyer who wants to help migrant workers in his city. He starts an NGO called Migrant Workers' Support Network (MWSN). Initially, his mission is broad: Help migrant workers. Later, he realizes the mission is too broad and his NGO lacks focus. So he narrows the mission to: Advocate for the rights of migrant workers in detention. Now he knows exactly where to channel the NGO's resources. But as time passes, he discovers other unaddressed needs that his NGO can meet, such as improving housing and working conditions, so he decides to redefine his mission again: Support migrant workers to live with safety, security and dignity in our community.

Periodic review and reaffirmation of the mission is part of an NGO's ongoing strategic planning process. If at any point your staff, board and key volunteers disagree about what your NGO should be doing, or if your funders and partners show signs of losing confidence, that might signal the need to revisit your mission.

### **4.1.3 Addressing Community Needs**

An NGO must be able to translate its mission into projects and activities that have measurable impacts welcomed by the community. Projects must be thoughtfully designed and carried out by qualified people in order to effect lasting change and receive long-term funding.

When you are starting out, start small. MWSN has a basket of ideas for projects to empower migrant workers: an after-work education program, recreational activities to build

community, an art workshop for the children of migrant workers and a public education campaign about how migrant workers contribute to society. But its leaders wisely realize that doing all these at once would be biting off more than they can chew. Instead, they pick one or two projects and do them well. This way, the NGO can build up a track record of success and learn what it takes to be effective. If you are uncertain about the best place to start, conduct a simple community survey or needs assessment.

As your NGO matures, its projects and activities will evolve in response to the changing needs of the community as well as your own lessons learned. You might decide to expand some activities and cut back on others or completely restructure your programs.

MWSN has launched an after-work education program for migrant workers and found that there was high interest but low participation. After conducting a survey, the NGO found the reason was that the immigrants did not have child-care facilities in the evenings. MWSN solved this by partnering with another group to add child-care assistance to the program.

NGOs must regularly evaluate how well their projects and activities meet the community's needs and interests. You need to end programs that are no longer relevant or effective and focus on those that are, especially when money is scarce. When your NGO can show that it is meeting community needs and producing measurable results, you will stand a good chance of securing the resources and support to be sustainable.

## **4.2 NGOs have a problem of legitimacy**

Since the first demonstrations against international government conferences, champions of globalisation have been contending that those NGOs that set themselves up as guardians of public morals in international politics speak only for themselves. It was absurd for such organisations to criticise intergovernmental decisions as undemocratic. For after all, the governments being attacked were legitimised by elections, whereas the «NGO officers» had not been elected by anyone and certainly not by civil society.



The charge of lacking legitimacy has since then pervaded public discussions of NGOs. There is an unmistakeable call for NGOs to be subjected to some form of regulation. Two significant practical initiatives are under way in this connection:

#### **4.2.1 Pleas for more or less NGO influence**

UN Secretary General Kofi Annan this summer appointed a Panel of Eminent Persons on Civil Society and UN Relationships under the Chairmanship of former Brazilian President Fernando Henrique Cardoso. The goal was to «increase representation of the civil society» in international politics and above all in the UN. To this end, the Panel will be tabling a set of «basic legal guidelines» next April to which all NGOs will have to be accountable. It will be acknowledged at the same time, however, that NGOs do need «some freedom» for their work, according to Kevin Kennedy, the Panel Coordinator. The Panel works on the assumption that although «unelected», NGOs could represent civil society, provided that they conform to UN guidelines.

This summer too, the American Enterprise Institute, a Bush Government think tank, launched the NGOWatch program together with related institutions. «Many groups» have «strayed beyond their original mandates and have assumed quasi-governmental roles», the initiators complain: «The extraordinary growth of advocacy NGOs has the potential to undermine the sovereignty of constitutional democracies». For the NGOs favour a world order of global governance or world government at the expense of the sovereignty of democratic nation-States, and they have UN support in this. NGO Watch wants to alert the US Government and multinationals to the dangers of cooperating with NGOs and to demand greater transparency and accountability from them. NGOs should cease their advocacy and go back to charitable works.

#### **4.2.2. Officially approved NGOs**

That governments ought to be elected in order to act on behalf of their countries is a central requirement. It does not follow from this, however, that NGOs too must be elected in order to have access to governments and be able to criticise them. Such criticism is guaranteed by the basic political rights of democratically constituted countries. It is the public opinion which

decides whether NGO criticisms and suggestions are any good. But even if majority public opinion rejects the political views of NGOs that would not change one iota about their legitimacy to act the way they do.

Moreover, every globally active enterprise too claims direct access to governments. For decades now, business lobbyists have been accompanying every international negotiation and exerting sometimes excessive influence on the agenda and topic of negotiation. They have not been elected for this either by their staff or by the people of their respective countries.

The discussion is further confused by the fact that NGOs too sometimes attempt to defend their legitimacy without any reference to fundamental political rights. They insist that they «represent» civil society and thus lay claim to a representational function which, barring trade unions or farmers' organisations, virtually no NGO have. Small wonder then that they have not been able to counter the objection that no-one elected them as representatives of civil society. To our mind, however, most NGOs are not essentially about representing anyone, but rather providing a voice for problems and for groups that cannot successfully represent their interests and which risk being submerged in the struggle between the dominant interests.

For obvious reasons, NGO critics do not go into basic political rights. Instead they demand new instruments to remedy the supposed legitimacy deficit. Thus for example, the British Foreign Policy Center, a government think tank, suggested government-instituted rules of conduct for NGOs and the creation of an oversight body to certify NGOs. Such suggestions amount to legitimising NGOs through government recognition and using guidelines to channel their critical role. Licensing would also give the authorities some leverage for separating «reasonable» NGOs from «radical» ones.

### **4.2.3 Problems of legitimacy**

A few voices are drawing attention to the abnormality of the legitimacy debate. The New York Times, for instance, had this to say about the NGO Watch initiative: «Nongovernmental organisations' views are fair game, of course, but accountability and transparency should be about practices, not politics.»

The paper is thereby pointing out that NGOs too are enterprises that provide services and survive on donations and frequently on government subsidies. They should be required to be transparent and accountable about their management practices. As most of them are tax-exempt, they must at any rate fulfil government conditions regarding their business practices. In many countries including Switzerland, NGOs also voluntarily abide by guidelines for the use of funds, intended primarily to ensure that the purpose of the donation is met. Besides, new initiatives are currently under way in many places to reinforce corporate governance within NGOs designed to reflect the increased professionalism and the growth of the sector.

When the legitimacy debate turns to the subject of guidelines for NGOs, it often remains unclear precisely which ones are meant – guidelines for their political conduct or guidelines for their corporate governance. It will be significant to see what the UN Panel means by the «legal guidelines» against which NGOs will have to be evaluated. If it is about governance, it is acceptable. If it is about politics, it becomes problematic.

#### **4.2.4 Democracy deficit in international politics**

The legitimacy debate started because primarily government representatives of industrialised countries and the globally active corporations find the movement against corporate-led globalization rather irksome and would like to remove the well-known NGOs – with their considerable public credibility – from it altogether. Yet the same entities are attempting to institute systematic cooperation with precisely those NGOs. They expect to be better able to legitimise intergovernmental action in that way.

In intergovernmental negotiations and the resulting agreements and international institutions, the participating governments function as Legislative, Executive and sometimes Judiciary all in one. There are no checks and balances. Furthermore, the outcomes of such negotiations in the economic realm take precedence over national law without national public opinions, interest groups and parliaments being able to exercise their substantive right of consultation and decision-making. The fact that governments are elected domestically is not enough to legitimise their extensive international legislative activities. That is the democracy deficit in international politics. It has been a key contributor to the emergence of the movement against corporate-led globalisation.

But when NGOs are allowed to participate in international government conferences, gain access to selected information and state their views on the agenda items, it does help conceal the democracy deficit. When NGOs even criticise governments and table alternative demands before the «world opinion» present, it reinforces the appearance of democracy. When a government subsequently tells a parliamentary committee that it has consulted the NGOs on the important international issues, it is suggesting that to the extent possible it has taken account of all Opposition views. Naturally, this is most often not the case. It is clear, however, that critical NGOs are irksome – leading adversaries to question their legitimacy, but useful at the same time.

#### **4.2.5 NGOs as global governance**

For two or three years now the UN has been systematically preaching – supported by the governments of industrialised countries – tripartite cooperation between governments, civil society and private sector. The Cardoso Panel is working on the assumption that there are three international players – governments, civil society and private sector whose interaction is to be determined and will constitute future global governance.

Michael Edwards, Head of the Governance and Civil Society Unit of the Ford Foundation, a major source of funding for US and international NGOs, has further elaborated on the corporatist model in a book. In his view «the NGOs' right to a voice» should be «structured» through a series of compacts between governments, enterprises and NGO networks – and indeed from the bottom up, i.e. from the regional to the national, through to the international level. These compacts would regulate the «roles and responsibilities» of the players with regard to specific issues and institutions. To Edwards, the advantage of his model is that NGOs would no longer be able to circumvent the national level (or political agreement at national level) and take conflicts directly to the international level. He cites the example of the dispute over the Arun III hydroelectric power project in Nepal, which the World Bank wanted to co-finance and which fell through as a result of an international NGO campaign – in this case, Edwards deplors, the painstaking work of national coalition building had simply been circumvented and local Arun III advocates given too scant a hearing.

The example shows, the Edwardian model is clearly seeking to strengthen the powerful and weaken the influence of the NGOs. Moreover, it brings out the problem that is inherent in the corporatist approach for global governance – if the construct is applied at national level, it will be in direct conflict with existing democratic mechanisms. If we imagine a compact between Federal Council, Economiesuisse and NGOs for Switzerland and how should it relate to the parliaments of all levels, municipal and cantonal executive branches, political parties and instruments of direct democracy? Superordinating the compact would lead to a revolt even in stable Switzerland, whereas subordinating it would make it pointless. Both business and NGOs fare better if they avail themselves directly of the democratic mechanisms, without corporatist construct. There is no reason why the model should be better for developing countries. Tripartite corporatism is only possible internationally, where there is no democracy at all.

In short, there are good reasons why NGOs should not succumb uncritically to the enticements of global governance with a corporatist structure. It is of course better to bring the NGOs on board for global governance issues rather than leave the field entirely to the representatives of global corporations, which at any rate have long been involved as a matter of course. To our mind, this is the weightiest argument that NGOs should wield in defence of their wish to be heard in matters of global governance. Yet including them does not make international politics any more democratic. They should therefore continue to be critical of the democracy deficit of global governance and monitor the transfer of political powers from the national to the international level with great scepticism.

## **4.3 Risk Challenges**

### **4.3.1 Background**

The NGO sector plays a crucial role in the growth of a nation. The Indian voluntary sector (or the NGO sector) is emerging to be a credible force in catalyzing the nation's social and economic growth, particularly for the masses at the 'bottom of the economic pyramid'. The potential for this is well apparent from the experience of other developed and developing economies. If India is to achieve, as is predicted, the living standards of the developed world

by 2050, then the NGO sector would need to play a critical role, and must grow at a pace much higher than that required of the overall Indian economy.

Governance standards of organisations are recognized as critical in maintaining the transparency and accountability on the whole. This is as true for the NGOs as for the corporates and the government. That the governance standards play a significant role in creating operational efficiencies and risk mitigation, particularly those of the long-term nature, is increasingly evident from recent global trends and research. The corporate world in general, and also the government sector, has in recent years increasingly recognized this correlation, as is reflected in the emphasis on the corporate governance best practices and the regulatory frameworks that have emerged. But while the corporate sector in India and elsewhere has somewhat succeeded in institutionalizing effective governance policies and regulations, the NGO sector is yet to reach anywhere near that level. This is dragging down the NGO sector from performing the role that it must for the overall growth of the nation and its economy.

#### **4.3.2 Risks and the Idea of Governance in NGOs**

Evidently, there is both a need for a pertinent shift in the manner of how the voluntary sector in India views governance and the associated regulatory frameworks. Equally important is to create competencies for better risk management through operational means and management procedures for risk monitoring and risk mitigation. In case of the NGOs, more so than for the corporates, the risks often take the shape of vulnerability to influences and risk dynamics ranging across:

- lack of or limited access to professional management expertise
- financial inefficiencies and malpractices
- vested organised crime and political interests
- extremism and terrorism

By its nature the voluntary sector has an extremely philanthropic side to it, thus making it difficult for corporate-like professionalism or profit driven accountability-standards to take precedence over its core functions. However, like the other key sectors of India, the voluntary

sector is also faced with imposing evolutionary and 'market' challenges. Hence, issues of internal control mechanisms, professionalism, accountability, transparency and financial management must be given impetus. The challenge is manifold, and compounded by the 'unorganised' nature of the sector, lack of regulatory frameworks and the fact that India boasts of more than a million NGOs comprising different roles, structures and sizes.

The changing social dynamics and security environment have added to the exposure of the voluntary sector to various risks, especially those operating in extremely remote or underdeveloped regions (where incidentally the need and the contribution of the NGOs is most critical). In particular, the NGO sector has become vulnerable to the vested interests of partial political interests, organised crime and extremist organizations in such regions.

The Indian government has been blacklisting several NGOs (sometimes, the numbers running into hundreds) for primarily fund misappropriation and relationships with extremist groups. A case in point, in 2003, India's home ministry blacklisted more than 800 NGOs only in the north-eastern region of the country for links with extremist groups. In the incidents of the past several years, the sector has been often unlawfully exploited in that several NGOs (both national and global), especially those that receive foreign contributions, have been used as conduits for money laundering and sponsoring terrorist/extremist activities.

This trend is not unique to India. The world over extremist and terrorist organisations are known to operate through 'front' NGOs as also extensively use NGOs as vehicles for generating funds and gaining influence and respectability amongst the local communities.

Such security considerations have further brought to fore the rising criticality of improving the governance practices in the Indian NGOs and exercising better regulatory mechanisms, disclosure norms, and management processes including financial management and budgeting systems as well. Moreover, in the larger interest going beyond the security considerations, the impetus has to be on inculcating a culture of including performance goals, conducting financial and performance audits, and reforms for increasing the operational accountability and transparency in the eyes of the public, volunteers, donors and other stakeholders.

In particular, the Indian voluntary sector urgently needs self-regulatory guidelines and transparency mechanisms to increase the trust and awareness as to how the philanthropic

funds are being utilised. This is a critical challenge that creates a barrier to raising funds and capital for the sector. The general lack of transparency in the functioning of a large proportion of NGOs leads to aversion in donating funds for charitable causes since the general public is largely cynical about the ‘genuineness’ of the non-profit spirit of the sector.

Inevitably, stringent governance standards of an NGO will facilitate the effective management and increase the accountability to its stakeholders including donors, the government and the community. It is in the self-interest of the NGOs to realize the fact that it is equally important for them to implement a structure of ‘corporate governance’ principles so that it is able to provide real value to the stakeholders. Also, this would enable to track the dubious sources of funding coming in for the voluntary sector – an aspect which has gained impetus in the wake of the increased number of terror attacks and extremist activities.

### **4.3.3 Financial Prudence**

Like every other sector, one of the major drivers of efficiency is the manner of utilization of the capital and the funds that the NGO sector accumulates through various sources for carrying out its work. If statistics are to be taken into consideration, out of more than 1.2 million NGOs operating in India, only 3% are being able to carry out constructive grass-root level work. Furthermore, NGO establishments typically tend to have high administrative costs of nearly 60% and above. Indicatively (based on limited statistics that are available for India), only 10-20% of the funds are utilized for effective developmental work. More stringent management norms and regulatory oversight will contribute to more effective spending by NGOs.

For instance, NGOs operating in under-developed nations receive more than \$15 billion as funding from international financial institutions and government agencies which is approximately the same amount of money that World Bank spends on development in these countries. The important question is whether the voluntary sector is being successful in delivering a comparable amount of development in the regions?

### **4.3.4 Internal Controls Mechanisms**



A 2007 study by the McKinsey Global Institute elucidates “that if India continues its recent growth, average household incomes will triple over the next two decades and it will become the world’s 5<sup>th</sup> largest consumer economy by 2025, up from 12<sup>th</sup> now.” This also means more funds for the Indian NGO sector if it is able to create a greater degree of trust and professionalism in its operations. The NGO sector is beset by the problem of ‘lack of transparency’ in their functioning for gaining the trust of people and the donors for fund raising activities.

Transparency in operations is a major challenge. A large numbers of NGOs are prone to exploitation by vested political interests, extremist outfits and criminals for a variety of reasons owing to their clean, philanthropic image and their direct-connect with the masses (which both the corporates and the government tend to lack). This characteristic that is the strength of an NGO often becomes its weakness since such vested interests misuse the public trust and the image enjoyed by the NGOs. This is further aggravated by the fact that NGOs have substantial access to international and national funds, again generally devoid of intensive scrutiny or audit trails.

#### **4.3.5 Management Efficiencies**

The NGO sector in India is largely in the form of what can be termed as an ‘unorganised sector’, with a preponderance of small outfits that have been floated by either individuals or small groups of people. The NGOs are generally founded by people passionate about a ‘cause’, which often results in an organisational infrastructure that is focused on operations rather than efficiencies and management processes. One result of this is the wastage of resources. Limited statistics that are available indicate that on an average 70 percent of the funds are utilized for the administrative purposes of the NGOs.

The philanthropic and the humanitarian angle of the NGOs often override the need for management efficiencies and systematic planning to achieve the ‘cause’ based objectives. The fact that is amiss from the vision of the voluntary sector in India is that better management processes and professionalism can only accelerate the success of developmental and welfare programs in a seamless manner. There also exist numerous NGOs spending

disproportionate amount in advertising and salaries often robs the sector of the trust and the faith among the general public.

In addition, the disproportionate focus on the operations versus management efficiencies and planning results in people with inadequate management competencies to hold senior positions. This exposes the sector to higher degree of risk from corruption and frauds, both intentional and consequential.

#### **4.3.6 High risks of Money Laundering**

The operational risk that emanates from unmonitored funding to NGOs is that it exposes the sector to money laundering and terrorism financing risks. This is further complicated by the fact that many NGOs have an international presence in strife-affected regions, and their operations are directed to vulnerable communities, which also tend to be the communities which extremist organisations target for support, propaganda, fund-raising and recruitment activities. This makes the NGOs to be more prone to money laundering activities.

There are numerous NGOs working in remote and challenging regions of India. Many of the well-funded organisations have large geographically spread-out set-ups with regional branches in such areas. Consequently, such set-ups in the remote regions have inadequate means for internal control, further exposing to the risk of inadequate functional and financial monitoring.

Internal control mechanisms form an integral part of any organisation since it is essential that the 'child' outfits work in tandem with the parent organisations. It will be less beneficial if the parent organisation adheres to regulations and internal policies/controls but the branches do not.

Another impediment is that the regional branches often have limited autonomy and funds to manage the developmental activities at the grass-root level. This creates a huge disparity in the vision and the mission of the parent and the regional branches, leading to ineffectual realisation of the organisational goals.

Furthermore, the lack of internal controls over the smaller, regional branches (often established in vulnerable regions) exposes them to the various risks – from security to misuse of their infrastructure and programs by interested parties such as local politicians and crime syndicates, and even extremists. Much of the government welfare schemes in such regions too are exposed to similar risks.

Applying a pervasive ‘corporate style’ governance structure may not provide the full answer to the above challenges. However, without doubt the management of the NGOs needs to have a greater focus on ensuring how internal control mechanisms would work in a decentralised environment of geographically spread out regional branches and sub-branches. Earmarking funds and resources for such controls and monitoring is a necessity, some of which must be mandated by regulation to that effect. This will further enhance the quality of developmental work carried out by the sector on the whole, also imparting integrity and respect to the work at the same time. The latter is of utmost importance since the only tangible product of the voluntary sector is the professional ‘cleanliness’ and the degree of developmental or welfare work carried out.

#### **4.3.7 Misuse of the Image of NGOs and Mistrust**

Many NGOs have a respectable brand equity and are associated with high work ethics. They also often exercise significant level of influence amongst ‘vulnerable communities’. These very aspects are exploited by anti social elements to perpetrate crime and extremism using NGO fronts.

Weak governance policies and internal control systems add to this petri dish for fraudulent and corrupt practices. The domino effect: mistrust in the voluntary sector further leading to reduction in donations and assistance, thus hampering the overall goal of the sector. For the NGO sector, reputation management and transparency are the primary ambassadors of building an appropriate relationship with its stakeholders – most importantly, the public and the volunteers.

Bridging the gap between the top-most management and the grass-root level volunteers

NGOs as organisations tend to be founder-centric and are expected to run according to a preset cause. Since the decisions are mainly taken by the founders who also constitute the management, there is often a separation of the organisation's vision and the working of the field staff. Founders hesitate to delegate decision-making and to empower lower level leadership. A major factor driving this lack is focus on creating efficiencies and systematic processes.

Incidentally, our research shows that most often the stakeholders, particularly the public and the communities, support the cause and not necessarily the NGO brand. Hence, it is pivotal that there is no professional and visionary lacuna among the top management of the NGO and its volunteers at the grass-root level. This creates disparity in the vision, which translates into operational inefficiency at the end. Also, such disintegration in the vision and mission between the top management and the ground staff opens up avenues for corruption and indulgence in unlawful activities.

#### **4.3.8 Strategic Leadership for NGOs**

Strategic leadership is of utmost importance to NGOs since they are established with a clear humanitarian goal driven by a specific cause. Unlike businesses, where a major part of strategic leadership effort goes in assessing and deciding strategy for factors such as competitive forces and changing market dynamics, there is a consistency and less unpredictability with respect to strategy. On the other hand, the leadership of NGOs is required to play a much greater role in building reputation and brand-equity, which would attract donors and volunteers. In effect, it becomes pivotal for an NGO to put forth a robust and focused vision and mission centred on its strategic leadership. This, in turn, obviously must be supported by good planning and consistent monitoring by the organization's management to ensure that the proposed philanthropic development and its objectives are being carried out.

Such measures can only enthrone a strong culture of professionalism in the voluntary segment of India with a 'business like' angle of achieving the set goals in optimum resources available. After all, how well the voluntary organization is equipped to deal with its deliverables will only translate into operationally achieving the developmental activities. The

core requirement of strategic leadership is to provide a holistic guidance to the organisation with an impetus on strategisation, reputation building, performance, monitoring and improvisation.

The implementation of a strategic framework is essentially important in the management of an NGO. The endorsement of such a framework brings in professionalism and internal control mechanisms, which further makes the organization's performance more effective. Developing strategies also include establishing a mechanism of consistent monitoring of whether they are being implemented and linking the results to the organisation's goals.

#### **4.4 NGOs Prioritizing the Problems**

##### **4.4.1 Elementary Problems**

Analysis of the collected data allows us to draw preliminary conclusions about the main problems faced by environmental NGOs in three republics and also about the basic demands of the NGO community which could be addressed by a REC-like organization. Based on the survey data, a number of the most acute problems of NGOs have been identified. Respondents were given a list of fifteen possible elementary problems presented in random order and asked to choose and rank up to five of the most acute problems for their NGO. The list of these problems with preliminary ranking is presented in the table below.

##### **NGOs: PRELIMINARY RANKING OF MOST ACUTE PROBLEMS**

<b>problem description</b>	<b>probability for the problem to be chosen =absolute weight of the problem (multiple choice)</b>
poor financial state and other material difficulties	0.83
limited access to communication means	0.49
weakness of environmental movement in the country or region	0.45
lack or absence of reliable environmental and social	0.40

information	
lack of volunteer support	0.31
general legal problems	0.27
lack of special environmental training	0.20
lack of business skills	0.19
poor relations with local authorities	0.18
excessive or unjust taxes	0.17
poor horizontal networking with other NGOs	0.15
weak administration of particular NGO	0.12
problems with official registration	0.09
poor relations with central governing bodies	0.08
other problems	0.08

#### 4.4.2 Data overview: reconstructing the macro-demands

Further analysis groups the problems across the systemic macro-demands of the NGO community. These demands are often not clearly recognized and openly acknowledged by many of the "grass-roots" NGOs. Nonetheless, the basic problems described above can be taken as elementary units to identify the demands of the NGO community and to determine the most effective ways of providing effective assistance.

For instance, the problems formulated as "weakness of environmental movement in the country or region", "lack of volunteer support" and "poor horizontal networking with other NGOs" could be combined under the macro-demand **fostering a "green network"**.

Another example of macro-demand reconstruction entails composing a category of "*internal problems*" that could be solved by paying special attention to NGOs' capacity building. This option embraces such elementary-level problems as "weakness of administration of particular NGOs", "lack of special environmental training" and "lack of business skills".

A reconstructive analysis based on the new categories identifies the following six macro-problems:

- Material and financial problems
- Problems related to the general status of a "green network" in the region
- Problems related to the information and communication infrastructure
- "Internal problems" related to NGOs' capacity building
- "External problems" related to the basic frameworks of civil society
- Problems related to the unsatisfactory state, or lack of, a constructive dialogue with sectors of society other than environmental NGOs.

NGO SURVEY: MACRO-PROBLEMS OF ENVIRONMENTAL NGOs  
(SYSTEM DEMANDS ORIENTED RECONSTRUCTION, RELATIVE WEIGHT)

group	rank	MACRO-PROBLEMS	Russia	Ukraine	Moldova	whole population
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
I	1	Needs in material and financial support	24	24	23	24
II	2	Fostering a "green network" in regions	19	18	22	19
II	3	Assistance in creation and maintenance of information and communication infrastructure	18	19	20	19
II	4	"Internal problems", related to NGOs' capacity building	17	18	18	18
III	5	"External problems", related to the basic frameworks of civil society	14	12	11	12
III	6	Facilitating a dialogue with other sectors of a society	8	9	6	8
		<b>total:</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>

**We see that:**

1. The whole "problem field" is taken here as one unit (100%) and then split into six macro-groups. These groups represent shares of cumulative (collective) attention paid to particular "elementary components" (units).
2. Column "0" indicates three main clusters of systemic demands of NGO community in three countries, column "1" refers to the average rank of the macro problem, column "2" contains a brief description of the macro-problem and columns "3" and "4" reflect the relative weight of each macro problem for each republic and its average value.
3. Cluster #3 constitutes a supra-unit that embraces macro-problems 5 and 6 (statistically, each of them constitutes a separate cluster); this group reflects a systemic demand for cultivation of propitious/favorable/friendly social infrastructure/environment/surroundings for environmental NGOs.

The system-demand oriented reconstruction of the environmental NGOs problem field is finally shaped as a system of three main clusters as presented in the table below. Consideration of the relative weight of the six identified macro-problems allows us to group them into three main clusters. Where the demand for material and financial support constitutes the **first cluster** (cumulative relative weight is 24%), strategic priorities in development of environmental social networks defines a **second cluster** (sum relative weight 56%) and a **third cluster** comprises the issues related to **securing sustainability of this sector of society** (cumulative weight 20%).

Thus, there is no doubt that NGO leaders consider material and financial problems a very important issue. It appears, however, that this demand is immediately followed by three other serious concerns: promotion of "green networks", fostering access to "information and communication infrastructures" and NGOs' capacity building. The respondents are first and foremost concerned about the effectiveness of the work of their NGOs and they do care about the social existence of the organizations. We can presume that most of the NGO leaders are active in searching for any assistance for implementation of ready-to-be-implemented plans.

Finally, long-term, prospective work and cooperation needed to address the three major systemic demands of environmental NGO communities could be presented in the following clusters:

- **demand for material and financial support.**



This is a leading demand, but not the single and the only one. It represents only a quarter of the problem field.

The second cluster relates *to strategic priorities in development of environmental social networks* (each of the three items in this cluster has almost equal relative weight of approximately one fifth of the whole "space of concerns"):

- demand to foster a regional and inter-regional "green network";
- demand for assistance in creating and maintaining a communication and information infrastructure for addressing environmental as well as social issues on local, regional and global levels simultaneously;
- demand to build up capacities of NGOs and to activate their internal organizational, social and intellectual resources.

The third group of strategic needs of environmental NGOs is seen as related to **securing the sustainability of this sector** through the creation of a favorable social environment:

- cultivation of basic frameworks of civil society as a (pre-) condition for successful and legal operation of NGOs. This type of need assumes performance of external activities (regarding the NGO community itself);
- facilitating a dialogue with other sectors of society, including authorities, to secure constructive cooperation, both in solving common environmental problems and promoting a participatory approach in environmental decision making.

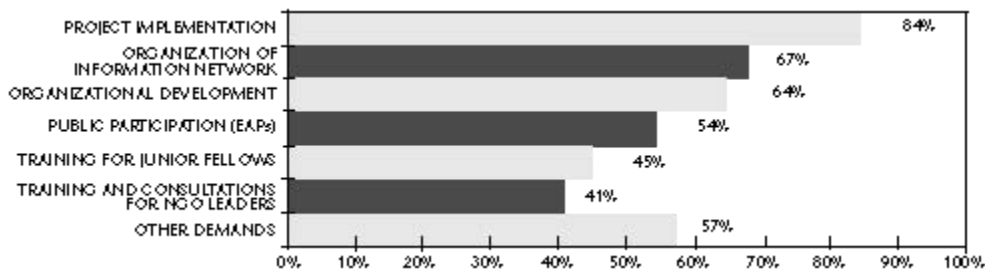
#### **4.5 NGOs Demands for Particular Types of Support**

The following considerations are based upon experts' evaluations and analysis of NGOs' responses to the following question:

- Consider, you are given an opportunity to apply for a grant or other type of earmarked support. Which of the following could be most practical for you? Please, rank your choices.

Respondents were given six options and asked to rank them according to their relevance for their organization. The final average distribution is shown in the figure below.

(cumulative weight of first three choices, %, average)



In general, the NGO community expressed the highest demand for:

- material assistance in the implementation of different projects, with an almost equal amount of requests for support
- development of informational networking
- organizational/structural development of NGOs themselves. More than half of NGOs are most likely to apply for grants or other types of assistance in each of these fields.

The next group of demands (up to a half of all NGOs) encompasses

- requests for particular support in securing their participation in the development of national, regional and local EAPs with regard to public participation in environmental decision-making;
- an interest in taking part in regional as well as international training programs for junior fellows
- requisition of special training and project consultations to be provided for NGO leaders.

In addition, there were plenty of requests for other types of support that do not fall into the previous six categories. Further, one can observe a number of significant discrepancies in the stance of particular NGO communities in different republics. For instance, Moldovan NGOs have a particularly high demand for support in developing information networks (infrastructure) - this is the absolute leader in "national preferences". They also require special attention for training and consultations for NGO leaders (if measured, this national request goes far beyond the average demand for this type of support). Also, it should be mentioned that Ukrainian NGOs are seeking assistance in other fields besides the six mentioned in the list. Another feature worth mentioning is that NGOs in Russia are relatively

more "keen" to assure their active role in developing a political strategy with regard to public participation.

### **Review Questions**

13. NGO sector plays a crucial role in the growth of a nation? Explain?
14. What do you mean by Financial Prudence?
15. Write short note on Strategic Leadership for NGOs?
16. Explain NGOs prioritizing the problems with examples?

### **Discussion Questions**

Discuss Fund raising? Explain the different methods adopted for doing this?

### **Application Exercises**

10. Explain the Women's Committee in Asian Blind Union?
11. Explain reconstructing the macro-demands?
12. Explain NGOs demands for particular types of support?

## **Lesson 5– Strategy and planning for NGOs**

### **Learning Objectives**

- To explain about different strategies.
- To study about planning.
- To gain idea about strategic planning and scheduling.
- To explain about different planning approach.
- To study about key issues.

### **5.1 Introduction**

Every organization wants to survive and prosper. To do so, it must respond and adjust to the social, economic and political environment and the changes therein. Changes in the outside environment occur constantly, even in stable societies, for example as a result of technological advancements or new economic policies (e.g., open market). Strategic planning is therefore a necessity in every kind of organization, be it an NGO, a government, community, political or business institution. The idea of strategic planning emerged in corporations that wanted to have a strategy on how to maximize their profits. Today, the motivation is manifold and differs according to the type of organization.

In Bangladesh for example, NGOs are running the country. After the 1971 war and subsequent independence, foreign funders went directly to the NGOs rather than to the government, which was very unstable and changed every few years. As a consequence, after almost 20 years, NGOs run almost all affairs of the society, including the provision of health and education services. To a certain extent this is good, because NGOs generally and naturally work with the grassroots and, thus, are reaching all segments of society. On the other hand, this made the Bangladeshi government withdraw completely from providing services, including formal education in some areas. Ideally, NGOs should work as a supplement to the government, which must fulfill its own duties by providing health care, formal education, etc.

Bosnia is another example where NGOs ran the country. For four years during the war, they *were* the government and the only service providers. NGOs in Bosnia did not face any restrictions in bringing into the country whatever was needed simply because the government was far too concerned with defending the country. When the war ended, however, the government wanted to take all its roles back, approve what the NGOs were doing and ensure that they would work *through* them. The conflict as to who is to do what has not yet been resolved.

Also during the genocide in Rwanda NGOs practically ran the country for at least two years. The Rwandan example shows that if a state is weak, especially in times of war, the government has no time to worry about socioeconomic, educational and related issues, and leaves much room for NGOs to fill the gap. Once the crisis is over, however, it often dislikes the situation created and makes every attempt to force the NGOs to work within its own agenda. In the Rwandan case, the government argued that it had a certain vision and plan for the country's future, which it intended to accomplish, and not all NGOs were not working towards this goal. Thus, the government ordered the NGOs to coordinate their missions and visions with that of the government, which resulted in a filtering process, as many NGOs were ousted or closed because they were not working along the lines set by the government.

## **5.2 Definition**

The key questions pertaining to strategic planning are: Why does an organization exist? What is it doing? Why does it do it? And who is it addressing?

According to John Bryson, who is considered to be one of the main experts in the field, strategic planning is a disciplined effort to produce fundamental decisions and actions that shape and guide what an organization is, what it does, and why it does it. To deliver the best results, strategic planning requires broad yet effective information gathering, development and exploration of strategic alternatives, and an emphasis on future implications of present decisions. Strategic planning can help facilitate communication and participation, accommodate divergent interests and values, foster wise and reasonable analytical decision-making and promote successful implementation.

Others, like Emily Gantz McKay, summarize strategic planning as a process of determining what an organization intends to accomplish and how its resources must be directed towards

accomplishing these goals in a defined period. In doing so, some fundamental tasks need to be completed, including defining a vision, a mission, and goals, and identifying the stakeholders, the clients, and other people whose needs are addressed. Furthermore, an organization's role in the community must be clearly defined (e.g., is it the only one in the community or one of many?) as must the kinds of programs, services and products the organization offers to clients, and the resources needed (e.g., people, expertise, money etc.). Then the task is to decide how the resources and programs can be best combined in order to accomplish the mission.

Strategic planning can be applied to many different types of institutions: governments, agencies, cities, non-profit organizations, communities, networks, etc. The size of the organization in question, the stability of its environment, and its overall goal determine the period of time the plan will cover. Governments naturally resort to longer-term strategic planning (up to ten years), while NGOs tend to have two to three-year plans.

While working on a strategic plan, one must bear in mind that strategic planning is not the same as operational planning, which is the step that follows, i.e., the practical work plan for how to accomplish the strategic plan in the coming period. Strategic planning revolves around the vision of an organization, while operational planning refers to implementation, i.e., how the organization gets to where it wants to be.

### **5.3 Strategic Planning and Leadership**

It is important to stress that strategic planning is not a substitute for leadership. Whether the leadership consists of one person, a committee, or a board of directors, it is crucial to have a plan and direct responsibilities for implementing it. Without leadership, strategic planning will not go beyond a nicely written plan, because no one will be committed to it. If an organization has a visionary leader, he/she should establish the vision and then distribute the responsibilities according to the strategic plan; otherwise, a board of directors or any other body may determine it. How the leadership is eventually set up depends largely on the size of the organization, its work, resources and situation.

Although it is a widespread phenomenon especially among NGOs, it is not advisable to have only one leader, because if everything depends upon this person, the institutions will collapse once the leader leaves. I experienced this in my own organization: during the first two years I

had to solve every problem that occurred. Whenever I traveled the phone bill went up drastically, because I was called wherever I was to make decisions regarding even the simplest problem. This example shows that it is important to have a coherent body and a team of people with clearly defined responsibilities, who can handle the situation even in the absence of the leader. Furthermore, the staff should be involved at every level possible and enjoy certain independence - this will encourage their commitment, loyalty and creativity. Without clear organizational structures and a committed staff, strategic planning is meaningless. Strategic planning also enhances the staff's responses and improves its performance.

## **5.4 Benefits of Strategic Planning**

John M. Bryson emphasizes that strategic planning is not a substitute for strategic thinking and action but promotes it. *Strategic thinking* requires a serious commitment to analyzing a given situation, making an environmental assessment, and coming up with a list of requirements. *Strategic action* is how to implement this plan in the most efficient and productive way. Together these lead to a systematic information gathering about the organization's internal and external environment. The benefits of strategic planning can be summarized as follows:

### **5.4.1 Information:**

Strategic planning provides an environmental assessment that is very crucial for clarifying the organization's future direction and establishing priorities for action. Strategic planning allows an organization to reflect on known facts and define this knowledge in a new context. It is a gradual learning process that will add up to a larger picture and build a 'road map' for the organization that recognizes the impact of the changing environment and helps deal with changing circumstances.

### **5.4.2 Direction and Focus:**

Strategic planning also helps develop a rational basis for decision-making by guiding key decision-makers regarding what needs to be done. An organization might have many problems, and employees often get caught up in minor conflicts and do not invest their time in an effective way. Through strategic planning an organization will identify the important

problems and clearly formulate its intentions, on the basis of which a coherent basis for solving conflicts can be developed.

#### **5.4.3 Performance:**

Strategic planning and goal setting can positively influence the organization's performance as it fosters teamwork and communication both inside and outside the organization. A better performance, in turn, helps convince funders, clients, beneficiaries and staff that the organization or its project are worthy of their attention and services; if an organization is focussed and well-organized, the task of marketing what it is doing or providing will be much easier. Funders and stakeholders like to see a strategic plan that shows that an organization knows what it is doing, why, and where this is intended to lead.

#### **5.4.4 Awareness:**

Furthermore, strategic planning helps an organization to become aware of its strengths and weaknesses, capacity for growth, other opportunities and potential threats. Thus it provides a focus where no or little attention is usually paid due to the preoccupation with day-to-day activities. An organization might have many conflicting demands and there is a need to set priorities by identifying the services it should focus on. For example, the first program *Women for Women* organized was sponsorship, whereby women in America sent their 'sister' – a female refugee in either Bosnia or Rwanda a monthly \$25 loan and a letter. Once Bosnia and Rwanda were no longer front-page news, the sponsors dropped, and the organization recognized a need to diversify its services. However, we found that sponsorship was what we were best at, inasmuch as it was this activity for which we were most widely known, and we began to increase our efforts to attract sponsors. The need to focus is also evident in organizations that expect or face limitations in their budget, including governments, which requires a reassessment as to how to re-divert the available money in the most beneficial manner. Similar situations arise if the leader is leaving, or if a new competitor comes to the region, or if there is a change in the environment or in the client's needs.

#### **5.4.5 Staff Involvement:**

Strategic planning also promotes teamwork, learning and commitment. The staff works towards accomplishing the vision but it is wrong to assume that they will automatically share



the vision or even be familiar with the larger picture. In order to motivate staff, everyone must be involved in the design of the vision and feel part of the decision-making, like part of a 'family'. Many corporations in America, for example, are giving their staff stocks in the company as an incentive to perform well. There are certain limits, though, since not everyone can be involved in everything - this would only delay decisions and lead to chaos. Input and ideas from staff members, volunteers or beneficiaries can be very encouraging, but also quite dangerous as one can easily lose sight of the overall vision and divert from what is actually wanted. Staff involvement, therefore, requires an organized structure, clear roles and duties, and delegation by an authority, which is ready to listen and give the staff the opportunity to express their views.

Empowering the employees means to have them function more or less independently within their assigned responsibilities and encourage them to make own decisions within the confines of their job description. This also promotes creativity, flexibility and commitment. However, in the end, the final decision-making must lie in the hands of a carefully defined body; otherwise the organization will lose its direction.

#### **5.4.6 Preconditions for Strategic Planning**

One of the preconditions for becoming involved in strategic planning is the existence of a functioning infrastructure; without a 'good government' be it on the national or organizational level - strategic planning is useless. In some countries one often faces the problem that planning starts at the apex, with no system, structure or common vision, and with directors that are not appointed on the basis of their individual merit.

In order for strategic planning to be successful, the following preconditions must be met:

- The institution is clearly structured;
- It has an accurate picture of the environment, including awareness of limitations;
- A body of decision-makers exists; preferably representing a variety of expertise (e.g., backgrounds in fundraising, media, management, planning, accounting);
- A committed staff and leadership is in place;
- All involved must be convinced of the benefits of strategic planning.

### **5.5 Planning Approaches**

*The rationale planning model*, based on the assumption that in organizations with shared, fragmented power structures there will be either a consensus on goals, policies, programs and steps necessary to achieve the aims, or someone with enough power and authority so that consensus does not matter. The weakness of this model is that it does not matter if people agree or not.

*The political decision-making model*, which starts with identifying and defining complex issues and conflicts (goals, means, timing, political implications, etc.). Then, policies and programs are developed in order to address these conflicts and choose the most essential issues. Finally, goals are defined accordingly.

Most practical is a mixture of both approaches: identifying problems, then filtering and processing them into a set of goals, putting these goals in the context of the overall situation and finding ways to accomplish them.

Organizations that operate in an unstable environment should limit their strategic planning horizon to a maximum of two to three years in order to maintain certain flexibility. The planning process should try to predict the problems that might occur and provide for alternatives. For example, when the war ended in Bosnia, *Women for Women* had just finished a strategic plan that addressed war-related issues. The environment then changed drastically and had to be reassessed and reanalyzed. However, since the ultimate goal was the empowerment of women, the vision was also applicable to the post-war situation, only the programs to accomplish it had to be revised and amended. A real problem arises when an organization has to change its goal and not only its projects and the means to achieving its aspirations. Changing a goal means changing the whole organization.

## **5.5.1 Strategic Thinking and Management**

### **5.5.1.1 Strategic Thinking**

Strategic thinking is evaluating the production, purpose and function of an organization. The underlying idea is to identify the end goal that justifies the organization's existence. Strategic thinking involves assessing and understanding the needs and environment of an organization, including opponents, allies, competitors, government policies etc., and reaching creative plans that deal with the issues in question. Strategic thinking also involves creativity in

developing effective responses to anyone in the external environment – both in terms of providing the suitable services and meeting the needs of the clients.

### 5.5.1.2 Strategic Management

Strategic management addresses the implementation of a plan. It formulates a future mission in light of all the outside and inside forces that affect the organization, and develops a competitive, sellable strategy accordingly. Strategic management involves creating an organizational structure that utilizes its limited resources efficiently. The entire strategic planning process is about focusing and, thus, requires one to always remember and keep in sight the overall vision.

Strategic management involves one of two approaches:

- ***Operational driven approach:*** A self-assessment of the environment followed by the formulation of a strategic plan. This makes an organization challenge itself and involves day-to-day/month-to-month activities, i.e., constant updating and dealing with changes according to the vision.
- ***Traditional approach:*** Following established lines, based on the assessment that the organization is functioning well and there is no need to deal with or change anything. This can only work in a stable environment.

## 5.6 Execution

Execution of the strategic plan is much more challenging than developing the plan – what is much true in case of small NGOs like DRSS. Here we can observe two scenarios in reality. First, preparation of strategic plan in small NGOs is simply a tradition in many instances; no matter whether they can execute it or not. They prepare it customarily for showing and saying others- yes, we do have our strategic plan. They are not really serious about executing the strategic plan; perhaps because they do not realize the importance and usefulness of a long-range strategic plan. In other instances, small NGOs are quite serious about preparing and executing the strategic plans but they cannot execute the plans and actions due to fund crisis. The fact is that small NGOs do not have enough own fund to execute a strategic plan without donor supports. It is discouraging and disheartening for the small NGOs, their staff, beneficiaries and other allies when they cannot execute a strategic plan despite of all good

intention. We expect that this will not happen in case of DRSS. Donors will come forward and extend their financial support to the organization in executing the strategic plan it has prepared putting best efforts for next five years covering the period 2013– 2017.

Apart from donor support, the role of Executive Committee (EC), Executive Director (ED), and senior staff of an organization is much more important in execution of a strategic plan. Whether a strategic plan will be implemented finally that depends on the seriousness and sincere effort of the ED and EC members of the organization. We expect that in case of DRSS, all concerned will put their highest effort and play proactive role to take this strategic plan at the ground and execute all the plans and actions plotted in the strategic plan. For this purpose, they are advised to follow the following steps and actions in executing the strategic plan:

- Share the strategic plan with the EC members, staff, donor (existing and potential donors), local communities, project participants and other stakeholders.
- Promote consistently the vision, mission, goal, objectives, values and principles of the strategic plan among the staff, project participants and other stakeholders through training, workshop, meetings, etc.
- Communicate and persuade potential donors seeking their support in executing the actions and activities of the strategic plan.
- Develop project proposals addressing the issues prioritized in the strategic plan and searching and persuading the potential donors for funding.
- Periodic review of the progress in execution of the strategic plan and take corrective measures in case of any deviation from the plan.

It is suggested that DRSS will form special committees or task-forces for execution of different actions and activities plotted in the strategic plan. There may be three special committees formed involving the EC members and senior staff. The proposed committees are:

- Sharing and reinforcement committee (SRC)
- Fundraising and donor-liaison committee (FDC)
- Progress monitoring committee (PMC)

SRC may be formed with the Executive Director, Field Coordinator and Branch Managers. This committee will be responsible for sharing the strategic plan; its vision, mission, goal, objective, values and principles with all concerned and communicating the spirit of the strategic plan among the staff and project participants. They will hold workshops at the branch level for sharing the newly-developed strategic plan. It is suggested that the first-round sharing of the strategic plan must be completed within first three months of strategic planning period; later on they will organize periodic workshop, may be once in a quarter or in every six-month at central level, for reinforcing staff about the plans and actions of the strategic plan.

FDC may be formed with the Executive Director and four other members from the EC. The role of FDC will be searching local and international donors and maintains liaison and linkage with the donors seeking their support to execute different actions and activities of the strategic plan. For this purpose, they will visit websites of the local and international donors; communicate with the potential donors electronically or visiting them physically, make presentation to the donors promoting DRSS and its newly-developed strategic plan, and persuade donors to support DRSS in execution of the strategic plan. They will also be responsible for taking initiatives to develop project proposals addressing the prioritized problems and issues and submit the proposals to the potential donors and making lobby with them for funding the newly-designed projects. FDC members will sit together at least once every two months.

PMC may be formed with the Chairman and other two members of the EC, the Executive Director and the Field Coordinator. Their role will be monitoring the execution of different actions and activities planned in the strategic plan; identify any deviation if there, suggest corrective measures, and insist the organization and its staff to strive hard to execute the strategic plan at any cost. PMC members will meet once in a quarter.

Donors who will be assisting DRSS financially and technically will also watch its progress in execution of strategic plan. They will also insist the EC and ED on a constant basis to make their best effort in executing the strategic plan.

## **5.7 Key Issues Identified**

On the basis of strategic environmental analyses, NGOs have identified the following as the future key (ecological, social, institutional and social) issues for the environment which needs special attention by all actors to ensure more sustainable development in Botswana.

### **5.7.1 Ecological issues**

- Increasing the use of renewable energy.
- Increasing water conservation, improving water availability and groundwater recharge.
- Improving waste management and reduced pollution.
- Encouraging environmentally friendly building design and construction.
- Encouraging environmentally friendly transport.
- Improving rangeland quality (soil fertility and protection).
- Increasing knowledge on stock of forestry and veldt products.
- Promoting indigenous agro forestry techniques and cultivate raw material.
- Gaining insight in varying flood regime in Okavango area and other water regulation functions.
- Developing management systems of elephant populations.
- Reversing trend of declining wildlife numbers.
- Reversing trend of declining habitat availability (area and quality), including forest and veld products.
- Promoting sound cattle management techniques.

### **5.7.2 Social issues**

- Increasing involvement of society in formulation of policies.
- Improving access to resources (land and water mainly).
- Improving management of natural green areas in urban areas.
- Reducing poverty and unemployment through environmentally sound income generating activities.
- Promoting education and information supply for sustainability, including relation with health and nutrition.
- Raising environmental awareness with/of the media.
- Improving the housing conditions.

- Improving equitable land rights and land tenure, and sharing of benefits from the use of natural resources.
- Enhancing local level capacity building, strengthening local organisations and institutions, and local level decision making.
- Increasing insight and respect of local culture, traditional knowledge and aesthetic values.
- Increasing insight in urban-rural dynamics with respect to the use of natural resources.
- Increasing insight in gender/age/class/ethnicity issues with respect to natural resource management.

### **5.7.3 Institutional issues**

- Improving knowledge of environmental policy and legislation at local level.
- Improving sharing of information on environmental issues between actors at different levels.
- Improving consultation of communities in policy formulation processes and planning processes.
- Adjusting conflicting and inappropriate environmental policies, stimulating the development of appropriate environmental policy and legislation (e.g. water policy, urban planning, land-use planning).
- Strengthening enforcement of environmental policy.
- Improving extension services by NGOs, and collaboration with training institutions.
- Increased monitoring and research on critical environmental issues, including possible thresholds.
- Increasing commitment to environmental issues by politicians.
- Supporting environmentally motivated citizens / organisations.
- Improving legislation to improve access to and control over resources by communities.
- Improving communication capabilities and mechanisms of NGOs and local communities with government and private sector.

### **5.7.4 Economic issues**

- Improving economic valuation and analysis of natural resources.

- Improving marketing and generation of revenues from veldt products, formation of marketing co-operatives.
- Increasing demand for traditional medicinal plants and a need for improved marketing and a more organized system of supplying veldt products.
- Increasing revenues from environmentally friendly business.
- Increasing sources and mechanisms of funding environmental activities (e.g. coalitions with private sector).
- Expanding sustainable community based tourism sector.
- Developing cost-effective alternatives to unsustainable use of natural resources (e.g. fiberglass canoes, non-wooden bridges).
- Developing transboundary resource management.
- Developing community business skills and enterprise development.
- Increasing government support to CBNRM at decentralised levels.
- Stimulating reinvestment of funds into conservation (where possible).
- Increasing benefits for local communities from scientific research of natural resources (e.g. use local communities for data collection).

### **Review Questions**

17. What is **Strategic Planning**? Explain?
18. What are the **benefits of Strategic Planning**?
19. Write short note on **rational planning model**?
20. Explain Strategic management?

### **Discussion Questions**

Discuss the basis future keys identified by NGO?

### **Application Exercises**

13. Explain the Women's Committee in Asian Blind Union?
14. Explain the **preconditions for Strategic Planning**?
15. Explain the idea of execution of strategic plan of NGO with example?



“The lesson content has been compiled from various sources in public domain including but not limited to the internet for the convenience of the users. The university has no proprietary right on the same.”



9, Km Milestone, NH-65, Kaithal - 136027, Haryana  
Website: [www.niilmuniversity.in](http://www.niilmuniversity.in)