

**FACTORS INFLUENCING PERFORMANCE OF NON GOVERNMENTAL  
ORGANISATIONS IN GARISSA COUNTY, KENYA**

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## DECLARATION

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

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

AWSD	Aid Worker Security Database
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
NGOs	Nongovernmental organizations
OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance
SCZ	South and central Somalia
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to establish the factors influencing Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County, Kenya. Three research objectives guided the study. The researcher adopted descriptive survey design in carrying out the study. The target population of the study was 5 NGOs working in the district where three head of departments and 12 operations managers from each organization were used in the study. Data was collected by use of questionnaire and was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Findings of the study revealed that NGO related factors influence operations in rural development initiatives as indicated by majority 12(80.0%) of heads. Majority 8(53.3%) of the heads of operations agreed that the NGO acts both as service providers and advocates for the poor. Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis showed that there was a positive relationship (0.68) between NGO related factors and NGO operations. On the influence of insecurity on NGOs operations, the study revealed that security factors influence operations in rural development initiatives as indicated by majority 8(53.3%) of heads. This implies that the humanitarian services on the NGO are limited as the area is ill-equipped to the attacks. Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis indicated that there was strong positive (0.75) relationship between security and NGO operations. Findings on the influence of government environment on NGO operations indicated that Government factors influence operations in rural development initiatives as shown by majority 12(80.0%) of heads Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis showed that there was a positive relationship between the two variables as indicated by a correlation of 0.58. The results indicated that government related factors influenced NGO operation. Based on the findings of the study, the study concluded that NGO related factors influence operations in rural development initiatives and that the NGO acts both as service providers and advocates for the poor. The study further concluded that NGO were not willing to engage in political dimension as indicated by majority of the heads. The study further concluded that security factors influence operations in rural development initiatives and there was violence against aid workers while heads agreed that the area experienced active armed conflict. It was further concluded that government factors influence operations in rural development initiative. Based on the findings of the study, the study recommended that the government agencies should work in corroboration with the NGOs in coming out with suggestions to address challenges faced by the NGOS in their operations and to eliminate the difficulties that NGOs face in remaining nonpolitical, the NGO operations should have a strong political dimension, even within service delivery and welfare provision. Taking the limitations and delimitations of the study, the study suggested that since the study was taken in one administrative county, there is need to carry out a similar study in another area so as to compare the findings.

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Background of the study**

Up to the early millennium, poverty remains to be the biggest problem of the world (Abasiokong, 2002) One-sixth of the global population or about one billion people live in an extreme poverty. They struggle daily for survival (Sachs, 2005). They suffered from lack of nutrition, health, water and sanitation, shelter and other basic needs for survival. In order to end the poverty, the 191 UN members signed the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in 2000. The first goal of the MDGs is to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. To achieve this goal, a target has been set that is, to reduce by half the proportion of people living on less than a dollar a day by 2015. If the target can be realized, there will be an opportunity to end the extreme poverty by 2025 (Sachs, 2005). It means that poverty is the greatest challenge of global society.

One of the targets of the first Millennium Development Goal (MDG) is to reduce the proportion of people who suffer from hunger by half between 1990 and 2015, with hunger measured as the proportion of the population who are undernourished and the prevalence of children under five who are underweight. Many countries including Kenya remain far from reaching this target, and much of the progress made has been eroded by the recent global food price and economic crises (RoK, 2004).

It was perceived failures of state-led development approaches throughout the 1970s and 1980s that fuelled interest in NGOs as a development alternative, offering innovative and people-centered approaches to service delivery, advocacy and empowerment. While NGOs and their position within the development sector have risen dramatically, the taxonomy of NGOs remains problematic (Vakil 1997). Emerging from long-term traditions of philanthropy and self-help (Lewis & Kanji 2009), NGOs vary widely in origin and levels of formality. While terms such as ‘NGOs’ and ‘third sector’ are classificatory devices that help understand a diverse set of organisations, they can also obscure: in presuming the institutionalized status of NGOs, for example, one potentially ignores a large number of unregistered organisations seeking to further the public good (Srinivas, 2009).

While international development approaches have become increasingly multidimensional, the economic imperative has endured as the central focus of poverty reduction strategies (Unwin, 2004). Since the 1980s non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and governments/states have become inextricably connected within international development. This paper analyses the role of NGOs and the state in African development and how relationships between the two can be both problematic and beneficial. The first goal of the MDGs is to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. To achieve this goal, a target has been set that is, to reduce by half the proportion of people living on less than a dollar a day by 2015. If the target can be realized, there will be an opportunity to end the extreme poverty by 2025 (Sachs, 2005). It means that poverty is the greatest challenge of global society. One of the targets of the first Millennium Development Goal (MDG) is to reduce the proportion of people who

suffer from hunger by half between 1990 and 2015, with hunger measured as the proportion of the population who are undernourished and the prevalence of children under five who are underweight. Many countries including Kenya remain far from reaching this target, and much of the progress made has been eroded by the recent global food price and economic crises (RoK, 2004).

Until the late 1970s, NGOs were little-recognized in the implementation of development projects or in policy influence. Those few existing were perceived as bit players in service provision, short-term relief, and emergency work. A remarkable change in their scale and significance was triggered in the late 1970s, when NGOs became the new sweethearts of the development sector. The ideological ascendancy of neoliberalism at this time was accompanied by the rise of structural adjustment in aid policies, reductions in public expenditure, and the withdrawal of state-provided services. Within this radical reform, the market replaced the state at the centre of development strategies, and poverty lost its position as an explicit concern, given beliefs in the trickle-down effects of economic growth (Murray and Overton 2011). Continued donor distrust and frustrations with states generated and fuelled interest in NGOs as desirable alternatives, viewing them favorably for their representation of beneficiaries and their role as innovators of new technologies and ways of working with the poor (Gill 1997; Barr et al 2005; Lewis 2005; Murray and Overton 2011). The role of NGOs in reducing poverty is not a new issue. Especially since the post World War II, NGO involvement in poverty reduction has become a mainstream. They have been engaged in relief, emergency or longer-term development work or the mixture of all three. NGOs have the institutional capacity to reduce poverty. It is also

frequently argued that compared to the government, NGOs have comparative advantages (Levin and Ndung'u, 2000).

Non-governmental organizations have played a major role in pushing for the protection of human rights at the international level. Increasingly, the existence of NGOs is proving to be a necessity rather than a luxury in societies throughout the modern world. In many developing countries, the role of NGOs has evolved in response to the market gaps left by the government (Gaist, 2009). Impelled by the inadequacies of the state and the market, citizens across the globe have developed NGOs to deal with a diversity of social needs. According to Gotz (2008), the increase in NGOs is one of the most remarkable features of modern-day international politics. While states remain the major „protectors and abusers of human rights,

NGOs have materialized as central players in the promotion of human rights around the world. They are increasingly identified as crucial role-players in community and people-centered development. Gaist (2009) stated that the NGOs have frequently been regarded as very important for democracy since they have a strong support at grassroots level and their ability to develop and empower poor communities. This is a well-needed attribute in Zimbabwe as most of the communities are beyond being poor. Nzimakwe (2002) also supported this nature of NGOs saying they are enormously vital mechanisms in rural development as they benefit from the goodwill and reception of the community, consequently the NGOs have become very crucial players in the field of social development.

NGOs are effective mediators between governments and minority groups, increasing interaction between civil society and the state, subsequently making the government more accountable for their actions. This mediation role has become typical in many African countries and is also evident in some European countries, such as Ireland (Winter, 2001). This approach is widely recognized as bottom-up development and while it is widely hailed for increasing civil society participation, it is also recognized to undermine state sovereignty and in some cases contrast national priorities and directives. In delicate states, NGOs mobilizing civil society can further weaken national solidarity and perpetuate political insecurity and instability leading to unrest. In this regard, NGOs strengths can also be their weakness as their flexible and experimental nature could be potentially damaging to overall development if exercised inappropriately (winter, 2001).

As stated by Adada (2001) NGOs comparative advantages are: “their ability to deliver emergency relief or development services at low cost, to many people, in remote areas; their rapid, innovative and flexible responses to emerging financial and technical assistance needs at the grass roots level; their long-standing familiarity with social sector development and poverty alleviation; their experience with small-scale development projects as well as with those requiring a high degree of involvement by, and familiarity with, the concerned target groups” (as quoted by Riddell & Robison, 1995). As part of their commitment to realize the targets of MDGs in 2015, the NGOs have greater opportunity to increase their roles in reducing poverty especially in the developing countries (Abada, 2001).



Critique of state led economic development in Africa justifiably highlights the overemphasis on economic growth and subsequent neglect of those in poverty (Vandemoortele, 2009). Insufficient capacity and resources to implement reforms throughout all levels of the economy legitimises NGOs as facilitators of bottom-up development. NGOs have both the means and flexibility to reach remote communities to address specific issues which the government lack the capacity to cover (Yannis, 2001). Consequently, NGOs are widely championed for being facilitators of bottom-up, participatory economic developments through their ability to concentrate efforts on small-scale programmes which ensure the needs of the poor are addressed. Current poverty reduction paradigms have however redefined the role of NGOs in economic development as they contribute to poverty alleviation through micro programmes and projects (Kimani, 2010). NGOs widely operate at community and grass roots levels, enabling them to mobilize poor and remote communities that are often neglected by the state (Fowler, 1991; Streeten, 1997). This facilitates immediate and direct interaction with communities enabling information to be relayed to and from civil society rapidly.

In helping the poor to climb out of poverty, NGOs use two approaches: supply-side and demand-side (Clark, 1995). In a similar sense, Fowler (1997) identifies two types of NGO tasks: micro-tasks and macro-tasks. From the supply-side or micro-tasks approach, NGOs provide various basic public services to the poor. It is argued that especially in countries where government lack public services, NGOs play a significant role in the direct provision of social and economic services. In general, NGOs emerge and play the roles as service providers (Allison & Halperin, 2002).

Northern Kenya and other arid lands have largely lagged behind in development that has made it difficult for the region to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the national development targets. Thus poverty levels have continued to rise. Absolute poverty levels in northern Kenya were 65 percent in 1994 but increased to 73 percent in 2000 and further to 74 percent in 2005/06 (KIHBS 2005/06) (Fowler, 1997).

The arid and semi-arid districts combined cover 84 percent of the country's land mass whose potential still remains largely untapped. They contain 24 million hectares of land suitable for livestock production; and 9.2 million hectares of land with the potential for crop production if put under irrigation. Vast potential also exists for tourism, mining, electricity generation through wind and solar energy, among others. Moreover, integrating the north more effectively with the rest of the country will open (GoK, 2001).

Across the developing world, states with limited finances and riddled by poor governance and corruption have failed to lead to development for all of their citizens. Within this context, alternative forms of development have been pursued, and since the 1980s, nongovernmental organisations (NGOs) have been increasingly advocated as a means through which the gulf between citizens' needs and existing services can be bridged. Since the late 1970s, NGOs have played an increasingly prominent role in the development sector in North Eastern province which includes the area of this study. The NGOs are, widely praised for their strengths as innovative and grassroots driven organisations with the desire and capacity to pursue participatory and people

centered forms of development and to fill gaps left by the failure of states across the developing world in meeting the needs of their poorest citizens. Where states cannot provide sufficient goods, services or enabling environments that help citizens in securing livelihoods, or where disadvantaged groups are excluded from existing state institutions, alternative channels of service provision and/or holding governments to account must be found where it is into this gap that NGOs have neatly fitted.

General, rural development is part of an overall development theory. Today the general concept of development is taken to mean a process of change which enhances the quality of people's life for people. The process is meaningful only when the people whose lives will be affected actively take part in the decision makings involved. This then defines the parameters of current usage of rural development It rejects the notion of external engineering and imposition. It also discountenances the subordinate position assigned to indigenous knowledge and creativity in the process of change. It subscribes to the well-being of the rural dwellers as the overriding goal of the change endeavor. In other words, It is accepted that the primary beneficiaries of development programmes should be the rural people and not those outside of the target of action, the urban dwellers, the policy makers and the "go-betweens". Finally, the element of rural development includes the recognition of the fact that it is not just the number of projects or programmes that is paramount but their relevance and sustainability.

In their broadest conceptualization, NGOs are hailed for their unique capacity to enhance participatory development initiatives (The Editors, 1991; United Nations, 1988). The last decade in particular has witnessed profuse efforts to place NGOs high

up on the public agenda as a veritable instrument of development intervention (Aina, 1990; NGOS, 1990). The disturbing issue, however, is that not only is the advocated capacity of NGOs exaggerated, but such claims are often made without paying attention to the real inhibiting problems NGOs actually face in the field. The unrestrained propagation of such a position is quite dangerous and misleading. As persistently maintained, advocacy and practice are two worlds apart, sometimes without a bridge (Ukpong, 1990; 1989).

### **1.2 Statement of the problem**

The NGOs have their long-standing familiarity with social sector, rural development and poverty alleviation. They have experience with small-scale development projects as well as with those requiring a high degree of involvement by, and familiarity with, the concerned target groups (Kiringai, Manda, 2002). Many NGOs have various activities to empower the poor people and alleviate poverty will assess the role of the NGOs in alleviation of poverty in Garissa county. They have been engaged in relief, emergency or longer-term development work or the mixture of all three. However, despite the role played by NGOs, it has been established that most of the NGOs leave before completing the task. There have been cases of NGOs terminating their contracts while others are reluctant to renew their contracts. For example according to the District Officer office Daadab (2013), MSF Spain, Oxfam, Adeo and Age international terminated their contracts citing different reasons majorly insecurity. Despite the above scenario, there has not been a study on the factors that affect operations of NGOs in Garissa County. This study therefore aims at investigating the

factors influencing Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County, Kenya

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

The purpose of this study was to establish the factors influencing Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County, Kenya

### **1.4 Objectives of the study**

The study was guided by the following objectives:

- i. To determine how NGO related factors affects NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa county
- ii. To determine how security related factors affects NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa county
- iii. To explore the effects of government related factors on NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa county

### **1.5 Hypotheses of the study**

The study was guided by the following null hypotheses

- i. There is no significant relationship between NGO related factors and NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County.

- ii. There is no significant relationship between security related factors and NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County.
- iii. There is no significant relationship between government related factors and NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County?

### **1.6 Significance of the study**

The study would significant in a number of ways. The findings of the study may assist the NGOs in establishing the factors that challenge their operations. The findings of this study would be important to the NGOs in assessing the extent to which they have contributed to the development of the county and what challenges hinder such developments. The findings of the study may also be important to the government who may seek ways of addressing the challenges faced by the NGOS in their operations. The findings may also be important to the government agencies that work in corroboration with the NGOs in coming out with suggestions to address such challenges. The findings may also form a basis in theory and practice for students aiming at doing research in the area.

### **1.7 Limitations of the study**

The study was faced with a number of limitations. First the study was conducted in one administrative county of the country. The county was predominantly arid and hence the findings of the study may not be generalized to other areas. The study used the NGO staff as the main respondents leaving out the government agencies. The respondents in the study may have provided acceptable responses to please the

researcher hence affecting the reliability of the study. However the researcher asked the respondents to be as truthful as possible.

### **1.8 Delimitations of the study**

The study was conducted in Garissa County. Garissa County is one of the administrative counties of the North Eastern Province. The study targeted leaders of the sampled NGOs.

### **1.9 Assumptions of the study**

The following assumptions were made in this study:

That the NGOs have been working in the county in many areas of development

That the respondents in the study were aware of the areas that the NGOs have been involved in development.

That the respondents in the study gave truthful responses.

## 1.10 Conceptual framework

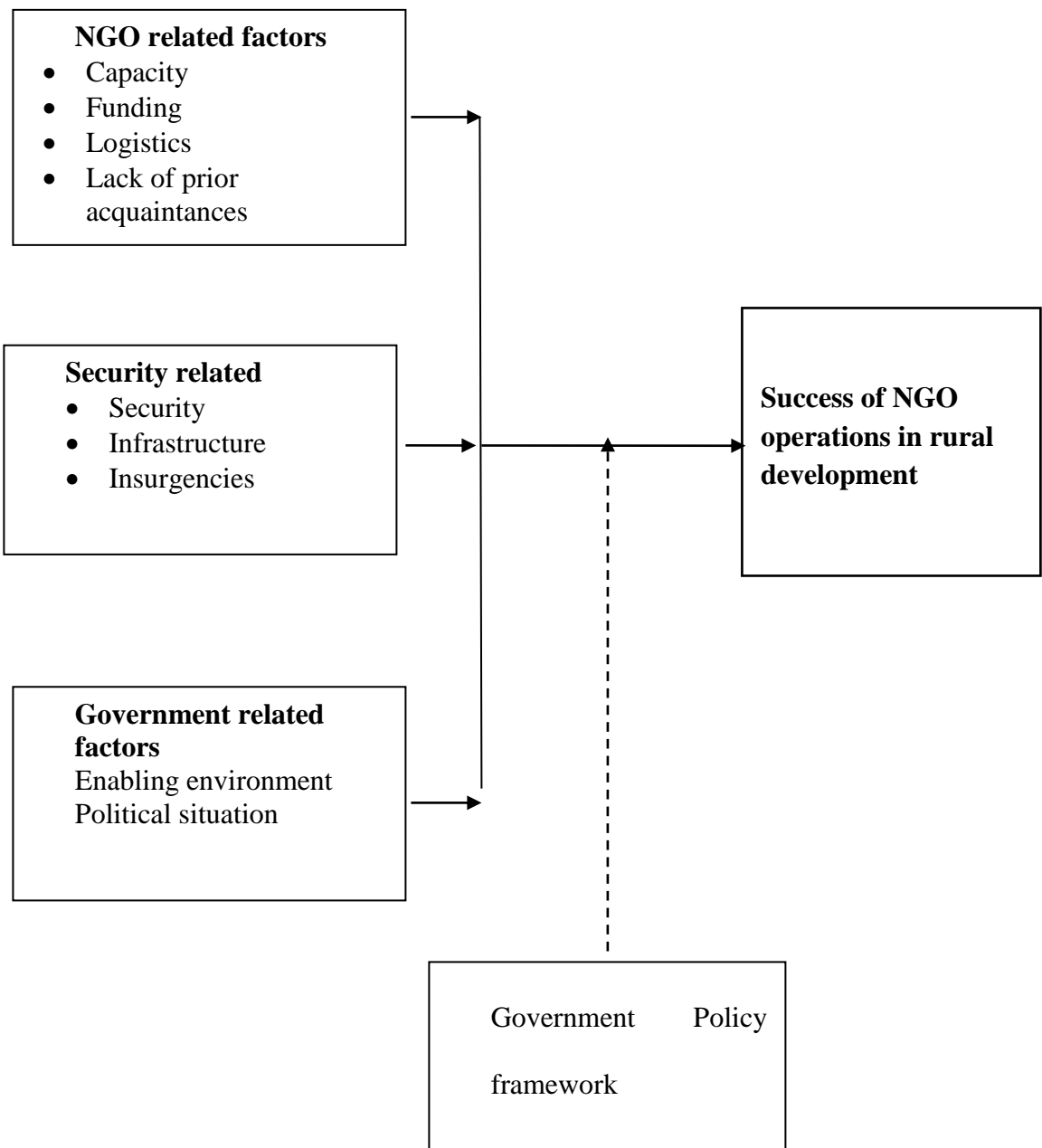
A conceptual frame work for factors affecting NGOs operations in rural development in Garissa County

**Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework**

**Independent Variables**

**Dependent**

**variables**





## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter is the literature review. The chapter focuses on definition of NGOs, NGOs as a channel for development alternative, role for NGOs in Development, influence of insecurity on NGOs operations, influence of infrastructure on NGOs operations, influence of political environment on NGO operations, influence of reorientation and NGO capacity.

#### **2.2 Definition and concept of NGO**

NGO literature the umbrella term ‘non-governmental organization’ is generally used throughout, although the category ‘NGO’ may be broken down into specialized organizational sub-groups such as ‘public service contractors’, ‘people’s organizations’, ‘voluntary organizations’ and even ‘governmental NGOs’ or ‘grassroots support organizations’ and ‘membership support organizations’ (Lewis, 2006). The NGO literature has tended to see NGOs as one of a number of key actors in processes of development alongside the state, local government, foreign donors and private corporations. In contrast to this relatively ‘integrated’ approach, the non-profit literature has to a greater extent focused on the organizations themselves and on the concept of the ‘sector’ as a distinctive subject for research non-profit has concentrated on service delivery and welfare organizations more than advocacy and social change organizations (Lewis, 2006).

‘Non-governmental’, ‘third sector’ or ‘not-for profit’ organizations have in recent years become high profile actors within public policy landscapes at local, national and global levels. Around the world, there is an increasing commitment to the delivery of social services through involving neither voluntary organizations which are neither government agencies directed by the state nor organizations committed to the ‘for-profit’ ethos of the business world (Lewis, 2003). Nongovernmental organizations are a heterogeneous group. A long list of acronyms has developed around the term 'NGO': INGO stands for international NGO, BINGO is short for business-oriented international NGO, RINGO is an abbreviation of religious international NGO, ENGO, short for environmental NGO, GONGOs are government-operated NGOs. (Wikipedia, 2006).

“Formal (professionalized) independent societal organizations whose primary aim is to promote common goals at the national or the international level” (Chang, 2005). The World Bank defines NGOs as "private organizations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote the interests of the poor, protect the environment, provide basic social services, or undertake community development" In wider usage, the term NGO can be applied to any non-profit organization which is independent from government. NGOs are typically value-based organizations which depend, in whole or in part, on charitable donations and voluntary service (Vilain, 2006). Although the NGO sector has become increasingly professionalized over the last two decades, principles of altruism and voluntarism remain key defining characteristics (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2006).

### **2.2.1 NGOs as a channel for development alternative**

Two distinct roles for NGOs are highlighted, both as service providers and advocates for the poor. The service provider advocate divide differentiates between the pursuit of ‘Big-D’ and ‘little-d’ development (Bebbington et al 2008; Hulme 2008). ‘Big-D’ development sees ‘Development’ as a project-based and intentional activity, in which tangible project outputs have little intention to make foundational changes that challenge society’s institutional arrangements. In contrast, ‘little-d’ ‘development’ regards development as an ongoing process, emphasising radical, systemic alternatives that seek different ways of organising the economy, social relationships and politics (Bebbington et al 2008). The shape of NGOs has changed over time.

While many NGOs, particularly in Latin America, were created around the explicit intention of addressing structural issues of power and inequality and expanding civil society against hegemonic or weak and unrepresentative states, they have seen a shift in their organisational character and in the nature of their work, instead adopting technical and managerial solutions to social issues such as poverty through service delivery and welfare provision (Gill, 1997). Ninety percent of registered NGOs in Kenya, for example, are involved primarily in service delivery (Brass 2011). In the process, NGOs and their activities have become professionalised and depoliticised (Kamat, 2004).

In their role as service providers, NGOs offer a broad spectrum of services across multiple fields, ranging from livelihood interventions and health and education service to more specific areas, such as emergency response, democracy building, conflict

resolution, human rights, finance, environmental management, and policy analysis (Lewis & Kanji 2009). Interests in the contribution of NGOs to service delivery did not rise only because of the enforced rollback of state services, but also because of their perceived comparative advantages in service provision, including their ability to innovate and experiment, their flexibility to adopt new programmes quickly, and most importantly, their linkages with the grassroots that offer participation in programme design and implementation, thereby fostering self-reliance and sustainability (Korten 1987; Vivian 1994; Bebbington et al 2008; Lewis and Kanji 2009). These strengths, it was widely believed, would foster “more empowering, more human, and more sustainable” forms of development (Foster, in Bebbington 2004). These grassroots linkages are, after all, the reason National non-Governmental Organisations (NNGOs) work through local partners, recognising that objectives and priorities of international organisations may not reflect those at the grassroots, and closer proximity at this level is necessary for more effective participatory designs. In the wake of failed top-down development discourse, NGOs were seen to offer the sole organizational forms that could implement the global commitment to ‘bottom-up’ development (Kamat 2004; Hearn 2007).

It was not until later in the 1990s that donors started promoting a second important role for NGOs, viewing them as organisational embodiments of civil society that could play a role in political reform (Harsh et al, 2010). While their role in as ‘democratisers of development’ (Bebbington, 2005) is highlighted as frequently as their role as service providers, rarely is it articulated how NGOs should participate in the political process to achieve this (Edwards and Hulme 1996). Challenging the state can lead to

hostile government–NGO relationships and threaten prospects for sustainability, and donors, too, are often are anxious to ignore the political realities of NGO interventions (Clark 1998). Their role as social development agencies, therefore, takes precedence over their role as political actors (Clark 1998).

According to Archer (1994), the role and contributions of NGOs in advocacy and empowerment is difficult to define, but we can look at their efforts along a broad spectrum. At one end are those NGOs actively intervening in democracy-building and transforming state societal relations, such as those emerging to mobilise and support radical social movements in the early ‘NGO decade’ in Latin America. NGOs are vastly constrained in this sphere, seeking instead to convince governments that they are non-political. Instead, at the other end of the spectrum, most NGOs seek ‘empowerment’ as an indirect outcome of their wider service delivery activities. People-centred and participatory approaches to service delivery are suggested in this approach to lead to local-level capacity building in the long run, fostering a stronger democratic culture in which changes are hypothesised to feed into local and national institutions and processes (Srinivas, 2009). Others argue that NGOs pursue advocacy by stealth, by working in partnership with the government through which they can demonstrate strategies and methods for more effective service provision (Batley 2011; Rose 2011). The inability and/or unwillingness of NGOs to engage in political dimensions has forced us to re-evaluate early claims that NGOs can promote democracy with a caveat: NGOs promote democracy *only* when they contribute to the improvement of citizen participation (Hudock 1999; Ghosh 2009).

NGOs do, therefore, have a strong political dimension, even within service delivery and welfare provision (White 1999; Townsend et al 2004). Ghosh's (2009) description of NGOs as 'political institutions' highlights the difficulties NGOs face in remaining nonpolitical (or convincing the government they are non-political) while advancing their and their clients' interests in a highly political arena. One account of NGOs in Uganda, too, highlights the delicate balance NGOs play in becoming "entangled in the politics of being non-political" (Dicklitch and Lwanga 2003). Viewing NGOs as strengtheners of democracy and civil society is, therefore, an overly generous view, given they must embark on advocacy work in incremental ways and can rarely operate in ways that reach genuine transformative agendas. Throughout the 1990s, NGOs may have been viewed largely as 'heroic organisations' seeking to do good in difficult circumstances (Lewis and Kanji 2009), but this rose-tinted view has been rolled back amidst increasing acknowledgement that NGOs are not living up to their expectations. A number of emerging criticisms highlight problems of representativeness, limitations to effectiveness and empowerment, and difficulties remaining loyal to their distinctive values, which are all undermining the legitimacy of NGOs (Atack, 1999). That early worries have yet to be systematically addressed by NGOs has led to them becoming fully-fledged concerns and criticisms, and as NGOs have become increasingly professionalised and service-oriented, their proposed (Lewis and Kanji, 2009)

### **2.3 Role for NGOs in Development**

The 1970s and 1980s saw the emergence of advocacy groups, national and international NGO consortia, and the extension of cooperation with official aid agencies in Latin America and elsewhere. (Lewis & Madon 2004) In Africa, the emergence of self-help groups and their associations led to adaptations of aid flows and procedures to benefit local groups. Overall, evaluations by donor countries confirm that international NGOs have been effective in their ability to work at the grassroots level and to operate in remote areas, or those sectors that did not have efficient development activity. Their role in sensitizing governments and development organizations to the environmental considerations of projects is well documented. But there are limitations in the area of management, local staff training, and the ability to replicate projects and collaborate at appropriate levels with government services (Riddell, Roger & Robinson, 2001).

Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) have grown rapidly in number in recent years and now are taking on a larger role in development work. Their influence has grown with the growth in their numbers and in the amounts that they disburse (Chand, 1991). In 1983, NGOs from developed countries provided grants of some \$3.6 billion (equal to 13 percent of official development assistance), mostly raised by themselves, to developing countries. By 1987, such NGOs were providing about \$5.5 billion--nearly \$1 billion more than credits from the International Development Association (IDA) in 1988 (Howes, 2005).

NGOs should be judged, however, not so much by their numbers and resource flows as by contribution they make to raising awareness of development issues and moving other institutions to become more responsive to the needs of the poor (Dhakal, 2000). But not all NGOs are well equipped for this task, despite the best of intentions. Many small NGOs still need to develop their managerial capacity. A large number are founded and managed by one leader. There is occasional mismanagement, or even misdirection, of mission in any number of countries. To encourage mutual support among NGOs in developing countries, NGO umbrella organizations are being strengthened by NGOs themselves or through external assistance (Howes, 2005).

Traditionally, NGOs, being voluntary organizations, have tended to keep costs down. With the professionalization of staff associated with the shift in the nature of their work away from immediate relief, administrative and training costs have tended to increase. Recently in Chad and elsewhere in Africa, questions have been raised about NGO overhead costs in comparison with the for-profit consulting sector. In Bangladesh, where NGOs are more numerous, costs seem to be within acceptable limits and NGO staff salaries and benefits are on par with those of comparable government employees. Measuring benefits from the work of NGOs is complex, particularly when the benefits are long term or intangible. Further, the absence of starting data constrains analysis of recent trends (Robinson, 2003).

For many years, the basic focus of evaluation of NGOs was on small projects initiated by NGOs, or the assessment of NGO components within large projects. In recent years, there has been a movement away from project-centered evaluation to assess the



institutional development contributions of NGOs. In this process, there has also been greater awareness of the relevance of government actions to the effectiveness and outcome of NGO endeavors (Robinson, 2003).

#### **2.4 Influence of insecurity on NGOs operations**

Insecurity is one of the issues that affect NGO operations. For example according to Aid Worker Security Report (2012) in 2011, 308 aid workers were killed, kidnapped or wounded the highest number yet recorded. After declining in 2010, total incidents of violence against aid workers rose again, particularly kidnappings. Most of these attacks continued to take place in a small number of countries: Afghanistan, Somalia, South Sudan, Pakistan and Sudan. Statistical analysis suggests that attacks on aid workers are most prevalent in weak, unstable states and those experiencing active armed conflict. These attacks are also correlated to low levels of rule of law (Aid Worker Security Report, 2012).

According to the Aid Worker Security Database (AWSDB), the number of major attacks against aid workers rose in 2011, reversing a two-year decline. Worldwide there were 151 major incidents of violence against civilian aid operations, and the total number of victims of these attacks, 308, is the highest yet recorded. Of these, 86 aid workers were killed, 127 were seriously wounded, and 95 were kidnapped. Since 2009, kidnappings have become the most frequent means of violence against aid workers, showing the steepest and steadiest rise out of all tactics over the past decade. According to the data, the majority of kidnappings of aid workers (at least 85 per cent) do not end in the victim's death, but commonly with a negotiated release, with a small

number of rescues and escapes. It should be noted also that the dataset likely does not capture all cases of kidnapping, as some organisations and victims' families keep the crime and negotiations secret. It is reasonable to assume that there are even greater numbers of (survived) kidnappings than shown, particularly of nationals (AWSO 2011).

The rate of aid worker killings appear to be independent of overall murder rates in the host state, the type of political regime in place and the degree of societal openness. The above suggests that attacks on humanitarian workers are a symptom of state failure as well as a product of war. This limits options for humanitarian actors, as the host states formally responsible for providing secure access for aid operations are fundamentally ill-equipped to do so. Aid agencies must analyse the potential of the host government to protect and assist aid operations in each context, understanding that where the capacity or political will for this is absent, they are wholly responsible for their own security (AWSO 2011).

Separate incidents during the years 1997–2008 in which one or more NGO workers were seriously harmed by deliberate violence. The average number of major incidents for each of the past three years (127) represents an 89% increase from the prior three-year period, 2003–2005, and a 177% increase from the annual average going back to 1997. Of course, as humanitarian funding has increased and organisations have grown, so the size of the 'humanitarian footprint' has also increased. This does not explain the rise in incidents, however. When measured against the total number of aid workers in the field, the number of victims has outstripped the expanding aid worker population

(which topped 290,000 in 2008), resulting in a rising rate of attacks per 10,000 workers. (Aid Worker Security Report 2012).

The 2006 report identified a trend in increasing casualty rates for national (locally hired) staff, relative to their numbers in the field, compared with international (expatriate) staff. This was attributed to organisations' increased use of remote management and outsourcing of aid delivery in dangerous environments, fuelled by the (often faulty) assumption that nationals are less likely to be victims of violence than expatriate staff. Over the long term this trend still holds, but the past three years have also witnessed a sharp increase in the rate of attacks against international staff, which heretofore had been declining. As subsequent findings illustrate, this is symptomatic of a growing politicization of violence against aid operations in a small number of highly insecure contexts. (Dhakal, 2000)

Of the three main categories of humanitarian organisation – UN agencies, the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) and NGOs – only the ICRC showed a decline in attack rates over the past three years. Both NGOs and the UN saw a rise in attacks relative to their field staff numbers. The rise in attacks on UN aid workers is mainly attributable to the heavy casualties suffered by national staff and contractors, particularly truck drivers. The incident rate for the UN's international staff declined slightly, indicating that the marked rise in the casualty rate among international staff was borne primarily by NGOs. (Stoddard and DiDomenico 2008).

ICRC rates have declined over the past few years, though caution is needed in making attributions here. The ICRC's field staff population is relatively small compared to the

other two types of institution, which exaggerates the relative effects of small changes in numbers. It is noteworthy, however, that the ICRC has made significant progress in reshaping its security management strategy, including active dialogue with potential threat sources and an emphasis on its unique mandate as an independent and strictly neutral entity. Looking at the attack rates of individual organisations does not reveal strong patterns that would suggest that certain profiles or approaches are more likely to be targeted. From a preliminary review of individual agency rates, it does not appear that organisations which we might expect to be more popular targets – faith-based agencies, vocal advocacy actors or US-based organisations, for instance – were experiencing a higher rate of attacks compared to the rest of the community. (Stoddard, Harmer and DiDomenico 2008)

As security worsens, NGO operations are often scaled back or withdrawn, affecting both the quality and quantity of assistance beneficiaries receive. As the 2006 report pointed out, measuring access is, however, a challenging pursuit. There are as yet no objective or robust means to comprehensively assess claims that access is declining, and views on this differ. While the overall footprint of the international assistance community might have shrunk in a given country, some agencies may have maintained or even increased their operational presence in response to the withdrawal of other agencies. ICRC, for example, maintains that it has increased its operational engagement in some very insecure contexts, and has done so with international staff and without armed escorts, armoured cars or military protection. Nonetheless, a review of incident reports in 2008 shows that, over the course of the year, at least 12

large NGO programmes were suspended in six different countries after serious attacks, affecting an unknown number of beneficiaries. (Aid Worker Security Report 2012).

Of the 380 incidents in the AWSD for 2006–2008, 82 resulted in suspension, withdrawal or relocation, in 15 countries. While this is by no means an exhaustive survey, the available data do serve to highlight some trends in access. Each year saw nearly a doubling of the previous number of programme suspensions due to insecurity. The largest increase was in Somalia, with nine-fold growth over 2007, representing more than 40% of incidents in 2008. There were also notable increases in Afghanistan and Chad (both up nearly four times between 2007 and 2008).

UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance (OCHA) has developed a tracking system to monitor and report access constraints, and this is currently being piloted in six insecure contexts.<sup>10</sup> Its reports indicate that, from January 2008 onwards, UN international staff presence in Somalia fell by 41%; the NGO international staff presence declined by 13% in south and central Somalia (SCZ), while increasing by 50% in Somaliland and Puntland. For one NGO, the decision to withdraw staff and close down its programme of therapeutic feeding affected 280 severely malnourished children. The agency also closed a surgical programme, providing emergency trauma and obstetric care, which had performed approximately 70 operations and 200 emergency consultations a month. (Platteau, 1991)

NGO workers in the most dangerous settings face few options. In places like Sudan (Darfur), Somalia and Afghanistan, the choice boils down to reducing or withdrawing essential aid from needy populations, or running intolerable risks to the lives of staff

and partners. If the greater portion of international humanitarian aid organisations were able to achieve independence and project an image of neutrality this would surely enhance operational security and benefit humanitarian action as a whole. However, it is important that organisations are not misled into believing that this in itself will result in increased security for their staff in the most insecure environments, at least in the short term. (Wille and Larissa Fast 2010)

## **2.5 Influence of government environment on NGO operations**

Governments can also pose challenges to the aid community through overbearing or ill-advised use of their security forces. In its worst form, aid workers can themselves be caught or directly targeted in government forces' hostilities (Petrie, 2012). Host states often have multiple motivations for exercising militant measures when it comes to aid interventions, not least of which is to make a show of strength of their security forces. This generally applies to all foreign guests in the country, such as the diplomatic community and multinational entities, as well as aid workers. It can manifest as counterproductive, deterrence-driven measures such as highly visible armed protection for aid convoys, which not only compromises the aid workers' neutrality and independence, but can also draw fire. Often another unspoken interest of governments is to police the aid agencies themselves and control their activities. Host governments sometimes restrict movements within, or access to, specific strategic areas, such as those controlled by an insurgency (Wille & Fast, 2010). Host state security measures can also signal ownership by the state of the humanitarian response, which the government may seek in order to increase its popular support, but

which undermines humanitarians' neutrality and independence when the government is party to the conflict.

In Pakistan, for example, armed escorts for aid operations became mandatory for international staff in some provinces after a series of kidnappings in early 2012, and the government issued clear warnings to its security agencies that they were to ensure no further incidents occur against foreigners. In some instances NGOs have refused to go to the field rather than travel with the required armed escorts. Some international agencies observed that Pakistan has gradually become more restrictive of their movements and activities since 2008. Said one, 'it is presented as necessary for our own protection. Any incident will be bad PR for the government, and we're at their invitation. (Anzar, 2002)

According to research, democratic regimes are strongly correlated with operations of NGOs. In Nepal, for example, NGOs have been present since the 1950s, when the feudal regime was officially abolished. When the education system became more centrally controlled in 1971, the role and impact of civil society decreased. However, a new space for civil society opened up parallel to the democratization and liberalization of the country in the 1990s (UNESCO, 2001*b*). In Latin America, growing cooperation between NGOs and the authorities is considered a consequence of the emergence of democratic regimes (Degnbø-Martinussen and Engberg-Pedersen, 1999). Many countries in the developing world remain hostile towards NGOs, but some have become more open over time. Whereas China is a recurrent example of the former attitude, Degnbø-Martinussen (1999) refers to Indonesia as an example of the

latter. In Asia and the Middle East, governments have attempted to co-opt and subordinate NGOs as client organizations or have created so-called GONGOs (governmental NGOs). Within the NGO sector in some of these countries, organizations actively work against independent development-oriented NGOs. In sub-Saharan Africa, governmental control is described in more widely varying terms, ranging from repression to a milder form of control-orientation (Degnbol-Martinussen, and Engberg-Pedersen, 1999).

In Kenya, the new governmental dispensation has provided Kenyans with more political space to undertake their own development initiatives. People at all levels of society are more prepared to pursue their own development activities rather than wait for government and external actors to provide services, relief and welfare support. Improved infrastructure (roads, electricity, IT, communications, water, market access) provides more development opportunities to poor people and their communities. Tax incentives are now encouraging donations to registered charities. GoK is also enhancing the performance of its line Ministries, who are now all on performance contracts. GoK technical personnel are now willing to partner with NGOs who need not duplicate skills that are already locally available. (Kitamura, 2007)

The proposed new NGO Bill and Act, provides both opportunities and threats to the NGO community. If the NGO Council effectively lobbies for the NGOs in an informed and professional manner, a more enabling environment for this sector may result. Alternatively it is possible for the Sector to lose its self regulating mechanism and be controlled by a single government-appointed body. In some regions, in



particular South Rift and North Eastern, NGO leaders identified the interference of local politicians and civic leaders as a major hindrance to their work. Where NGOs are involved in sensitive issues, such as land disputes, local leaders can threaten NGOs with de-registration. NGOs are not aware that the Board - and potentially the Council - are there to protect them from such intimidation. (Gill, 1997).

Political culture is another important aspect of that can influence NGO operations. The scope and nature of NGO work is determined largely by the political culture – whether there is a tradition of well-functioning civil society organizations or not. South Asia, for example, has a long history of indigenous NGOs working in education (Moran, 2004). India, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka are countries that are recognized for their openness towards NGOs. According to Ahmad (2006), “there are probably more and bigger NGOs in Bangladesh than in any other country of its size”. Their influence has led to an increasing impact and political influence on government. As a result, in recent years, “government has been incorporating NGOs into various committees with other line ministries from unions to the national levels and sharing and learning from the experience of NGOs in different sectors” (Alam, no date). Nevertheless, in some countries, NGOs are not perceived as legitimately representing national or local civil society. In some countries, faith-based organizations might be more representative of a given community and might thus be more successful in creating partnerships with the government (faith-based organizations may also constitute operating development NGOs , although this distinction is not always clear). In other countries, the legislation has established a strong regulative framework for NGOs, restricting their activities and the possibilities for scaling up (Mayhew, 2005). Such regulation may actually be to the

benefit of NGOs. In countries that have had to deal with so called ‘briefcase’ NGOs – NGOs created exclusively for personal profit – legislation has proved helpful for serious NGOs, such as in Pakistan (Anzar, 2002). In the absence of regulation, where self-reporting is the only way to measure accountability, governments are likely to be more reticent towards NGOs. Government regulation might therefore prove to be a source for cooperation between NGOs and governments. Egypt and Thailand are countries that originally were sceptical of NGOs, but a change in attitude has taken place as a consequence of NGOs’ increasingly important role as service providers (Clayton & Taylor, 2000).

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the methodology that is to be used in the study. The chapter presents a detailed description of the research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedure will be discussed. In addition, description of the research instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques were also discussed.

#### **3.2 Research design**

According to Orodho (2003), research design is what holds all the elements of the research project together. The research design used in this study was descriptive survey, which is a method of collecting data by interviewing or administering a questionnaire to sampled individuals. Descriptive survey also can be used to investigate a population by collecting samples to analyze and discover occurrences. The study aimed at collecting information from respondents about the factors that influence NGO operations in Garissa County. It used both primary and secondary data. Primary data was got through questionnaires and observation schedule. Secondary data was obtained from school returned records at the NGO headquarters. Both quantitative and qualitative methods shall be used in the study.

### **3.3 Target population**

The target population is all the members of the real set of people, events or objects to which the researcher wishes to generate the findings as defined by Borg and Gall (1982). The study targeted the 5 NGOs working in the district where three head of departments and 12 operations managers from each organization were used in the study.

### **3.4 Sample size and sampling procedure**

According to Best & Khan (2008), sampling makes it possible to draw valid inferences or generalizations on the basis of careful observation of variables with a relatively small proportion of the population. In this study purposive sampling was used to sample the NGOs and the respondents for the study where the organizations heads and operations managers were sampled. The 10 heads of operations in the NGOs were selected.

### **3.5 Research instrument**

The data for the study was collected using questionnaires and interview schedules. Questionnaires were designed for NGO heads of operations on the ground while the interview was used for the head of departments.

#### **3.5.1 Validity of the instruments**

Validity is the degree to which a test measures what it purports to measure (Mugenda, 2007). According to Kombo and Tromp (2009), validity of a test is a measure of how

well a test measures what it is supposed to measure. The pilot study helped to improve face validity and content of the instruments. A pilot study was carried out among 2 heads of departments, 2 heads of operations in other NGOs which was not involved in the actual study. This is as suggested to Patton and Kumor (2002) who suggest that 2 or 3 cases are adequate for pilot study. In the research the questionnaires and interviews was based on the objectives, research questions and more importantly the research topic. The researcher used face validity to review and develop an informal opinion as to whether or not the test is measuring what it is supposed to measure. Content validity on the other hand was used by the researcher to check whether the items in the questionnaire answer the research the objectives. The supervisors who were experts in the area of study validated the instruments through expert judgment (Kirk & Miller, 1986).

### **3.5.2 Reliability of the instruments**

Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) defines reliability as a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated tests when administered a number of times. To enhance the reliability of the instrument, a pilot study was conducted. The aim of pre-testing was to gauge the clarity and relevance of the instrument items so that those items found to be inadequate for measuring variables was either be discarded or modified to improve the quality of the research instruments. This was to ensure that the instrument captures all the required data. Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient formula was used.

$$r = \frac{N \Sigma xy - (\Sigma x)(\Sigma y)}{\sqrt{[N \Sigma (x)^2 - (\Sigma x)^2][N \Sigma (y)^2 - (\Sigma y)^2]}}$$

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) a coefficient of 0.80 or more shows that there is high reliability of data.

### **3.6 Methods of data collection**

The researcher sought appointment with the different NGO management team to administer the questionnaire and conduct the interview. The researcher also agreed with the respondents on when to conduct the interviews and when to collect the questionnaires upon completion.

### **3.7 Data analysis techniques**

After the data has been collected there was cross-examination to ascertain their accuracy, competences and identify those items wrongly responded to, spelling mistakes and blank spaces. Quantitative data was then be entered into the computer for analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 12.0. This generated the frequencies and percentages which were used to discuss the findings. Frequency distribution tables, pie charts and bar graphs will be used to present the data while descriptive statistics such as percentages and frequencies were used to present the qualitative data (research questions). Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient, regression analysis were used to test the relationships between variables in the hypotheses. Qualitative data was analyzed thematically.

### **3.8 Ethical considerations**

The researcher explained to the respondents the purpose of the study before involving them. He also explained how the results of the study would be important to them. The researcher also assured the respondents that their responses were only for the purpose of the study and that their identities would be treated with confidentiality.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATIONS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

#### 4.0 Introduction

This study investigated the factors influencing Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) operations in rural development initiatives. This chapter presents the findings of this study. It also discusses those findings in line with the views that had been advanced earlier in the study in then review.

#### 4.1 Response rate

Of the 15 heads of operations sampled in the study, all of them responded and returned the questionnaire. This shows that there was a fair representation of respondents.

#### 4.2 Demographic data of head of operations

The demographic data of head of operations was based on their gender, age, highest education level attained, professionalism and the duration in the organization. Table 4.1 tabulates the gender of the heads of operations

**Table 4.1 Distribution of the heads of operations according to Gender**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Male	11	73.3
Female	4	26.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>



Table 4.1 shows the distribution of respondents by gender. It indicates that majority 11(73.3%) of heads of operations were male while 4(26.7%) of heads were female. This means that both genders were not evenly represented in the leadership of the organizations. It is not possible therefore to bias the results based on gender.

Table 4.2 shows the age of the heads of operations

**Table 4.2 Distribution of the heads of operations according to Age**

<b>Age</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Below 25 years	1	6.7
25-34 years	4	26.7
35 -44 years	7	46.7
Over 54 years	3	20.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 4.2 shows that 7(46.7%) of heads were aged between 35 and 44 years, 4(26.7%) of heads were aged between 25 and 34 years while 4(20.0%) of the heads were over 54 years. The data shows that majority of the heads were relatively old and may have worked for a relatively longer time hence able to provide information on factors affecting NGOs operations in rural development.

Asked to indicate their highest education level they had attained, they responded as table 4.3

**Table 4.3 Distribution of the heads of operations according to highest education**

<b>Highest education</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Secondary level	2	13.3
College level	5	33.3
University level	3	20.0
Post graduate	5	33.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 5(33.3%) of heads of operations had postgraduate education, the same number of heads had college education. data further shows that 3(20.0%) of heads had university education while 2(13.3%) of heads had secondary education. The heads were further asked to indicate their professional qualification. Table 4.4 presents professional qualification of the heads.

**Table 4.4 Distribution of the heads of operations according to professional qualification**

<b>Professional qualification</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Masters	2	13.3
Bachelor's	9	60.0
Diploma	3	20.0
Certificate	1	6.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 9(60.0%) of heads of operation had bachelor degree 3(20.0%) of head had diploma qualifications, 2(13.3%) of heads had masters education while 1(6.7%) of head had certificate education.

**Table 4.5 Distribution of the heads of operations according to duration in the organization**

<b>Duration</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
1 – 5 years	7	46.7
6 – 10 years	8	53.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 8(53.3%) of heads had been in the organization for between 6 and 10 years while 7(46.7%) of heads for between 1 and 5 years. These findings imply that the heads had a considerable experience in the organization and hence they could provide information on the factors affecting NGOs operations in rural development. The heads were further asked to indicate the duration they had been in the current position, they responded as table 4.6

**Table 4.6 Distribution of the heads of operations according to current position**

<b>Years</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
1 – 5 years	10	66.7
6 – 10 years	5	33.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 10(66.7%) of heads of operation had been in the current position for between 1 and 5 years while 5(33.3%) of heads of operation for between 6 and 10 years. This implies that the heads had been in their current position for a considerable number of years.

### **4.3 Factors affecting NGOs operations in rural development**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the factors affecting NGOs operations in rural development in Garissa County. Factors were hypothesized as NGO, security and government related factors. This section presents findings on these factors.

#### **4.3.1 Effects of NGO related factors on NGOs operations in rural development initiatives**

To determine how the NGO related factors affect the NGOs operations in rural development initiatives, heads of operations were asked to indicate whether NGO related factors influence operations in rural development initiatives. Data is tabulated in Table 4.7

**Table 4.7 Heads of operations responses on whether NGO related factors affects NGOs operations in rural development initiatives**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Yes	12	80.0
No	3	20.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 12(80.0%) of heads revealed that NGO related factors influence operations in rural development initiatives. The study further sought to establish the heads of operations views on the NGO related factors and their effects on NGOs operations in rural development initiatives. When asked whether the NGO acts as service providers and advocates for the poor they responded as Table 4.8

**Table 4.8 Heads of operations responses on whether NGO acts as service providers and Advocates for the poor**

<b>Statement</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>		<b>Agree</b>		<b>Undecided</b>		<b>Disagree</b>		<b>Strongly disagree</b>	
	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
	Service providers	5	33.3	8	53.3			1	6.7	1
Advocates for the poor	3	20.0	8	53.3	3	20.0			1	6.7

Data shows that 8(53.3%) of the heads of operations agreed that the NGO acts both as service providers and advocates for the poor, 5(33.3%) of heads of operations strongly agreed that the NGO acts as service providers. Data further shows that 1(6.7%) of heads of operations strongly disagreed that the NGO acts as advocates for the poor and service providers. This agreed with (Brass 2011) who indicated that Ninety percent of registered NGOs in Kenya involved primarily in service delivery

The researcher further sought to establish whether the NGO were unwilling to engage in political dimension. Asked to indicate the same, Heads of operations responded as Table 4.9

**Table 4.9 Heads of operations responses on whether NGO are unwilling to engage in political dimension**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	3	20.0
Agree	7	46.7
Undecided	3	20.0
Disagree	2	13.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 7(46.7%) of heads of operations agreed that NGO were not willing to engage in political dimension, 3(20.0%) of heads of operations strongly agreed, the same number of heads were undecided on the statement while 2(13.3%) of heads of operations disagreed that the NGO were unwilling to engage in political dimension.

The data implies that NGO are rarely articulated on how they should participate in the political process.

When the heads of operations were asked whether the NGO operated as voluntary organizations, they responded as Table 4.10

**Table 4.10 Heads of operations responses on whether NGO operated as voluntary organizations**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	4	26.7
Agree	6	40.0
Undecided	3	20.0
Disagree	1	6.7
Strongly Disagree	1	6.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 6(40.0%) of heads of operations agreed that NGO operated as voluntary organizations, 4(26.7%) of heads of operations strongly agreed. Data further indicates that 3(20.0%) of heads were undecided on the statement while 1(6.7%) of heads disagreed that the NGO operated as voluntary organizations. This agreed with Robinson ( 2003) who indicated that the measuring benefits from the work of NGOs is complex, particularly when the benefits are long term and NGO staff salaries and benefits are on par with those of comparable government employees.

The researcher further sought to establish whether NGO have high capacity services.

The Heads of operations responded as Table 4.11

**Table 4.11 Heads of operations responses on whether NGO have high capacity services**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	4	26.7
Agree	5	33.3
Undecided	2	13.3
Disagree	2	13.3
Strongly Disagree	2	13.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 4.11 shows that 5(33.3%) of heads agreed that NGO have high capacity services, 4(26.7%) of heads strongly agreed with the statement. Data further shows that 2(13.3%) of heads disagreed that NGO have high capacity services while the same number of head strongly disagreed with the statement.

To establish whether there was effectiveness of funding on the NGO operations. The head of operations were asked to indicate the same. Table 4.12 shows the responses



**Table 4.12 Heads of operations responses on the effectiveness of the funding on the NGO operations.**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	3	20.0
Agree	6	40.0
Undecided	2	13.3
Disagree	2	13.3
Strongly Disagree	2	13.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Findings indicates that 6(40.0%) of heads of operations agreed that there was effectiveness of funding on the NGO operations, 3(20.0%) of heads strongly agreed. Data further shows that 2(13.3%) of heads disagreed that there was effectiveness of funding on the NGO operations while the same number of heads strongly disagreed with the statement.

The researcher was also interested in establishing whether lack of prior acquaintance affect NGO operations. Table 4.13 shows heads of operations responses on the same item.

**Table 4.13 Heads of operations response on whether lack of prior acquaintance affects NGO operations**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	3	20.0
Agree	6	40.0
Undecided	2	13.3
Disagree	2	13.3
Strongly Disagree	2	13.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 6(40.0%) of heads agreed that lack of prior acquaintance affect NGO operations, 3(20.0%) of heads strongly agreed that lack of prior acquaintance affect NGO operations.2(13.3%)of heads disagreed that lack of prior acquaintance affect NGO operations while the same number of heads strongly disagreed with the statement.

Table 4.14 shows heads of operations responses on whether logistics affects operations on the NGO in rural development initiatives

**Table 4.14 Heads of operations responses on whether logistics affects operations on the NGO in rural development initiatives**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	2	13.3
Agree	9	60.0
Undecided	3	20.0
Disagree	1	6.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 9(60.0%) of heads agreed that logistics affects operations on the NGO in rural development initiatives, 2(13.3%) of heads strongly agreed, 3(20.0%) of heads were undecided on the statement while a significant number 1(6.7%) of heads disagreed that logistics affects operations on the NGO in rural development initiatives. To establish whether the NGO had commitment to the delivery of their services, the heads of operations were asked to respond to the item that sought the same. Data is tabulated in Table 4.15

**Table 4.15 Heads of operations responses on whether NGO had commitment delivery of their services**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	3	20.0
Agree	7	46.7
Undecided	4	26.7
Disagree	1	6.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Findings indicates that 7(46.7%) of heads agreed that NGO had commitment delivery of the services, 3(20.0%) of heads strongly agreed, 4(26.7%) of heads were undecided on the statement while a significant number 1(6.7%) of the heads disagreed that NGO were committed to delivery of their services.

To establish whether NGO promoted social issues, the heads of operations were posed with an item that established the same. Table 4.16 tabulates their responses

**Table 4.16 Heads of operations responses on whether the NGO promoted social issues**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	2	13.3
Agree	6	40.0
Undecided	4	26.7
Disagree	3	20.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table shows that 6(40.0%) of heads of operations agreed that NGO promoted social issues, 2(13.3%) of heads strongly agreed with the statement. Data further shows that 4(26.7%) of heads were undecided while 3(20.0%) of heads disagreed that NGO promoted social issues

Table 4.17 shows heads of operations responses on whether the NGO internal factors influenced their operations

**Table 4.17 Heads of operations responses on whether the NGO internal factors influenced their operations**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	1	6.7
Agree	5	33.3
Undecided	2	13.3
Disagree	3	20.0
Strongly Disagree	4	26.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Findings indicates that 5(33.3%) of heads agreed that NGO internal factors influenced their operations, 4(26.7%) of heads strongly disagreed with the statement. data further shows that 3(20.0%) of heads disagreed with the statement while 2(13.3%) of heads were undecided on whether NGO internal factors influenced their operations.

To test whether there a significant relationship between NGO related factors and NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County, The model was run using the identified variable that had a strong relationship. In developing the regression, the identified variable was used. The model describes the cumulative effect of the identifiable variable. The model has an R value of .184 which suggests that the correlation coefficient of the identified independent variable to dependent variable was 0.184 This explained in simple terms is that this model is not particularly suited to

a linear form. The data revealed that there was no significant relationship between NGO related factors and NGO operations.

In order to test the hypotheses that there is no significant relationship between NGO related factors and NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County, analyses were performed using the Pearson Correlation Coefficient the data is presented in table 4.18 below.

**Table 4.18 Pearson Correlation of NGO related factors and NGO operations**

		NGO related factors	NGO operations
Pearson	NGO related factors	1.000	0.68
Si 1 - tailed	NGO operations	0.68	1.000
N	12	75	

The data shows that there was a positive relationship (0.68) between NGO related factors and NGO operations.. The results show that the NGO related factors influenced how respondents NGO operations.

#### **4.3.2 Influence of insecurity on NGOs operations**

The study looked into the influence of insecurity on NGOs operations. The responses were as follows:

**Table 4.19 Heads of operations responses on whether security factors influence operations in rural development initiatives**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Yes	8	53.3
No	7	46.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 8(53.3%) of heads revealed that security factors influence operations in rural development initiatives. This agreed with Aid Worker Security Report (2012) who indicated that insecurity is one of the issues that affect NGO operations.

Asked to indicate whether riots in the region influenced their operations, they responded as Table 4.20

**Table 4.20 Heads of operation responses on whether riots in the region influenced NGO operations**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	2	13.3
Agree	6	40.0
Undecided	1	6.7
Disagree	2	13.3
Strongly Disagree	4	26.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>



Data shows that 6(40.0%) of heads agreed that riots in the region influenced NGO operations, 2(13.3%) of heads strongly agreed with the statement, the same number of heads disagreed that riots in the region influenced NGO operations while 4(26.7%) of heads strongly disagreed with the statement.

The researcher further sought to investigate whether there was violence against aid workers, heads of operation responded as table 4.21

**Table 4.21 Heads of operations responses on whether there was violence against aid workers**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	2	13.3
Agree	8	53.3
Disagree	2	13.3
Strongly Disagree	3	20.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 8(53.3%) of heads agreed that there was violence against aid workers, 2(13.3%) of heads strongly agreed, the same number of heads disagreed with the statement while 3(20.0%) of heads strongly disagreed that there was violence against aid workers. This implies that attacks on aid workers were in the areas that experienced active armed conflict because the area was weak and unstable.

To establish whether the area experienced active armed conflict and Kidnappings of aid workers, the heads were asked to indicate the same. Data is tabulated in table 4.22

**Table 4.22 Heads of operations responses on whether the area experiences active armed conflict and Kidnappings of aid workers**

Statement	Strongly agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
	The area experiences active armed	5	33.3	7	46.7			2	13.3	1
Kidnappings of aid workers	2	13.3	8	53.3	2	13.3	1	6.7	2	13.3

Table 4.22 shows that 7(46.7%) of heads agreed that the area experienced active armed conflict, 5(33.3%) of heads strongly agreed. Data further shows that 2(13.3%) of heads disagreed with the statement while 1(6.7%) of heads strongly disagreed that that the area experienced active armed conflict. The study further shows that majority 8(53.3%) of heads agreed that they experienced Kidnappings of aid workers while 2(13.3%) of heads strongly agreed with the statement. This implies that the humanitarian services on the NGO are limited as the area is ill-equipped to the attacks. To establish whether the area have got insecure environments and poor infrastructure, the heads were asked to indicate the same. Table 4.23 presents the findings

**Table 4.23 Heads of operations responses on whether the area have got insecure environments and poor infrastructure**

Statement	Strongly agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
	Insecure environments	4	26.7	8	53.3			1	6.7	2
Kidnappings of aid workers	4	26.7	6	40.0	1	6.7	2	13.3	2	13.3

Table 4.23 shows that majority 8(53.3%) of heads agreed that they had insecure environments while 4(26.7%) of heads strongly agreed that the environment was insecure and there was kidnappings of aid workers. Findings further shows that 6(40.0%) of heads of operations agreed that there was kidnappings of aid workers while 2(13.3%) of heads strongly disagreed with the statements.

To establish whether the rural communities' experiences higher rate of attacks compared to the rest of the community, the heads were asked to indicate the same.

Table 4.24 tabulates the findings

**Table 4.24 Heads of operations responses on whether the rural communities’ experiences higher rate of attacks compared to the rest of the community**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	5	33.3
Agree	4	26.7
Disagree	4	26.7
Strongly Disagree	2	13.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 4.24 shows that 4(26.7%) of heads agreed that the rural communities’ experiences higher rate of attacks compared to the rest of the community, the same number of heads disagreed with the statement while 5(33.3%) of heads strongly agreed that the rural communities’ experiences higher rate of attacks compared to the rest of the community. This could be as a result of remote management of the rural communities and aid delivery in dangerous environments

The researcher was interested in finding out whether the government supported in protection of aid operations. Table 4.25 shows heads of operations responses

**Table 4.25 Heads of operation responses on whether the government support in protection of aid operations.**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	3	20.0
Agree	3	20.0
Undecided	3	20.0
Disagree	6	40.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 6(40.0%) of heads disagreed that the government support in protection of aid operations, 3(20.0%) of heads strongly agreed with the statement while the same number of heads agreed that the government support in protection of aid operations.

Table 4.26 shows heads of operations responses on whether insecurity leads to doubling of the previous number of programme suspensions

**Table 4.26 Heads of operations responses on whether insecurity lead to doubling of the previous number of programme suspensions**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	3	20.0
Agree	7	46.7
Disagree	1	6.7
Strongly Disagree	4	26.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 7(46.7%) of heads agreed that the insecurity lead to doubling of the previous number of programme suspensions, 3(20.0%) of heads strongly agreed with the statement while 4(26.7%) of heads strongly disagreed that insecurity lead to doubling of the previous number of programme suspensions

Table 4.27 shows heads of operations responses on whether NGO fund face security interruptions

**Table 4.27 Heads of operations responses on whether NGO fund face security interruptions**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	4	26.7
Agree	6	40.0
Undecided	2	13.3
Disagree	1	6.7
Strongly Disagree	2	13.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Findings indicates that 6(40.0%) of heads of operations agreed that NGO fund face security interruptions, 4(26.7%) of heads strongly agreed while 2(13.3%0 of heads strongly disagreed that NGO fund face security interruptions.

To establish any significant relationship between security related factors and NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County, the researcher selected variables from the questionnaire. Data showed that the  $p$  value was 0.0105 which was lesser than 0.05 hence it was concluded that there was a significant relationship between security related factors and NGO operations.

To test the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between security related factors and NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County. Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used. The data is presented in table 4.28 below.

**Table 4.28 Correlations for security related factors NGO operations**

		<b>Security related factors</b>	<b>NGO operations</b>
Pearson	Security related factors	1.000	0.75
Si 1 - tailed	NGO operations	0.75	1.000
N	15	75	

The table4.28 shows that there was strong positive (0.75) relationship between security and NGO operations.

#### **4.3.3 Influence of government environment on NGO operations**

To establish the influence of government environment on NGO operations, the researcher posed items to heads of operations that sought to establish the same. For example heads were asked whether Government factors influence operations in rural development initiatives. Table 4.29 shows their responses

**Table 4.29 Heads of operations responses on whether government factors influence operations in rural development initiatives**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Yes	12	80.0
No	3	20.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>



Majority 12(80.0%) of heads indicated that Government factors influence operations in rural development initiatives. This agreed with (Petrie, 2012) who indicated that workers be caught in government forces' hostilities that may affect the initiatives development. Table 4.30 shows heads of operations responses on the effect of government factors on operations in rural development initiatives

**Table 4.30 Heads of operations responses on the effect of government factors on operations in rural development initiatives**

Government factors	Strongly agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Enabling environment	4	26.7	5	33.3	2	13.3	2	13.3	2	13.3
Political situation	5	33.3	6	40.0			2	13.3	2	13.3
Government restrictions	6	40.0	6	40.0			3	20.0		
Democratic system	4	26.7	10	66.7	1	6.7				
Tax incentives	5	33.3	7	46.7			2	13.3	1	6.7

Findings indicates that 5(33.3%) of heads of operations agreed that government enabling environments influence the operations in rural development initiatives, the same number of heads strongly agreed that political situation influence operations in rural development initiatives. The study further indicates that 6(40.0%) of heads agreed that political situation influence operations. Majority 10(66.7%) of heads agreed that democratic systems of the government influence the operation while 7(46.7%) of heads agreed that tax incentives influence the operations in rural

development initiatives. This agrees with (Kitamura, 2007) who indicated that improved infrastructure provides more development opportunities to poor people and their communities and tax incentives are encouraging donations to registered charities.

Asked to indicate whether local politicians and civic leaders influence the operations in rural development initiatives, they responded as Table 4.31

**Table 4.31 Heads of operations responses on whether local politicians and civic leaders influence the operations in rural development initiatives**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	5	33.3
Agree	8	53.3
Disagree	1	6.7
Strongly Disagree	1	6.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 8(53.3%) of heads of operations agreed that local politicians and civic leaders influence the operations in rural development initiatives, 5(33.3%) of heads strongly agreed while a significant number 1(6.7%) of heads of operations disagreed that local politicians and civic leaders influence the operations in rural development initiatives. The heads of operations added that political culture and community culture were also among other factors that influenced NGO operations in rural development initiatives

To examine the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between governments related factors and NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County, analyses were performed using the Pearson Correlation Coefficient the data is presented in table 4.32 below.

**Table 4.32 Correlations on government related factors and NGO operations**

		<b>Government related factors</b>	<b>NGO operations</b>
Pearson	Government related factors	1.000	0.58
Si 1 - tailed	NGO operations	0.58	1.000
N	15	75	

‘The scores obtained on the independent variable (government related factors) were correlated with the predicted variable NGO operations. The results indicated that there was a positive relationship between the two variables as indicated by a correlation of 0.58. The results indicated that government related factors influenced NGO operations

To establish whether there is no significant relationship between government related factors and NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County,

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

The chapter presents the summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations.

The study also presents the suggestions for further studies.

#### **5.2 Summary**

The purpose of the study was to establish the factors influencing Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County, Kenya. Three research objectives guided the study. Research objective one sought to determine how NGO related factors affects NGOs operations in rural development initiatives , objective two sought to determine how security related factors affects NGOs operations in rural development initiatives while research objective three sought to explore the effects of government related factors on NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa county. The researcher adopted descriptive survey design in carrying out the study. The target population of the study was 5 NGOs working in the district where three head of departments and 12 operations managers from each organization were used in the study. Data was collected by use of questionnaire and was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Findings of the study revealed that NGO related factors influence operations in rural development initiatives as indicated by majority 12(80.0%) of heads. Majority

8(53.3%) of the heads of operations agreed that the NGO acts both as service providers and advocates for the poor. The study further revealed that NGO were not willing to engage in political dimension as indicated by majority of the heads. It was also revealed that NGO were rarely articulated on how they should participate in the political process. The measuring benefits from the work of NGOs was complex, particularly when the benefits are long term and NGO staff salaries and benefits are on par with those of comparable government employees. The findings further indicated that lack of prior acquaintance affect NGO operations and majority 9(60.0%) of heads agreed that logistics affects operations on the NGO in rural development initiatives. In order to test the hypotheses that there is no significant relationship between NGO related factors and NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis showed that there was a positive relationship (0.68) between NGO related factors and NGO operations.

These findings agree with Lewis and Kanji (2009) who found that in their role as service providers, NGOs offer a broad spectrum of services across multiple fields, ranging from livelihood interventions and health and education service to more specific areas, such as emergency response, democracy building, conflict resolution, human rights, finance, environmental management, and policy analysis. According to Archer (1994), the role and contributions of NGOs in advocacy and empowerment is difficult to define, but we can look at their efforts along a broad spectrum. At one end are those NGOs actively intervening in democracy-building and transforming state societal relations, such as those emerging to mobilise and support radical social movements in the early 'NGO decade' in Latin America.

Findings on the influence of insecurity on NGOs operations, the study revealed that security factors influence operations in rural development initiatives as indicated by majority 8(53.3%) of heads. Majority 8(53.3%) of heads agreed that there was violence against aid workers while heads agreed that the area experienced active armed conflict. This implies that the humanitarian services on the NGO are limited as the area is ill-equipped to the attacks. The study further revealed that the heads had insecure environments as indicated by majority 8(53.3%) of the heads. It was also revealed that operations of the NGO fund faced security interruptions. To test the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between security related factors and NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County. Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis indicated that there was strong positive (0.75) relationship between security and NGO operations.

The findings are in line with Aid Worker Security Report (2012) in 2011, 308 aid workers were killed, kidnapped or wounded the highest number yet recorded. After declining in 2010, total incidents of violence against aid workers rose again, particularly kidnappings. Most of these attacks continued to take place in a small number of countries: Afghanistan, Somalia, South Sudan, Pakistan and Sudan.

According to the Aid Worker Security Database (AWSD), the number of major attacks against aid workers rose in 2011, reversing a two-year decline. Worldwide there were 151 major incidents of violence against civilian aid operations, and the total number of victims of these attacks, 308, is the highest yet recorded. Of these, 86 aid workers were killed, 127 were seriously wounded, and 95 were kidnapped.

Findings on the influence of government environment on NGO operations indicated that Government factors influence operations in rural development initiatives as shown by majority 12(80.0%) of heads. The heads further indicated that government enabling environments influence the operations in rural development initiatives and that political situation influence operations in rural development initiatives. Majority 10(66.7%) of heads agreed that democratic systems of the government influence the operation. Majority 8(53.3%) of heads of operations agreed that local politicians and civic leaders influence the operations in rural development initiatives. To examine the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between governments related factors and NGOs operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County, Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis showed that there was a positive relationship between the two variables as indicated by a correlation of 0.58. The results indicated that government related factors influenced NGO operations

According to Degnbø-Martinussen and Engberg-Pedersen, (1999) research, democratic regimes are strongly correlated with operations of NGOs. In Nepal, for example, NGOs have been present since the 1950s, when the feudal regime was officially abolished. When the education system became more centrally controlled in 1971, the role and impact of civil society decreased. However, a new space for civil society opened up parallel to the democratization and liberalization of the country in the 1990s (UNESCO, 2001*b*). In Latin America, growing cooperation between NGOs and the authorities is considered a consequence of the emergence of democratic regimes. Degnbø et al (1999) further states that in Asia and the Middle East, governments have attempted to co-opt and subordinate NGOs as client organizations

or have created so-called GONGOs (governmental NGOs). Within the NGO sector in some of these countries, organizations actively work against independent development-oriented NGOs. In sub-Saharan Africa, governmental control is described in more widely varying terms, ranging from repression to a milder form of control-orientation.

### **5.3 Conclusions**

Based on the findings of the study, the study concluded that NGO related factors influence operations in rural development initiatives and that the NGO acts both as service providers and advocates for the poor. The study further concluded that NGOs were not willing to engage in political dimension as indicated by majority of the heads. It was further concluded that measuring benefits from the work of NGOs was complex, particularly when the benefits are long term and NGO staff salaries and benefits are on par with those of comparable government employees.

The study further concluded that security factors influence operations in rural development initiatives and there was violence against aid workers while heads agreed that the area experienced active armed conflict. The study further concluded that the humanitarian services on the NGO are limited as the area is ill-equipped to the attacks.

It was further concluded that government factors influence operations in rural development initiative. Government enabling environments influence the operations in rural development initiatives and that political situation influence operations in rural development initiatives. The study lastly concluded that democratic systems of the



government influence the operation. and the local politicians and civic leaders influence the operations in rural development initiatives.

#### **5.4 Recommendations**

Based on the findings of the study, the following are the recommendation for the study:

- (i) The government agencies should work in corroboration with the NGOs in coming out with suggestions to address challenges faced by the NGOS in their operations.
- (ii) To eliminate the difficulties that NGOs face in remaining nonpolitical, the NGO operations should have a strong political dimension, even within service delivery and welfare provision

#### **5.5 Suggestions for further research**

Taking the limitations and delimitations of the study, the study suggested that since the study was taken in one administrative county, there is need to carry out a similar study in another area so as to compare the findings.

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## APPENDIX I

### INTRODUCTORY LETTER TO RESPONDENTS

Abdiaziz Sheikh

Department of Extra Mural

Studies University of Nairobi

Dear Sir / Madam,

#### **RE: REQUEST TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN YOUR ORGANIZATION**

I am Abdiaziz Sheikh a Degree of Master of Arts in Project Planning and Management student at University of Nairobi. I am conducting a research to determine “ **factors influencing Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) operations in rural development initiatives in Garissa County, Kenya.**” I therefore kindly request you to allow me conduct research in your organization. The information obtained will be purely for the purpose of this research and the identity of the respondents will be treated as strictly confidential.

Thank you for your cooperation and assistance.

Yours Sincerely,

Abdiaziz Sheikh



## APPENDIX II

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE RESPONDENTS

#### Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) operations in rural development initiatives

(Instruction-tick where appropriate)

#### SECTION 1: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender

Male  Female

2. Age in years

Below 25 years  25 – 34 years

35 – 44 years  45 – 54 years

Over 54 years

3. Highest education level attained

Secondary level  College level  University level

Post graduate

4. What is your professional qualification?

Doctorate  Masters  Bachelor's  Diploma

Certificate  None

3. How long have you been in this organization?

Below 1 year  1 – 5 years  6 – 10 years

11 – 15 years

16 – 20 years  Over 20 years

4. How long have you worked in the current position?

Below 1 year  1 – 5 years  6 – 10 years

11 – 15 years  16 – 20 years  Over 20 years

#### SECTION 2: NGO RELATED FACTORS ON NGOS OPERATIONS

5. Do you think NGO related factors influence operations in rural development initiatives?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

6. The statements below relate to NGO factors that could influence operations in rural development initiatives. Supplied also are five options corresponding to these statements: Strongly agree(SA)=5, Agree(A)=4, Undecided(U)=3, Disagree(D)=2, and Strongly Disagree(SD)=1.

Please circle the option that best suits your opinion on the statement given

<b>NGO factors</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>
Service providers					
Advocates for the poor					
Unwillingness to engage in political dimension					
Voluntary organizations					
High capacity services					
Effectiveness of the funding					
Lack of prior acquaintances					
Logistics					
Commitment to the delivery of the services					
Promoting social issues					
NGO internal factors					

**SECTION 3: SECURITY RELATED FACTORS**

7. Do you think security factors influence operations in rural development initiatives?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

8. The statements below relate to security factors influencing operations in rural development initiatives. Supplied also are five options corresponding to these statements: Strongly agree(SA)=5, Agree(A)=4, Undecided(U)=3, Disagree(D)=2, and Strongly Disagree(SD)=1.

Please circle the option that best suits your opinion on the statement given

<b>Security factors</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>
Riots in the region					
Violence against aid workers					
Violence against civilian aid operations					
Active armed conflict					
Kidnappings of aid workers					
Insecure environments					
Poor infrastructure					
Support of the government in protection in aid operations					
Rural communities experience higher rate of attacks compared to the rest of the community					
Insecurity lead to doubling of the previous number of programme suspensions					
NGO fund face security interruptions					

#### **SECTION 4: GOVERNMENT RELATED FACTORS**

9. Do you think Government factors influence operations in rural development initiatives?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

10. The statements below relate to government factors influencing operations in rural development initiatives. Supplied also are five options corresponding to these statements: Strongly agree(SA)=5, Agree(A)=4, Undecided(U)=3, Disagree(D)=2, and Strongly Disagree(SD)=1.

11. Please circle the option that best suits your opinion on the statement given

<b>Government factors</b>	5	4	3	2	1
Enabling environment					
Political situation					
Government restrictions					
Democratic system					
Tax incentives					
Local politicians and civic leaders					

12. Kindly list other factors influencing NGO operations in rural development initiatives.

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**THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME**