INFLUENCE OF CAPACITY BUILDING PROGRAM ON MANAGEMENT OF CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANISATIONS IN MUMIAS SUB-COUNTY, KENYA.

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DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been presented for the award of a degree in any university or any other award.

Signed--------------------------------------------------- Date-----------------------------------

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This research project has been submitted for examination with our approval as the university supervisors

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family members, who supported me to see to it that I succeed in this undertaking. Special dedication too is to my beloved wife Lucia Nyongesa for her prayers and encouragement. Also the same goes to my dear children Valary, Joy, Fidel and Allan for their patience and support.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

This study seeks to establish the influence of the capacity building support program provided by AMREF to the management of civil society organizations in Mumias Subcounty. Capacity building is the process of enabling a person to do something to perform a given role or duty. However, many studies including those conducted by AMREF reveal that CSOs lack the technical, financial and managerial capacity to mount effective responses to these development challenges. These capacity gaps have limited the effective use of resources for development programming and have resulted in limited impact of several interventions carried out by these CSOs. The objectives of this study include: Influence of capacity building on the management of finances by civil societies; To determine the influence of capacity building programmes on stakeholders involvement by civil society; To identify the influence of capacity building on resource mobilization by civil society organizations. The study were deemed to be significant in that it strengthened the competencies of managers thus ensuring that civil societies were in a position to fulfill the mandate to which they were established. The study was undertaken in Mumias Sub County and it involved civil society organization under the AMREF Maanisha programme. It employed a descriptive survey design and a sample size of 50 respondents selected through simple random and purposive sampling. A questionnaire was used to collect data from civil society officials where as the AMREF trainers provided data through interview. These instruments were administered personally by the researcher. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistical tools such as percentages, mean and frequency tables. The study found out that capacity building programme had an influence on the competencies of officials in terms of financial management, resource mobilization and stakeholder’s involvement. It was concluded that capacity building programmes by AMREF Maanisha had a positive influence on the management of civil society organizations. Officials of civil society organizations should organize forums in their organizations or jointly through which knowledge gathered from the AMREF Maanisha programme could be cascaded to lower levels of management. Research to be undertaken on a wide scale to establish the influence of capacity building programmes on the management of civil society organizations.
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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AMREF - African Medical Research Fund
HIV – Human immunodeficiency Virus
AIDS – Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ARV – Antiretroviral
ART – Antiretroviral Therapy
CBOs- Community based organizations
CSOs- Civil society organizations
GOK- Government of Kenya
HRD- Human resource development
KAIS – Kenya AIDS Indicator Survey
PLWHA – People Living with HIV/AIDS
NGO- Non governmental organization
VCT – Voluntary Counseling and Testing
STD – Sexually Transmitted Diseases
STI – Sexually Transmitted Infections
UNDP – United Nations Development Programme
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

The concept of civil society is not new. Civil society organization’s (CSOs) are in operation in various countries and being used as vehicles of reducing poverty, promoting democracy and achieving sustainable development. At independence, Kenya as a developing country had three issues to be tackled; poverty, ignorance and health. These problems could only be tackled by the government with the assistance of the international community and grass root organization working with the majority of the people in the rural areas through civil society organizations such as Nongovernmental organizations, Community based organizations and Faith based organizations.

Despite of the above challenges Kenya has continued to experience problems that are probably derailing its development agenda. Such problems include the high prevalence of HIV Aids, disasters such as floods, Food insecurity, negative cultural practices such as female genital mutilation and lack of adequate access to education by the citizens. To combat these problems there has been continuous participation by various stakeholders in different sectors of the economy providing financial assistance, capacity building, policy formulation and advocacy. Civil societies have been active in trying to alleviate the above problems but how effective their work has been is subject to investigation.

Since 1990, civil society including NGOs has been active in the democratic process in Nepal. They have engaged in the provision of social services as a development strategy involving community participation as a way of attaining the above goal. The participation by the people themselves in efforts to improve their level of living with as much reliance as possible on their own initiative and the provision of technical and social services in ways which encourage initiative, self help and mutual understanding as observed by Akinbode and Laogun (1981). This was to be achieved through self-help projects, health and nutritional improvement projects and other related initiatives. The involvement of community members however called for capacity building in terms of planning and implementation of the projects at the grass root level.
According to Adebayo (1997) NGOs in Nigeria, have mainly focused on poverty alleviation as an aspect of development. They have mobilized resources other than government funding to further the interests of the members with a high degree of financial sustainability in the agricultural sector. He also attributed similar success to agriculture in Zimbabwe and education in Kenya and Tanzania which so the abolition of school levies at the primary level.

A report on civil societies in Uganda by Nana, Makubaya&Nakirunda (2002) indicated that majority of CSOs in the country were involved in service delivery activities and were mainly based in urban areas. Other issues of engagement included conflict resolution, rehabilitation of war victims civic education and poverty eradication. There source of funding was mainly external and thus their activities were dictated by the donor. The CSOs were not actively involved in areas of governance, accountability, democratization and human rights. The study further observed that CSOs faced challenges such as lack of adequate funds and expertise to undertake macroeconomic policies.

Civil societies in Tanzania have also been found to be having similar objectives ranging from advocacy, lobbying, resources mobilization and social service delivery. Key roles and activities of CSOs include: Political; Educational and informational; Socio-cultural and Sports and recreational roles. The impact of the civil society in Tanzania is therefore evaluated on the basis of the above dimensions (Fordia, 2008). Civil societies have therefore pointed out the weaknesses of the government in addressing corruption and inability to remain accountable to the public. Gender inequalities based on cultural practices and sexism and advocacy for human rights have preoccupied the activities of civil societies in Tanzania. However civil societies have not been effective in executing the mandate due to inadequate resources, Lack of democratic leadership and inadequate skilled personnel. This implies that capacity building programmes have to be put in place to address this short coming in order for CSOs to realize the objectives.

In regard to Kenya civil societies have been involved with various activities and roles in different sectors of the society. Such activities include poverty eradication, HIV AIDS, advocacy and human rights, education, policy in development and research. CSOs have been
involved in the fight against HIV through resource mobilization support for communities and enabling them to effectively respond to scourge. Through partnership with the government, the CSOs came up with interventions including prevention, treatment, and care services in the fight against HIV/AIDS. This CSOs have received funding from the government through the Nation Aids Control Council, external donors and mobilization of local resources to enable them carry out their activities (Mulwa and Mala, 2000).

With numerous CBOs being formed to address HIV & AIDS there is evidence that they are not performing to the expected level. Most of them are managed with people who lack the necessary managerial competencies to ensure their success. This include planning, resource mobilization and utilization, creation of linkages stakeholders and coordination of their activities. As a consequence continued support for their clients and their existence (CSOs) is not guaranteed. Therefore there is need for proper training for people managing CSOs activities if they are to remain accountable to the donors and the people they serve. The training opportunities meant to enhance their capacities should target areas such as planning, decision making, organization abilities, management skills and communication so as to be able to meet the set targets. The Aghan Development network (2007) also noted that capacity building caps such as fund raising, organizational development, governance, and lack of requisite skills to manage were affecting the performance of CSOs.

The African Medical and Research Foundation (AMREF), a Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) founded in 1957, targets the vulnerable groups including women, children, the elderly, people with disabilities and the poor in rural and urban underserved areas otherwise termed as the hard to reach. AMREF’s vision is “Better health for Africa”. To achieve the mission AMREF implements projects using three main thematic strategies of Community Partnering for Better Health, Capacity building and Health Systems Research for Policy and Practice. The Maanisha Programme is a community focused initiative implemented by AMREF. It supports community based initiatives with grants and capacity building activities for holistic implementation of HIV and AIDS and sexually transmitted infections (STIs) activities in Kenya.
The Maanisha goal is to contribute to a sustained reduction in HIV incidence, reduced HIV-Related mortality and Morbidity, and social protection of HIV infected and affected persons in Kenya. Its purpose is to strengthen the capacities of civil society organizations (CSOs), private sector organizations (PSOs) and GoK structures to provide comprehensive HIV and AIDS prevention, care, support and treatment. The focus is on grass-roots CSOs with a view to enhancing their capacities to implement interventions that promote adoption of best practices and a holistic response to the HIV and AIDS epidemic. The programme gives preference to organizations that support community focused and pro-poor activities that specifically integrate cross cutting issues like human rights, stigma reduction, gender equality, poverty reduction, networking and collaboration and sustainability. This study therefore was out to establish the influence of the capacity building component of the programme on the management of CSOs in Mumias that are sponsored by AMREF.

1.2 Statement of the problem
Civil society organizations play a critical role in addressing several development problems in resource poor settings. CSOs get involved in activities related to improvement of health services, education, reduction of hunger, improving the welfare of the poor through initiatives such as access to water, shelter, food and humanitarian assistance during disasters. However studies including those conducted by AMREF reveal that CSOs lack the technical, financial and managerial capacity to mount effective responses to these development challenges. These capacity gaps have limited the effective use of resources for development programming and have resulted in limited impact of several interventions carried out by these CSOs.

Although the Kenyan National response and other partners have pumped in billions of dollars in the fight against HIV and AIDS, the problem still persists. In Mumias there are many grassroots organizations dealing with HIV and AIDS related activities but many of them wind up as soon as the donor funding ends. In a stakeholders meeting organized by National AIDS Control Council in 2006, it was evident that many of these organizations never access any external funding because of their limited capacity in financial record keeping, narrative reports and poor proposal development. This study therefore was undertaken to establish the
influence of the AMREF maanisha programme that was aimed at capacity building of civil societies in order to address the above gaps.

1.3 Purpose of the study.
The purpose of this establish the influence of capacity building program provided by AMREF on the management of Civil Society Organizations involved in fighting HIV AIDS in Mumias sub-county.

1.4 Research Objectives
The research Objectives were;

1. Influence of capacity building on the management of finances by civil societies
2. To determine the influence of capacity building programmes on stakeholders involvement by civil society
3. To identify the influence of capacity building on resource mobilization by civil society organizations.
4. Establish challenges encountered in providing capacity building to civil society organizations.

1.5 Research questions
The study sought to answer the following research questions.

1. How has the capacity building affected the management of finances by civil society organizations?
2. What is the influence of capacity building programmes on stakeholders participation in civil society?
3. How has resource mobilization by civil society organization been affected by capacity building programmes?
4. What challenges are encountered in providing capacity building programmes?

1.6 Significance of the study
The findings of the study were deemed to be significant in that it strengthened the competencies of managers thus ensuring that civil societies were in a position to fulfill the mandate to which they were established. The findings of the study would also form the basis for which officials of the civil societies could be held accountable for funds given to them by
donors. It will provide a framework for policy formulation in regard to formation and management of civil societies which are engaged in providing services to the community. It will be a spring board for further research.

1.7. Limitations of the Study.

Due to financial constraints, the researcher had to focus the study on a small area; this limited the researcher’s traveling within the project area to collect data. This implied that the research findings could not be generalized to other civil societies in the area. The study was limited by time since the researcher had other engagements at the place of work.

1.8. Delimitations of the study.

This study was carried out in Mumias sub county and only targeted civil society organizations that had received capacity building programme by AMREF. It focused on resource mobilization funding and stakeholders involvement in the civil society organizations. Participants were the officials of the civil society organizations under AMREF maanisha programme.

1.9. Assumptions of the Study.

The study assumed that capacity building programmes enhance the management and operations of civil society organizations. Capacity building initiatives ensure sustainability of civil societies activities in the fight against HIV AIDS.

1.10 Definition of significant terms used in the study.

**Beneficiaries** - Individuals, groups or organizations that benefit from a project directly or indirectly.

**Capacity** - Ability to do something or ability to perform a given role or duty

**Capacity building** - Programmes aimed at enabling individuals or organization to perform a given role or duty

**Civil society organizations** - These cover a wide range of organizations that are not-for-profit and non-government, and include non-governmental organizations, community based organizations or faith-based organizations.
Maanisha- Derived from the Kiswahili phrase ‘to give the meaning to’, here refers to the program’s aimed to add value to the communities' own effort in the fighting HIV/AIDS.

Programme- A group of related projects managed in a coordinated way.

Project- A set of activities that is finite.

Support- To give some money or any other assistance to an organization to carry out its mandate.

Sustainability – Ability for the continued enjoyment of benefits of a project upon its closure.

Impact- The effect of an action, event or situation of someone

Three in Ones Principle - These are principles agreed as part of the ADIS action framework by the International Community to provide a basis for coordinating the work of all partners. These are: a one national coordinating authority, with multi sectoral mandate and one agreed county level monitoring and evaluation system.

1.11. Organization of the Study.

This study comprise of five chapters. Chapter One consists of the preliminaries of the study which include; introduction and background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, assumption of the study, limitations of the study and delimitation of the study. Chapter two consists of literature review, conceptual frame work and operational definitions of significant terms. Chapter three consists of research methodology which included; research design, target population, sampling technique and sampling, some instruments of data collections, validity and reliability of data collection instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis method and ethical considerations. Chapter four consists of data analysis, interpretations and discussions while chapter five contains the summary of study, conclusions and recommendations. This last chapter also has references and appendices.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction.
This chapter reviewed literature on the concept of management, importance of capacity building, role of civil societies in development, involvement of stakeholders in civil societies, challenges faced by civil societies and funding of civil societies.

2.2 Justification of capacity building for civil societies
In natural ecosystems, a rich diversity of species is considered a sign of sustainability and relative health. Similarly, diversity in the number, types, and structures of nonprofit organizations in a community may also be seen as a sign of community well-being. Because the needs of nonprofit organizations and the conditions of the community environment often vary, approaches to capacity building must be customized and flexible. A one-size-fits-all model is likely to yield inappropriate or ineffectual results in many communities.

Drummond and Marsden (1995) in their study of sustainable development note that effective interventions are targeted at points in which flows of energy are most concentrated and have the greatest influence on the overall dynamics of the system. This idea of targeting interventions is echoed by Light (2000). If nonprofit organizations are asked to undertake too many changes simultaneously, the efforts are likely to be diluted, ineffective, or ignored. The philanthropic community must answer the question, “What are we building capacity for?” Foundations will need to examine how their goals and interests intersect with those of nonprofit organizations or the nonprofit sector in a given community to determine where mutual energies are concentrated and how to effect change. Because of the enormous differences in the number and types of nonprofit groups in a community and variations in their readiness to embrace change, Light (2000) identified five steps that can enable civil societies determine potential intervention strategies. The first step in developing a capacity-building strategy was to learn about the basic needs and strengths of the community. This can be done through a variety of mechanisms—surveys, focus
groups, town meetings, individual interviews, or community indicators. The purpose of this step is to obtain a variety of perspectives and learn from differing points of view. For example, community indicators that use existing information and data can be a cost effective way to identify potential weaknesses or strengths in the socioeconomic conditions of the community. They also provide benchmarks for monitoring change over time. On the other hand, discussions with local leaders and residents can help identify areas of concern and target specific needs. Perhaps more importantly, this process can generate local support for a capacity-building initiative.

Having determined the needs and strengths of a community, a next step is to measure the community-based resources that are potentially available to address local concerns. Mapping nonprofit organizations to determine both their prevalence and geographic distribution within a community provides a framework for identifying potential gaps in service or a spatial mismatch between needs and resources in local areas. For example, are nonprofit organizations geographically located in areas of high need, and are they accessible to residents who seek such services? Are the capacities of these organizations sufficient to meet the demand for service? In addition, mapping government agencies and for-profit businesses in the area can enhance the assessment of potential resources available to address local problems.

An environmental scan can be conducted to determine if there are networks or organizational structures that can expand the capacity of community-based organizations. For example, is there a regional association of nonprofits that can help nonprofit groups access information and resources? Are there management support organizations that can provide technical assistance for building organizational systems or technology skills? Are there potential partnerships with the business or public sectors that can facilitate capacity-building strategies? Determining the presence, scope, capacity, and quality of such groups can be helpful in targeting and leveraging resources. Attention should be given to the intermediary or support organizations that can foster capacity building throughout the sector.
Because the needs of the sector vary, capacity-building efforts must determine the type of intervention that is most needed. For example, some groups may benefit from technical assistance, such as help with fundraising, accounting systems, outreach, or marketing activities. Others may require help in building networks and collaborations with other organizations in the local area or across the region. Tailoring the strategy to local needs and organizational readiness is likely to require some flexibility in the approach and expected outcomes.

Building nonprofit capacity is not a short-term undertaking. As strategies are implemented and environmental conditions change, periodic assessments help guide the process. Mid-course corrections are likely as new conditions unfold and new needs arise. The process of ongoing feedback and adjustment can both strengthen the nonprofit community and promote wise use of foundation resources. Like other institutions, foundations are subject to external forces and internal pressures—factors that influence both their approach and commitment to capacity building strategies. Some foundations, for example, may be tied to a particular aspect of community life (such as the arts or health care) by their founding covenant and are unable to address issues beyond these parameters. Other foundations may simply have a long tradition of working with particular types of organizations (such as human service providers or youth development programs) and may be unwilling to entertain a change in direction or focus. Foundations are well positioned, however, to act as agents of change. As grant makers, they can direct resources to programs or issues that concern themselves and the communities in which they work. However, to be an agent of change may also require looking at community needs through a new set of lenses and designing new strategic approaches. The traditional style of grant making that focuses on programs and services may be too narrow for addressing the complex and fluid organizational needs and environmental factors that limit current nonprofit operations.

As nonprofit groups scramble to deliver programs that meet funding requirements, they may shortchange the managerial aspects of organizational life. In other words, they may never build the organizational infrastructure necessary for smooth operation. Staff training may be deferred, management and information systems may stagnate, or the acquisition and use of
new technologies may be considered an unaffordable luxury. While program grants may address current needs, they may not necessarily create the organizational infrastructures that build nonprofit capacity. The movement toward market-based strategies of grant making has its own sets of tensions and trade-offs. Because they emphasize bottom-line performance and measurable outcomes, market-based strategies may run counter to the ways that many nonprofit organizations function, producing a clash of organizational styles and cultures. Many nonprofit groups are process driven, not outcome driven, and tend to stress the relational and social capital building aspects of their products, programs, and services, not the efficiency of their operations. While the market approach may help streamline some aspects of operating a nonprofit organization, it may also threaten the mission and orientation of the organization. Nonprofits following the new venture capital models may also risk being perceived as adopting a top-down managerial style. If venture capitalists fail to establish a strong rapport with the grassroots communities that they hope to assist, the long-range outcome of new ventures may be disappointing. In addition to the market orientation of nonprofit capacity building, another lens by which to view the nonprofit world is through its promotion of civic participation.

As the civil society and social capital literatures suggest, healthy communities, in part, rest on the active engagement of local residents on public issues. Because nonprofit organizations frequently are the venues in which individuals meet, exchange ideas, and get their voices heard, these organizations are a critical part of the democratic process of governance. The multitude of groups in the nonprofit sector provides an outlet for opposing points of view and fosters the pluralistic nature of democratic society. Who sits at the policymaking table is likely to reflect not only community preferences but also better access to vital resources. To be sure, the balance of power is often uneven or skewed. For example, minority populations and low-income people generally have limited access to the policymaking or community-building process. Some groups will be labeled as “special interests”; others will be readily dismissed, ignored, or given token status. It is the cacophony of voices, however, that makes democracy such a messy but enduring process, and it is the diversity and voluntary nature of the nonprofit sector that helps to strengthen the participatory aspects of civil society and build social capital.
How the question “Building capacity for what?” is addressed will depend on the values that are brought to the table and the lens that is used to guide the process. There is no right or wrong answer. Instead, it rests on the needs that are identified in the community, the resources that can be mustered, the political will that can be tapped, and the sustained vision of leaders and community residents to accomplish the goals. The sustainable development literature, in particular, provides important insights into the capacity-building process. Like the changing ecosystem, capacity building is neither a one-time fix nor a permanent solution. As community needs and environments change over time, the need to revisit and redefine the question “capacity for what?” becomes a dynamic force. If done well, this repeated cycle promotes a healthy community environment in which to address current needs and prepare for future generations.

AMREF has already undertaken considerable work in relation to capacity building in the area of HIV/AIDS in Western Province through disseminating normative and technical guidance and frameworks, supporting training for government, civil society and other partners, providing funding and technical support for HIV interventions by civil society organizations, providing funding and technical support for in-country and regional civil society networks, and supporting national and regional Global Fund proposal development by government and civil society coalitions. This work should be continued and intensified.

2.3 Capacity building and Financial Management

Civil societies derive their funding from various sources such as the national government and religious organizations. A study carried out in Lebanon by UNDP (2009) pointed out that funding comes from six types of sources or a combination of more than one, as follows:

1. Members’ contribution and social events and donations from individuals who are concerned with the work of the NGO which funds CBOs or small NGOs without managerial structure. The amount of funding made available by this type is small compared to other types of funding.

2. Rich community members are main source of funding for rural CBOs. This source is almost exhausted or controlled by the dominant political parties within their area.
3. Political figures/parties that funds mainly NGOs with homogenous politically affiliated members and geographical-based NGOs in both rural and urban areas. It is to gain political allegiance from the NGO members and the community it serves regardless of the nature of the NGO’s activities

4. Religious organizations -or from the Arabic States and is benefiting mainly religious welfare institutions or service centers. It is more based on personal contacts and individual credibility combined by religious “brotherhood” sympathy.

5. Donors from western donors (whether governmental or nongovernmental) and is mainly focusing on “mainstream” NGOs that can abide by professional standards of program management and already have a history of working relation with these type of donors.

6. Membership fees, income generating activities, and revenue of services: This source is limited in amount, but the most instrumental in guaranteeing an organization’s independence. The extent to which NGO leadership is accountable for its expenditure depends on the governance structure within the NGO. Civil societies in Mumias obtained funding from such bodies and it was the purpose of the study to find out the influence of capacity building programmes in their ability to manage and utilize the funds for the intended objectives.

In managing finances most donors call for external auditing of civil societies. However small and rural NGOs have been found to lack qualified financial staff capable of submitting the adequate financial and taxation documents as requested by law. The financial planning in most small NGOs is done for the sake of form and only to meet the legal obligation of submitting an annual budget to the funding body without any mechanisms of monitoring the finances put in place. The quality of reporting - in terms of proper expense justifications and the quality of invoices and receipts presented as well as the delay in submitting the reports and financial justification raised questions about financial management.

The above situation was occasioned by a strong and widespread understanding within CSO leadership that organizational development of an CSO was mainly expansion of its assets. Assessment of Capacity Building Needs of NGOs in Lebanon revealed weakness among some NGOs in cash flow planning and liquidity management. A few NGOs forecast the cash
flow and hence plan their payments accordingly, which in many cases leads to suspension of activities or delay in cash transfers. The same applies for their ability of making sound financial choices.

For an enhanced response to the high prevalence rates of HIV infection in Western Kenya, all efforts must be focused towards: assessing and strengthening the capacity, where necessary, of intergovernmental, governmental-including national AIDS programs and other departments that cove issues such as health education, justice (including the police) and youth – and non-governmental organizations, at the local levels, to work in partnership, to develop appropriate and targeted programming to reach all the risk groups such as commercial sex workers and injecting drug users; identify and advocate additional financial resources to address HIV related problems, help direct these resources to where they are most need, and support governments and civil society in receiving and applying for funds for HIV-related work that addresses the many challenges that come with living with HIV/AIDS; appoint recognized focal points in key AMREF funded programmes like Maanisha to create dedicated capacity to coordinate and respond rapidly to issues in relation to HVI/AIDS; ensure that AMREF supported knowledge hubs and technical support facilities are able to deliver timely support and strategic information on HIV/AIDS trends and prevention in the region and develop and provide ‘in reach’ training for CSOs and CBO staff members on issues relating to capacity building for HIV/AIDS prevention, proper financial management and timely response to preventive measures.

2.4 Concept of Management

Management may be viewed as: a social position or a function or the people who discharge it or an authority or a discipline or, a field of study. Different writers have defined management in various ways. The common definitions are listed include; Management is: the people charged with the responsibility of running an organization, for example, the management of Kenyatta National Hospital (KNH); the process by which resources are mobilized, combined and coordinated effectively to achieve organizational objectives; getting things done, getting work done through the efforts of other people. Management is a process of reaching organizational goals by working with and through people and other organizational reforms. Dutta (2002), defines management as referring to the team of people
at the helm of affairs of an organization which is responsible for running and guiding the
destiny of the enterprise. Dutta further says that if used as a verb, management means
getting things done through people. People Fayol defines management as a process that
involves planning and forecasting, organizing, command, coordinating and controlling.
There are several theories about management. Management theories describe how managers
conduct activities, and keep institutions operating in an effective way in order to meet their
objectives. The different approaches used by managers have gone through an evolutionary
process.

In practice, no single approach will be sufficient. Most managers use a combination of
approaches to create effectiveness within the organization. The four main classifications are:
Classical Theories (Scientific Management); Human Relations or Behavioral Approach
Theories; Systems Theories; Contingency Theories.

Classical theories, also known as the scientific approach to management started in the later
part of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The approach relied on systematic
information collection, analysis and identification of causes and effects, followed by
effective organization of management structure. The objective was to develop basic
principles that could guide the design, creation and maintenance of organizations. The
emphasis was on efficiency and effectiveness. Some of the prominent figures that may be
identified with the classical school of thought are: Frederic W. Taylor, Henri Fayol and Max
Weber. Human Relations or Behavioural Approach theories differ from scientific theories in
that they focus on the use of people as a support service to machines. They also see economic
forces as motivators of human performance. The behavioural approach focuses on the
manner in which managers interact with subordinates. It is based on an analysis of the
relationship between human factors and productivity. Besides meeting the economic goals of
the organisation, the managers must try to improve the social and psychological needs of
workers, which in turn improve productivity. The following are theories that relate to human
relations theories. Abraham Maslow's Theory; Douglas McGregor; Theory x and Theory y;
Vroom's Expectancy Theory; Fredrick Herzberg's Two Factor Theory.
The third management theory is known as the systems theory. Unlike the previous theories above, this theory places an emphasis on organizations as cooperative systems. A system is defined as ‘a set of arrangements of things so related or connected as to form a unit or organic whole’. The organisation is, therefore, defined as ‘a system of consciously coordinated personal activities or forces’ (Basawanthappa, 2000). The systems theory explains that organizations’ come into existence when there are persons able to communicate with each other who will each contribute an action to accomplish a purpose.

For cooperation to be effective the following must be present: Place where work is done; time when work is done, person with whom work is done, things upon which work is done and, method or process by which work is done. This helps in understanding the organisation in a better way. The contingency theory asserts that when managers make a decision, they must take into account all aspects of the current situation and act on those aspects that are key to the situation at hand. The continuing effort to identify the best leadership or management style might now conclude that the best style depends on the situation. If one is leading troops in the Persian Gulf, an autocratic style is probably best (of course, many might argue here, too). If one is leading a hospital or university, a more participative and facilitative leadership style is probably best.

From Foyal’s definition, one clearly gets the main functions of management which includes planning, influencing and controlling. Other scholars look at management from the individual point of view and therefore stratifying management into three different levels as top level management, middle level management and lower level management. In planning, the manager chooses tasks that must be performed to attain organizational goals, outlines how the tasks must be performed and gives the time frame within which the tasks identified should be performed. Planning is both short term and long term. It is decided in advance what should be done, who should do it and how it will be done involve setting objectives. Planning is a never ending process. It is the beginning of management. Planning is simply defined as deciding in advance what will and will not be done in the next minute, hour, day, month or year. Planning is advance thinking as a basis for action. It involves what needs to be done, how it will be done and mechanisms of evaluating work done. Planning, therefore, is
having a specific objective or purpose and mapping out a method beforehand. When planning, you should consider the seen and unseen factors, and keep in mind that all factors influence one another. The organizing function of managers involves assigning the tasks developed in planning steps to various individual or groups within an organization. This is putting plans into action. Organising is the process of grouping the necessary responsibilities and activities into workable units, determining the lines of authority, communication, developing patterns of coordination and giving feedback.

By organizing, you are attempting to answer the question: How will the work be divided and accomplished? The influencing function involves motivating, leading, directing or giving direction to help move towards the fulfillment of goals. The controlling function of managers involves gathering information to measure performance against pre-established performance, making decisions on the next course of action in order to meet the goals. Controlling is the managerial function concerned with making sure plans succeed. It means measuring and correcting the performance of employees to ensure that the planned objectives of an organisation are achieved. Controlling involves the regulation of activities so that some targeted element of performance remains within acceptable limits. It also guides activities and assures certain minimum standards.

Because managers perform different functions at various levels, they also require different types of skills. Katz identifies 3 types of skills that are necessary for manager to perform his/her effectively. These include technical skills, human resource skills, conceptual and analytical skills as well as design skills. Technical skills refer to the knowledge and proficiency in activities involving methods, processes and procedures. Human relations skills are the ability to work with people or working with a team. It involves creating an environment in which people feel secure and free to express their opinions. The conceptual and analytical skills on the other hand refer to the ability to see issues in totality, to recognize significant elements. The design skill is that ability for the manager to solve problems in ways that will benefit the organization. Management’s main function is to create surplus and is concerned with productivity. Management aims at effectiveness and
efficiency. Effectiveness here refers to the achievement of results worth minimum resources or at lower cost.

2.5 Capacity building programmes and stakeholders involvement in civil society organizations

Nonprofit leaders make management decisions in dynamic and changing environments. At the hub of these fluid environmental systems are three key institutional players: business, government, and nonprofit organizations. These institutions relate and react to one another, forming an exchange of ideas, resources, and responsibilities. They also are affected by consistently shifting external forces, such as socio-demographic factors, economic conditions, political dynamics, and the values and norms of the community. This convergence of evolving factors creates the environmental context in which capacity-building initiatives must operate.

As the literature suggests, some nonprofit organizations form to fill voids left by government and business. For example, a nonprofit may begin operations to meet the needs of an underserved population or to satisfy a perceived need in the community. The organization will continue to operate until its mission is achieved or it cannot be sustained, at which point the nonprofit will cease to exist. During its life cycle, a nonprofit will cooperate and compete with other nonprofit organizations and with business and government entities. This dynamic can be seen in many ways. For example, several nonprofit groups may come together to form collaborative ventures for the purpose of sharing capital or program costs, or they may form a coalition that works with local government and the business community to address complex and multifaceted issues, such as affordable housing or economic development.

While the goals for such projects may come from a shared vision (such as the desire for high-quality public schools), the proposed operational form may create conflict (e.g., direct funding for public schools versus use of vouchers). The coalition of nonprofits, government, and business that formed to address one set of issues may dissolve if conditions change or if a consensus cannot be reached on a particular course of action. Indeed, the relationships among institutional players are continuously evolving and are likely to change over time and across ethnic composition may introduce a new set of cultural values into the community.
Economic and market conditions may affect the labor market structures and industrial base in communities. If a major employer enters or leaves the local area, the livelihood and economic stability of local residents can be affected. Political factors encompass an array of conditions, such as how decision-making power is distributed among grassroots groups and community elites, and how tax policies or regulations affect market structures. Values and norms undergird and affect each of the other conditions and relate to the sense of justice, fairness, and equity embedded in a community. For a nonprofit to develop or sustain its organizational capacity, it must successfully navigate these environmental factors.

Shifts in environmental conditions usually occur in an incremental fashion. Lindblom (1990) described in detail the slow evolution of policy and public action over time. The shift of many urban labor markets from a manufacturing base to a service-oriented economy unfolded gradually over the previous three decades, although the information and technological revolution has accelerated the pace of environmental changes. In systems that are slowly transforming, nonprofit organizations have more time to adjust to changing demographics, market, or political conditions, but when a sudden and fundamental change occurs, organizations are forced to respond quickly or they will miss new opportunities. The introduction of welfare reforms in 1997, for example, fundamentally altered the funding patterns and rules for some human service providers. Nonprofit social service providers scrambled to adapt to new funding and program requirements.

Not only are environmental factors changing, but the factors also are interrelated and reinforcing. In some urban communities, for example, the demographic shift from a largely African American constituency to a multicultural citizenry has important implications for labor markets and political representation. There may be more non–English speakers in the workplace, and new constituency groups may vie for recognition in the political process. Such changes are likely to introduce a different set of values and expectations into the workplace and the community.

Environmental factors also place pressure on nonprofits to conform to community norms and expectations. Existing economic and political structures often press nonprofits to conduct
business as usual. Because developing institutional capacity require time and resources, some nonprofits decide that conforming to the existing norms is the best way to heighten their chance of survival. New nonprofits may sometimes find themselves struggling to operate within the rules of an environment that was formed decades earlier. These groups may push outward from the institutional nexus—in cooperation or competition with other groups—to change the environment around them. For example, they may use their influence within the community to push for new policies or they may mobilize their members to support leaders who better reflect their values and views of healthy communities. These underlying tensions—to conform to the existing socioeconomic and political structures or to initiate change—must be weighed and balanced in the development of a capacity-building strategy.

2.6 Influence of capacity building on resource mobilization by civil society organizations.

From the study, it was apparent that funding for capacity building activities is a perennial challenge. Related to this is the hurdle CBPs have to face in balancing their own aspirations and ideals with the demands of the market as well as the need for the CBP to survive. The latter two could at certain times be at variance with the CBPs ideals. Yet, unfortunately, but as is often the case, the CBPs have found that most of the organizations that tend to genuinely need capacity building are often also the ones that cannot afford the training.

Six of the CBPs interviewed receive a certain level of direct funding from donors to support their capacity building activities. Of these, MSTCDC appears to be the most fortunate as it has a definite allocation from its parent organization - MS Danish Association for International Cooperation. PACT Kenya raises funds mainly through donors although, in some instances, also charges beneficiaries on a cost recovery basis.

EASUN, at the time of the study, was targeting to increase its revenue from services, from 30% to 40%. Iceberg Consultants on the other hand is wholly dependant on funds raised through fees for their capacity building services. Similarly, at CORAT, fees paid for demand driven courses form a substantial source of revenue. They encompass 96% of
the organization’s income. The other 4% is from the sale of books published by the organization.

A variety of other funding sources were also mentioned. They include surplus from project funding and fees for facilitation of conferences or meetings. Most of the organizations are now thinking long-term about ways in which they can ensure sustainability of their institutions and the work they support. Some of the CBPs have plans to build a sustainable reserve of funds. Others have ventured into property income e.g. CORAT has invested in residential houses and a training centre, which they rent out when they are not in use. The facility can accommodate about 60 people. IIRR also has the vision of saving costs substantially in the future through acquiring an IIRR-Africa office and training facility.

2.7 Role of CSO in development.

National and local CSOs pay a full range of roles as development actors and change agents (OECD, 2009) – often operating in several of them at the same time as mutually supportive pillars of their strategies: Complementing the role of the state in delivery of basic services – such as health protection and care, education, water and sanitation; Find and leverage sources of financing and human resources for local development directly as recipients or as funding channel at national and local level; Supporting and facilitating local development and self-help in local communities in partnership with local authorities and local actors, promoting local community innovations; Influencing policy in support of democratic governance and accountability at various levels – national as well as local. This includes: Raising public awareness of citizens’ rights; Empowering local communities and groups to participate in public policy, through strengthening social mobilization and people’s voice in democratizing local and national development; Facilitate cooperation and collaboration with local government authorities and other development actors and organizations; Promoting demand-driven accountability and support monitoring of government and development partner policies and practices.

The way CSOs play their development roles is shaped by their nature, the interests and the constituencies they represent, their capacities and the resources at their disposal. It is strongly influenced by the context in which they operate, in particular the degree of co-
operation - or clash - with state institutions. For example, in states with authoritarian governments and power struggles between stakeholders with competing interests, CSOs may choose to limit their activity to service delivery or concentrate their efforts at local level where community linkages, even with local government officials, may be solid enough to survive political changes and challenges at the national level. Within each of these roles, CSOs also play a key function in providing CD support – explicitly, through formally established CD support programmes or components in on-going interventions, and more informally, through development-related CSOs interventions at the local level that implicitly contribute to develop the capacities of targeted communities as well as of CSOs themselves. In relation to the delivery of basic services, CSOs play an important role in identifying and developing local capacities for service delivery. In relation to local community development, CSOs have an important role to play in trying to encourage and strengthen the capacities of local communities to take more responsibility for their own lives - especially in the lack or absence of State support. When communities respond positively to this call for independence, CSOs have gamely stepped in to play the role of mobilizers, capacity-builders and resource channels (Reeler, 2010). Finally, in terms of policy influence, CSOs are actively engaged in strengthening citizen’s capacities to raise their voices and hold governments accountable.

2.8 Challenges encountered in providing capacity building to civil society organizations.

Baumann and associates have laid out the challenges of the “nonprofit consulting industry” in a recent study (1999). This study acknowledges that both resources and opportunities for nonprofit consulting are increasing sharply, and many consultants are moving into a field that has few entry barriers. Since more nonprofit leaders today are professionally trained managers themselves, there is less resistance to the use of consultants in the nonprofit sphere, thus increasing opportunities for consultants. However, there are important challenges. The mission-driven nature of nonprofits makes performance measurement difficult. Poor or incomplete information databases about nonprofits, limited training opportunities, and infrequent sharing of best practices all mean that the “skill base” is underdeveloped on both the supply and demand sides (consultants are inexperienced, and nonprofit leaders are
inexperienced consumers of consultation). Smaller nonprofits are particularly challenged because their resources to either hire consultants or make the changes these consultants suggest are limited.

Knowledge building, so important to success in management consulting, is difficult in the nonprofit sector because there are no large for-profit firms to support the cost of computer-based, best practice systems and other knowledge-building mechanisms. All of this means that the knowledge infrastructure supporting nonprofit capacity-building consultation is limited.

Services offered by or through many foundation capacity building programs are of variable quality (in the view of both consumers and independent observers). There has been little rigorous evaluation of these services so that they can be improved (evaluation, in fact, may become the ninth core component of effective capacity building, to add to the list above). The quality issue already has been discussed in this report. One of the underlying causes of poor quality is that capacity-building service providers are themselves often fragile organizations, in need of services very much like the ones they provide to other nonprofits. Consultants and consulting firms come and go and sometimes lack the infrastructure to respond to the degree of demand for their services that may emerge in a nonprofit community. This is particularly likely in a growing market area, such as capacity building in a major urban area. Poor quality, in fact, is common in the management consulting and technical assistance business. For instance, a recent Business Week story detailed the management and financial woes of Franklin-Covey, an organization formed from the merger of two leading management seminar providers (one of them is the firm of Stephen Covey, author of Seven Habits of Highly Effective People). The management gurus did not practice what they preached, and the merged organization almost went out of business as a result, losing large sums of money until the founders were removed from their original leadership roles.

Moreover, the capacity-building management ideas often provided by MSOs and consultants not only may be inappropriate for the nonprofit world, but also may be out-of-date. In his latest book, Drucker (1999) says that most commonly accepted management ideas are inadequate for the changes sweeping the world. Good capacity building needs to draw from
current management approaches, and it needs to reflect the changing nature of both the nonprofit world and the environment at large.

Finally, there are major trends in the delivery system for capacity building, especially in management training and development, which do not seem to have been incorporated fully from the world of business. For instance, the “executive coaching” movement, whether delivered by outside professionals or peers, seems to have some excellent potential for application to capacity building. Coaching requires problem-specific, highly interventionist and hands-on, individually focused, timelimited, results-oriented, and participatory strategies. Such strategies and infrastructure from the coaching movement could be adapted readily to the world of nonprofit capacity building. Evaluation of procedures and outcomes is urgently needed. Very little research has been done in this field, even for simple process and outcomes evaluation. The Charles and Helen Schwab Foundation capacity-building initiative and the James Irvine Foundation Youth Development Initiatives are among the first whose outcomes have been evaluated independently. Some models that may be useful for practice could come out of a synthesis of these and other evaluations.

Nonprofits and communities need to be more actively involved in setting the agenda for capacity building and in evaluating its outcomes; capacity-building programs provide real opportunity for funder-nonprofit partnerships, and for the sharing of power. As foundations in the 21st century look at various ways in which they might share power with the communities their resources are intended to serve, capacity-building programs offer an excellent vehicle, particularly for programs actually operated by foundations. Community advisory boards, mutually defined programs, and grantmaking requirements (e.g., the small grant program defined by the grassroots organizations participating in Irvine Foundation’s Central Valley Partnership) can all help a foundation to engage the community more directly in shaping philanthropy. This is not a matter of political correctness so much as it is a need for input both about content and format of capacity-building services. Funders and even providersto some extent may have staffs with backgrounds very different from grassroots, community-based nonprofits. Cultural and language differences may exacerbate the potential for miscommunications and inappropriate service offerings. Beyond these practical matters, philanthropies interested in more generally reshaping their
power relationships with nonprofits and communities may find capacity building a good place to start, according to several of the interviewees from this review.

Many foundations need education and technical assistance in order to learn state-of-the-art practices in capacity building, the advantages of involvement in such philanthropic activity, and how to appraise the payoffs achieved from what they fund. Grantmakers for Effective Organizations has convened two national conferences and has undertaken a number of other events and several publications inorder to help foundations learn about capacity building. A number of individual foundations and other affinity groups also have offered educational and networking events on this subject. However, for this effort to be more successful, greater infrastructure is needed to get the message out—especially to deliver it to smaller, more rural foundations and to bring together funders and other “players” in the capacity-development movement. One organization doing this is Burness Communications, which publishes an electronic newsletter (supported by the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation) that is e-mailed to a national list of funders. The newsletter presents new developments in philanthropy and, like other philanthropic periodicals and Internet services, could carry information regularly on new developments in the capacity-building field.

Another Burness Communications project provides a model for how more specific skill building might be provided. This project, conducted in collaboration with the Urban Institute and the national Regional Association of Grantmakers affinity group, is aimed at strengthening foundations’ roles as news sources through providing a variety of information and technical assistance resources to them. In fact, existing infrastructures such as the Regional Associations of Grantmakers and the several national associations of community foundations can play a central role in promoting the wider spread of knowledge about capacity building to their constituencies. This is already happening through various conference programs, newsletters, and so on. As the field grows, more strategic planning for these communication efforts will be helpful simply because the volume of information will keep growing.
Increasing duplication of services and marginally effective providers make a “shakeout” in the capacity-building field likely, followed by a second generation of more sophisticated (evaluation-based, theory-driven) capacity-building programs.

According to Ben Shute at the Rockefeller Brothers Fund, awareness is building in American philanthropy that, especially in urban areas, there are now enough foundations and enough organizations receiving capacity-building funding that some duplication of services is almost inevitable. A number of other interviewees for this scan gave specific examples of potential or actual overlap. As yet, there are only a few elements of infrastructure set in place to promote the national or regional coordination of capacity building, so that whatever duplication of services already exists is hard to track, much less to change. Problems in the quality of capacity-building services have already been discussed. A larger view is needed, however, to determine underlying causes for these problems. For instance, in many communities, the current vibrant health of the economy means that nonprofits (including MSOs and other capacity-building service providers) simply cannot compete in offering salaries that will attract the best people.

This situation, combined with the lack of training opportunities for those who want to become management consultants in the nonprofit sector, may produce the service quality problems noted in this paper.

There also is potential for overlap and duplication of learning, which will be increasingly likely as the number of studies in this field proliferates. Bernholz (2000) has called for the creation of a registry of studies about philanthropy, which, if it included capacity-building studies, would help to reduce the potential for duplication. In all, evaluation studies, commissioned consulting projects, feasibility studies, and so on would all be part of such a registry. Most of these now lead, at best, to “gray literature” that is seldom distributed beyond the commissioning foundation’s doors. Of course, there may also be synergies or learning opportunities resulting from overlapping projects, not just simple duplication.

The work of the Center for Nonprofit Leadership at the University of Missouri–Kansas City in developing a citywide infrastructure for nonprofit capacity building is an example of how communities can work to create more synergy and productive coordination in this realm. The Bruner Foundation’s Rochester Effectiveness Partnership is another example of a community-
wide effort to promote capacity building (focused in this case on program evaluation capacity for funders and nonprofits).
Lessons from these pioneer efforts may help other communities to build their own infrastructures for community-wide capacity building—for instance, as ventures such as the Humboldt Area Foundation Community Resource Center begin to operate.

More infrastructure is needed to support capacity building in philanthropy—to educate funders, nonprofits, and communities; to replicate proven strategies; to promote sharing of good practices; and to enhance the relationship of capacity building to the overall goals of philanthropy. The “field” of capacity building is now growing not only because of increased activity over the last few years, but also because people have begun to think about things that are not new (such as providing technical assistance to nonprofits to strengthen their operations) as belonging under this conceptual umbrella. In addition, an infrastructure—consisting of national conferences and associations, published literature, regional groups such as the California Management Assistance Partnership, and so on—is starting to grow as well. Future field building will require more attention to educational activities (through conferences, academically based coursework, and print or electronic literature), and to more systematic efforts to “raise the bar” on capacity-building practice by sharing innovations and setting standards that integrate these activities with philanthropy and nonprofit management. Such infrastructure will allow wrestling with larger issues such as the ethics of capacity building, moving from output to outcome orientation in evaluating capacity building, dealing with issues of race in capacity building, dealing with role conflicts in capacity-building activities, and promoting collaboration between government and philanthropy. These issues were discussed in the first two GEOconferences in 1998 and 2000 and again in the June 2000 Urban Institute conference described earlier in this paper. Ethics of capacity building revolve in large part around the inherent imbalances of power between foundations and nonprofits. These power balance concerns manifest themselves in many technical ways; for instance, community foundations that also operate management assistance programs must be careful to build appropriate “firewalls” between their grantmaking and capacity-building functions, according to Jesse Arreguin of
the Fresno Regional Foundation. Otherwise, there may be not only ethical problems but also a practical reluctance among nonprofits to use the foundation’s capacity-building service, which typically requires them to be candid about their operating problems and organizational shortcomings.

This leads to an ethical issue aptly described by a phrase from medicine: “First, do no harm.” Mary Ann Holohean of the Meyer Foundation asserts that there is more potential for harm to nonprofits in capacity building than in any other type of intervention conducted by foundations. Participating in capacity building requires a nonprofit to give information about its weakest, most vulnerable elements and, in particular, to share that information with one or more of its funders. Such vulnerability requires devoting considerable energy to oversight though, as Michael Howe of East Bay Community Foundation puts it, there is also a downside possibility that too much hesitance to take risks can lead to “the assurance of a mediocre approach.” What is important is that the risks of capacity building be managed thoughtfully.

Moving from output to outcome orientation in evaluating capacity building actually represents a general concern for the entire field of nonprofit management, not just for capacity building. However, this issue has particular relevance to capacity-building programs because it is so easy to focus attention on the process of capacity building or even on its output in terms of smoother-running organizations. One can lose sight of the fundamental question: Does this investment result in better services to clients or better programs for the community? Dealing with issues of race in capacity building means looking squarely at multicultural concerns in the capacity-building process itself. For instance, is there an ineffective match between the cultural backgrounds of the nonprofit’s leadership and the consultants or technical assistance providers who will be working with them? Have definitions of what capacity building is supposed to achieve been tested in the multicultural communities where the relevant nonprofits are based? In efforts to share power and decision-making related to a foundation’s capacity-building programs, have the right individuals and groups from the multicultural community been included in the process? Dealing with role conflicts in capacity-building activities refers to the unique three-way relationship that exists among foundations as funders of capacity building, nonprofits and their communities, and providers or intermediary organizations. There are bound to be some
tensions, especially as capacity-building programs grow in scope. These can best be handled if roles are defined clearly from the outset and simple structures by which role conflicts can be discussed and resolved are provided. Promoting collaboration between government and philanthropy on capacity-building programs is increasingly likely to have value, especially as government funders of nonprofits at all levels come to realize the value that support for capacity-building can have. For example, the East Bay Community Foundation’s capacity-building programs have always included government as a partner, which Foundation staff members believe helps to promote understanding of these processes in the government sector. The 1998 GEO conference group raised provocative questions about how capacity-building programs can best work with consultants, whether TA offered to grantees should be mandatory or voluntary, and whether foundations should provide TA with their own staff or outsource this activity. These and many other issues addressed (directly or indirectly) in the set of challenges presented here are among the complex matters funders, nonprofits, and providers will need to consider together in the future.

2.9 Theoretical framework

This study was guided by the systems theory advanced by Wiles and Bondi (1993). According to the theory organizations are made up of sub systems which have to work effectively for realization of effective organizations. Personnel in this sub systems have to be supported through the provision of resources in order to undertake their functions to a level that can lead to the realization of set objectives. Leaders in these sections require knowledge for the motivation, decision-making, inservice of section members and involvement of other stakeholders in the operation of their sections. These tasks are interactive and mutually reinforcing. Any Capacity Building Approach therefore must seek to improve the capacity of the leaders in regard to areas such as financial management, human resource development, interaction with external environment and policy formulation in the same areas.
Figure 2.1 Conceptual framework for the study
Technical Assistance provides for strengthening organisations in certain key technical areas, often through training or other forms of learning such as study or exchange visits. Areas of training can include, for example, the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach, improved approaches to monitoring and evaluation, or results-based management. Sometimes, this support takes the form of helping an organisation to develop new financial systems. Tailor-made technical assistance can also be used with organisations to achieve legal registration, to review programs and carry out strategic planning, and to develop marketing plans and promotional kits.

Organisational Support is made up of the financial support provided to partner organisations. It can include assistance with program funding, or more direct assistance, such as support for equipment purchase or certain limited new staff costs, called recurring cost support. Sub-project funding is also one form of organisational support; in addition to the funding of programming, sub-projects can be used as a tool that provides an important learning-by-doing opportunity around which to build a partner’s capacity. Organisational
Development includes activities to strengthen partner organizations so that they are better able to deliver the intended development results and realize their own organizational goals. Partners find this kind of support can help them reach the next level of development within their organization. It is also a kind of support that is not always funded by other donors and is thus particularly valuable to growing organizations. It is a planned, systematic and participatory process that aims to facilitate understanding and change in an organization, improving the alignment between the organization’s internal systems and structures, its relationships with stakeholders and its operational activities, and bringing them closer to their aspirations as an organization. It aims to increase organizational effectiveness and build a reservoir of capacity on which it can draw for further development. Organisational development can take the form of a short, one-time intervention, or it can be the result of a longer-term program, built upon a longer term organizational coaching process of participatory organisational assessment, capacity building planning, and development intervention, followed by monitoring and review. Our programming typically draws upon all three of these components, although the mix will be tailored specifically to project and partner needs.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.

3.1 Introduction.
This chapter presented a detailed description of the research methodology. It described the research design, study population, sample and sampling techniques, research tools and the plan for data analysis.

3.2 Research design.
This study was conducted through descriptive survey research design. The study was intended to investigate the relationship between the capacity building and the management of civil society organizations. This design enabled researcher to gather data to describe the nature of existing conditional and identify the standards against which the existing conditions should be compared. This research method also enabled the researcher to determine the relationships that existed between the capacity building and management of civil society organizations. A research design was a plan showing how the problem that was being investigated should be solved. Kothari (2000) defines a research design as an arrangement of conditions for the collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure.

A descriptive research survey design was considered appropriate as it has enabled the researcher to collect first hand information in the shortest time possible from the respondents. The design was appropriate for the study as it had enabled the researcher to collect both quantitative and qualitative data that allowed both descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. This study aimed at looking at how the situation was before, how it was then and what the situation should which this design was able to do (Kothari, 2004)

3.3 Target population
According to Mugenda and Mugenda(1999) the target population refers to that population which the researcher wants to generalize the results of the study. The target population comprised of 20 CBOs which gave rise to 60 officials who had undergone the AMREF maanisha capacity building programme and 18 trainers from AMREF. This gave a total population of 78 subjects.
3.4 Sample size
According to Kidder (1981), sampling is a process used to study a response to an intervention by a small population that can be applied to a larger population. A sample for this study comprised of 45 CSOs officials and 5 AMREF trainers giving a sample size of 50 respondents. Borg and Rumble (1999), point out that 10% of the target population can make a reasonable sample size. The officials were the chairman, secretary and treasurer of every CSO.

3.5 Sampling and Sampling Procedures.
Simple random sampling according to (Kothari, 2000) is where each member of the population has an equal chance of being chosen for the study. Mugenda (2003) says that random sampling is the key to obtaining representative data. This method reduces bias and hence the conclusions of the study are acceptable. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005) also note that simple random sampling enhances validity by reducing selection bias.

Simple random sampling was used to select 15 CBOs and CSOs. A list of CBOs/CSOs was drawn on a piece of paper and put in a box, the researcher picked and placed back the piece of paper of the selected CBO/CSO until the required number of CBOs/CSOs was attained. The three officials (chairman, treasurer and secretary) who had undergone capacity building were then purposively selected to be part of the sample. Simple random sampling was used to select 5 trainer from AMREF who were engaged in providing training.

3.6 Data Collection Instruments
The study employed a questionnaire and an interview schedule for data collection. A questionnaire is a set of questions that is developed to address a specific objective, research questions or hypothesis of the study. A questionnaire was used because it useful in creating a rapport with subject or sample population. The questionnaire had both closed and open ended items in order to elicit specific and varied responses to answer the research objectives.

The interview was also used and its oral administration of the questionnaires. It was a structured conversation with someone that is able to provide useful information. The advantage of this data collection method is its ability to gather in depth data, high response rate compared to questionnaires and guarding against confusion since interviewer clarifies vague questions.
3.6.1 Questionnaire for CSO officials
The structured (closed-ended) and unstructured (open-ended) questions sought information from officials regarding the organization of the capacity building programme, its relevance their personal details and challenges encountered in providing capacity building.

3.6.2 Interview Schedule for AMREF Trainers
The interview was administered personally by the researcher. The researcher focused on the influence of the capacity building programmes on the management of CSOs, components of the programme and challenges encountered in providing capacity building to civil societies.

3.7. Validity of Research Instruments
Validity is the degree to which obtained from the analysis of data actually represents the phenomenon under study. It is the ability of the questionnaires in this study to capture or represent the variables in this study (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). Content validity of the instrument was established by ensuring that each item measured the intended objective. The instrument was scrutinized by my project supervisors to ascertain whether they addressed the objectives of the study adequately. The instruments were then piloted and further corrections and modifications made before actual data collection.

3.7.1 Reliability of Research Instruments
Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent data after repeated trials (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). It indicates the accuracy or precision of the questionnaire or interview guide. The reliability of this research instruments was established through test retest method. The questionnaires were administered to CSOs officials who were not part of the sample. The questionnaires were given back to them after two weeks and comparison of the scores made using the Pearson’s moment correlation coefficient (r) to compute the correlation coefficient (Best & Kahn, 1989). After computation a correlation of 0.5 was obtained and was considered as a good measure of instrument reliability (Koul, 1990).
3.8 Administration of research Instruments
Before data collection, a research permit was obtained from The National Council of Research and Technology on introduction by the University of Nairobi. Letters were written to CSO officials explaining the purpose of the study and to request for a specific date when the researcher would visit them and administer the questionnaire. The AMREF officials were visited and appointment made on when it will be appropriate for an interview. The instrument was administered personally by the researcher so as to explain some of the areas the respondents may find difficult.

3.9 Data Analysis Techniques
Data collected was then coded manually and then organized under different themes. Descriptive statistics was used in analyzing and presenting the data. Measures of central tendency such as mean, percentages and frequencies was used to show the relative importance attached to the results. Qualitative description (words) was used to explain the numerical data obtained and make conclusion and recommendations of the study.
### Table 3.1: Operationalisation of variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Objectives</th>
<th>Sources of data</th>
<th>Method of data collection</th>
<th>Measuring scale</th>
<th>Data analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Influence of capacity building on the management of finances by civil societies</td>
<td>CSOs officials and AMREF trainers</td>
<td>Questionnaires, Interviews</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To determine the influence of capacity building programmes on stakeholders involvement by civil society</td>
<td>CSOs officials</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To identify the influence of capacity building on resource mobilization by civil society organizations.</td>
<td>CSOs officials and AMREF trainers</td>
<td>Questionnaires, Interviews</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Challenges encountered in providing capacity building programmes</td>
<td>AMREF trainers</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.9.1 Ethical Considerations

In undertaking the study the researcher observed confidentiality of the information obtained from the respondent’s. Their identity was not disclosed and consent was sought from them before being involved in the study.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction
The problem under investigation in this study was the influence of capacity building programme provided by AMREF on the management of civil society organizations in Mumias Sub County. The sample comprised of 45 civil society officials and 5 trainers from AMREF. This chapter presented the data obtained from the field in line with the objectives that guided the study. These objectives were:

1. Influence of capacity building on the management of finances by civil societies
2. To determine the influence of capacity building programmes on stakeholders involvement by civil society
3. To identify the influence of capacity building on resource mobilization by civil society organizations.
4. Establish challenges encountered in providing capacity building to civil society organizations.

The data was presented using descriptive statistical tools such as frequency tables, mean and percentages. The frequency with which the responses appeared was taken as a measure of influence. The information presented in the tables was described using words to derive meaning, conclusions and recommendations.

4.2 Return rate of the Questionnaires
A total number of forty five questionnaires were issued to civil society officials. Out of these, a total of these a total of forty (89%) questionnaires were returned. Table 4.2 below presents the details.

Table 4.2 Questionnaires Return rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Questionnaires issued</th>
<th>Questionnaires Returned</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSOs officials</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the table 4.2 it was evident that over 60% of the questionnaires were returned. According to (Mugenda&Mugenda 2003) such a sample was deemed to be representative and the findings could be generalized to the population.

4.3. Socio-demographic data of respondents
The researcher obtained information about the socio-demographic of CSO officials. The data was related to professional qualifications and age. Details regarding professional qualifications were as indicated in table 4.3 below

Table 4.3 Professional qualifications.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional qualification level</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors Degree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The response obtained showed that majority of CSOs officials 20 (50%) had attained a bachelors degree and 18(45%) were diploma holders. This shows that the respondents had attained professional educational qualifications relevant to the management of civil society organizations. The Findings were in support with those of Irumbi (1990) who found a significant relationship between student’s achievements and the quality of teachers in Kiambu district. Although the study was about student attainment, I could also have implications in regard to civil societies as organizations. The respondents observed that the qualification was relevant to the performance of their duties due to the knowledge, skills and abilities acquired which were important in civil society management.
The study also collected data about the age of the CSO officials. The findings revealed that most of the officials 22(55%) were in the range of 36-45 years of age. Table 4.3.1 presented the details.

### Table 4.3.1. Age distribution of CSOs officials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age distribution in years</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-25 years</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45 years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-55 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 55 years</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This implied that they are all mature and was capable of making decisions that could affect the management of civil societies. These in turn could affect the performance of civil societies.

#### 4.4 Influence of Capacity building on financial management.

The study was out to establish the influence of Maanisha capacity building programme on the financial management by civil society organizations in Mumiasub county. It established that through the programme officials 28(70%) indicated that they had embraced budgeting as a tool of managing finances. A majority of the officials 32(80%) also felt that the programme had equipped them with the capacity of identifying sources of funding for their activities. The rest of the details were as in table 4.4.
Table 4.4 Financial resources management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management activity</th>
<th>F</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Budgeting</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Record keeping</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checking utilization</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identification of funding sources</td>
<td>of 32</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy formulation</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table 4.4 it was clear that civil societies had benefited from the capacity building programme in regard to financial management. According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2005) financial education is the process by which financial consumers/investors improve their understanding of financial products and concepts and, through information, instruction and/or objective advice, develop the skills and confidence to become more aware of financial risks and opportunities, to make informed choices, to know where to go for help, and to take other effective actions to improve their financial wellbeing. This involves providing consumers with facts, data, and specific knowledge to make them aware of financial opportunities, choices, and consequences. The Equity Group Foundation (2010) financial education makes consumers become more informed financial decision makers who can plan for and realize their set goals. The skills acquired are permanent and can be used in the long run to benefit the individuals and the organizations thus ensuring project sustainability. Respondents 28(70%) thus indicated that they had obtained the necessary education in regard to planning the available finances to meet organizational expenses. They were aware of the sources of income and the expenditure to be incurred by their organizations. This was important in controlling the financial resources at their disposal. These findings were supported by Radsdel (2008) who argued that Monitoring and evaluation were important as part of a sustainable funding strategy.
Through budgets organizations were able to justify how donor’s money was put to use in meeting the client’s needs.

The study also established that civil societies were in a position to report to funding organization about the utilization of funds. Respondents 30 (75%) reported that they were capable of providing information to donors about how their funds were being utilized. Through proper record keeping it was possible to monitor use of funds for designated activities. This was made possible through receipts, vouchers, invoices and bank statements.

**4.5 Capacity building and stakeholder’s involvement**

The involvement of stakeholders on the activities of civil organization was another area of observation of this study. The civil society under the AMREF Maanisha programme were mainly involved in the fight against HIV AIDS and this study was interested in identifying the importance of involving various stakeholders such as people living with HIV & AIDS, local leaders, religious groups and the youths in their activities. Table 4.5 has the details about the value of stakeholder’s involvement.

**Table 4.5 Importance of stakeholder’s involvement in civil societies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Importance</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identification of needs</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of programmes</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>implementation</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource provision</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source of information</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table 4.5 civil societies had linkages with various groups in the community they were working with such as local leaders and religious institutions. From their responses, 37(93%) noted that the stakeholders were assisting in resource provision thus enabling them to meet their objectives. The civil societies were funded by stakeholders who also
provided technical support to enable them carry out their responsibilities. The technical assistance provided included training on how to carry out tests and counseling of clients before and after the tests. Some of the stakeholders provided drugs and put up physical facilities or paid office rent and salaries for staff. Supported school feeding programmes, putting up of physical facilities such as classrooms and toilets including instilling discipline in their children. These sentiments are also in line with those of Chungani (2013) and Amukowa (2009) who found that stakeholders involvement in the activities of learning institutions to be important in the fulfillment of their goals.

Respondents 35 (87%) noted that stakeholders were crucial in the identification of the needs to be addressed by various civil organizations. The different clients to be served had different needs such as acceptance, food, access to health facilities and love which were to be addressed before any mitigation measures were put in place. This ensured that programmes provided by civil organizations were relevant to the clients thus enhancing the level of acceptability of the services rendered.

4.6 Capacity building and resource mobilization

Civil society organizations employed various ways of obtaining resources to undertake their operations. The resources required include personnel, finances, office space and material goods.

Table 4.6 presented the various means of obtaining resources.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mobilization activity</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fund raising</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment &amp; selection</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proposal writing</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advocacy &amp; education</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribution and donations</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6 Resource mobilization
From the table 4.6 it was evident that civil societies 28(70%) relied on proposal writing as the main mechanism of obtaining finances from the government under the private sector. The respondents 28(70%) observed that civil societies had benefited from the capacity building programme terms of enhancing their skills in proposal writing that enabled them to reach diverse clients who were willing to fund their activities. Proposals had become valuable because of the ability of describing the organization and the project being undertaken. It outlined the time frame, its organization risks involved and an outline of the budget for scrutiny by the funding bodies before funds could be availed.

Majority of the officials 19(53%) indicated that civil societies recruited their staff but this was not based on elaborate policy stating how the exercise was to be conducted. The workers in the organizations had no clear cut job descriptions thus duplication of responsibilities or at times they were undertaking multiple duties as a cost cutting measure. The staff however did not undergo any organized form of training to enable them undertake the assigned responsibilities effectively. On recruitment the staffs were verbally instructed on what to do while at the place of work or in the field and no documented outline on the procedures involved was issued to them.

In regard to finance resource mobilization donations and contributions from the central government and the private sector were key to the success of civil society activities. The capacity building programme had equipped officials 20(50%) with the relevant skills and knowledge that enabled them to go out and negotiate for funding from well wishers. The sources included: western donors, religious organization, Constituency Development Fund and corporate bodies.

4.7 Challenges of capacity building

The study sought to investigate capacity building in civil societies as indicated in the objectives. Officials noted that lack of adequate funds 25(63%) and labour turnover 26 (65%) were a major constraint in maintaining a competent personnel base by civil societies. Table 4.7 presented the other details.
Table 4.7 Capacity building challenges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of skills by officials</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate funds</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude by CSO officials</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour turnover</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 4.7 officials noted that lack of adequate funding 25 (63%) was a hindrance to internal capacity building initiatives. The officials observed that there were no provisions for internal capacity building activities factored in their proposals and budgets to funding bodies. Therefore arrangements to develop the staff internally were not possible since funds received were already allocated to other activities that were to be undertaken by civil societies.

Another hindrance to capacity building initiatives by civil societies was managerial attitude 32 (80%) and lack of skills 30 (75 %). This could be probably due to lack of sufficient requisite managerial skills which in turn might have influenced their poor attitude towards staff development. Therefore the management in civil organizations did not view staff development as being key to the success of the organization. In any case those employed were assumed to have the relevant knowledge and skills that could enable them to carry out assigned responsibilities.
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction
This chapter focused on findings analyzed in chapter four. The analysis based on research questions and research objectives. The chapter analyzed the findings of the research, makes conclusions and gives solutions and recommendations and lastly proposed areas for further research.

The study based its findings on the following research objectives:

1. Influence of capacity building on the management of finances by civil societies
2. To determine the influence of capacity building programmes on stakeholders involvement by civil society
3. To identify the influence of capacity building on resource mobilization by civil society organizations.
4. Establish challenges encountered in providing capacity building to civil society organizations.

Questionnaires and an interview schedule were used to collected data to answer the above objectives.

5.2 Capacity building and management of finances by civil societies
Arising from the analysis of data it was established that capacity building programmes had impacted positively on the management of financial resources by civil societies. Training in regard to finances had improved the finance literacy levels of the officials thus making them a where of the various tools to apply in managing funds. The officials 28(70%) noted that their competencies in regard to budgeting and proper record keeping 20(50%) had been enhanced to a level where they were able to account for all the monies given to them by donors. Organizations that operated within their budgetary limits and with proper documentation were attracting more funding from donors in order to continue with their activities. This ensured proper utilization of funds to the benefit of their clients.
5.3 Influence of capacity building programmes on stakeholders involvement by civil society

The study established that due to capacity building programmes civil societies appreciated the involvement of stakeholders in their activities. From the stakeholders civil society organizations were able to come up with projects that were meant to address the specific needs of their clients thus making them relevant. The stakeholders who mainly included those affected and infected were HIV & AIDS were in a position to point out what their concerns were and how they wanted them addressed. In addition stakeholders were at the centre of providing resources needed by civil societies in providing services to their varied clients. The officials 29 (73%) were of the opinion that the involvement of stakeholders in the was important because they were informal evaluators of the services provided to them by civil society organizations.

5.4 Influence of capacity building on resource mobilization by civil society organizations.

As regards the influence of capacity building on resource mobilization it was found out those officials 28(70%) had been equipped with knowledge and skills in proposal writing as the main avenue of sourcing for funds. Interviews with trainers 5(100%) from the Maanisha programme revealed that responses from the officials underwent capacity building programme strongly felt that proposal writing was one of the key areas of concern in civil societies that was addressed. Majority of officials did not know how to design a fund raising proposal that would attract funding for their projects.

The programme also improved the understanding of officials 21 (53%) on matters of personnel recruitment and selection. The civil societies did not have a policy to guide the officials on matters relating personnel such as induction, training, remuneration and promotion. Therefore the organizations had varied mechanism of dealing with matters relating to staff most of which were no documented. These demotivated the staff hence affecting their general performance.
5.5 Capacity building challenges in civil society organizations.

From the questionnaire, it was found that the CSOs faced challenges in providing internal capacity building programmes. Officials 25(63%) observed that civil society organizations did not have funds allocated for capacity building initiatives. Their budgets did not have such a vote head and therefore could not transfer funds meant for other activities to capacity building. This problem was further compounded by the fact that the officials had a negative perception towards capacity building probably due to fear of competition from other staff and lack of requisites skills needed to conduct such a programme.

5.6. Conclusion

From this study, it was concluded that capacity building programmes by AMREF Maanisha had positively influenced the management of civil society organizations by equipping the officials with managerial skills. The officials capacity and understanding of various components that need to be managed such as resource mobilization, finances and the stakeholders which were crucial in any programme had been enhanced by the capacity building programme.

5.7 Recommendations.

The following recommendations were made based on the findings of the study in order to improve on the management of civil society organizations.

1. Stakeholders and community leaders have to seriously step up and supervision of civil society organizations and provide feedback on how to improve service provision.

2. Officials of civil society organizations should organize forums in their organizations or jointly through which knowledge gathered from the AMREF Maanisha programme could be cascaded to lower levels of management.

3. Capacity building programmes should be organized to meet specific needs identified by civil society organizations rather than coming up with a general programme addressing issues in general.

4. Civil society organizations to factor capacity building in their budgets.
5.8 **Suggestions for further research**

The study suggests further research in the following areas:

1. Research to be undertaken in a wide scale to establish the influence of capacity building programmes on the management of civil society organizations.
2. Perception of the civil society officials about the capacity building programmes
3. Factors influencing provision of capacity building programmes by the funding organizations

5.9 **Contribution to Knowledge**

The study adds knowledge to the society and also to help improve the management of civil societies in Mumias sub-county.
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Dear Sir/Madam,

**RE: REQUEST TO COMPLETE A RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE.**

I am a student pursuing a Masters of Arts Degree in Project Planning and Management at the University of Nairobi. I am expected to carry out a research as a partial fulfillment for the award of the degree. I have chosen to study the effects of the Capacity Building support Program by AMREF to CBOs/CSOs in Mumias district.

I humbly request you to complete this research questionnaire to enable me complete the study. Feel free in giving the data honestly as it will not be used beyond the stated purpose nor will it be accessed by any other person but me.

I feel greatly privileged and therefore thank you in advance for sparing part of your precious time to complete the questionnaire.

Yours faithfully,

Mutobera J.M.
APPENDIX II

INTERVIEW FOR AMREF MAANISHA STAFF.

Dear respondent, I am a Masters Degree student at the University of Nairobi conducting a research in the above mentioned area of study. This research is purely for purposes of academic research and the information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

1. What is your gender?

2. What is your marital Status?

3. What is your age?

4. Highest Academic level?

5. What factors prompted the provision of Maanishacapacity building programme?

6. What areas did the programme focus on?

7. Why do civil societies fail to provide internal capacity programmes?

8. In your opinion what should be done to ensure sustainability of civil society organizations?
APPENDIX III

QUESTIONNAIRE- CSO OFFICIALS.

Please Tick where appropriate

Dear respondent, Iam a Masters Degree student at the University of Nairobi conducting a research in the above mentioned are of study. This research is purely for purposes of academic research and the information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Please do not write your name or any other form of identification of this questionnaire.

Section A: Socio-demographic data.

Please tick where appropriate.

1. Gender [ ] Male [ ] Female

2. Marital Status:
   [ ] Single [ ] Married [ ] Separated [ ] Widowed [ ] Divorced

3. Age: 18-25 years [ ] 26-35 years [ ] 36-45 years [ ] 46-55 years [ ] Over 56 years

4. Employment status: [ ] Employed [ ] Not Employed

5. Highest academic level:
   [ ] Primary [ ] Secondary [ ] Tertiary [ ] Undergraduate [ ] Postgraduate

6. Position in the organization: [ ] Chairman [ ] Secretary [ ] Treasurer

7. Which of the following areas were covered by the Maanisha capacity building programmes
   i) [ ] Financial management
   ii) [ ] Stakeholders involvement
   iii) [ ] Procurement
iv) Resource mobilization [ ]

v) Policy development[ ]

vi) Staff development[ ]

vii) Any other (indicate)---------------------------------------------

---------------------------------------------

8. How did the capacity building programme assist you address the challenges in each of
the areas above?

---------------------------------------------

---------------------------------------------

---------------------------------------------

9. Give reasons why your organization does not offer internal capacity programmes

---------------------------------------------

---------------------------------------------

---------------------------------------------

---------------------------------------------

END
## Appendix IV: TIME SCHEDULE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>DURATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preliminary survey of relevant institutions in Matungu district</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matungu Division</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing research instruments, training research assistants and pre-testing instruments</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recourses mobilization; Stationery, camera, fare, accommodation, food and miscellaneous.</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual data collection</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data coding and analysis</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Report writing and presentation</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix V: BUDGET ESTIMATE

1. Preliminary survey
   a) Fare = Kshs 560
   b) Subsistence = Kshs 1680
   c) Miscellaneous (stationery e.t.c) = Kshs 500
   **Ksh 2740**

2. Cost of developing instruments for
   Pre-testing (50 instruments @ 3 pages) = Kshs 400
   Actual research (100 instruments @ 3 pages) = Kshs 800
   **Kshs 1200**

3. Cost of training 4 research assistants for 1 day:
   Meal @ Ksh 200 = Kshs 800
   Fare @ Kshs 100 = Kshs 400
   **Kshs 1200**

4. Pre-testing instruments in the field
   Fare for 5 people @ Kshs 100 for 4 days = Kshs 2000
   Meals for 5 people @ Kshs 200 for 4 days = Kshs 4000
   **Kshs 6000**

5. Cost of data collection, analysis and report writing stationery (Pens / Folders /
   rulers / pencils e.t.c)
   Return Fare for 5 people @ Ksh 30 for 56 centers = Ksh 8400
   Meals for 5 people @ Kshs 200 for 56 centers = Ksh 1000
   Duty allowance for 5 people 14 days@ 250 = Ksh 17500
   Data analysis using computer packages /internet = Ksh 1680
   Report writing and printing using computer = Ksh 1200
   **Ksh 29780**

**TOTAL COST OF THE PROJECT** = KSH 40920
APPENDIX VI

A MAP OF MUMIAS SUBCOUNTY OF KAKAMEGA COUNTY