A CRITICAL ASSESSMENT OF CHALLENGES OF SUSTAINABILITY IN THE OPERATIONS OF ANGOLAN NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS (NGOs): A CASE STUDY OF ACTIVITIES OF NGOs SAVE THE CHILDREN AND FUNDAÇÃO YME, FROM 2000 TO 2010

BY
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THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE ZIMBABWE OPEN UNIVERSITY IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

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“If you want to reap in three years, plant wheat; if you want to reap in ten years, plant a tree; but if you want to reap forever, develop man”.

Chinese Proverb.
Declaration

Declaration of the candidate

This Thesis is my original work. It has not been presented at any other University for degree or any other award.

_________________________      __________________
Filipe Bulola Pange Date

Declaration by the Supervisor

This Thesis has been submitted with my approval as University Supervisor.

____________________                                                   _____________
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Abstract

Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) have gained an important role in development co-operation during the last two decades. The development funding channelled through NGOs has increased and the number of NGOs engaged in development activities, both in Africa and Asia, has been growing. This qualitative case study set out to assess the critical challenges of sustainability in the operations of Angolan NGO’s Social activities and the capacity building process carried out by the NGO Save the Children and NGO Fundação YME, from 2000 to 2010 in Angola. This case study research was based on the organisation Save the Children and an indigenous organisation, NGO Fundação YME, located and operating in Cabinda, Luanda, Benguela, Huila and Namibe provinces of Angola. The aim was to evaluate the following major research question: what are the underlying factors in the challenges of sustainability in the operations of the national Angolan non-governmental organisations? The sub-questions were: Why are foreign NGOs’ operations sustainable while local NGOs’ activities are non-sustainable? Why does the challenge of sustainability in their operations continue to mount in indigenous
NGOs as shown by the non-sustainability of many NGOs in Angola? What are the mechanisms or policies for sustainability used by successful NGOs? How do human, material and financial factors enhance sustainable development outcomes in NGOs? What opportunities exist in Angola for the realisation of sustainability of NGOs? To answer the above questions, a number of qualitative methods and techniques were used to collect and analyse data. Among other techniques that were used are:

Focus Group discussions with employees and volunteers, observations, key informant interviews with different categories of participants depending on their roles and level of involvement in the implementation of NGOs projects and also their experience in the implementation of donor aided programs. These discussions were guided by different interviews scheduled with respective participants. Conclusions drawn from the empirical study were among others, the major factors contributing to the mounting challenges of sustainability of NGOs social activities in Angola, were lack of effective leadership in the NGOs, poor strategic planning, poor vision and mission statement. This research among others, recommended that there is need to provide for strategic planning based on accurate information. Planning and managing the sustainability of NGOs requires the availability of accurate and timely information that links together resource inputs to NGO managerial outputs and process and appropriate indicators of the knowledge, skills, and values acquired by the employees. Therefore, it was recommended that efforts should be made to provide among others support reforms that focus on job training and management outcomes.

Acknowledgements

An academic Thesis is both an individual and a collective effort. The thesis presented to the Zimbabwe Open University grew out of the efforts of multiple actors who made their contributions, some without knowing the significance of their participation. I am especially indebted to my former Supervisor Prof. Jameson Kurasha who without hesitation assisted me to develop my research proposal. I wish to thank him for his support and contributions in the preparation of this document. My special thanks go to my Supervisor Prof. Dr. Bornface C. Chisaka, a living encyclopedia, who tirelessly assisted me with his valuable advices, comments and final touches on the qualitative research methodology. I also wish to thank Dr. Adolph
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Dedication

This thesis is firstly dedicated to the Almighty God who has given me the wisdom and power to start and end this project. Secondly, to my late parents Mr. António Magita and Ms. Isabel Ndenga, who instilled in me the knowledge of the word of God and imparted in me that the fear of the Lord is the beginning of knowledge (Proverbs 1:7-8) You really instilled in me a strong sense of discipline, probity and hard-working attributes that are vital in a project of this nature.
Thirdly, to my precious wife Filomena Lussaty Bulola Pange, for the encouragement and support she gave me during many sleepless nights of reading and writing. Finally, to my children specially to Princess daughter Prisca Bieni Pange, you are great.

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**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONTENTS</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese Proverb</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Declaration</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedication</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table of contents</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of tables</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of figures</td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendices</td>
<td>ix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Abbreviations</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. General Introduction .................................................................................................................. 1
1.1 Historical Background of Angola .......................................................................................... 5
  1.1.1 Background to the study ................................................................................................. 6
1.2 Statement of the problem ........................................................................................................ 11
1.3 Research questions ............................................................................................................... 13
1.4 Objectives of the study .......................................................................................................... 13
1.5 Assumptions of the study ...................................................................................................... 14
1.6 Significance of the study ....................................................................................................... 14
1.7 Delimitation of the study ...................................................................................................... 15
1.8 Limitations of the study ........................................................................................................ 15
1.9 Organization of the study ..................................................................................................... 17
1.10 Definition of special terms and expressions ........................................................................ 19
1.11 Chapter summary ............................................................................................................... 22

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2. Introduction ................................................................................................................................. 23
  2.1 Review of NGOs’ Functions in sustainable community development ..................................... 24
  2.2 Role of Civil Society organisations in Angola ....................................................................... 34
CHAPTER III: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction
3.2 Research Paradigm

3.2.1 Philosophical Perspectives of Qualitative Research

3.3 Research design

3.4 The Rationale for selection of the method

3.5 Description of the Site and Scope of the study

3.6 Entry into the site of the study

3.7 Population, Sample and Sampling Procedures

3.7.1 Population

3.7.2 Sample

3.7.3 Sampling procedure

3.8 Data collection instruments and procedures

3.8.1 Data collection instruments

3.8.2 Data collection procedure

3.8.3 Interviews

3.8.4 Observation

3.8.5 Document Analysis
CHAPTER IV: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4. Data Presentation and Analysis................................................................. 107

4.0 Introduction......................................................................................... 107

4.1 Background Information about the NGOs.......................................... 107

4.1.1 NGO Save the Children.................................................................. 107

4.1.2 NGO Fundação YME..................................................................... 109

4.2 Criteria of evaluation.......................................................................... 110

4.3 Study participants Labeling................................................................. 111

4.4 Findings from the empirical phase of study....................................... 112

4.4.1 Participants for the study................................................................. 112

4.5 Findings and discussions pertaining to research question I............. 126

4.5.1 What are the underlying factors accounting for the non-sustainability of the operations of the National Angolan NGOs?.................................................................................................................. 126

4.5.2 Findings pertaining to research question II.................................. 132

4.5.2.1 Why are Save the Children operations sustainable while other such NGO’s Activities are non-
CHAPTER V: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5. Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations.......................................................... 157
5.0 Introduction .................................................................................................................. 157
5.1 Summary of the study findings ................................................................................... 157
5.2 Summary of the Review of Related Literature ......................................................... 162
5.3 Summary and Discussion of the empirical study ...................................................... 165
5.3.1 What are the underlying factors accounting for the non-sustainability of the national NGO operations in Angola? ................................................................. 165
5.3.2 Discussion on research question 2: Why are Save the Children operations sustainable while other such NGOs activities are non-sustainable? ................................................................. 168
5.3.3 Discussion on research question 3: Why do the challenges of sustainability in their operations continue to mount as shown by non sustainability of many NGOs in Angola........................................... 173
5.3.4 Discussion on research question 4: Why are the mechanisms or polices for sustainable used by successful NGO such as NGO Save the Children? ................................................................. 173
5.4 Conclusions.................................................................................................................. 175
5.5 Recommendations....................................................................................................... 178
5.6 Recommendations for Further Research................................................................... 184
REFERENCES ................................................................................................................... 186

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE TITLE
PAGE
2.1 Theoretical framework of the functions of NGOs in promoting sustainable.................. 29
2.2 Stages of the systematic review.................................................................................. 53
2.3 Capacity building approaches (1) .............................................................................. 56
2.4 Capacity-building approaches...................................................................................... 58
2.5 Capacity-building framework...................................................................................... 61
2.6 The Capacity-building Model of Policy Explanation................................................. 62
3.1 The population from which the study sample was drawn........................................... 90
3.2 The profile of NGO Development Community sample for the case study.................. 91
4.1 Biodata of Profile of all participants.......................................................................... 113
4.2 Responses on whether participants were happy with the work of their NGODTs ...... 114
4.3 Findings from the observation guide................................................................. 115
4.4 Biodata for employees and Managers of NGOs............................................... 117
4.5 Distribution of participants by qualifications.................................................. 119
4.6 Distribution of Managers and Supervisors according to their experience.......... 120
4.7 Availability and non availability of management records in the NGOs............ 123
4.8 Distribution of responses on the availability of consumables......................... 125
4.9 Biodata of Findings from the observation guide............................................. 150
4.10 Biodata of the percentage of participants identifying each variable............... 154

LIST OF FIGURES

TITLE OF FIGURE
PAGE
3.1 The geographical site of the study area.......................................................... 82
4.1 NGO Save the Children Staff Training in Angola in April 2013......................... 134

APPENDICES
PAGE
Annexe I Questionnaire for NGO staff................................................................. 208
Annexe II The themes in the interviews of NGOs actors....................................... 212
Annexe III Interview schedule – NGO Station responding for assurance quality...... 214
Annexe IV Interview schedule – NGO Staff......................................................... 215
Annexe V Interview sample.................................................................................. 216
Annexe VI Format for preparation of profile of the NGO under study.................. 217
Annexe VII  Format for preparation of profile the NGO, open ended questions ......................... 220
Annexe VIII  Letter to the Ministry of Social Welfare ............................................................. 223
Annexe IX  Letter to the Directors of NGOs ................................................................. 224

List of Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADRA</td>
<td>Adventist Development and Relief Agency</td>
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<td>AFP</td>
<td>Acute Flaccid Paralysis</td>
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<td>AIDS</td>
<td>Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome</td>
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<td>CA</td>
<td>Change Agent</td>
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<td>CB</td>
<td>Capacity Building</td>
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<td>CBDO</td>
<td>Community Based Development Organisation</td>
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<td>CBO</td>
<td>Community Based Organisation</td>
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<td>CBP</td>
<td>Capacity Building Process</td>
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<td>CD</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
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<td>CDD</td>
<td>Community Driven Development</td>
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<td>CEO</td>
<td>Chief executive officer</td>
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<td>CGPP</td>
<td>Core Group Polio Project</td>
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<td>CID</td>
<td>Crime Intelligence Department</td>
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<td>CMI</td>
<td>Chr Michelsen Institute</td>
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<td>CS</td>
<td>Civil Society</td>
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<td>CSO</td>
<td>Civil Society Organisation</td>
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<td>CSPR</td>
<td>Consolidated State Performance Report</td>
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<td>DFIL</td>
<td>Derbyshire First Investment Limited</td>
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<td>DRDA</td>
<td>District Rural Development Agency</td>
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<td>FDI</td>
<td>Foreign Direct Investment</td>
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<td>FNLA</td>
<td>National Liberation Front of Angola</td>
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<td>FONGA</td>
<td>Forum of Angolan Non Governmental Organisations</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>GoA</td>
<td>Government of Angola</td>
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<td>HDI</td>
<td>Human Development Index</td>
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<td>HDR</td>
<td>Human Development Report</td>
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<td>HR</td>
<td>Human Resources</td>
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<td>HRCB</td>
<td>Human Resources Capacity Building</td>
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<td>HRCBO</td>
<td>Human Resources Capacity Building Organisation</td>
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<td>HRD</td>
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<td>Human Resources Management</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Human Resources Watch</td>
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<tr>
<td>HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>Human Immune Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome</td>
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<td>IDP</td>
<td>Institutional Development Program</td>
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<td>IDPS</td>
<td>Integrated Data Processing System</td>
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<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<td>INE</td>
<td>National Institute of Statistic</td>
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<td>INHEA</td>
<td>International Network for Higher Education in Africa</td>
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<td>INGO</td>
<td>International Non Governmental Organisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INTERPOL  International Police
MCS    Solidarity Movements and Corporate
MPLA  People’s Movement for the Liberation of Angola
NGO   Non Governmental Organisation
NGODT Non Governmental Organisation Development Team
NGOSSP Non Governmental Organisation Sector Strengthening Programme
NGO   National Non Governmental Organisation
NRD National Reconstruction Development
OCHA Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
OECD Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OGC Office of Government Commerce
PEI Polio Eradication Initiative
PPCC Public Procurement Capacity and Capability
PPEI  Project Polio Eradication Initiative
PRA Participatory Rural Appraisal
PSR Public Service Regulation
RAP Rapid Assessment Procedure
RRA Rapid Rural Appraisal
SD Sustainable Development/Social Development
SP Strategic Partner/Strategic Programme
SR  Self Reliance
TQM Total Quality Management
UNITA National Union for the Total Independence of Angola
UTCAH Humanitarian Aid Coor dination Technical Unit
UCD Universal Community Development
UN United Nations
UNCED United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNICEF United Nations International Children’s Education Fund
UNCTAD United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDO United Nations Development Organisation
UNDP United Nations Development Programme
UNEP United Nations Environment Programe
UNIDO United Nations Industrial Development organisation
UK United Kingdom
US United States
USAID United States Agency for International Development
WBR  World Bank Report
WCC World Council of Churches
WCED World Commission on Environment and Development
WGE World Growing Economy
WHO World Health Organization
WTO World Trade Organisation
YME Young Man Experience
CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

In the knowledge based global economy of the coming decades, sustainability will be the cornerstone for broad-based economic growth and poverty reduction, improving the means for people to confront new development challenges and improve their lives. Without major advances in seeking to improve the sustainability of organisations, Africa and the world over will not be able to take advantage of trade and development opportunities in a technology driven and rapidly integrating sustainable world economy. A number of case studies of NGO projects have suggested that sustainability of NGOs may have an important role to play in addressing environmental problems in developing countries (Vanooy, 2000). This qualitative study looked at a critical assessment of challenges of sustainability in the operations of Angolan NGO’s Social activities and the capacity building process carried out by the NGO Save the Children and NGO Fundação YME, from 2000 to 2010 in Angola, in the achievement of their human resource development.

According to (www.isgmit.org/projects-storage/NGOManagement) the term “non-governmental organisation (NGO)” or NGO came into use in 1945 because of the need for the UN to differentiate in its charter between participation rights for inter governmental specialized agencies and those for international private organisations. At UN, virtually all types of private bodies can be recognized as NGOs. They have to be independent from government control, not seeking to challenge governments either as a political party or by a narrow focus on human rights, non-profit-making and non-criminal. Therefore, globalization during the 20th century gave rise to the importance of NGOs. Many problems could not be solved by a nation alone. International treaties and international organizations such as the World Trade Organization (WTO) were perceived as being too centered on the interests of capitalist enterprises. In an attempt to counterbalance this trend, NGOs have developed to emphasize humanitarian issues;
developmental aid and sustainable development (Wikipedia, 2006). An NGO is a company that is set up for the purpose of providing sustainable human development through social and economic activities of the country or region where it is operating. An NGO is set up in two stages: firstly, the incorporation of the non-profit company and secondly, the application for the NGO status. Human Resources Development (HRD) as a theory is a framework for the expansion of human capital within an organisation, through the development of both the organisation and the individual to achieve performance improvement. Smith (2001), states: “The capacities of individuals depend on their access to education”. The same statement applies to organisations themselves, but it requires a much broader field to cover both areas. Human Resource Development is the integrated use of training, organisation, and career development efforts to improve individual, group and organisational effectiveness. HRD develops the key competencies that enable individuals in organisations to perform current and future jobs through planned learning activities. Groups within organisations use HRD to initiate and manage change. Also, HRD ensures a match between individual and organisational needs.

'Sustainable development' is generally defined, following Uphoff (1995), as development which meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the needs of future generations. The problems with the vagueness and generality of this definition have been much discussed (e.g. Black et al., 1992; Redclift, 1987), but sustainable development remains very much an operational phrase within the development literature. Although it takes on different meanings in different contexts, it usually implies a growth in productive activities which does not result in the irreversible depletion of natural resources. The issues addressed by the sustainable development paradigm include international problems such as ozone depletion and global warming, as well as national-level issues such as the destruction caused by resource extraction or industrial pollution. All of these are significant elements of the sustainable development problem. Another important area of concern, however, is the resource depletion and destruction carried out by individuals on a small scale, which collectively have permanent destructive impacts and reduce productive capacities, especially in the rural sector. It is this type of dynamic which is especially relevant to NGOs working in the Third World. Such problems involve widespread, incremental overexploitation or contamination of natural resources, resulting in gradual deforestation, degradation of soils, and depletion of marine and forest resources.
The sustainable development paradigm supposes that these types of problems, by their very nature, require massive and widespread action on the part of individuals to halt environmental decline and to begin to rebuild degraded resources (Postel and Heise, 1988; UNDP, 2000; WRI/UNEP/UNDP, 1990). This view of the environmental problem, combined with the fact that at least the proximate causes of rural environmental problems are often locally based, suggests that local level action will be an important component of solutions to environmental problems (Gariyo and Vivian, 1995). It is this small-scale, individual dimension of the problems of resource depletion and environmental degradation which NGOs are, in theory, particularly well-suited to address. A number of ‘success stories’ illustrating the potential of NGO projects to provide innovative, participatory and sustainable solutions to environmental problems have been reported in the academic and popular press.

As a result of this literature, researchers and policy makers increasingly link the goal of sustainable development with the promotion of NGO initiatives. The possibilities of such policies have been portrayed as very promising (Korten, 1990). There is as yet no evidence, however, that this approach will prove to be more effective than other types of development initiatives in the past (Bebbington et al., 1997). A major obstacle to the implementation of successful sustainable development activities by NGOs is rooted in the way NGO initiatives are generally assessed: they are usually described within a case study framework, rather than being analysed at a broader level. In fact, the lessons to be learned from case studies are limited: generalizations drawn from one are often directly contradicted by the results of another (Wallace et al., 1997). Consequently, there is little real understanding of the conditions necessary to enable the potential of NGO initiatives to be fully realized. In addition, the 'success story' approach can over-emphasize and idealize the work of the NGO sector, and can thus obscure the inherent limitations of NGO initiatives, especially as they concern macro-level policy and structural change.

Although writers in this field are generally careful not to present NGOs as a panacea for development problems, there is a prevailing tendency to regard the development of local initiatives as possible, and their promotion as desirable, under virtually all circumstances.
Arguably, however, there are conditions under which the attempt to substitute local-level efforts for national or international action becomes counterproductive: not only is the NGO sector limited in its scope, but in particular circumstances it may be weak or nonexistent, fragmented, or structurally unable to tackle the problems at hand. These issues must be addressed before isolated NGO experiences are used to inform development policy formulation. In order to determine the possible points of intervention for NGOs concerned with sustainable development, it is essential to understand environmental problems and their possible solutions within the country or regional context. However, this is not always as straightforward an undertaking as it is assumed to be. In Angola, as perhaps in many countries, one of the most basic issues with which sustainable development efforts are concerned - the state of the environment - is still a matter of contention. The conventional wisdom in the sustainable development literature is that environmental degradation is bad and getting worse in the Third World, and particularly in Africa. However, there are some doubts as to how far the evidence available substantiates either the extent or the trend of environmental degradation in Angola (Cliffe, 1988; Drabek, 1987; Moyo et al., 1991).

These problems include soil erosion, deforestation, inability to cope with drought, and wildlife conservation: each of these is discussed briefly below. Therefore, this study intended to address the human relations subjective factors of the workforce and workplace aspects of the Angolan NGOs’ system in regard with human resources capacity building to achieve their developmental goals in Angola. The purpose of this study wasn’t to evaluate specific NGO environment projects, but rather to assess the mechanisms through which the NGO sector as a whole might make a significant contribution to sustainable development, and the problems in doing so. The study also, intended to look at why a few NGOs are sustainable and while most of them are not. The study also, intended to identify the major challenges facing the provision of sustainability of NGOs in Angola, and how capacity building and development have been defined by the previous researchers and the previous studies on Angolan NGOs. In addition, the study looked at how the situation was before and after the existence of NGOs; looked at the background and experience of the managers, the kind of personnel working in the said organisations, their efficiency and the methods of recruitment, placement and utilization of resources. In this chapter, a historical background of Angola and the background of the study provide the Angolan history before and
after independence, and the educational situation. I try to provide an understanding of what capacity building is all about. The cornerstone theory of the research which is agency theory focuses on rationality of human beings as opportunists who consider themselves first when faced with a situation. In addition to all this, provision is made of the rationale for the study, statement of the problem, research questions, and the assumptions of the study, significance of the study, limitations and delimitations.

1.1 Historical Background of Angola

The Republic of Angola is situated in the Southern Africa Region. After 500 years of colonisation by the Portuguese and 27 years of civil conflict, it is starting to emerge as a democracy with a rapidly growing economy, which is considered to be the fastest growing economy of Africa (World Bank, 2011). Angola has a population of 21,024 million people and 18 Provinces in a land area of 1,246,700 sq km2. The Portuguese did not allow anti-colonial activities in all its colonies that could challenge or threaten the colonial order except religious activity (Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14). Other ideological organisations like “trade unionism, youth, ethnic and regional associations, political parties or civil society were seen as destabilising forces, and were systematically suppressed” (Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14-2). When the Portuguese rulers left the country in 1975, civil society organisations were too weak to effectively support the new government.

However, the anti-colonial armed resistance groups that had led the resistance movements and fought the liberation war were stronger and in control of the country’s politics. Amundsen and Abreu (2006:14-2) argue that “due to liberation ideologies and strategic geopolitical alliances at the time of independence, one of the stronger liberation movements in Angola embarked on the Marxism-Leninist ideology and organisational principles, despite the rather ethnic/regional origins of the liberation movements” (Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14-2). Amundsen and Abreu argue that in “addition to the Portuguese colonial rule, the factor Marxism-Leninism pre-independence inheritance in modern Angolan history, the establishment of highly presidential political system in Angola, and a clientelist system of favours and patronage were among the factors that have been impeding the development and reconstruction of active society
organisation in the country”. Angola had its independence on 11 November 1975. From 1975 till 1992 there was a history of one party ideology and centralism. Angola revised its constitution in 1992 and opened up for a multy-party system of government but civil society organizations are still being controlled by the ruling party as “party affiliated organizations”(Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14). In September 1992, the country organised its first multi-party election whose results were not accepted by the main opposition party leader, Dr Jonas Savimbi. As a result, the country re-emerged once again into a civil war. The Second election took place in 2008 and the third in 2012. The ruling political party, People's Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA), in power since 1975 substantially increased its majority, winning 191 out of 220 parliamentary seats in 2008.

However, the main opposition party, National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA), won 70 seats in the 1992 elections but managed to retain only 16 seats in the 2008 election. The latest general elections were held on the 31st of August 2012. Even after its violent history, Angola is truly emerging as one of the few democratic countries of Africa, particularly in Southern Africa, (Alykhan Satchu, CEO of Rich Management, 2012).

1.1.1 Background to the study

African access to educational opportunities was highly limited for most of the colonial period. Until the 1950s, facilities run by the government were few and largely restricted to urban areas. In the Angolan context, education policies before independence were the responsibility of the Roman Catholic and Protestant Missions. As a consequence, each of the missions established its own school system, although all were subject to ultimate control by the Portuguese government with respect to certain policy matters. Education beyond the primary level was available to very few Angolans before 1960, and the proportion of the age group that went on to secondary school in the early 1970s was still quite low. Nevertheless, primary school attendance was growing substantially. Whether those entering primary schools were acquiring at least functional literacy in Portuguese was another matter. Primary schools consisted of a total of four years made up of a pair of two year cycles. Portuguese statistics do not indicate how many learners completed each
of the cycles, but it is estimated that far fewer completed the full four years than those who entered the first cycle. Similarly, there seems to be a general agreement among observers that a great number of those who entered secondary school did not complete it. In general, the quality of teaching at the primary level was low, with instruction carried on largely by Angolans with very little qualifications. Most secondary school teachers were Portuguese. This is a worrying situation which needs some research and hence the research of this kind. This study was intended to address the workforce and workplace aspects of the Angolan NGOs system in the context of human resources capacity to achieve the developmental goals in Angola. The study sought to explore how the capacity building system of the NGO Sector acts as a determinant of human resource leadership in the achievement of developmental goals. The research sought also to understand how the coming of independence of Angola in November 1975 comparing with older African independent states contributed to lack of HR capacity building, the problem that persists into the 21st century. As the saying goes: “the organisational culture and the personal conformity are the hardest things to be changed in the mind of people” (Peter M. Senge, The Fifth Discipline, 2006:360). According to Senge (2006) there are four (4) reasons why certain people resist change:

1-Parochial self interest (some people are concerned with the implication of the change for themselves and how it may affect their own interests, rather than considering the effects for the success of the business); 2-Misunderstanding (communication problems, inadequate information); 3-Low tolerance to change (certain people are very keen on security and stability in their work); 4-Different assessment of the situation (some employees may disagree on the reasons for the change and the advantages and disadvantages of the change process). That is said, because an educated and trained manager or worker is frequently acknowledged as one of the most critical elements for an organisation to become and to remain sustainable and competitive. Apart from their non-participation in the peace process, Angolan civil society organizations are basically a new phenomenon (Watts et al. (2003). According to Watts et al. (2003), since the signing of the peace Accord in 2002, civil society organisations have emerged, but the room for sustainability has not been expanding as quickly as expected by civil society organisations themselves (DFIL, 2008). NGOs started in Angola in the mid 1980s, as a response to address the plight of many Angolans suffering from civil war, and these were mostly managed by nationals.
Then, it became apparent that their existence was based on the need for making their profits rather than on the need to assist the needy population. Formerly called Solidarity Movements and Cooperates, rather than NGOs (known by its Portuguese acronym, MSC), they started as partners of government to help transporting goods to rural areas during the civil war. Unfortunately, they were operating informally and on ad hoc basis without the necessary registration in terms of the law, without formally recognized organizational structures and agreed policies and procedures of conducting business. Currently, many of them still work without these policies (David R. Smock, US Institute of Peace, Report on Angola NGO Sector Strengthening Programme, April 2008). It is increasingly clear that the life of these organisations is based on the personal commitment of their leaders to the development of employee skills. This commitment can be manifested by the establishment of programmes and policies to systematize and formalize the development of skills and contributing to the sense of ownership among the staff. According to a (2001) study by the Journal Annual Review of Psychology, it is because of the needs of the knowledge economy, in the United States, that Americans spend between 55 to 200$ billion of investment each year in corporate training. That is said, because from the beginning of a project, people often tend to focus on the job at hand rather than on human resource development and skills training and development and interpersonal relationships.

NGOs are now an important part of civil society and the general development process in Angola. They have emerged and developed during a very brief period of time. They became involved in the democratization and liberalization of the early 1990s and the passing of the Law of Association in May 1991 (Law 19/91 of May 1991). Prior to this, there were no formally recognised NGOs in the country, and the very notion of NGOs was largely unknown in Angola. In early 2001, while Forum das ONGs Angolanas (known by its Portuguese acronym, FONGA), the umbrella organisation for indigenous Angolan NGOs, grew to a membership of approximately 350 registered NGOs, but only about 100 of these organisations were operational. Of those 100, even fewer were functioning at full capacity of what they should be. It is generally agreed that the real number of NGOs and Community Based Development Organisations (CBDOs) is considerably higher.
The growth of the NGOs sector could have important implications for their status and role in the Angolan society if most of them were functioning at full capacity of what they should be (Inge Tvedten, Key Development Issues and the Role of Angolan NGOs 2001/2002 Report). There is a tendency, particularly among international actors, to regard NGOs as all good and all beneficial, and to define national governments that do not give them space as “anti-development”, “anti-democracy” and “anti-human rights”. However, it is also important to assess the status and role of NGOs from the point of view of the national governments and other national stakeholders, and see NGOs as part of a complex of rapid political change. The US Institute of Peace spent time in Angola in 2008 to explore how Angolan and International non-governmental organisations (NGOs) were promoting capacity building and reconciliation in Angola as part of the postwar peace process with a number of initiatives.

The findings were that Angolan NGOs work empirically, they are not committed to reduce rural poverty and practically no attention has been given to capacity building, promotion of reconciliation at the middle and grassroots levels of society, as they work without targets. This is a gap that NGOs need to address, stressed the report. The recommendations prepared by the team of the said Institute are directed primarily at Angola but could apply to other countries engaged in peace building. Recently, the private Newspaper Angolense in its edition of 28th January 2011, said that Angolan NGOs’ failures cannot be connoted only on lack of capacity building but also on lack of government commitment to reduce rural poverty and to deliver on its promises.

“**In Angola, I don’t think the problem is only lack of investment, I think it is also lack of engagement of NGOs managers with community where the investment is being made. Capacity building must be directed to the employees. We need also to hear the voice of the people, not just government talking in their name, telling the people what they need**, stressed the editor. As events are moving and changing rapidly, managers tend to be afraid that developing the skills of employees may cause or lead to loss of their places. The result is that employees lack a sense of belonging and do not contribute effectively to the developmental objectives of the organisation. Besides that, in recent years, there was no involvement of NGOs in rural community development promotion programmes with a view to develop the internal capacity building of Angolan NGOs for over ten years.
It’s quite clear to me that in capacitating human resources, the objectives must be understood by junior workers. NGOs should also have programmes of strengthening projects followed by unique and integrated approach of training and technical assistance. These mechanisms will enable NGOs to target a strong corps of existing NGOs within the HIV/AIDS and education sectors, where constraints on resources, communication, and movements due to civil war and post-communist era fall out have kept the Angolan NGO sector relatively weak. Through the Non Governmental Sector Strengthening Project (NGOSSP), world learning will strengthen the programmatic and organisational capacity building of NGOs in order for them to meet the immediate and long-term needs of the Angolan society. According to a USAID Special report on NGOs and Peace Process in Angola (2010), in spite of their good will, most NGO leaders lack the means necessary to deliver services effectively or to carry out activities on their own. As a result, few individuals were able to develop organisations that remain viable over the long term. To compensate for lack of institutional capacity building, many Angolan NGOs work in partnership with international organisations.

However, within these partnerships, Angolan NGOs are rarely involved in the essential planning, monitoring, or evaluation of activities. This leaves indigenous organisations heavily reliant on outside support, as within these international partnerships, Angolan actors were not given the opportunity to develop necessary conceptual skills to independently process and apply acquired knowledge. In order to fill the existing gap, development promotion programmes should be carried out under NGOSSP, to support the cohesion and growth of coalition of the existing NGOs in the identified sectors. Participating NGOs in each coalition with government or other NGO can be oriented to “World Learning”, the programme goals of institutional capacity and programme components (training, technical assistance and sub-grants). Then, the NGOs will be assisted in development of coalition by-laws to determine how the organisations will work together to plan and coordinate programme activities throughout the provinces of Angola, targeting their respective sector. In addition, there is need for particular emphasis to be placed on the involvement of coalition members in all aspects of the programme to assure that they are committed to growth and change, and they develop the skills and knowledge necessary to function as independent, effective organisations.
These World learning programmes will enable NGOs to enhance combined capacities including democracy building, NGO capacity-strengthening, training and exchanges, international education, teacher education and training, sustainable development, and conflict resolution throughout the World. As a result, these methods will continue to support civil society organisations to develop their organisational capacity building to achieve developmental goals, and to advocate for effective democratic processes and develop capacity for service delivery. Finally, this thesis assumes that any approach by itself is not an end in itself unless a person internalizes it positively or follows through by “valuing it, knowing it, internalizing and acting on it”. It is also assumed that the human attitude and behaviour based on a positive core value, can achieve higher capacity than the ones based on negative cores values, because companies’ life is based on the commitment of their leaders to the development of employee skills.

1.2 Statement of the problem

One of the challenges experienced by African countries following independence was the need to revamp and develop an alternative to the colonial system of management that was based on racial and cultural segregation. African access to educational opportunities was highly limited for most of the colonial period. Until the 1950s, facilities run by the government were few and largely restricted to urban areas. In the Angolan context, responsibility for education policies before Independence rested with Roman Catholic and Protestant missions. As a consequence, each of the missions established its own school system, although all were subject to ultimate control by the Portuguese government with respect to certain policy matters. Education beyond the primary level was available to very few Angolans before 1960, and the proportion of the age group that went on to secondary school in the early 1970s was still quite low. Nevertheless, primary school attendance was growing substantially.

Whether those entering primary schools were acquiring at least functional literacy in Portuguese was another matter. Primary school consisted of a total of four years made up of a pair of two year cycles. Portuguese statistics do not indicate how many learners completed each of the cycles, but it is estimated that far fewer completed the full four years than those who entered the first cycle. Similarly, there seems to be general agreement among observers that a great number
of those who entered secondary school did not complete it. In general, the quality of teaching at the primary level was low, with instruction carried on largely by Angolans with very little qualifications. Most secondary school teachers were Portuguese, but the first years of secondary school were devoted to materials at the primary level. This is a worrying situation which needs further research and hence the research of this kind. The US Institute of Peace spent time in Angola in 2008 to explore the cause of the non-sustainability of indigenous NGOs in Angola. The findings were that there was no involvement of NGO managers for over 10 years to develop the internal Capacity of Angolan NGOs. This scenario has kept the Angolan NGO sector relatively weak, causing therefore, the unsustainability of many NGOs. The other observation of the US Institute of Peace Report is that Angolan NGOs work without targets. They are not committed to reduce rural poverty and practically no attention has been given to capacity building and promotion of reconciliation at the middle and grassroots levels of society.

This is a gap that NGOs need to address, stressed the report. The recommendations prepared by the team of the said Institute are directed primarily at Angola but could apply to other countries engaged in peace building efforts. Recently, the private Newspaper, Angolense, in its edition of 28th January 2011, published an opinion piece to the effect that Angolan NGOs’ non-sustainability cannot be connoted only on lack of experience or training of their managers and lack of capacity building, but also to lack of government commitment to reduce rural poverty and to deliver on its promises. “In Angola, I don’t think the problem is only lack of investment, I think it is also lack of engagement of NGOs managers with community where the investment is being made. Capacity building must start from NGO Managers and then be directed to the employees. We need also to hear the voice of the people, not just government talking in their name, telling the people what they need”, stressed the editor of Angolense. The precise statement of the problem emerging from the background to the study could be stated thus:

- What are the underlying factors accounting for the non-sustainability of the majority of NGO operations in Angola?
1.3 Research questions

Major Research Question
What are the underlying factors accounting for the non-sustainability of the operations of the national Angolan non-governmental organisations (NGOs)?

Sub questions
1. Why are Save the Children operations sustainable while other such NGOs’ activities are non-sustainable?
2. Why do the challenges of sustainability in their operations continue to mount as shown by non-sustainability of many NGOs in Angola?
3. What are the mechanisms or policies for sustainability used by successful NGOs such as Save the Children?

1.4 Objectives of the study

The study had the following objectives:

1. to identify the major challenges facing the sustainability of the operations of Angolan NGOs and investigate why Save the Children has sustainable social activities while other such NGO’s activities are non-sustainable?
2. to investigate the NGO, whose social activities have collapsed, or limping or are facing challenges and Save the Children whose social activities seem to be vibrant and alive in the period 2000 to 2010.
3. to study the various methods used for capacity building for the maximum utilization of the employees and promotion of community development and to analyze the negative and positive impact caused by the challenges of sustainability in the operations of the struggling NGOs.
1.5 Assumptions of the study

The conceptual assumptions, variables and logic of this study in short are:

i. Angolan NGOs are not sustainable because they are rarely involved in the essential planning, monitoring, or evaluation of activities.

ii. The non-sustainability of national NGOs in Angola is due to lack of the means to deliver services effectively or to carry out activities on their own.

iii. To compensate for lack of sustainability and institutional capacity building, many Angolan NGOs work in partnership with international organisations.

iv. Lack of funding for institutional support, such as office rental, electricity, etc, could be a major sustainability challenge for NGOs in Angola.

v. The refusal of donors to provide administrative support has spurred NGOs into pushing for their own accountability, and Angolan NGOs are now looking to the government to produce state regulations ensuring NGO sustainability.

1.6 Significance of the study

The study could have a considerable contribution to make as a rational assessment of historic trends and future option on a case study which has not been attempted in this context. It has included a literature review on NGOs and civil society in general and it has looked at the factors influencing civil society participation in capacity building in the achievement of developmental goals and the national development reconstruction in Angola. This study has developed recommendations to improve Angola’s civil society organisations and has also benefited all stakeholders in changing and implementing national policy development and reconstruction in Angola. Therefore, the study could have a considerable contribution to make to the concerned NGOs because it basically pointed to the human and social dimensions of development. The study is also important because it provides some answers to numerous questions raised by stakeholders such as the private newspaper sector of Angola.
Angolan NGOs have been accused of working in partnership with international organisations and within these partnerships Angolan NGOs are rarely involved in the essential planning, monitoring, or evaluation of activities in the relevant communities. Other NGOs have been accused of lack of quality service delivery and poor personnel recruitment policies. The above are among the many reasons why this study was carried out. The major contribution of the study is that it revealed the need for capacity building in national NGOs. Recommendations made may influence plans for current and future operations for many organisations and their style of management. It will also help leaders to align those instruments to more effectively implement organisations’ strategies and focus more on deliverables. Finally, the country will benefit when NGOs carry out their activities more effectively by influencing tangible social development.

1.7 Delimitation of the study

Every research work must bear finite boundaries and demarcations. For the purpose of the current study, the researcher concentrated on major factors affecting the non sustainability in the operations of Angolan NGOs system. The researcher also concentrated on factors surrounding work places and work forces. The study concentrated on the factors such as capacity building and community development, then the primary research site of this study covered the non-governmental organisations involved in the integrated community development sector in selected provinces of Angola, which are Luanda, Cabinda, Benguela, Huila and Namibe.

1.8 Limitation of the study

Since every research is unique, the current study on challenges facing the sustainability of operations of Angolan NGOs may not be exceptional. Though many scholars have written extensively on appreciative enquiry approach, to date we are yet to come across substantial materials on human resource capacity building in achieving developmental goals. This unavailability of adequate literature on the proposed subject may prove to be a handicap, but this could not deter the study from moving ahead, as it intended to seek the observations and opinions of distinguished professionals and experts residing within the country, besides soliciting the ideas and assumptions of eminent international scholars. There were limitations and risks
relating to undertaking a project of this nature, both from operational and methodological points of view. The time that was spent in provincial offices and head offices was insufficient to understand fully the dynamics, relationships and contradictions within institutions, especially given the number of issues that were investigated. Proponents of case study approaches suggest that researchers should immerse themselves in the institutions in which research is being undertaken (Portes et al. 1996), but because of the current harsh economic conditions in Angola, it was difficult for the researcher to use various techniques of collecting data, for triangulation purposes. This was so because it meant a lot of money spent on transport, visiting institutions. Limited time and resources at the disposal of the researcher forced the researcher to limit the case study to two NGOs. The decision was also arrived at after ascertaining that the characteristics at the selected provinces generally reflect those of the larger population in the whole country.

Time and money have always been scarce resources. The fact that the researcher was full-time employee with INTERPOL and conducted the research on a part-time basis was a challenge to overcome, indeed dealing with a demanding job and the dictates of an equally compelling family life while conducting a meticulous research that also required attention to details, was not an easy task. Transport costs that were incurred in the countless journeys to the NGOs, to carry out interviews were limitations to endure and overcome. The research approach relied largely on self-reporting measures for information collection. While the inclusion of observation schedules and multiple stakeholder interviews somehow assisted in increasing the reliability of the data, this was not always possible as in some instances when only one stakeholder group had knowledge about the particular issues on focus.

In these instances the observations by the researcher remained the important vehicle for extracting reliable data. It was also difficult to ascertain whether what was observed was indeed what took place inside NGOs on a daily basis, especially with regard to the community environment. Notwithstanding these limitations, the study yields useful baseline information about policy and practice, with reference to challenges of sustainability. This study was basically limited to the human dimension of development, which further highlights the human resource capacity building aspect in appreciative perspectives. Human resources capacities can be built
through different ways, but this study confined itself to capacity building of human resources to achieve NGOs developmental goals in Angola. The present study was conducted based on the following limitations:

1. Lack of honest responses from participants
2. Respondents were unwilling to divulge all relevant information.
3. Limited funding to bear the expenses to travel to all selected provinces

Having said that, in order to overcome the above named limitations, the participants were briefed of objectives of the research and that their anonymity was guaranteed. The researcher also resorted to loaning facilities to compensate for limited funding.

1.9 Organization of the Study

This study was organized into five chapters as follows:

**Chapter I: General Introduction:** Historical background of Angola and background to the study – this provides the Angolan history before and after independence, and the educational situation. Therefore, in the theoretical framework the researcher explained the different theories and concepts of sustainability and development of human resources capacity building functions. The research provides an explanation of what capacity building is all about. In addition to all this, provision is made of statement of the problem, research questions, assumptions of the study, significance of the study, limitations and delimitation. This introductory chapter provided the objectives of the study, significance of the study, key terms were defined among other background issues relating to the study.

**Chapter II: Review of Related Literature** – This chapter examines and put forward major factors affecting the provision of NGOs sustainability the world over. A historical background of development sustainability of NGOs in Angola and other African countries is provided in this chapter of review of related literature. This chapter also presents the different conceptualization theories and Review of Related Literature, trying to find the most relevant and important
literature on this topic. This chapter concentrates on a review of Civil Society, the NGOs activities and the challenge of alternatives. This chapter restates the reflection of the relationship between NGOs and development alternatives. This chapter is dedicated also to the review of Angola’s civil society organisations’ activities examines and evaluates the present political, social and civil society organisations’ participation in implementing post-national development and reconstruction policy in Angola. The chapter ended with a brief summary where perennial gape of information was presented.

Chapter III: Research Methodology – The chapter clearly and concisely describes how the study was conducted. Major issues examined in this chapter on research methodology include, the research design, sampling techniques, research instruments and issues of validity, reliability and trustworthiness were all examined among other related methodological issues. This chapter, contributed to a better understanding of the research problem, defining the terms that compose the concept of methodological presentations. With it the researcher intended to clarify the ambiguity that existed on the research problem.

Chapter IV: Data presentation and analysis – In this chapter the findings of the study were presented. This chapter provides the results collected from the sites of the study. It analyses and interprets the conclusions of this qualitative research on non-sustainability of NGOs Social Activities and the Human Resources Capacity Building in Organisations undertaken in order to address the research objectives. In so doing, this Chapter has reflected on the contents and the debate in each Chapter. At this stage of the study, data were summarized, aggregated and presented thematically. This section is subdivided into sub-sections depending on the nature of the findings.

Chapter V: Summaries, conclusions and recommendations – The study was summarized with conclusions provided. Recommendations are provided in this chapter. Therefore, it provides more insights that determine the organizational problems of non-governmental organisation and to evaluate the solutions in order to assist in the development of a new strategy for the NGOs. Being a research involving adults, it is important to understand the specific features in human resources functions, focusing on outcomes and results that champion organizational competitiveness.
1.10   Definition of special terms and expressions

**Accountability and transparency (AT)** – For the purpose of this study, these terms refer to the accountability of NGOs in each sector, to government, beneficiaries of services and donors.

**Active poor and the very poor (APVP)** – Term used by Kabarole Research and Resource Centre (KRC), to mean poor people but those involved in some activity-trying to help themselves. The term very poor is defined by the same organisation to refer to a category of people who are not able to meet their own basic needs.

**Administrative Expert (AE)** – Refers to the fact that HR activities should in total be effective in terms of the transactional (day-to-day) activities, but also add value to the organisation in the process.

**Capacity Building (CB)** – Enhancement of the ability of organisations to fulfill their missions in an effective manner (McCain and Pantazis 1997).

**Change Agent (CA)** – Refers to HR as proactively participating in activities that would positively cause change, and capitalize on it in order to act in transformational manner in assisting the organisation to achieve its objectives.

**Civil society (CS)** – According to Marcussen and Kaldor (1996/2008) in the Global civil society publications by Oxford University Press, civil society is defined as “the medium through which social contracts or bargains are negotiated between the individual and the centres of political and economic authority”. In this work NGOs/CSOs shall be treated as representatives of civil society. Therefore, the terms CSO/NGOs shall be interchangeably used throughout this research.

**Community Driven Development (CDD)** – Is a development initiative that provides control of the development process, resources and decision making authority directly to community groups.

**Community Development (CD)** – Is the empowerment of individuals and groups of people by providing them with the skills they need to effect change in their own communities.
**Cost** – Refers to the expenses of Organisations providing services in each sector, relative to the cost of private or government provision.

**Development** – Todaro and Smith (2006), defined development as a multi-dimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular attitudes and national institutions as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and eradication of poverty.

**District Rural Development Agencies (DRDAs)** – Are district level development execution and monitoring organisations created under the Indian Societies Registration Act. Substantial sums of rural development funds of government of India were transferred and routed through them under various Centrally Sponsored Schemes.

**Donor Aided Projects (DAP)** – In this research donor-aided projects are defined as those sponsored by purely external donations (normally provided by international aid agencies through local organisations as intermediaries), excluding those supported by locally generated resources including resources from government.

**Ethnography** – Is a descriptive qualitative research design aimed at exploring cultural phenomena of a particular human society based almost entirely on fieldwork.

**Employee Champion (EC)** – Refers to the ‘soft’ approach to HR, where the HR manager represents the employee’s voice in the activities of management.

**Empowerment** – For this research, empowerment is defined as the progressive ability by an individual or community through external assistance to advance in skills development and in the quality of services provided across social, cultural, political and economic indicators of development.

**Grassroots** – The term grassroots in this research is defined to mean the lowest level of administration and normally this is at the village level, presumably targeted by donor projects to cause social and economic change.
**Grassroots NGO (GNGO)** – Gariyo and Steinberg (1995) defined NGOs as autonomous non-profit and non-party/politically affiliated organisations that advance a particular cause or set of causes in the public interest. Deborah Eade (2007), further calls NGOs as sub species of civil society, as civil society is much older, dating back to the ancient philosopher of Greece. For this study, NGOs will include big organisations that often play an intermediary role because of their institutional capacity. The researcher has also included cooperative societies such as the micro credit associations, and those in the category of community-based organisations. Also, grassroots organisations are defined as NGOs established by interest, and purpose to address development challenges in a given community.

**Human Resources Development (HRD)** – Is the framework for helping employees develop their personal and organizational skills, knowledge and abilities.

**NGO Effectiveness (NGO-E)** – Refers to the success of NGO service provision in each sector. This measure includes the relative effectiveness of NGOs at providing services compared to the government and private sector.

**Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA)** – A systematic but semi-structured activity in the field by a multi-disciplinary team, designed to obtain new information and to formulate new hypotheses about rural life.

**Self-reliance (SR)** – According to Encyclopedia, Self Reliance means being independent and not having to depend on anyone else. It means working hard to get ahead and not having anyone else helps. Is an essay written by American Transcendentalist philosopher and essayist, Ralph Waldo Emerson.

**Strategic Partner (SP)** – Refers to the essential role of human resource (HR) plays in order to enable an organisation to achieve its objectives by executing strategic human resource management (HRM) that is aligned with the organisation’s strategy.

**Strengthening Programme (SP)** - Act of increasing the strength of something (programmes).
**Sustainability** – Torrington and Hall (1987) in David W. Chapman et al (2006), define sustainability as the ability of an activity or system to persist. Therefore, sustainability is the capacity to endure through renewal, maintenance and sustenance or nourishment, in contrast to durability, the capacity to endure through unchanging resistance to change. For humans in social systems or ecosystems, sustainability is the long-term maintenance of responsibility, which has environmental, economic, social dimensions and encompasses the concept of stewardship which is the responsible management of resource use.

**Sustainable Development (SD)** – Sustainable development is an approach to economic planning that attempts to foster economic growth, while preserving the quality of the environment for future generations.

**Transferability:** – Considers the potential for lessons learned in each NGO sector in Angola to be applied to the problem of service provision in many countries in Africa.

**Workforce** – Workers available to contribute to the organisation.

### 1.11 Chapter summary

The introductory chapter is as essential to successful research as an architect’s drawing is to the building. The introductory chapter provided the foundation upon which the whole research structure stood. It gave insight into the statement of the problem, the purpose, significance and scope of the study. It also gave salient ideas and arguments on the background to the study by summarising the historical background of NGOs in Angola and the role of the state in providing its citizens with a high standard of development assistance. Milestones in the development and the history of NGOs’ sustainability and development were highlighted in the next chapter two, including sustainability development theories, conceptual framework on sustainability and the role of NGOs in promoting empowerment for sustainable community development. The chapter further set the sustainable debate in its historical context and offered a road map for understanding, monitoring and delivering or improving sustainability in Angolan NGOs. This chapter explained also the content of the research problem and also provided the key issues to examine. Key terms that were used in the research were contextually defined and the definitions were in the frame of reference in which they were used in the study.
CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

In the previous Chapter, a brief introduction of the study was made. This introduction was followed by a brief summary on Review of Related Literature on Sustainability, the review of Angola Civil Society Organisations and the role of NGOs in human resource capacity building. The present Chapter is devoted to present and analyze the conceptual framework of sustainability and the related issues on the Human Resource Capacity Building in the Organisations with regard to the present study. An extensive review of literature was made to highlight various conceptual clarities and processes of Human Resources Capacity Building and Role of NGOs in Capacity Building for the purpose of the present study.

This Review of Related Literature is a summary of a copious and growing volume of material on the methods and practices of NGOs’ “community capacity building”. The material used in this review has been drawn from literature searched in the Social Science databases for abstracts, full text articles and internet searches of key terms. This includes material from local government, urban regeneration, community work, international development, social work and social planning. This review is divided into nine sections. Section one is entitled Review of NGOs Functions in Sustainable Community Development. In this section I tried to stress the functions of NGOs and why it is necessary for NGOs to maintain sustainable community development.

Section Two of this review is concentrated on review of NGOs functions and sustainable community development; it therefore provides an overview of existing literature in this area. Section Three is an overview of the role of civil society organisations in Angola. This section tries to bring in critical literature where “community capacity building” is subject to critical analysis. Here the discussion more directly draws attention to issues of power ideology and ‘whose interests are served’. Sections four and five are entitled the “emergence of civil society and the NGOs community.” These sections explore the daily struggle for survival which absorbs most of the energy and time of a great deal of the population, leaving most Angolans with little room for collective action. Section six is entitled “challenges facing human resources
management (HRM) in Angolan NGOs.” Section seven is a review of conceptual understanding of HR/CB. The research tries to bring a conceptual understanding of human resources (H.R.) capacity building and here the concept NGO “community capacity building” is overviewed in general terms. In this section a review of civil society functions is given. Section eight is devoted to a systematic review of capacity building. In this section the research reviews the descriptions of how “community capacity building” is seen to be done and the models and dilemmas that emerge with the practice. Finally, section nine gave a brief summary of this Chapter where a perennial gape of information was presented.

2.1 Review of NGOs’ Functions in Sustainable Community Development

The purpose of this section is to provide an overview of existing literature in this area. The review summarizes the key themes and conclusions emerging from this literature with regard to the sustainable community development and needs of Human Resource Capacity Building in organisations; the quality and breadth of existing capacity building provision, potential models for improving the consistency and effectiveness of capacity building delivery. It has been widely acknowledged that insufficient capacity building of development organisations hinders sustainable community development. This problem however cannot simply be defined in terms of gaps in human resources, financial resources or training.

The NGOs’ functions in sustainable community development are a function of several aspects: limited sense of local ownership of the development processes; excessive dependency on external resources and technical assistance; inadequate considerations of broader environmental or systems factors; and poor integration and co-ordination of multiple development initiatives. In the past decade there has been much debate and research on the efficacy of technical co-operation and the issue of capacity building in the organisations. Capacity building is defined as the ability of individuals and organisations to perform functions effectively, efficiently and sustainably. A definition of what constitutes a non-governmental organisation and community sector organisation is an essential starting point to any discussion of capacity building for the sector. The voluntary and community sector is at the heart of building strong, sustainable,
connected and empowered communities (Sector Development Policy Team 2004). Organisations within the sector often work with people closest to the margins of society and at greatest risk of social exclusion (De Vita and Fleming 2001). Many of these organisations are small and possess limited resources when measured against the challenges and critical issues they address. The Sector Development Policy Team as stated by Hunger (2004) noted that organisations spend a considerable amount of time pursuing short-term grants to provide services to tackle problems that are complex and take years to address. Therefore, despite their place at the forefront of service delivery, many voluntary and community organisations survive year-to-year and in some cases month-to-month in an ongoing battle to raise adequate funding, to recruit sufficient numbers of volunteers and to meet the demands of a wide range of other operational challenges. This lack of stability and sustainability can impact negatively on people working in voluntary and community organisations by increasing stress levels and reducing the time they have available to focus on the core role of the organisation – meeting the key needs of the community they serve – because they are focused more on survival (Boavida 1981).

This in turn impacts negatively on the community as they often lose continuity as organisations come and go or because the quality of service provision becomes inconsistent. Therefore, there is the potential risk that without adequate capacity building many communities may not receive consistent quality of service from the voluntary and community sector organisations among them. In addition, there are questions about the long-term planning and evaluation processes within the sector which creates the risk that organisations established to meet specific needs may not have the capacity to adjust their programmes and activities to the changing socio-economic and demographic circumstances of their communities. Existing research and anecdotal evidence suggests that many voluntary and community sector organisations struggle to cope with myriad issues including fundraising, governance-management relationships, evaluation and planning, developing policy and strategy frameworks and responding to changing legislative and social requirements. However, there appears to be little coordinated effort to meet such fundamental needs across the sector. In many cases, networks exist, but how effective are they? Most offer opportunities to share the work of various organisations, but few seem to tackle the capacity building agenda.
(a) Capacity building defined

Within the context of the voluntary and community sector, capacity building as a concept can be described as enhancing the ability of organisations to fulfil their missions in an effective manner (Mclean and et al. 2004). Specifically, capacity building is an empowering activity that strengthens the ability of voluntary and community organisations to build their structures, systems, people and skills, so that they are better able to define and achieve their objectives, engage in consultation and planning, manage projects and take part in partnerships and service delivery (Sector Development Policy Team 2004). In other words it is a dynamic and continuous process that achieves increasing self-awareness, internal evaluation and development and continuous forward momentum towards a goal or vision realisation.

This section highlights NGOs’ functions and the promotion of sustainable community development. Specifically, the discussions are on the functions related to provision of microfinance, initiation of community capacity building and self reliance. Eventually, sustainable community development will be achieved, particularly when a community is empowered. The “bottom-up approach” would likely bring about empowerment to the community and finally sustainable community development. According to Finger (1994), the bottom-up approach emphasizes community participation, grassroots movements and local decision making. Patel and Mitlin (2002) argue that community participation and grassroots initiatives promote participatory decision making and local self-reliance. In the bottom-up approach, people are able to define their own problems having the ability and capacity to solve them through organizing and participating in the solution of the said problems.

NGOs are professionally-staffed organizations aiming at contributing to the reduction of human suffering and to the development of poor countries (Stone, 2000). They do this in various ways, e.g. by funding projects, engaging in service provision and capacity building, contributing to awareness and promoting the self-organization of various groups (Baccaro 2001). Desai (2005) has mentioned that NGOs have an important role to play in supporting women, men and households. Desai (2005) identified some roles and functions for NGOs, such as counseling and support service, raising awareness and advocacy, legal aid and microfinance. These services help
the people to achieve capacity, skills and knowledge, to take control of their own lives and finally become empowered. On the other hand, Silverman (1998) has noted three major functions for NGOs such as; (1) service delivery (e.g. relief, welfare, basic skills); (2) educational provision (e.g. basic skills and often critical analysis of social environments) and (3) public policy advocacy. Baroon (2007) shows how particular NGOs can promote the organization and “empowerment” of the poor, particularly poor women, through a combination of micro-credit, raising awareness, training for group members and other social services.

Empowerment is the ability of individuals to gain control socially, politically, economically and psychologically through (1) access to information, knowledge and skills; (2) decision making; and (3) individual self-efficacy, community participation and perceived control (Rappaport 1987; Zimmerman and Rappaport 1988). In the long term, the aim of NGOs is to promote sustainable community development through activities that promote capacity building and self reliance. Langran (2002), has mentioned that NGOs through capacity building, help to sustain community development. NGOs are often created in order to expand the capacities of people (Korten 1990). Furthermore, NGOs are praised for promoting community self-reliance and empowerment through supporting community-based groups and relying on participatory processes (Torrington and Hall, (1987) in David W. Chapman et al., 2006).

On the other hand, sustainable development has emerged over the past few decades as an important paradigm for community development. However, as Bradshaw and Winn (2000) have noted, sustainability is rooted largely in an environmental approach, particularly in the industrialized countries, but the goal of sustainable development is to find a balance between three pillars - social, economic and environment – of communities (Sneddon 2000). The Rio Conference interpreted sustainable development as a single process with three dimensions (UNCED 1998). In addition, the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation defined it as three distinct processes, of “economic development, social development and environmental protection— as interdependent and mutually reinforcing pillars” (United Nations 2002). These dimensions were originally introduced with the aim of identifying areas in which social, economic and environmental goals are interrelated (Holmberg and Sandbrook 1992). However, these dimensions of sustainable development have done little to reduce the complexity of the
concept and has itself introduced a contradiction. Hibbard and Tang (2004) in their study in Vietnam have noted the importance of NGOs’ roles in sustainable community development. One of the roles was that NGOs balance the social, economic and environmental factors in promoting sustainable development. Another important role of NGOs that they discovered was decentralization of the central government which helps the local communities to acquire more power in order to make their own decisions. Sometimes the local communities lack specialists to do professional work and resources that are important for the particular projects. NGOs assist local staff with drafting sustainable development plans that are functional under the umbrella of a central government policy. Finally, they concluded that sustainable community development is process-oriented, requires extensive community participation and relies on network to share resources, knowledge and expertise of their Managers. From the literatures, it can be summarized that NGOs play an important function in promoting sustainable community development.

Sustainable community development emphasizes a balance between environmental concerns and development objectives, while simultaneously enhancing local social relationships. Sustainable communities meet the economic needs of their residents, enhance and protect the environment, and promote more humane local societies (Bridger and Luloff 1997). As Bridger and Luloff (1997) has mentioned, sustainable community development includes five dimensions. The first dimension emphasizes increasing local economic diversity. The second is self-reliance which entails the development of local markets, local production, local processing of previously imported goods, and greater cooperation among local economic entities. The third dimension involves a reduction in the use of energy, coupled with the careful management and recycling of waste products. The fourth dimension focuses on the protection and enhancement of biological diversity and careful stewardship of natural resources. Finally, the fifth dimension is related to the commitment of the NGOs managers to enable communities to sustain social justice. Through the functions of providing microfinance, initiating capacity building and self-reliance, NGOs could promote empowerment among community members, and eventually sustainable community development.
Table 2.1: Theoretical framework of the functions of NGOs in promoting sustainable (suggested by the researcher)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NGOs Functions</th>
<th>Empowerment</th>
<th>Sustainable Community Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Microfinance</td>
<td>• Economic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Capacity Building</td>
<td>• Individual</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Self-reliance</td>
<td>• Social</td>
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Table 2.1: shows the outline of the relationship between NGOs’ functions, empowerment and sustainable community development. From this perspective, NGOs’ functions in community development are, among others, to develop local production and local markets; help the community to develop the social capital and human resources; increase the knowledge and skills; encourage people to participate in activities, and act as a network between community and systems. The involvement in these activities would lead to them becoming empowered, which is the output of community development. In the long run, the outcome would be sustainable community development.

(b) Microfinance and Sustainable Community Development

During the 1990s, scholars have increasingly referred to microfinance as an effective means of poverty reduction Torrington and Hall (1987) in David W. Chapman et al (2006), and Chivore (1996) have pointed out the importance of microfinance in empowerment, particularly women empowerment. Microfinance is defined as efforts to improve the access to loans and to saving services for poor people (Shreiner 2001). It is currently being promoted as a key development strategy for promoting poverty eradication and economic empowerment. It has the potential to effectively address material poverty, the physical deprivation of goods and services and the income to attain them by granting financial services to households who are not supported by the formal banking sector (Sheraton 2004). Microcredit programmes provide small loans and savings opportunities to those who have traditionally been excluded from commercial financial services.
As a development inclusion strategy, microfinance programmes emphasize women’s economic contribution as a way to increase overall financial efficiency within national economies. According to Khan (2002), one of the most popular forms of economic empowerment for women is microfinance, which provides credit for poor women who are usually excluded from formal credit institutions. Since the 1990s, microfinance institutions have addressed the issues of sustainability, participation and empowerment. These issues have been researched and debated by donor agencies, NGOs, feminists, and activists (Leclerc, Jean-François (1989); Khan (2002). However, underneath these shared concerns lie three fundamentally different approaches to microfinance: financial sustainability, feminist empowerment, and poverty alleviation. All three microfinance approaches have different goals coupled with varied perspectives on how to incorporate gender into microfinance policy and programme (Mayoux 2000). Microfinance empowers women by putting capital in their hands and allowing them to earn an independent income and contribute financially to their households and communities.

This economic empowerment is expected to generate increased self-esteem, respect, and other forms of empowerment for women beneficiaries. Some evidence show that microfinance would empower women in some domains such as increased participation in decision making, more equitable status of women in the family and community, increased political power and rights, and increased self-esteem (Khan 2002). Well-being as an output of microfinance not only covers the economic indicators, but also other indicators such as community education, environment, recreation and accessibility to social services. It is related to the quality of life Clark, (1991/1998). In order to gain economic sustainability, NGOs through microfinance, help the communities to reduce poverty, create jobs, and promote income generation. In the developing countries, sustainability is linked more closely to issues of poverty and the gross inequalities of power and resources (Hamnett and Hassan 2003).

This is due to the fact that in the Third World countries, the ecological system sometimes conflicts with the socio-economic needs of local people who depend on a local ecosystem for their survival (Hamnett and Hassan 2003). In contrast, in the developed countries, as Haralambos and Holborn (2004) have noted, more priority is given on environmental aspects of sustainable development. In these countries, since the wealth of the nation and of most individuals has
reached a certain level, therefore sustainability has been fueled primarily by concern for such issues as climate change, biodiversity, the deprivation of the natural environment, and the over-consumption of natural resources especially non-renewable Haralambos and Holborn (2004).

(c) Capacity Building and Sustainable Community Development

As mentioned earlier, capacity building is another NGO’s strategy that helps to bring about sustainable community development. Capacity building is an approach to development that builds independence. It can be: (i). A ‘means to an end’, where the purpose is for others to take on programmes. (ii). An ‘end’ in itself, where the intent is to enable others, from individuals through to government departments, to have greater capacity to work together to solve problems (iii). A process, where capacity building strategies are routinely incorporated as an important element of effective practice, Davidson (1975). Before beginning to build capacity within programmes, practitioners need to identify pre-existing capacities such as skills, structures, partnerships and resources. Frathwool (2004) has counted a number of dimensions for community capacities including financial capacity (resources, opportunities and knowledge), human resources (skills, motivations, confidence, and relational abilities and trust) and social resources (networks, participation structures, shared trust and bonding).

UNDP (1997) has introduced capacity building as the process by which individuals, groups, and organizations increase their abilities to (1) perform core functions, solve problems, define and achieve objectives; and (2) understand and deal with their development needs in a broad context and in a sustainable manner. Furthermore, in terms of NGOs’ functions, Langran (2002) has defined capacity building as the ability of one group (NGOs) to strengthen the development abilities of another group (local communities) through education, skills training and organizational support. Capacity building is an approach to development and not a set of predetermined activities. There is no single way to build capacity. Although experience tells us that there is a need to work across the key action areas, practitioners approach each situation separately to identify pre-existing capacities and develop strategies particular to a programme or organization, in its time and place.
NGOs, through the provision of education, skill and knowledge, develop the capacity of a community towards achieving sustainable development. In fact, NGOs act as a capacity builder to help the community to develop the resources, building awareness, motivating community to participate in projects and finally, improving the quality of the community’s lives. A link to empowerment is frequently cited as one of the reasons for and outcomes of community capacity building. Empowerment is discussed at the level of individual empowerment (changes in skills, knowledge, consciousness and awareness, hope, action and beliefs in abilities to affect change) and changes in wider social structures and processes that result in increased resources and opportunities Frathwool (2004).

For example, in a programme to train women to establish a small enterprise, a positive result will be that women have co-operated to start an enterprise, but a sustainable outcome will depend on whether women have the capacity to make it work and derive an income from it without external financial or technical assistance (Chan 1993). Many researchers argue that building community capacities and fostering empowerment are more effective ways of achieving sustainable community development than programmes and success indicators imposed by outside experts (Haralambos et al. 2004; Chan 1993). They point out that outside experts usually have limited knowledge and understanding of the particular context, needs and issues of a community. Local solutions to achieving sustainable community and economic development are therefore seen as important outcomes of a capacity-building approach (Frathwool 2004). For example, to increase the people’s participation in order to achieve sustainable development, many issues should be considered, such as skills, leadership, knowledge, physical resources and stakeholder representativeness.

(c) Self-reliance and Sustainable Community Development

Self-reliance is another strategy that affects sustainable community development. Effective community development sits on the foundation of self-reliance. The concept of self-reliance is strategically situated within the essence of community development and is related to other concepts like mutual-help, self-help, participation of the indigenous people and rural progress. Self reliance encourages the necessity for people to use local initiatives, their abilities and their own possessions to improve their condition. Haralambos and Holborn (2004)) have pointed out
that self-reliance is increasingly being adopted as the modus operandi for community
development. According to Chan (1993), self-reliance means that the people rely on their own
resources and are independent of funds sourced outside the community. A self-reliant strategy
relies on the willingness and ability of the local people to depend on their own available
resources and technology which they can control and manage. It requires the optional use of all
available human, natural and technological resources (Chivore 1996). Although dependence on
the state maybe desirable in the short term, it should not be a long term objective, because the
aim of community development must ultimately be self-reliance. Reliance on external resources
will lead to the loss of autonomy and independence of the community. On the other hand,
autonomous communities can flourish only in the absence of such external dependency.

Therefore, to attain self-reliance, community workers (e.g. NGOs) and community groups must
discover their own potential and look for ways to innovatively develop such discovered potential
to use as sources of wealth for the development of the community (Ife and Tesoriero 2006).
Motivating and mobilizing people to be self-reliant and to participate in development activities
becomes an important objective of the NGOs. According to Chivore (1996), the second strategy
of the NGOs focuses on developing the capacities of the people to better meet their own needs
through self-reliant local action. In the second generation strategy, Chivore (1996), mentioned
that the local inertia is the heart of problems in a village or community. There is potential energy
in a community but remains inactive because of the inertia of tradition, isolation and lack of
education. But this inertia can be broken through the intervention of an outside change agent
(NGOs and other agents) who helps the community realize its potentials through education,
organization, consciousness raising, small loans and the introduction of simple new technologies.

It is the stress on local self-reliance, with the intent that benefits will be sustained by community
self-help action beyond the period of NGO assistance (Kaplan 1991). Therefore, NGOs, through
the strategy of self-reliance, can facilitate sustainable development of the community. According
to USAID Special report on NGOs and Peace Process in Angola (2010), in spite of their good
will, most NGO leaders lack the means necessary to deliver services effectively or to carry out
activities on their own. Few managers were able to develop organisations that remain viable
over the long term. This is a gap that Angolan NGOs need to address. The study by the Journal
Annual Review of Psychology (2001) stressed: because of the need of knowledge of the economy in the United States, Americans spend between $55 to 200 billion of investment each year in corporate training. Report by David R. Smock, US Institute of Peace on Angola NGO Sector Strengthening Programme (April 2008), argued: Many Angolan NGOs don’t understand the reason for building learning organisations and the nobilities such organisations must possess. They were working for quite a long time without any structure or policies that enable them to have good practices and as we speak, many of them are still working without these valuable instruments. All in all, the study reviewed literature on HR Capacity building related to the African context, such as World Bank Report (2001), which points out that African NGOs fail because they firstly tend to use European and American Models, and don’t train their employees; secondly their objective is money only instead of the global objectives of rending services to the communities.

2.2 Role of Civil Society Organisations in Angola

2.2.1 The New Law of Associations

Angolan civil society organisations are currently under the legal framework of the New Law of Associations (Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14). The government undertook a review of the law of Associations (the Law 14/91) and the following Decree 84/02 has resulted, in turn, in government regulating and standardizing NGOs. This means that currently NGO registration became a complicated and cumbersome process, in part, because several different government agencies regulate the registration process and apply inconsistent criteria, often leading to confusion and redundancy. An NGO must register first at the local level, and then request a certificate from the Ministry of Justice or a Provincial Commissioner. However, before issuing certificates for national organizations, the Ministry of Justice may require these NGOs to first seek approval from the national-level government body tasked with managing civil society operations, the Unit for the Co-ordination of Humanitarian Aid (UTCAH) for authorization. UTCAH may in turn request the authorization of the Ministry of Justice and or other ministries before approving the application. This process of going back and forth between ministries can go on for years. The process of the review of the Law on Associations started in May 2006 and was coordinated by the Humanitarian Aid Coordination Technical Unit (UTCAH) of the Ministry of
Social Affairs (Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14). After the end of civil conflict, the government decided to review the legal framework of civil society organisations so that it fits in the transitional situation of national development and reconstruction (Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14). However, this review reveals a rather “authoritarian government’s approach towards a weak civil society, and the wish of government to regulate the activities of the non-state sector” (Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14). Amundsen and Abreu (2006:14) in their analysis of the Law on Associations, argue that the Decree 84/02 implemented in 2004 regulates and specifies in a very strict way a relatively open space created by the Law of Associations 14/91. The approach of the law of associational life is broad, while the decree is designed to address only the NGOs sector of the non-state sector world of actors and leaving out other types of associational life and non-state actors, like the party mass-organisations, trade unions, churches, media and others.

The decree was explicitly designed to discipline NGOs as it established some requirements in terms of accountability of NGOs to state institutions, in contrast to the general principle of associational independence, member control and internal auditing. According to the law, NGOs are obliged to abstain from political and partisan action and it conditions the employment of expatriates and demands detailed reporting to the governmental coordination by UTCAH (Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14). Moreover, in their view, the “Decree establishes a government guardianship of NGOs, exercised by the Ministry of Social Affairs”. Stone (2000); Amundsen and Abreu (2006:14) argue that the government strictly limits the room for manoeuvre of NGOs. The decree indicates how the government sees the role of NGOs, namely to be partners of the government and its institutions in projects and activities determined by the government (Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14).

The UTCAH representatives to CONGA and FONGA have made efforts to try and get government to ease the restrictions on the independence of NGOs which restrict their work to humanitarian and emergency activities only (Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14). After CSOs had expressed their concerns and both CONGA and FONGA had criticized the lack of consultation, a representation of both forums became involved in discussions with the authorities. While the government persisted in pushing through its new regulation, CSOs advocated for an improvement in the formal procedures under the New Law of Association (Amundsen and
Abreu, 2006:14). Seen from the side of civil society organisations, the main weakness of the new decree is that it strengthens the undesirable institutional environment; but limits the public space, and this makes it quite difficult for CSO’s to get the government and its institutions to work together in what CSO’s perceive as the means to justify the ends (Stone 2000:53; Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14). Unfortunately, civil society reaction to the government’s initiative is limited because they fear that punitive measures may be taken by government if they try to advocate for change of law. As such, government decides the legal framework of CSOs according to its own agenda and criterion. However, there has been relatively little examination and debate over the practical and political implications of this new law (Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14). Since the end of the conflict in 2002, civil society organisations have tried to influence government to improve on transparency and accountability. However, this has not been a success because of the government structures in place, which hinder smooth dialogue between CSOs and respective government organs (Vanooy, 2000).

Angolan civil society is the only organ that is challenging the government to properly respect human rights, and to redistribute the income from natural resources such as Oil, Diamonds, and Land, etc to the populations. Civil society in Angola has played a significant role in trying to bring about the end of colonialism in the country. For instance, the churches (i.e. Catholic and Protestant) were the only organisations in Angola which embarked on the anti-Portuguese resistance movement (Vanooy, 2000).

2.3 The Emergence of Civil Society

In Angola, CSOs have diverse approaches and form and their roles are not structured. Some organisations are using undemocratic ways, including violence, bribes, patronage, and some organisations are subservient organs for the government. There is a variety from fundamental opposition to compliant cooperation with government, and it cannot be taken for granted that CSOs are promoting democracy. The collective consequence of so many years of armed conflict involving a reflective political polarization, is constituted by a severe vulnerability of Angolan civil society. The daily struggle for survival absorbs most of the energy and time of a great deal of the population, leaving most Angolans with little room for collective action. Vanooy (2000:1) argued that poor people in Angola suffer increasing social exclusion that inhibits their full
participation in post conflict recovery. Evidence from the past indicates that if the role of civil society organisations (CSOs) is increased beyond providing humanitarian aid only this could improve accountability and transparency in government. As a result, government resources could be made available to the appropriate causes (Vines et al, 2008). CSOs operate through the actions of different actors including individuals with insignificant roles, regardless of their visibility. Amongst CSOs actors in Angola are Churches and numerous denominations dedicated to peace, national reconciliation, charity work, struggle for social justice, promotion and protection of human rights and moral public values. Others include ONGs dedicated to a range of causes, such as humanitarian assistance, agriculture, education, health, development, empowerment of grassroots, community organisations, environment, community education, human rights, advocacy, women’s rights, social justice, liberation of cultural values, peace and national reconciliation. For those organisations that attempt to preserve some degree of independence and manifest their views on national socio-political issues, confrontation with the government is not easily stoppable.

In fact, the government keeps showing aggressive attitudes towards CSOs, by undertaking measures to control or hinder their activities. One approach used by the government is through the imposition of awkward bureaucratic procedures. This is indicated by the length of time it takes for staff of CSOs, NGOs and INGOS to obtain and renew an important document. Autocratic government culture inhibits it from gaining legitimacy by promoting an active civil society (Amundsen and Weimer, 2008). Some of the main weaknesses identified include among others a culture of fear, which is a result of Angola’s long past suppression and repression; restricted political measurements of CSOs social commitment; an intellectual elite that has refrained itself from a broader political participation and with little links to CSOs (Amundsen and Weimer, 2008). Despite all these weaknesses and holdbacks, the recent quick expansion of CSOs in Angola suggests that these forums of involvement also enjoy significant strengths that are boosting the community. Reconstruction of the human, social and industrial fabric in Angola requires the CSOs to have a meaningful role despite the weaknesses which are currently in place (Tvedten, 2002:59). According to Vines et al (2008), CSOs are starting to generate a room for debate where a wide range of groups can have a say, from grassroot communities to the national capability.
In addition, some influential figures with past links with government may also contribute a lot towards influencing a change in the way government deals with CSOs. The Angolan people have the new framework of peace, a great potential for being a foremost actor in the search of development that could include all Angolans. Civil society organisations such as NGOs and CBOs contribute significantly to societal development through their engagement in the field of action, such as emergency and development assistance, democratization and human rights (Vanooy, 2000).

2.4 The NGOs Community

The 231 national and 119 international NGOs currently registered in FONGA, play a very important role in Angola (Tvedten, 2002; 57). Donor agencies around the world channel their aid through these organisations. These organisations play a crucial role in democracy and human rights advocacy that help to shape a new context for civil society in Angola. Government relies on these organisations to carry out certain government policies, like the distribution of seeds in partnership with the Ministry of Agriculture (Tvedten, 2002:31). According to Tvedten, out of the 231 National Non-Governmental Organisations (NNGOs) and 119 International Non-Governmental Organisations (INGOs) that had already been formally registered by 2001, only 40-50 NNGOs and 20-25 INGOs have a long-term, strong commitment. Not many NGOs manage to become independent, strong and sustainable because they are constrained by lack of capacity and they tend to depend entirely on external funding.

Many NGOs have been drawn to Angola by the current humanitarian crisis. However, these organisations do not have a perspective of a long-term engagement in the country. These organisations therefore lack commitment to the country and are likely to disappear once the crisis is over. Further, these organisations may also disappear when donor agencies cease to fund them and channel their funding to other hot spots around the world. In Angola the activities of NGOs are concentrated in the capital Luanda, followed by Huambo, Benguela and Huila. These areas are characterised by a large population and were severely affected during the civil war. They are also characterised by the presence of provincial delegations.
2.4.2 Government Structure and Civil Society Organisations

Furthermore, the historical background and structural factors stated by Amundsen and Abreu (2006:14-3), indicate that there is a deliberate government policy of restricting the room for manoeuvre for civil society organisations in Angola. This has drastically impacted on their role to participate in national development and reconstruction. The ruling party has a tradition of a communist ideology. According to Hearn (2001) a communist system of governance is organised on the principles of democratic centralism and enjoys a monopoly of political power. It also plays a leading and guiding role in society, controlling all institutions, including the economic, educational, cultural and recreational institutions Hearn (2001). Also, after the amendment of the constitution in 1992, the Angolan civil society organisations were allowed to register and to freely work in the country but the amendment was not fully implemented by the government restrictions such as limiting them to where and what projects each civil society organisation can implement, and also by obliging civil society organisations to supply their financial arrangements (Vines et al, 2008).

The Angolan government basically defined civil society organisations to be self-help service delivery organisations, (Amundsen and Abreu 2006). They argue that given the limited capacity of the government and the impact of civil war, there is a long tradition in Angola of accepting and even encouraging civil society organisations to engage in refugee relief and service delivery, particularly at local level. Most of civil society organisations as stated by (Amundsen and Abreu 2006:14), “have thus been granted a substantial space for local service delivery and self-help organisation, and they have protected this space through a careful management of their relations with state”. However, the emergence of Angolan civil society organisations has been plagued by complications caused by the lack of government acceptance and tolerance on the major role civil society can play Amundsen and Weimer (2008). Consequently, more than a few incidents of social and political tension have arisen.

This happened when civil society organisations took part in human rights advocacy, demanded interventions in the national budget preparation process, and demanded more transparency in the use of national revenues (Amundsen and Weimer, 2008). According to Vines (2005:3-4), the
government security services used the same tactics employed during the communist era of monitoring, infiltration and manipulation. The civil society organisations agents know about this ploy and do take precautions in their actions and activities. For example, it is quite common for civil society organisation agents not to be consulted on matters which concern them or just to be given information needed to facilitate their activities (Amundsen and Abreu, 2006:14-8). However, this relationship is limited within the parameters for implementation of the project. Furthermore there are still more restrictions on “political activities, human rights, good governance, transparency, accountability, participation, and other fundamental political issues in Angola” (Amundsen and Weimer, 2008).

2.5 Challenges facing Human Resources Management (HRM) in Angolan ONGs

It is argued that one major obstacle faced by NGOs is the demand made upon them to find simple, neat and comprehensive solutions to complex development problems. The tendency on the part of donors and NGO supporters to expect success stories is called here the ‘magic bullet syndrome’, and it is argued that this emphasis on simplicity and on success is unrealistic and counter-productive. In recent years, growing concern with the environment and interest in ‘sustainable development’ has coincided with an increased emphasis on involving non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in development efforts. Attention is now being paid to finding ways in which the strengths of NGOs can be utilized to foster sustainability. This researcher investigated this issue in the context of Angola. Various challenges face the HR profession and the practice of the discipline at organisation level.

Concerning the challenge facing NGOs and their HRM, the direction it should follow in organisations is unfortunately not as clear as it may appear to be. Nel (2007:24) reveals that it has been debated for more than a decade that the two extremes regarding the role of HRM in organisations remain unresolved. These two theoretical approaches to HRM are; the ‘hard’ (instrumental) and the ‘soft’ (humanistic) approach. The “hard” approach stresses the rational, quantitative, and strategic aspects of HR. Furthermore, performance and competitive improvement are paramount. This approach also integrates HR policies and practices with the organisation’s business strategy, with the emphasis being on HRM. The “soft” approach
emphasizes the integration of HR policies and practices with strategic business objectives. The approach also recognises that competitive advantage is achieved by employees with superior know-how, commitment, job satisfaction, adaptability motivation as well as improving employee wellness and quality of life, (Stone, 2005:8). Furthermore, the role and functions of HRM have also been changing significantly over time and various authors have researched the needs of organisations in this regard. The world renowned author, Uphoff (1995) in his book, Human Resources Champion, outlined what is regarded as perceived future roles of HR managers in order to add value to organisations. These are as follows:

- **Strategic partner**: Refers to the essential role HR plays in order to enable an organisation to achieve its objectives by executing strategic HRM that is aligned with the organisation’s strategy.
- **Administrative expert**: Refers to the fact that HR activities should in toto be effective in terms of the transactional (day-to-day) activities, but also add value to the organisation in the process.
- **Employee champion**: Refers to the ‘soft’ approach to HR, where the HR manager represents the employee’s voice in the activities of management.
- **Change agent**: Refers to HR as proactively participating in activities that would positively meet change, and capitalize on it in order to act in transformational manner in assisting the organisation to reach its objectives.

Over and above the aforementioned, it has been recognised for a long time that HR should execute a quality assurance function in organisations, as its contribution to objective achievement at all levels and in all activities of an organisation’s endeavours. In recent times, a further development that manifests itself in a challenge for HRM in Angolan NGOs to justify its existence is the focus on value addition as on overall contribution of the HRM function in organisations. This means that, amongst other things, the right people are to be employed, and that HR professionals should also have the appropriate knowledge, skills, and abilities in order to add value to the organisation Torrington and Hall (1987) in David W. Chapman et al (2006), and Stone (2005), highlights various new realities that are also facing HR professionals, some of which are outlined below.
• HR professionals should establish practices that make employees more competitive
• HR activities are based on theory and research, and professionals must be able to integrate both
• HR professionals must create and add value by increasing intellectual capital
• HR professionals should help managers to commit employees and administer policies
• HR professionals should challenge, but also be supportive of organisational objective achievement endeavours
• Involving line managers in championing HR issues should also be considered by HR professionals in order to add value to organisations

Challenges facing Non-governmental organisations, in particular those which have an impact on HR in Angola, are briefly listed as follows:

• Lack of training of HRM: In this globalised age, there is no place for incompetence, and it is HRMs responsibility to intervene in a proactive way in the skills and knowledge levels of their companies. A lack of empowerment leads to the negative organisational outcome known as labour turnover, as is the case, because most of HRMs do not have any training on HR issues.
• Globalisation: This is the ever increasing integration of national economics into the global economy through trade investment rules and privatization, aided by technological advancement. Meaning that HR professionals must be able to efficiently deal with these issues.
• Downsizing and de-layering: This trend has an impact in Angola, since large organisations are cutting their workforces as global competition and high wages affect various organisations, such as the ONGs.
• Knowledge management: Entails the unlocking and utilization of human capacity in the context of knowledge capital to the benefit of an organisation, which has become a major competitive advantage for organisations wishing to compete both nationally and internationally.
• Skills demand: Angola is in a serious crisis regarding a shortage of skills, not only due to recent rapid economic growth, but also to major drain during the last few years.
Developing workplace flexibility: (Gariyo and Steinberg, 1995), reveals that developing workplace flexibility is of paramount importance, because what was good yesterday, namely, standardization and conformity, cannot enhance organization objective achievement today. Therefore, today’s requirement is the development of a capacity for flexibility in order to enhance the so-called organisational fitness strategy, namely, to match HRM strategy and corporate strategy.

All in all, an overall effect that is the concern of all HR managers throughout Angola, is the lack of sustainability of NGOs, and various steps need to be taken by organizations at all levels to address this issue of national importance (Du Plessis and McDonald 2005). The study identified internal capacity as a main challenge and the initial requirement to ensure NGO accountability in Angola. The nature of NGO work means that NGOs cannot compromise on this requirement easily. The practical challenges to developing sufficient internal capacity have in many ways been influenced by the wide range of governmental regulations in the domestic context. Regulatory frameworks are important for organizational governance, and there must be regulations imposing minimum standards of governance. Other practical challenges include the need for voluntary codes of conduct (required by law in many countries), donor standards, and even ways to ensure accountability for individual personal decisions.

The challenge of donor standards and the minimum requirement of NGO accountability have allegedly contributed to undermining not only NGO sustainability, but accountability as well. Tight regulations regarding the donors’ finances, for instance, often prevent them from providing funds to improve on NGO’s institutional system of accountability. This often creates tension between the competing priorities of pursuing projects that produce results and improving the organizational capacity of an NGO to ensure its accountability. It is therefore important for NGOs to set their own agendas for development. There is no consensus among donors and international NGOs on how to address the need for accountability and sustainability. Due to strict standards, NGO accountability to donors can only be undertaken by experienced or well-established NGOs, but not as well by smaller or new ones.

In general, donor organizations are run by hired professionals, while NGOs are usually run by young people who simply have the ambition to help people but are not as concerned about
accountability. Recently, international initiatives, such as Publish What You Fund, have been created to meet the need for donor accountability. The unbalanced relationship between donors and NGO recipients has grown over the years. In some ways, it minimizes the ability of NGOs to become sustainable in the long term. But the general condition of donor-NGO relationships does not necessarily reflect this imbalance. In post-conflict environments, for instance, the highest paid jobs are in NGOs. This has led to suspicion that NGOs are in fact, for-profit organizations, which has resulted, in turn, in governments regulating and standardizing NGOs. Apart from receiving financial support from donors, NGOs also carry out economic activities to bring in unrestricted funds for their organizational missions.

2.6 Review of Conceptual Understanding of HR. Capacity building

In this section, the researcher tries to provide an understanding of what sustainability and capacity building is all about. The cornerstone theory of the research, which is agency theory, focuses on rationality of human beings as opportunists who consider themselves first when faced with a situation. The theory is justified by the egoist theory which contends that human beings are naturally selfish creatures who consider themselves first in whatever they do. In this context, monitoring and compensation will remain indispensable in streamlining the manager’s effort to the interest of the shareholders. Building capacity is about building an organisation’s ability to perform well. Capacity building in NGOs refers to intentional, coordinated and mission-driven efforts aimed at strengthening the management and governance of nonprofits to improve their performance and impact.

This occurs through organisational development activities, such as leadership development, board development, financial planning and management among others. In the majority of organisations, Human Resources Departments are famous for processing applications, policies, benefits, performance evaluations, valuation, framing, social events, new employees and so forth. But in order for Human Resources Departments to be valued by the organisation and its employees, the professionals in that function should focus less on what "Human Resources do" and more on what "Human Resources deliver." Human Resources must create value and value creation demands a real transformation for the function, Putzel, 1997. Literature is awash with models that describe community capacity building, and they are presented using different
combinations of organizing logics (that is, practice described by elements, strategies, approaches, skills, attributes and values). Much of the material presented as “how to build community capacity” will be familiar to readers of manuals and kits on consultation, community participation, social planning, needs assessment, leadership development, community formation, community development, building social or human capital. It is less usual to read in depth the theoretical positions that inform models of community capacity building. In terms of practice techniques, there is literature on techniques to support processes for building community capacity. It is further common that within definitions of “community capacity building”, there is reference to the following dimensions, domains or sites for action Lister, (2004).

- **Community domain** (power, history, profile, conflicts, leadership, participation)
- **Institutional domain** (influence, voice, resources, policies, discourses, responsiveness)
- **Linking domain** (networks between and within formal and informal systems, interactions, collaboration, responding to community needs).
- **Knowledge domains** (critical reflection, awareness of power, processes for change, knowledge of community needs).
- **Skills and abilities domains** (leadership, confidence, ability to solve problems).
- **Resource transfer domain** (resource mobilization).

In this review they are grouped under the 6 domains for actions that are described above. It is common to read that building community capacity is seen as taking time. In some literature, community capacity building is considered best achieved with an integrated suite of strategies. Such a stance conveys a multi-dimensional nature of process, where capacity requires an enabling policy and institutional environment as much as it does activity within the “community” domain.

- **Community domain**

  **Strategies:** Asset mapping; Training; Community profiles; Needs assessments; Community organisation building.

- **Institutional domain**
Strategies: Policy support for community capacity building balanced; holistic and participatory social planning; Resource allocation; Investments (financial, human resources, services); Organisational development.

• **Linking domains**

  Strategies: Advocacy; Bridge building; Collaborative strategies; Shared planning; Communication flows; Policy feedback loops

• **Knowledge domains**

  Strategies: Leadership development; Critical thinking skills; Bridge between professional and experiential knowledge, Consciousness raising

• **Skills and abilities domains**

  Strategies: Leadership development; Conflict resolution; Problem solving; Mentoring; Skills in governance and community action

• **Resource transfer domain**

  Strategies: Asset mapping; Funding (adequate) Social support; Community bases and structures

According to Lister (2004) it is possible to say that the value generating Human Resources function does not just run social events, sign employees up for benefits, process educational tuition reimbursements, process applicants, conduct salary market surveys and screen employees' health, but a value generating Human Resources function focuses also on outcomes and results that champion organisational competitiveness. Therefore, by championing competitiveness, Human Resources professionals concentrate on how their work enhances: meaning, strategy execution; administrative efficiency; commitment and productivity from employees; organizational capacity for change and championing a feeling of belonging of the employees. The theoretical goals of this part are firstly to answer the question such as:
“What contributions will my study make to the existing literature and why should I study (further) this research problem?”

Secondly to situate the current study within a wider disciplinary conversations; To illustrate the uniqueness, importance of and need for the project by explaining how this research approach is different from those of other scholars; To justify methodological choices and to demonstrate my familiarity with the topic and appropriate approaches to studying it; To identify potential gaps in knowledge and to establish a need for current and/or future research projects. The concept of Capacity Building is an approach to develop one’s own potentiality in order to enhance ones performance or output. It is not a separate entity, but it is in fact an integral part of overall human resources management and human resources development (HRM/HRD) programme. It is a response to the multi-dimensional (organisational, intellectual, social, political, cultural, physical, practical and financial) processes of change; not a pre-packaged intervention to bring intended outcome. Capacity building is closely related to empowerment. Capacity building gives substance to empowerment. If empowerment is the value, then capacity building is the content (Brown 1994:4).

Capacities will not “trickle down” through a power structure unless active steps are taken to ensure a “trickle-up” process by the people themselves. Organisational capacity does not exist in the organisation alone; rather it grows in the network of personnel, committed relationship between staff, board, community people and partners. Therefore, capacity building must be applied in the organisations to contribute to development and change. For this study, the review of related literature placed the researcher into context, because literature review is a sound process, which shows the areas which have already been done. The literature on NGO has been voluminous since the 1980s, termed by some as the “NGO decade” (Bratton 1989). Critical voices at this point were largely muted, confined to expressing concern that NGOs might be an externally imposed phenomenon that, far from being alternatives heralded a new wave of imperialism (Bratton, 1989). Apparently inclined to offer the benefit of doubt, much of the literature focused on locating the importance of NGOs as a key plank within the emerging “New Policy Agenda”, including a new role at the vanguard of donor agendas on “civil society” and “democratization” Robinson, (1995, 1997). The diversification and multiplication of NGO activities and their move to the mainstream came, under close critical scrutiny, both from
supporters and skeptics of the NGO phenomenon. “Internal” debates looked both ways. On the one hand were discussions of how to scale-up NGO activities (Eduards and Hulme 1992), how to run NGOs more successfully and ensure their sustainability as organisations (Fowler 1997, 2000a; Lewis, 2001), and how NGOs might better manage their relationships, (Groves and Hinton, 2004). The apparently limited success of NGOs as agents of democratization came under critique from within e.g. Fowler, (1993) and from without e.g. Marcussen (1996), Stewart (1997), Mercer (2002), while the simmering debate over NGOs as an externally driven phenomenon that threatened the development of “indigenous civil society” and distracted from more political organisations re-emerged (Hashemi, 1995; Mamdani, 1993).

Such concerns seemed to feed a period millennial of apprehension within the sector, with growing calls for “northern” NGOs in particular to devise new roles and rationales for themselves (Lewis and Wallace 2000, 2001) or risk becoming obsolete (Van Rooy, 2000). However, while the academic output on NGOs remains more diverse than has been fully reviewed here, what has perhaps been most remarkable of late is the extent to which these critical concerns have been allowed to pass by with very little evidence that they have been seriously addressed. The researcher is arguably not clearer now concerning questions of effectiveness, accountability and successful routes to scaling up than we were when these questions were raised over a decade ago, let alone concerning the wider challenge of what “capacity building” means to this juncture (Tandon, 2001).

While some NGOs have undergone profound institutional changes (e.g. ActionAid’s relocation to South Africa), a sense of complacency concerning these and other key challenges appears to have replaced the earlier sense of apprehension. Angolan NGOs are still depending on importing key workers to perform their duties well. It is perhaps a frustration with this as much as anything that encourages us to ask again whether and how Angolan NGOs might re-engage their capacity building project of offering developmental goals while they still depend on foreign workers. According to USAID Special report on NGOs and Peace Process in Angola (2010), in spite of their good will, most local NGO leaders lack the means necessary to deliver services effectively or to carry out activities on their own. Few managers were able to develop organisations that remain viable over the long term. This is a gap that Angolan NGOs need to address. The study
by the Journal Annual Review of Psychology (2001) stressed: it is because of the need of knowledge of economy in the United States that Americans spend between $55 to 200 billion of investment each year in corporate training. A Report by David R. Smock, US Institute of Peace on Angola NGO Sector Strengthening Programme April, (2008), many Angolan NGOs don’t understand the reason for building learning organisations and the nobilities such organisations must possess. They were working for quite a long time without any structure or policies that enable them to achieve good practices and as we speak, many of them are still working without these valuable instruments. Review of related literature being the torch in this study, showed why this research needed to be carried out; how the researcher came to choose certain methodologies or theories to work with, and how this work adds value to the research already carried out. Lewis (2001) points out that the purpose of literature review is to look again (review) at the literature (the reports of what others have done) in a related area, an area not necessarily identical with but identical to our own area of study.

Therefore, literature review assists in attacking our own problem with deeper insight and more complete knowledge; it reveals how other researchers handled methodological design issues. Also, literature review describes methods of dealing with problematic situations that may be similar to difficulties you are facing. Then, it reveals to us sources of data that you may not have known to exist. Not only has that introduced us to important research personalities whose works and collateral writings one may not have known, but according to (Lewis, 2001) literature review also helps the researcher to see his/her own study in historical and associational perspectives and in relation to earlier approaches to the same problems. All in all, the study looked at literature on HR developmental goals, stressing that: capacity building at an individual level requires the development of conditions that allow individual participants to build and enhance existing knowledge and skills (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP report 2008).

On the other hand the study reviewed literature on HR Capacity building related to the African context, such as World Bank Report (2001), which points out that African NGOs fail because they firstly tend to use European and American Models, not training their employees; secondly their objective is money only, instead of the global objectives of rendering services to the communities.
Qualitative research can be political, educational or historical, providing a suitable tool for a study of this nature, (Lewis, 2001). A qualitative approach provides a theoretical assessment of governance and participation arrangements of civil society. A further reason for choosing evaluation method as a research tool is that, it allows assessing the effect and effectiveness of something, and an assessment of information to provide useful feedback about an intervention, policy, technology, practice, personal needs or service (Robson, 2002:202). The researcher has used his judgment and experience to ultimately select a preferred governance and participation framework for NGOs in national development and reconstruction in a country such as Angola.

2.7 Literature on the theoretical context

According to Kaldor (2003) a civil society organisation “is the medium through which a social contract between the governing institutions and the governed is negotiated and reproduced. It also includes defining moments such as constitutional conventions and round table discussions”. However, civil society is inextricably linked to individual rights or Human Rights (HRW, 2009). According to Vienes et al. (2005), civil society is a major driver for change; given the state’s many shortcomings and the severe challenges it has had to face, as well as the actual role that church and other non state agents have played in lobbying for peace and change, or providing services during war times. There has been a view that civil society may be a primary driver of change (Portes et al., 1996). The book by Cabral and Vidal (2007) traces the roots of the Angolan state to its pre-colonial and colonial history, although in its introduction, Cabal argues that Angola is not a unique case, explained by its history, war and wealth; instead it is another example of the patrimonial politics that pervade the region and persist across different regime types.

Also Cabral and Vidal (2007), successfully make the case for Angola as a patrimonial state but, it is also clear that the interaction of war and oil make that label particularly relevant. According to C. Michelsen Institute (CMI) Report (2009) “civil society organisations case are the big problem for the twenty first century,” is the more recent academic resource on civil society organisations and post conflict in general, and particularly on the Angolan civil society
organisations. Although various academic journals on development and reconstruction include articles that focus on the Angolan post conflict in particular, they also serve as sources to define civil society as a human concept. According to Vidal and Cabral (2007), Angola post conflict development and reconstruction is a big issue for civil society organisations in challenging the peace process and for implementing national policy. In this study, civil society was defined in terms of five versions. According to Vidal and Cabral, (2007) these five versions are: Societal Civilis; Burgerliche Gesellschaft; Activist; Neoliberal and Postmodernism which are views within a rule of low and a market society. The most recent work of Escobar, (2008) proposes a framework on how empowerment can be conceptually understood and operationally explored. Also Escobar, (2008) sought to introduce new ideas and new evidence from the theme of empowerment.

2.7.1 Angolan Civil Society

Bratton (1989) gives contemporary criticism on government’s role towards civil society participation in development and construction and also demonstrates how international partnership with local level government can assist improving the livelihoods of Angola’s poorest citizens. Civil society has historically played a central role in Angola and will continue to do so. According to Lister (2004), Angola has changed since its civil conflict ended so the role of civil society organisations in the implementation of national policy is very crucial. According to Shreiner (2001) there is an understanding that Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) can be useful partners – an understanding which has its roots in the times when CSOs were possibly the only service providers to rural populations and were seen as standing shoulder to shoulder with local populations in times of war. According to Tremblay (1997) “demilitarization of conflict and society is crucial to capacity building and sustainable peace in countries emerging from the scourge of civil conflict”.

Shreiner (2001) argues that even when long-lasting conflict come to an end, the processes which facilitate the potentially volatile transition from “formal peace to social peace are critically important’. In their book, they argue on the mechanisms of civil conflict, for example demilitarization, including “disarming, demobilizing and reintegrating former combatants into
society with the help of civil society organisations” Tremblay (1997). This study has considered
the work of leading alternative academics as equally valid and deserving of academic
consideration. For instance, Tremblay, (1997) reviewed Angola’s unstable past, with a particular
interest on the impact that political, social and economic turmoil has had on the community of
Angola. In the same book, he also reviews the past years of the Portuguese in Angola and how
their colonial rule destroyed the community and traditions through slavery and exploitation.
Shreiner (2001) argues that Angola was a Cold War staging ground during the post independence
period. In 1992, the country tried and failed its first democratic elections when the UNITA
opposition party refused to accept the election results and took the country back to war. He
showed in this book that despite the huge resources Angola has, the legacy of Portuguese empire
and years of civil conflict has destroyed the economy such that the Angolan people have become
poorer and dependent on humanitarian aid. Shreiner, (2001) argues that constructive
participation for all communities particularly of civil society is crucial for long lasting peace and
prosperity for Angola.

2.8 Capacity building – A systematic Review

Governments are confronted with increasing demands from their users brought about by changes
such as devolution, technological change, public-private partnerships technological change and
globalisation. Consequently, public sector agencies are required to respond and adapt in a
manner that meets these challenges. Such transformations are often associated with building
capacity and capability, which has become a central theme for public policy (Hall, 2002),
emerging a wide range of areas such as environmental concerns, healthcare, prisons and
increasingly public procurement. The widespread uptake of the terms “capability” and “capacity”
into everyday parlance, particularly by policy-makers, suggests a need to undertake a thorough
and systematic review of existing literature and empirical evidence in order to enhance our
understanding of how these terms are employed across sectors and disciplines. The study
employs a systematic review of the literature as opposed to a traditional narrative review.
Building on NGO research methods, systematic literature reviews have gained increasing
credence within management research (Shreiner, 2001; Denyer and Neely, 2004) and through the
use of a transparent and reproducible process (Tranfield et al., 2003), the aim is to overcome the
issue of researcher bias often evident in narrative literature reviews. Systematic literature reviews commonly employ a three-stage methodology as shown in Table 2. This review commenced by outlining each of the stages undertaken during the review of the literature. It went on to report on the research that looks at “capacity” and “capability”, providing both a descriptive and thematic analysis. The review concluded by considering the key features of the research, implications this had for procurement before suggesting areas for future research.

Table 2.2 – Stages of the systematic review (adapted from Tranfield et al. 2003)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage 1: Planning the Review</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Action 0 – Identification of the need for a review</td>
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<td>Action 1 – Preparation of a proposal for review</td>
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<td>Action 2 – Development of a review protocol</td>
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<tr>
<th>Stage 2 – Conducting a Review</th>
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<tr>
<td>Action 3 – Identification of research</td>
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<td>Action 4– Selection of studies</td>
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<td>Action 5 – Study quality assessment</td>
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<td>Action 6 - Data extraction &amp; monitoring progress</td>
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<td>Action 7 – Data synthesis</td>
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<tr>
<th>Stage 3 – Reporting &amp; Dissemination</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Action 8 – The report &amp; recommendations</td>
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<td>Action 9 – Getting evidence into practice</td>
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</table>

**Stage 1: Planning the review**

A review panel was established to identify and define the scope of the study and support the process of study selection. In line with recommendations proposed by Tranfield et al (2003), the
panel consisted of experts in methodology and theory and leading practitioners operating in the field of study – in this case, the field of non-governmental organisation. The objective of the review was to identify the factors influencing capacity and capability at a local, regional and national level. A management review protocol was designed to support the process, however, unlike NGO reviews, the protocol was sufficiently flexible to allow creativity, but sufficiently structured to avoid any researcher bias affecting the outcome (Tranfield et al, 2003).

**Stage 2: Conducting the review.**

In this stage and according to (Tranfield et al 2003), the literature search begins with keywords and search terms. For this study, we selected the following keywords and strings: “capacity and capability”; “capability and capacity”; “capacity development” and capability; “capability development” and capacity; “development of capability” and capacity”; “development of capacity” and capability; “building capability” and capacity; “building capacity” and capability; “capacity building” and capability; “capability building” and capacity. An initial search was conducted of all document texts entering these search keywords into Proquest. ProQuest is a comprehensive electronic database covering over 10,000 articles and was selected for its high quality indexing and abstracting which supports precise searching, resulting in a high proportion of relevant hits.

### 2.8.1 Thematic analysis of Capacity and Capability

No review of capacity and capability can go without differentiating between capacity and capability, although it was found that many articles switched freely between the two terms. Shreiner (2001) attempts to make a distinction on the individuals, separately or as a group, and their competence to undertake the responsibilities as an individual or group. To actually perform or complete a task is not only the assignment, the level of resources required, and the context in which they are performed. Frank’s definition is in line with that employed by the World Bank.

In the selected literature, the most commonly adopted definition of capacity is that proposed by our relationships and values that enable individuals, groups and organisations at any level of
society to carry out functions or tasks, and to achieve their capacity and capability, highlighting the synonym of the two terms, which may explain why authors interchange between the phrases so readily. However, as Honadle highlighted back in 1981, it is highly unlikely that an agreement will be reached in terms of defining capacity and nearly 30 years on this still appears to be the case. According to Hall (2002), regardless of definition, one cannot ignore the politics of capacity since the political environment may influence the options regarding resource allocation. Thereafter, the following questions must be taken in consideration: What additional capacity is necessary? What does capacity cost? “How should capacity investments be evaluated, how frequently? How can adequate capacity be sustained?” (Hall, 2002:24). Capacity-building, although there is no agreed consensus regarding capacity, has now become a central theme, particularly within the development community. Debates surrounding “capacity” are believed to have initially emerged in the 1980s, following the publication of the Berg Report (World, Bank, 2011), when it was used as an all-encompassing term to address the need for developing nations to take on responsibility for their own advancement Tremblay (1997).

The concept of “capacity-building” arose from the recognition of the need to embrace a wider view that went beyond economic and institutional development to include the development of physical, human, organisational, social and cultural capital Tremblay (1997) The commonly accepted definition of capacity-building, and the definition employed by this study, is that proposed by the UNDP (United Nations Development Programme): “the process by which individuals, groups, organizations, institutions and countries develop their abilities, individually and collectively, to perform functions, solve problems and achieve objectives” (UNDP, 1997). Alaerts et al (1997), point out that the widespread popularity of the concept of capacity building nearly renders the term meaningless, generating a misperception that it simply relates to skills and abilities. Consequently, in 1991 the UNDP held a conference in Delft, in order to develop an understanding of capacity building and proposed that it consisted of the following three elements:

- The creation of an enabling environment with appropriate policy and legal frameworks, institutional development, including community participation human resource development and strengthening the managerial system.
Leadership such as top management and board skills, the clarity of responsibilities and the ability of the chief executive (Hall, 2002).

Internal management systems such as the strategic planning process, financial management systems, information systems and performance management processes.

Internal structures including management and governance structures, delegation, access to technology and diversity amongst staff.

External relationships such as collaborations with other organisations, fundraising, volunteer recruitment, changes in demand for a service, clarification of the mission and improved marketing.

Adopting a holistic view, The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), held in Rio de Janeiro, in 1992 proposed that capacity-building “encompasses the country’s human, scientific, technological, organizational, institutional and resource capabilities. A fundamental goal of capacity building is to enhance the ability to evaluate and address the crucial questions related to policy choices and modes of implementation among development options, based on an understanding of environment potential limits and needs perceived by the people of the country concerned” (UNCED, 1992). In his review of capacity-building, Hall (2002), identifies five areas for capacity building: human resource development, research and advocacy, information access, use and dissemination of information, organisational development (including networking, alliance building and coalitions) and financial sustainability.

**Table. 2.3 Capacity building approaches (1)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Capacity-building defined</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community health (Goodman, 1998; Labonte, 2002; Jackson, 2003)</td>
<td>Building of transferable sustainable skills, resources that relate to health promotion programmes across different levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community-organisation (Loza, 2004)</td>
<td>Contribution by private sector to meet the economic and social needs of its local community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health (Milèn, 2001)</td>
<td>Ability to perform specified functions in a manner that contributes towards the objectives of the team, organisation and health system of rural community.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Public administration (Honadle 1981; Hall, 2002) | Build the skills of government officials to address problems, evaluate policy alternatives and implement government programmes of the community.

Emergency/disaster relief (Shrover, 2007) | Expand medical humanitarian care facilities/resources to meet the surge in need.

International development (World Bank, 1997; Ogilvie, 2003; Clark, 2000) | Build the skills of public agencies in developing countries to address capacity issues. Human resource management

(Faramand, 2004) | Building and enhancing highly qualified, motivated and able individuals across all levels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approaches</th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical &amp; organisational approach</td>
<td>Focus on internal improvements to individual</td>
<td>Short-term &amp; specific focus of approach unable to deal with system-wide issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Able to quickly address specific issues through approaches such as TQM,</td>
<td></td>
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2.8.2 Factors affecting sustainable capacity building

Studies of capacity-building differentiate between different levels and dimensions (Tranfield et al. 2003). (UNDP 1997) identifies three levels: the micro (individual), the meso (organizational), the macro (systemic level). The concept of levels does not imply that capacities must be tackled at every level in a single programme, but suggests the need to identify the limiting factor - a problem at one level may have implications for the system as a whole (Miller, 2002). Further, the effective use of capacities may be influenced by external factors as well as those that are internal and it is important to take these factors into consideration (Miller, 2002); Table 4 summarizes internal and external factors affecting capacity building, and consequently, the sustainability of the organisations.

Table. 2.4 Capacity-building approaches (adapted from UNDP, 1998)
formal organisations. Looks at how organisation manages different functions e.g. procurement or service delivery and aims for improvements within each component. Problems generally identified: poor structure, systems & skills (lack of). Usual solutions: training, technical assistance, internal administrative development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Systems &amp; network approach</strong></th>
<th>A well-managed partnership can deliver a service that neither organisation could deliver in isolation. May result in new collaborations, inspiration and solutions for each party</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managing the relationships &amp; interactions between organisations, as well as improving the performance of individual organisations. Focus on co-ordination, management of diverse perspectives &amp; conflict resolution. Combines resources in different parts of the Systems to address problems. Public and private partnerships play an important role. Public organisations can provide legitimacy, public goods &amp; services. Private organisations: technology, productivity &amp; management expertise.</td>
<td>Trying to coax communities &amp;/or networks of organisations to collaborate and move in the same direction.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Social approach
Recognises the importance of social relationships in promoting effective ways of working, making it easier to organise, make decisions, manage risk, communicate, acquire information, services and resources. Particularly pertinent at the local level. Identifies a need to exploit social capital where strong and build on it where it is weak. Requires organisations with facilitation & brokering skills.

| Worked well where social capital is strong and community action plays a significant role, strengthening human values, patterns and behaviour. |
| Difficult to implement where social capital is low and communities are troubled with isolation, distrust & divisiveness. |

### Political approach
Recognises the role of governance in relation to capacity-building. Requires a political system that places an onus on performance, protecting vulnerable technical and organisational systems from excessive interference. Much about demand as it is about supply i.e. addresses the needs identified by its citizens.

| Creates incentives and pressures for government organisations to deliver innovative solutions, especially at the local level. |
| Lack of a strong political environment may discourage donors from proceeding with technical aspects of capacity building. Political change can take a long time to occur. |

### 2.8.3 Capacity-building strategies
According to UNDP (UNDP, 1997), capacity-building strategies can be classified into four types: 1. The technical and organisational approach, 2. The systems network approach 3. The social approach and 4. The political approach. Each approach is summarized in Table 2.4. The technical and organisational approach is the traditional approach to capacity-building. However,
in the 1980s, growing pressure to address environmental issues resulted in a growing awareness that individual organisations did not have the capability to address such problems on their boundaries between the public and partnerships. At the same time these changes brought transformations in the non-profit sector, placing them under more pressure to deliver services (Lister, 2004).

The end result was a change in the nature of capacity-building towards a systems and network approach that considered the demands of key stakeholders and their relationships, where systems or networks of organisations worked together to bring about improvements. Social networks are intrinsic in bringing about these improvements, whether it is within a single organisation, or at a system or network level. The social approach arose from identifying the need to build on social relationships to promote partnerships and collaboration, recognizing that capacity-building is as much technical and organisational in nature. Finally, the political approach addresses the role of governance environment, because it is difficult to implement or encourage donors to consider any capacity-building programmes.

2.8.4 Capacity-building as a process

Since capacity-building occurs over time, it should be perceived as a process as opposed to a single intervention (Tranfield et al. 2003). Generally, it is viewed as a systemic as opposed to a linear process (Lister, 2004; Maguir, 2003). Honadle has developed a framework to demonstrate the systemic nature of capacity-building (see Table 2.5). To succeed, capacity-building should include each of the following components. The ability to:

- anticipate and influence change
- make informed, intelligent decisions about policy
- develop programmes to implement policy
- attract and absorb resources
- manage resources; and
- evaluate current activities to guide future actions.
For instance, some non-governmental organisations are extremely competent in attracting funding, but for the donors, it is important that these organisations can actually manage the funds and learn from their experiences. Without the staff, skills and time to use the funds in the appropriate manner, programmes cannot be implemented effectively. A capable organisation can negotiate each of the steps, “managing its physical, human, informational and financial resources” (Honadle, 1981 p.378).

Table 2.5: Capacity-building framework (Honadle, 1981, p.378)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What</th>
<th>Evaluate Activities</th>
<th>Accumulate experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anticipate Demographic, Economic &amp; Political change</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make Policy</td>
<td>Devises programmes to implement policies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop Programmes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attract Resources</td>
<td>Recruits &amp; selection of personnel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absorb Resources</td>
<td>Processing of new employees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manage Resources</td>
<td>Budgeting &amp; financial management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Level of Activity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How Well It is doing it</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisation is</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Lincoln and Guba, 1985) propose a similar framework, with a focus on environmental capacity-building. They view capacity-building as a multifactorial process (see Table 2.6), influenced by:

1. Actor groups
2. Cultural, political and economic conditions
3. The nature of the problem – how easily it is to develop a solution, the systemic nature of the problem; whether it is conventional or latent/creeping (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).
In an overview of capacity-building approaches (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) identifies six key processes that are characteristic of good and successful practice:

1. Building local ownership and self-reliance. Organisations must take on responsibility for their own capacity building programmes, directing donors accordingly.
2. Practicing genuine partnerships. This involves establishing networks and alliances with key stakeholders, the sharing of goals and decisions. It requires strong communication skills and agreement on needs and outcomes.
3. Understanding the context specificity of capacity and its development. Defining “capacity for what” and ensuring that capacity building is seen as an integral process as opposed to an offshot of a project.
4. Examining capacities in a context of systems and strategic management. Those involved must have resources, commitment, strategic thinking, technical skills, political sensitivity and persistence. Any relevant expertise should be exploited.
5. Long-term commitment of partners. There must be a clear understanding of the capacities that are needed now and in the future; capability-building initiatives should be flexible and adaptable, employing suitable methodologies.

6. Exercising the process-thinking in all phases of capacity-building such as setting objectives, strategic planning, action, monitoring and evaluating results, promoting a holistic view rather than a focus on inputs and outputs.

2.9 Summary

This chapter has discussed the review of related literature on NGOs’ sustainability and the problem faced by civil society organisations in Angola. The chapter has highlighted the impediments faced by civil society organisations in the performance of their duties. Civil society organisations face numerous challenges in the execution of their duties in Angola such as government structural issues, civil society organisations issues i.e. individualism, lack of cooperation and financial management. Community capacity building of NGOs is recognised as an essential strategy to strengthen the wellbeing of individuals, families and communities and underpins much of the work of government and other non-governmental agencies. The evolving nature of my understanding of community capacity building is reflected in the continued development and expansion of the language used to describe the concept.

Following review of recent community capacity building projects, it became clear that it would be beneficial to develop a conceptual framework that pulled together the range of theories and models that have come to be known as community building. Approaches to capacity and capacity building have moved away from an individual focus to a wider systems view, where the actions of an individual or organisation have implications for the system to which an individual belongs. Such a view does not necessitate the need to undertake systems-wide programmes, but the need to appreciate the contextual setting and the influence of internal and external factors. To me, capacity-building and the sustainability of an organisation appears to consist of three stages:

1. Understanding and evaluating the nature of the problem - relating it to existing capacities and relating it to the context.
2. **Resourcing and implementing the process** - identifying the level of activity, the key actors involved and the type of approach.

3. **Measuring the outcome** – identifying what needs to be measured and why, using realistic timeframes and qualitative as well as quantitative techniques.

However, as highlighted earlier, capacity building is a long-term and dynamic process which requires a shared understanding of the goals and objectives by all the interested parties. This section on capacity and capacity building aimed to provide an overview on the concepts and approaches to support those involved in the development and implementation of capacity building programmes. Having reviewed the literature on challenges that NGOs face in developing sustainable capacity, we now go on to consider its close synonym, capability. Although approaches to capability building have tended to focus on either organisational capabilities or technological capabilities, there are similarities and overlaps with capacity building. Both accept the importance of an organization’s internal and external environment in shaping its activities, and also the need to adopt a systems approach to understand the implications of an individual’s/organisation’s actions. In summary, the approach that an organisation may pursue is strongly determined by the knowledge inherent to that particular organisation.

This knowledge may be tacit or cognitive, but is specific to that organisation, having been built up over the years. However, the organisation constantly needs to adapt to changes within its internal and external environment such as technological developments, change in political governance and new regulations. In some cases, the organisation may not possess the knowledge and expertise that will enable it to undertake the requisite changes and so must find a means of obtaining them. Here, the system plays an important role in supplying this knowledge and information as do the relationships that the organisation has built up over time. Research and studies into sustainability and capacity, have grown over the past thirty years, particularly in the area of capacity building. The study draws on many different sectors and disciplines, but although there is clear interest in procurement capacity and capability building this is not currently reflected in the academic literature, despite increasing information appearing in the grey literature. Having undertaken a systematic review of the literature, I as a researcher
concluded that there are some recurrent themes that are common to many of the studies. According to current knowledge, the following factors should be considered when developing capacity and capability programmes:

1. The nature of the problem; 2. Main actors; 3. Resource issues; 4. Key Issues e.g. political, cultural, social, economic and information; 5. Future issues; 6. Any other issues. I accept that studies that focus simply on the first five points may bind their findings, excluding any factors that do not fall into the defined categories. Consequently, undertaking research into sustainability, capacity and capability have added the sixth point – “Any other issues” to enable any findings that do not fall in this remit to be included as any unexpected finding may still have serious implications for the planning and designing of any future sustainability, capacity and capability initiatives. I used these six points as my framework for analysis on NGOs to enable comparison across cases and to support identification of the key challenges that Angolan NGOs face in developing sustainable capacity and capability building. I also aimed to examine the ways in which procurement capacities and capabilities can be improved or employed to support effective policy-making.

2.9.1 Perennial gaps of information

There are so many interventions for sustainability in NGOs provision. The gaps that the current study seeks to close are the challenges associated with the provision of sustainability of NGOs in Angola. Assessing sustainability in NGOs is difficult, both conceptually and empirically and has been insufficiently addressed through research programmes carried out by many scholars. In most of the research studies carried out in Angola even in Zimbabwe, the focus on NGOs often overshadows the issue of sustainability. Most research endeavours have concentrated on management related issues rather than on sustainability yet sustainability stands at the head of management. Current knowledge about the factors that influence sustainable management of NGOs is limited. The goal of universal community development (UCD) has been on the international agendas of many NGOs but without specific reference being made on the sustainability of such NGOs which is offering the services to the community. At the moment there is lack of information on a number of crucial community development issues especially those related to engagement in service provision, capacity building, and contribution to
awareness and promotion of self-organization of various groups’ outcomes. The prevalence of under-utilized information, inappropriate information and unanalysed information makes it difficult for NGOs’ leaders to develop managerial programmes to address the issues related to sustainability, which are likely to increase overall service provision achievement.

In spite of this, the most serious problem which the researcher feels has not been researched in planning the sustainability of NGOs is the absence of information on how best the delivery of sustainable NGOs can be improved. There continues to be an absence of information on what causes regular poor management an achievement in NGOs, so far there is total absence of information on how to improve the basic quality of service offered to the community (Ross 1990). These pockets of “missing” information are serious on a national scale, and are worse when considered internationally. There is a death of information on the most critical parts of the NGOs system which is a crucial aspect of non-governmental organisation service delivery quality. Most research studies carried out in other countries have focused on universal quantitative improvements in NGOs provision with very little said or discussed on quality of service and its delivery.

The provision of sustainability in NGOs, which can result in the transformation of community by virtue of their service delivery, has not been researched on much, and this has resulted in the continued mount of sustainability of non-governmental organisations in Angola. There has been insufficient attention to address issues related to the sustainability of NGOs although the individual citizen’s “right” to the welfare is now universally accepted, and although governments are obliged to respond to the social demand of their populations for right to property scents, It cannot be denied that little is done to address issues related to sustainability delivery in Angolan NGOs. These data gaps may hinder aspects of national planning and policy development, which makes it crucial to conduct research for purposes of closing the gaps. It is observed that there are no studies carried out in Angola on this matter. It is also observed that out of Angola, the majority of studies carried out in other developing countries have provided detailed information for decision-making in various areas but have provided little or no information about sustainability outcomes of quality. This is an illustration that most studies carried out so far have concentrated on globalisation of the NGOs system, but little has been researched particularly on
how to keep these organisations sustainable. It should be realised that many countries that are striving to guarantee the right to welfare to all their people have their focus on access often overshadowing the issue of quality and sustainability of services delivery, yet quality and sustainability of services delivery is supposed to stand at the heart of NGOs. It was therefore the focus of the current study to establish the major social, economic, political and technological factors that affected the services delivery outcomes with specific reference to the cluster of provinces in Angola.

The issues raised in this section present the community capacity builder with dilemmas. Therefore, it is important to understand issues like how do workers discern and interpret the fluid situations within which they are working? Or, what supports NGOs promotion workers in reflective practice? This critical literature pointed to the need to think and question ‘community sustainability and capacity building’. Whilst there is much evidence that community practices are potent in achieving levels of change, there is also evidence that for many complex reasons, community effort can be exclusionary, unjust and unhealthy. Embracing the critical literature is not a call to throw the baby out with the bathwater but to inch hopefully forward with a reflective headset: to engage in a critical community sustainable capacity building within Angolan NGOs. The next chapter, which is the research methodology, contributed to a better understanding of the topic, defining the terms that composed the concept of methodological presentations.
CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents key methodological issues that were followed to conduct this research. Among the areas covered include: Research Paradigm; Philosophical Perspective of Qualitative Research; the nature of Research Design; the Rationale for selection of the Method; Research Process; Description of the Site of the Study; Entry into the Site of the Study, Population, Data collection Instrument and Procedure; Ethical and Legal Consideration; Analysis and Interpretation of data; Validity and Reliability issues and chapter summary are among the sections which composed this chapter. Conclusively, the research methodology is one of the most complexe of all the phases of the research process, and the one that receives the least thoughtful discussion in the literature of research. Michael (2004) sees the research methodology as a planned sequence of the entire process involved in conducting research. This is a crucial stage since whatever results obtained by and large, depend on the research methodology.

Ultimately, the research methodology is a chapter that seeks to address the broad strategy or philosophical base of the research process and designing strategic plans for obtaining the required information. The research methodology, therefore, is the planned architecture of inquiry. The methodology chapter highlights the key issues related to carrying out a qualitative research which had some quantitative aspects only for the purpose of collection, analysis and presentation of data. The research was based on the qualitative methodology. This methodology was chosen because qualitative methods are typically more flexible – that is, they allow greater spontaneity and adaptation of the interaction between the researcher and the study participant. Essentially, the goal of qualitative research is to document and interpret as fully as possible the totality of whatever is being studied in particular contexts from the people’s viewpoint or frame of reference. This includes the identification, study and analysis of subjective and objective data in order to appreciate and understand the internal and external worlds of people.
Also, qualitative methods ask mostly “open-ended” questions that are not necessarily worded in exactly the same way with each participant. Therefore, with open-ended questions, participants are free to respond in their own words, and these responses tend to be more complex than simply “yes” or “no”. In addition, with qualitative methods, the relationship between the researcher and the participants is often less formal than in quantitative research. Participants have the opportunity to respond more elaborately and in greater detail. In turn, researchers also have the opportunity to respond immediately to what participants say by tailoring subsequent questions to information the participant has provided. Qualitative research is a type of scientific research. In general terms, scientific research consists of an investigation that:

- Seeks answers to a question
- Systematically uses a predefined set of procedures to answer the research question
- Collects evidence
- Produces findings that were not determined in advance
- Produces findings that are applicable beyond the immediate boundaries of the study

Qualitative research shares the above characteristics. Additionally, it seeks to understand a given research problem or topic from the perspectives of the local population it involves. Qualitative research is especially effective in obtaining culturally specific information about the values, opinions, behaviours, and social contexts of particular populations. The strength of qualitative research is its ability to provide complex textual descriptions of how people experience a given research issue. It provides information about the “human” side of an issue – that is, the often contradictory behaviours, beliefs, opinions, emotions, and relationships of individuals. Qualitative methods are also effective in identifying intangible factors, such as social norms, socio-economic status, gender roles, ethnicity, and religion, whose role in the research may not be readily apparent. Qualitative methods can help us to interpret and better understand the complex reality of a given situation and the implications of quantitative data. Although findings from qualitative data can often be extended to people with characteristics similar to those in the study population, gaining a rich and complex understanding of a specific social context or phenomenon typically takes precedence over eliciting data that can be generalized to other geographical areas or populations. The researcher deliberately selected the NGOs Save the
Children and Fundação YME, because they can provide reliable and valuable information on a particular aspect or aspects, of my research problem and this enhances deep understanding of issues being investigated. These non-governmental organisations are involved in the integrated community development sector programmes in different parts of the country. Also, purposive sampling was used by the researcher in selecting these NGOs because they have been operational for more than 5 years and had an active link with the District Rural Development Agency (DRDA). The primary research site of this study is Angola; however, its comprehensive notions will assume greater level of validity. In fact, its synthesis can have broader scope of applicability. The present chapter was devoted to formulation of objectives, research design adopted, sampling selection, and construction of research tools, case study conducted, data collection and its methods of analysis.

3.2 Research Paradigm

A paradigm provides a conceptual framework for seeing and making sense of the social world. Webster Dictionary (2008) defines paradigm as “an example or pattern: small, self-contained, simplified examples that we use to illustrate procedures, process, and theoretical point”. Kuhn (1970) defines research paradigm as the underlying assumptions and intellectual structure upon which research and development in a field of inquiry is based. According to Burrell and Morgan (1979; 24), "To be located in a particular paradigm is to view the world in a particular way." And indeed paradigm has been termed (Patton, 1990:37) a "world view". However, it was Kuhn (1970:8) who introduced the term as "universally recognized scientific achievements that for a time provides model problems and solutions to a community of practitioners" (Kuhn, 1970:113) something like a paradigm is a prerequisite to perception itself". In the postscript to his second edition, Khun (1970:175) provides a useful definition; "it stands for the entire constellation of beliefs, values, techniques and so on, shared by the members of a community."

The significance of paradigms is that they shape how we perceive the world and are reinforced by those around us, the community of practitioners. Within the research process the beliefs a researcher holds will reflect in the way the research is designed, how data is both collected and analyzed and how research results are presented. For the researcher, it is important to recognize their paradigm; it allows them to identify their role in the research process, determines the course
of any research project and distinguishes other perspectives. In management or organisational research, the term paradigm encompasses three levels. First level, the philosophical, that is the basic beliefs about the world we live in. Second level, the social level, where guidelines exist as to how a researcher should conduct his/her endeavours and thirdly, the technical level, that is the methods and techniques ideally adopted when conducting a research. At a philosophical level, organisational theories contrast in five sets of assumptions, as presented by Burwaoy (2003), as follows: in a subjectivist/objectivist dimension; ontological, epistemological, axiological, methodological assumptions and assumptions about human nature. These assumptions trickle through to lower levels and influence the research process. The conceptual analysis of Mouton (2001), identifies seven distinct concepts: The concept of Ethical Paradox, Concept of Natural Capital Stock, Concept of Equity, Concept of Global Agenda, Concept of Eco-Form, Concept of Utopia and Concept of Integrative Management. These together, synthesize and assemble the theoretical framework of ‘sustainable development’. Each concept represents distinctive meanings and aspects of the theoretical foundations of sustainability. In addition, they have interwoven relations.

**The concept of ethical paradox** rests at the heart of this framework. The paradox between ‘sustainability’ and ‘development’ is articulated in terms of ethics. In other words, the epistemological foundation of the theoretical framework of sustainable development is based on the unresolved and fluid paradox of sustainability, which as such, can simultaneously inhabit different and contradictory environmental ideologies and practices. Consequently, Social Development (SD) tolerates diverse interpretations and practices that range between ‘light ecology’, which allows intensive interventions, and ‘deep ecology’, which allows minor interventions in nature.

**The concept of natural capital** represents the material aspect of the theoretical world of sustainability. Natural capital represents the environmental and natural resource assets of development and preservation. The theoretical framework of sustainability advocates keeping the natural capital constant for the benefit of future generations.

**The concept of equity** represents the social aspects of SD. It encompasses different concepts such as environmental, social and economic justice, social equity, quality of life, freedom,
democracy, participation and empowerment. Broadly, sustainability is seen as a matter of distributional equity, about sharing the capacity for well-being between current and future generations of people.

**The concept of eco-form** represents the ecologically-desired form of urban spaces and communities. This concept represents the desired spatial form of human habitats: cities, villages and neighborhood. ‘Sustainable’ design aims to create eco-forms, which are energy efficient and designed for long life. Its common principles can be explained through the concept of ‘time-space-energy compression’, which requires reductions in time and space in order to reduce energy usage.

**The concept of integrative management** represents the integrative and holistic view of the aspects of social development, economic growth and environmental protection. According to the theoretical world of sustainability, the integration of environmental, social and economic concerns in planning and management for SD is essential. It is believed that in order to achieve ecological integrity, i.e. to preserve the natural capital stock, we need integrative and holistic approaches to management.

**The concept of political global agenda** represents a new worldwide political environmental discourse reconstituted around the ideas of sustainability. Since the Rio Summit (2005), this discourse has extended beyond purely ecological concepts to include various international issues, such as security, peace, trade, heritage, hunger, shelter and other basic services. However, the concept reflects deep political disputes between Northern and Southern countries, where the North demands ‘no development without sustainability’, and the South demands ‘no sustainability without development’.

**The concept of utopianism** represents visions for the human habitats based on SD. Generally, such utopias envision a perfect society in which justice prevails, the people are perfectly content, the people live and flourish in harmony with nature, and life moves along smoothly, without abuses or shortages. This utopia transcends the primary ecological concerns of sustainability to incorporate political and social concepts such as solidarity, spirituality and the equal allocation of
resources. Among those seven concepts, the researcher has chosen only three which in his view composed the research paradigm of this study and the theoretical world of sustainability. The three assumptions were chosen because they are more applicable and objective to my case study. The means of assuring these assumptions include actions described as follows:

- **Natural capital stock**: Sustainability means that the stock of capital (human, material and financial) should not decrease in order not to endanger the opportunities of future generations to generate wealth and well-being (Hart, 2001).
- **Equity**: Represents the social aspect of Social Development (SD). Broadly, sustainability is seen as a matter of distributional equity, about sharing the capacity for well being between current and future generations of people (Hall, 2002).
- **Ethical paradox**: The paradox between sustainability and development is articulated in terms of ethics. This means that the theoretical framework of sustainable development is based on the unresolved and fluid paradox of sustainable (Hart, 2001).

### 3.2.1 Philosophical Perspectives of Qualitative Research

Qualitative research according to Patton (2001), is a generic term for investigative methodologies described as ethnographic, naturalistic, anthropological, field or participant observer research. It emphasizes the importance of looking at critical issues and opinions in the natural setting in which they were found. In the current study, the researcher sought to collect data through open-ended questions that provided direct quotations. The interview therefore formed an integral part of the investigation on issues surrounding the non-sustainability of non-governmental organisations’ social activities in Angola. This however differs from quantitative research which attempts to gather data by objective methods to provide information about relations, comparisons, predictions and attempts to remove the investigator from interactive engagement in the investigation. Qualitative research is regarded as inter-disciplinary and sometimes counter disciplinary fields, which cross cut the humanities and the social and physical sciences. It is many things at the same time. Its practitioners are sensitive to the value of the multi-method approach. They are committed to the naturalistic perspective and to the interpretive understanding of human experience. At the same time, the field is inherently political and shaped by multiple-ethical and political positions (Lincoln and Guba 1985, as cited by Chisaka 2007).
3.3 Research design

This is a case study research, based on indigenous organisations that are drawn from more than 5 years experience. The choice for this case study research was also based on the need to reflect deeply on the individual organisation practices, which would not be possible, if so many organisations with a lesser experience were involved. As a case study research, the organisation bore salient characteristics including among others: a long history with donor funding over 10 years, many donor projects, hosting many donors and implementing many donor aided projects. The research design refers to the basic plan or strategy of the research, and the logic behind it, which will make it possible and valid to draw more general conclusions from it. It tells us how the sample is drawn, what sub-groups it must contain, what comparisons will be made. It is also concerned with making the research problem researchable by setting up the study in a way that will produce specific answers to specific questions. According to Oakland (1993) a poor design study can cause failure to provide accurate answers to the questions under investigation. This leaves too many loopholes in the conclusions to be made, permit little generalization and produce much irrelevant information, thereby wasting case, materials and resources. It is the research design which must hold all parts and phases of the enquiry together.

The research design chosen for the current study, is the case study research which seeks to understand phenomena in context specific settings, such as a “real” world setting where the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest (Patton, 2001 in Chisaka, 2007). A case study research design is a complex operation, and the first requirement is the development of a clear plan or overall research design. It should be noted that the research design broadly conceived, involves a clear focus on the research question, the purpose of the study, what information most appropriately will answer specific research questions and which strategies are most effective for obtaining the relevant data. Smith (1995:99), defines a research design as a programme to guide the researcher in collecting, analyzing and interpreting observed data. This case study on challenges of non-sustainability in the operations of NGOs Social Activities in the context of their effort to achieve human resources developmental goals was based on a qualitative, interpretive ethnographic research design. According to Chisaka (2007), the concept “interpretive”, is used to qualify the research design used by the researcher, in order
to distinguish it from other ethnographic designs, such as “narrative”, to emphasize the approach adopted. That is said, because the ethnographic method is an observation of and interaction with persons or a group being studied in the group's own environment, often for long periods of time. Ethnographic research is a fact-finding activity generally undertaken to collect the opinions and behaviours of a specific group, community or population, and to detail the account of the prevailing situations. However, using the aforementioned method which is based on emic perspectives, the insider’s viewpoint, through the etic perspective (the outsiders’ viewpoint) might change after a prolonged engagement with participants in their natural environment. In other words, the insiders will open themselves after they get used and talk freely to the outsiders after a prolonged period of time, say 3 or 5 weeks. The outsider can consider himself/herself as an insider outsider. Emic and etic perspectives are important to research because they impact on the research process, the findings of a study and the argument made by the researcher about the implications of the findings (Chisaka, 2007).

The nature of ethnographic work involves the interpretation of cultures (Geertz, 1983). Therefore, there is a responsibility on the part of the researcher of the culture being studied, because the perspective of the researcher has an impact on the knowledge produced about that cultural group. Ethnographic work constructs culture through the process of research and writing. Generally, a research design is a plan of action on how one intends to go about collecting data. Therefore, in this research design there was use of evaluation, case study or timeframe. The data obtained for the present study are descriptive or qualitative in nature, because descriptive research does not essentially seek to test hypothesis or make predictions of the study. Many authorities have attempted to define research design in several ways. Bryman (1988:34) defines a research design as a series of advance decisions that when taken together, comprise a model of how the investigation to answer research questions was conducted. It can be considered as a blueprint to guide the data collection activities, data processing and information transmission and analysis. Thereafter, the primary question posed in this thesis was:

What are the underlying factors resulting in the non-sustainability of NGO operations in Angola?
Implicit in the question, is the issue of whether or not capacity building, training, flexible work practices and other aspects of human resource development are valued as vital elements of an organisation’s operations, in order to answer the research question and to identify the enablers and barriers inherent in the Angolan NGOs policies, events and attitudes that encourage or discourage them from providing these services. In this research, the design used was the case study which was complemented by ethnographic methods such as the method of participant observation. Because of the emphasis on the “How” of the issue, the researcher has selected the qualitative case study approach as the most appropriate means for conducting this study. According to Stake (1995:51), a case study goes beyond “yes” and “no” answers to elicit “... [descriptions] of an episode, a linkage, an explanation”.

Hart (2001) recommended the selection of a case study when the questions asked by the researcher are “what” and “why” in nature and “...when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real life context”. Merriam (1995), differentiated case studies from other forms of research, based on their focus on multiple variables in a single unit, rather than a few variables across numerous units, thereby discovering “... the interplay of significant factors that is characteristic of the phenomenon” (p. 108). Merriam (1995), indicated that qualitative research is selected when “...insight, discovery and interpretation” are more appropriate to the researcher’s study than the testing of hypotheses. In addition Merriam (1995), identified characteristics of qualitative research that are pertinent to this study. She defined the naturalistic paradigm as placing meaning in a naturally occurring context (p. 3), and a particularistic study as one that focuses on a particular situation, event, programme or phenomenon (p. 11). Merriam identified interpretative studies as using data to “analyze, interpret, or theorize about the phenomenon” (p. 35).

Bogdan and Biklen (1992:11), used similar terminology to describe observational case studies, i.e., focusing on one organisation or a part of that organisation. They identified major data gathering techniques as “participant observation” (p. 63). The parameters for qualitative research presented above are applicable to this study. Yin (1994:36), indicated that we, as researchers, had no control over the events we observed. Furthermore, the focus of this study is “...a contemporary phenomenon within some real life context” (p. 1). As explained by Merriam
(1995:106), multiple variables exist in a single unit, i.e., the perceptions and experiences of several stakeholders who represent management, administration, and operations of the Angolan NGOs being studied. Merriam (1988), was the most significant contributors to this study. With the above descriptions of particularistic qualitative case study in mind, researcher applied interpretative qualitative research methods, based on the naturalistic paradigm, in order to understand the issues arising in this study. The researcher conducted grounded open-ended questions by completing case studies in Luanda, Cabinda, Benguela, Huila and Namibe provinces. Following the principles proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1998), the above named provinces were chosen due to: the size and population of each one of them; state of development; easy access to information; receptiveness of NGOs in their midst and the accessibility to their districts. The interviewees from these NGOs responded to questions and engaged in discussions about their backgrounds and experiences, their daily operations and their consulting practices. These data, in turn, became the means to sample events and incidents that emerged as a body of information. Therefore, the present investigation has adopted an exploratory approach.

The exploratory approach was selected due to the very nature of the issues, participants and type of questions that arise, for generating data. The data obtained for the present study were qualitative in nature. The data were collected from personnel of selected ONGs based in the following provinces: Luanda, (Capital of Angola), Cabinda, Benguela, Huila and Namibe. The exploratory study was used for exploring the various processes, methods and tools used by the NGOs for capacity building in the context of achievement of developmental goals. Although there are similarities between qualitative and quantitative research, but some procedures are very different, because of the different nature and assumptions of the data and questions that were answered. The effect of an investigator on a study is the principles of sampling, and the processes of organisation and interpretation during analysis, all affect research activities and outcome. All in all, my approach was not to simply narrate the stories told to me by participants, the events that I saw and what I read in documents. My approach was to analyze the data of my investigation in a descriptive manner and then produce a comprehensive interpretation of that data. The comprehensive interpretation of my data was supported by thick descriptions of that data, as suggested by Wolcott (1997) and Vakalisa (1995) as cited by Chisaka (2007).
To evaluate the ability of NGOs to administer services in Angola and to analyze possible problems associated with their work, I examined case studies of service delivery in five provinces, which are similar to one another but have much more extensive histories of NGO service delivery. The experience of NGO sustainable service provision in this country offers a proxy for understanding the potential advantages and disadvantages of expanded future NGO provision in Angola. Specifically, I evaluated NGO public service provision in the health, education, rural and small business development sectors of Angola. These sectors determine a minimum standard of living in developing countries and are thus considered essential for human well-being.

3.4 The Rationale for selection of the Method

The case study design assumes that each case is special and unique. The first level of inquiry is being true to respecting and capturing the details of the individual cases being studied, cross-case analysis followed from and depended on the quality of individual case studies. They place findings in a social, historical and temporal context, free from the possibility or meaningfulness of generalization across time and space. A case study pays attention to the idiosyncratic as well as the pervasive, seeking the uniqueness of each case (Merriam, 1998). I as an interpretive researcher sought to learn what was meaningful or relevant to the people being studied or how individuals experienced their daily lives.

As the researcher, I did this by getting to know a particular social setting and seeing it from the point of view of those in it. I shared the feeling and opinions of the people I studied and saw things through their eyes and interpretations. Newman (1997), notes that, reports from case study researchers get rich descriptions, colorful details and unusual characters instead of a formal neutral tone with statistics. Silverman (1998), also noted the open-ended nature of case study research project which lead to a perpetual resistance against attempts to impose a single umbrella like design over the entire project. There are multiple interpretive projects, including performance ethnographies, standpoint epistemologies, critical race theory, materialist, feminist ethnographies and projects connected to the British cultural studies (Merriam, 1998).
Thus a case study is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world of study. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. In analyzing case study data, mathematical techniques are minimally used, although assuredly rudimentary or implicit counting and measuring are involved Newman (1997). Thus the case study approach can give the intricate details of phenomenon that are difficult to convey with other designs. The participants’ views were reported in the spontaneous and meaningful ways that they were actually expressed by the informants. The research design chosen attempted to shed light on a phenomenon by studying in-depth a single case. In this case a single cluster was identified for the study.

3.4.1 Research process

The actual research process is approximately six steps; identifying the research topic, defining the research problem, determining how to conduct the research or the method, collecting research data before analysing and interpreting these data and finally presenting the results (Merriam, 1998). Within these steps operates the researcher and the quantitative and qualitative research approaches. In identifying a research topic the researcher sorts through a broad research topic to clarify a precise set of ideas or concepts. Examination of any area for research can yield an infinite variety of questions; however, there are constraints in resources and the requirements of future users. Therefore, it is essential to identify those questions which can be addressed within the constraints imposed and the questions that match the needs of those using the research results (Davis et al., 1989; 6). To further clarify the research topic and define the research problem, a review of existing literature was undertaken. A review of existing literature identified what researchers have found to be important and provided a basis for the researcher to work from (Davis et al., 1989; 6).

It is literally looking again at prior research. It further provided the researcher with a degree of competence within their research area, assists in developing the researchers’ knowledge and identified the boundaries of previous research, therefore focusing and justifying the research problem. A sound literature review, according to Merriam (1995), gives a good basic framework to proceed further with the investigation." by clarifying the research problem and identifying likely variables. Research design is determining how to conduct the research and the methods
used. The research topic has been refined into a problem statement or tentative question, the researcher is ready to compose a proposal. Research design has been referred to by Merriam, (1995), as "a master plan specifying the methods and procedures", and by Yin (1994:36) as a "detailed plan which you will use to guide and focus your research.". Here the researcher was concerned with why he would collect certain data, what data he would collect, where and how he would collect them, and how he would analyse the data in order to answer the research questions. The research purpose is defined as exploratory and descriptive. A theoretical framework was developed. This framework is a conceptual model of the relationships among the factors identified as important to the research problem (Davis et al 1989).

From this, the research questions were refined and the research strategy introduced. The research strategy, a subset of research design, includes elements of data collection and interpretation and emerges from both the research purpose and questions. In research design causality is vital for a functionalist researcher to predict patterns of behaviour (Putnam, 1983; 41). Therefore, the research purpose is causal or predictive and the research strategy would typically involve using secondary data, survey techniques and classic experiments. In contrast an exploratory research purpose would tend to favour, as a strategy, a case study involving participant observation or a field study with in-depth interviewing. A certain rationale emerges in research design that suggests a particular data collection, method or methods, a particular unit of analysis and sample selection. Sampling is the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from a population to represent the properties or characteristics of that population Merriam (1998).

In presenting results, it is the narrative of the participants that speaks. The initial steps in the qualitative research process are similar to that used by a positivist researcher. The research topic is identified, refined and clarified. A literature review is undertaken and the research problem takes form. However, interpretive research is primarily exploratory and descriptive in purpose designed to discover what can be learned about the area of interest. The interpretive researcher views the world as a socio-psychological one where there are multiple realities forming an interconnected whole that can only be understood as these multiple realities manifest. According to Patton in Chisaka (2007), in organizational culture studies, "functionalism and interpretive differ in the extent to which they define an analytical framework prior to entering the organization to be studied".
What this means is that interpretive research design evolves over time as features emerge from the research that the initial design did not cover. The design steps essentially remain the same, however, they are not as rigid as the quantitative approach. The researcher is guided by their research not the framework. The qualitative approach to research strategy is characterised by lower sample numbers, than quantitative research, and participants selected to expand variability and represent the natural population. Normally forms of non-probability sampling such as accidental or purposive are used Merriam (1995). This approach is often time consuming as patterns slowly emerge. Also what is true in one context may not be true in another therefore data may need to be gathered in a variety of contexts, which takes both time and effort, Merriam 1995). The interpreter also explores first and then develops theory later, thus allowing deeper explanations and insights. However, some uncertainty exists as it is possible that nothing of value may emerge.

3.5 Description of the Site and Scope of the Study

The study covered two NGOs in five provinces of Angola (see map bellow). The country has a total of approximately 350 registered NGOs, but only about 100 of these organisations were operational. Of those 100, even fewer were functioning at full capacity of what they should be. It is generally agreed that the real number of NGOs and Community Based Development Organisations (CBDOs) is considerably higher. The diagram bellow shows a sketch map of Angola indicating all provinces.
Figure 3.1 shows the geographical site of the study area

As indicated in the sketch map above, the five study areas are: Cabinda in the north, Luanda and Benguela in the west on the boundary of Atlantic ocean. Namibe province on the same boundary of Atlantic ocean but in south west and Lubango (Huila) situated in the southern part of the country. In terms of content, the groups and the respondents in the study were chosen from those that were directly and indirectly affected by the project of the case study organisation. In terms of time-frame, this research examined sustainability issues of projects that were implemented by the case study organisations for over the last ten (10) years from 2000 to 2010.

3.6 Entry into the Site of the Study

This study was done in Cabinda, Luanda, Benguela, Huila and Namibe, all provinces of Angola (see map of the description of the site of the study provided above). The entry into the site of the study was made according to the order of the provinces from north to south as illustrated in the above map. The preference at the beginning of the research in Cabinda and Luanda was informed
by the fact that these cities had more research work to be done. Since December 2012, steps were taken by the researcher with a view to obtain permission from the concerned local authorities in Angola for the realization of this project. One of the managers of a local NGO in Angola, upon request, allowed the researcher to follow and be part as an observer in meetings and other training sessions offered to workers. So, these initiatives placed the researcher in vantage position to share for over two months, the experiences of employees of NGOs, some who are seasoned workers with long experience. The start of the first week marked my presence as a stranger. Although I entered their working environment it appeared that neither was there any doubt about my position as a researcher, nor about my profession as a police officer; or being an outsider.

In my view, this position made me more credible: I did not pretend to have the expertise of those I was observing. Moreover, at the beginning of the first day, the supervisor raised doubts about the reasons for my presence in the field of study, introducing me as part of a study at the university, to support a Doctoral Thesis on the Challenges of Sustainability of NGOs in Angola. During the two months of field research in Angola, the researcher had to constantly move with his notebook and audio-recorder. Invariably, this meant that the researcher had to spend days and weeks listening, participating and meeting with employees of the NGOs with a view to understand the substantive content of their work as well as gauging the employment profile of task managers. The researcher was thus gradually introduced to a new environment, which was many a time accessed through the media, or through secondary sources. In other words, the researcher was entering the environment of study as an outsider and thereby becoming an inside outsider.

**Entry in Cabinda**

Cabinda is a beach province and a business centre situated in the north of Angola, 7.270Km2 and has a population of 170.000 inhabitants. There is a representation of NGO Save the Children with an average of 42 employees with the same public service needs. NGOs have also been important for service delivery in Cabinda province, but security complications have made their work very difficult. Civil conflicts in Cabinda limit government resources in the provision of public services and prevent NGOs from operating freely in the region. Cabinda’s rebels threaten
civil order by attempting to overthrow the current government. Cabinda’s insurgents cripple the ability of NGOs especially the government to supply services by blocking major transportation routes and staging violent confrontations. In addition, logistical factors complicate the provision of public services in Cabinda. Cabinda is the richest province in oil and wood, but the population is generally poor and averagely educated. Communication and transport are underdeveloped, and more than 60 percent of the population lives in rural areas (Merriam 1995). The Angolan government regulates and closely monitors NGOs within its borders, which also hinders the effectiveness of public service provision. The Ministry of Social Welfare is a government office mandated to coordinate the registration of NGOs, the approval of programmes, funding, and the monitoring of progress. In 2005, the introduction of the Social Welfare Ordinance mandated the government not only to “extend” support as legislated, but to issue directives and supervise activities of NGOs as well (Integrated Regional Information Network in EIU (2001) country profile).

Local and international NGOs alike are concerned about the effect the Ordinance will have on their operations, giving rise to protests. Overally, the conservative and highly centralized government is well equipped to handle public services in rural regions. A lack of resources and inadequate management impede NGOs in Cabinda. The contracting regime is underdeveloped, and a legal framework for public, private, and NGO partnerships does not exist. Staff is generally underpaid and unskilled. Nevertheless, Angola has a large NGO sector of approximately 350 registered organizations with strong local roots and a high level of public esteem (EIU 2001). Public service projects frequently encounter implementation problems in Cabinda in particular and Angola in general. Small NGOs, though enthusiastic, lack technical knowledge. Larger organizations tend to be overconfident, working casually without consulting local people. Due to a widespread lack of education and technical experience, local workers employed by NGOs often produce shoddy results. The Cabinda Social Welfare Council, as an NGO umbrella organization, is inefficient, has little training or experience in development projects, and is a weak partner for NGOs involved in public service provision (Merriam 1995).
NGO service delivery in Luanda

After many years of civil war, one of the biggest challenges the country faces is a rapid growth in population resulting from a high fertility rate. Currently, Luanda the capital of Angola, has an estimated population of more than 7,000,000, and most NGOs have their head Offices in Luanda. In Luanda and Angola generally, public health challenges have become so huge that the government implemented urgent measures to supply adequate health care. Less than 10 percent of the population has access to modern primary health-care services EIU, (2001). As a result, NGOs and private actors provide health services. Generally, the government and NGOs collaborate to supply health care to women, children, and poor people EIU, (2006). The role of the government is not mainly limited to the policy setting. On the other hand, in Luanda, the government remains the primary provider of health services, especially in underserved rural areas, although NGOs’ share of service provision has significantly increased in recent years.

NGO service delivery in Benguela

Benguela is a beach province situated in the south of Angola, is 31.78Km2 in size, with population of 770,000. In Benguela, maternal and child health care is one of the most pressing needs. The infant mortality rate is estimated at 35 per 1,000 live births, while the maternal mortality rate is 100 per 100,000 live birth, (USAID report (2010). The rate of malnutrition prevalence in the south rural areas of the country has been identified as a major cause of death among pregnant women and children: One out of five children suffers from severe malnutrition (EIU 2001). To respond to overwhelming health challenges that the Angolan population faces, the government encourages the involvement of NGOs and the private sector in health service delivery. More than 119 NGOs, including international organizations such as CARE, Save the Children, and World Vision, large national NGOs such as Angola Rural Advancement Committee, Concerned Women for Family Planning, and the Grameen Kalyan health programme, and also many of the small and local NGOs are active but not sustainable in Angola (EIU 2001).

With the financial support of international donors, the government has entered into agreements with NGOs, through which they collaborate to furnish basic health care in Benguela Province. Examples of this cooperation are well illustrated by programmes such as Safe Motherhood
Programmes, the Angolan Integrated Nutrition Project and the Health and Population Sector Programme. This collaboration has also been realized through capacity building, with NGOs providing training to public health workers such as nurses and midwives. In addition, NGOs have developed strategies for increasing poor people’s access to maternal and child health care in Benguela. While many working partnerships exist within the NGO community in Angola, the five largest health sector NGOs represent 73 percent of the total NGO health sector (EIU, 2001). In Benguela NGOs use village community health workers to supply door-to-door health services that mainly focus on preventive care and simple curative care, targeting women and children (World Bank 2005c). The government runs an extensive network of hospitals, but the highly centralized system suffers from a shortage of resources, mismanagement and lack of accountability (EIU, 2001).

NGOs run fewer facilities compared to the government and the private sector. With the involvement of NGOs in health-care delivery and an influx of international donations, significant improvements have occurred during the past 10 years in the health status of Angolans. According to the World Bank (2005c), these achievements include an average cure rate of 85 percent in the tuberculosis programme and a 20 percent decrease in malnutrition. Although most of the health indicators in Angola remain low even by developing country standards, the nation has achieved significant progress in recent years. In Benguela, with the contribution of NGOs, infant mortality has declined by 22 percent (Angola Ministry of Health and Family Welfare & United Nations Population Fund 2004), the infant mortality rate has dropped, and both the fertility ratio and maternal mortality rate have been reduced (Ahmed 2000). Immunization coverage increased from 2 percent in 2001 to 70 percent in 2009 (World Bank 2005c).

**NGO service delivery in Huila**

Huila province is 75,002Km2 in size, with a population of 900,000 inhabitants. NGO Save the Children has an Office with 48 employees and NGO YME office with 12 employees. Like Luanda, Cabinda, Benguela, Huila is characterized by high levels of poverty and low health indicators. The risk of dying from delivery-related causes in Huila remains high. The maternal mortality rate is estimated at 139 per 100,000 live births and is among the highest in the country. Forty percent of women receive the complete ante-natal care package (EIU, 2001).
level of poverty in rural areas, the nutrition of women and children in Huila is poor, making them vulnerable to diseases. Thus, despite recent progress, the infant mortality and under-five malaria mortality rates are high in Angola. One out of eight children born in Huila dies before her or his fifth birthday (Agarwal 1998). This indicates that maternal and child health care is a pressing need in Huila. However, universal access to basic health care is limited because of destroyed infrastructure.

According to the World Health Organization, the Angolan government’s finance mechanisms for health care are regressive and unfair because they apply user fees that do not account for different health needs. Of total expenditures, 74 percent come from households, with the state financing only 11 percent, and the remaining 15 percent coming from donors (Devkota 2005). Health service providers in the southern part of the country face the challenges of remoteness and destroyed infrastructure. NGOs play an important role in Huila’s health sector and have improved the health of women and children. For example, a consortium of NGOs has created the Safe Motherhood Network in 10 remote districts. In the past 15 years, Angola’s child mortality has been reduced by 40 percent, the fertility rate has been reduced by 20 percent, and immunization coverage has increased so that 66 percent of children are fully immunized (EIU, 2001). There is still work to be done, however, since one-third of children are not fully immunized and only 11 percent of all childbirths are attended by trained medical staff (United Nations Children’s Fund-Angola 2004).

3.7 Population, Sample and Sampling Procedures

3.7.1 Population

Merriam (1995:12), defines population as the entire group of persons having the same characteristics that are of interest to the researcher. Merriam (1998:22), asserts that, population denotes all the potential participants from which the sample is drawn. In this particular research the NGOs personnel and employees constituted the population. As it is not practical to involve the whole population in the research due to the time and financial factors, a small proportion of a population was selected for observation and analysis; this is referred to as a sample (Best and Khan, 1993:43). In order to come up with this sample, the researcher goes through a process of selecting a subset of the population or social phenomenon to be studied from a larger universe to
which they belong (Patton, 1990; 373 in Chisaka 2007). The process is resembled as sampling. The researcher used the instruments such as interviews and open-ended questions. A qualitative methodological approach followed, and a focus group discussion was utilized as a data collection tool. The applicability of interviews, open-ended questions and qualitative methodological instruments in this research, in fact, is that they are ease to use. They are the most common applicable and produce result which relate to the reality of the actual situation. Nevertheless, I considered that the approaches could have disadvantages in terms of employees who could be influenced by others to speak against their organisations.

A population according to Merriam (1998), refers to “all of events, things or individuals to be represented.” This is any group of individuals with one or more characteristics in common that are of interest to the researcher. Dale (2006) noted that in defining a population for a study, such a population must be specific enough to provide readers with a clear understanding of that same population. A target population according to Chisaka (2007) refers to the entire group of individuals or objects to which researchers are interested in generating their conclusions from. The current study used two NGOs in five provinces as its target population and these communities were accessible to me as the researcher. Castillo (2009) noted that the accessible population is the population which the researchers can easily reach for data collection and can apply their findings (http://www.Experiment_resources.com/research-population.html). (Data of Retrieval 13.08.2010). It was from the accessible population of NGOs in the five provinces of Angola that I drew the population from.

In this study, population therefore is the entire group of possible participants to a study. It is improbable to the study every individual in a given target population, there is need to survey a smaller sub-group of the target population, known as a sample. The population of a study consist of all the inhabitants of a given area considered together (knowledge based supersurvey.com/glossary.htm). Research questions should address issues that are of great relevance to important groups of the population. The target population for this case study was two NGOs in five clusters and their employees. Usually, the description of the population and the common binding characteristic of its members are the same. In the current study the two NGOs have a common binding characteristic in that, they belong to the same province, district
and cluster. In short the research population is the group whom the researcher wants to know more about and from whom a sample will be drawn. Limitations to meeting some of the important employees who could provide necessary and restricted security information that allowed me to finish this study, was considered.

3.7.2 Sample

In this research a sample was extracted from the accessible portion of population that was used for the study. According to Patton in Chisaka (2007), purposive sampling is a procedure of advantage of processing on information to reach participants. Wegner (1993:67), states that a sample is a collection of some, but not all of the elements of the population. The advantage of using a sample includes cost timeliness and accuracy. It can provide reliable and useful information at a much lower cost. Also, a sample smaller in size makes it possible to collect the sample data quickly than census data. Then, 136 participants of 2 NGOs using the above named method were interviewed. Finally, faster collection, presentation and analysis make for timeouts decision-making; a sample can often provide information that is accurate as or even more accurate than a complete census, because errors can be controlled more effectively.

The sample was therefore selected for observation and interviews. A sample is simply a subset of the population. The current study was a case study covering two NGOs that are geographically situated in the same country and deeper insights were established from the chosen cases. The study on Challenges of Sustainability in the operations of Angolan Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO’s) social activities used all the two NGOs. The two Non-Governmental Organisations are located in the same country. The population from which the participants were drawn is shown below.
Table 3.1 shows the population from which the study sample was drawn

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name Of NGO</th>
<th>Type or Category</th>
<th>Director or Deputy</th>
<th>Supervisors</th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Save the Children</td>
<td>Programmes in health, education, child protection and poverty reduction</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundação YME</td>
<td>Social Awareness Service, intervention and prevention of HIV among the drug users</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The NGOs covered in this study are situated in different provinces and belong to the same country. They offer services to children and use the most vital resources from donors; Save the Children has merged programmes and activities with other members of the International Save the Children Alliance also working in Angola. The Save the Children Fund, commonly known as Save the Children, is an internationally active non-governmental organization that promotes children’s rights, provides relief and helps support children in developing countries. The Fundação YME offers alphabetization services to the illiterate people, grant services for clean water and medical assistance. Most of the employees are drawn from the same ward. However, some of the employees are drawn from rural areas as they work as volunteers where NGOs’ offices are approximately five to six kilometers apart. The study was carried out in two NGOs in five provinces in Angola. As shown in the table below, the Non-Governmental Organisations are almost of the same size in terms of employees and managerial system. From the two Non-Governmental Organisations, participants were drawn for interviews and observations.
Table 3.2 shows the profile of NGO Development Community sample for the case study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NGO Name</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>NGO Development Community</th>
<th>Director</th>
<th>Deputy</th>
<th>Supervisors</th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Save the Children</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>4 groups of 3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>31 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundação YME</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>2 groups of 3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>31 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sample consisted of one Director of each NGO who were interviewed; and deputy director from each non-governmental organisation. Two groups of selected development community participants who were interviewed as group members of the NGO development community were interviewed as a focus group also.

### 3.7.3 Sampling procedure

According to Patton, (1990; 373) in Chisaka (2007), purposive sampling techniques is a technique with the advantage of focusing on information reach participants. More so the research is time consuming as information is obtained directly from the Angolan NGOs Staff, the subject under study. However, the shortcomings of this procedure is that it does not give an equal opportunity for all elements to be used since it falls under a realm of non-probability sampling techniques. It is also exclusive to other people as their characteristics do not suit the research. The other main cause of unrepresentative samples is non-sampling error. This type of error can occur whether a census or a sample is being used. Like sampling error, non-sampling error may either be produced by participants in the statistical study or be an innocent by product of the sampling plans and procedures. A non-sampling error is an error that results solely from the manner in which the observations are made. As stated above, this research, 210 interviewees
basically from 15 non-governmental development sectors have been selected on the basis of purposive sampling. A purposive sample is one of the types of non-probability sampling. This sampling process does not base on chance but it uses the “expert’s judgment” to select a representative sample by having specific objectives in mind. Therefore, the purposive sampling was adopted while identifying the NGOs when the investigator identified the NGOs for the study; the following criteria were kept in mind to avoid casuality errors:

1. The NGO which has completed five (5) years in existence.
2. The NGO which has more than 50 representatives within the country.
3. The NGO which has active link with District Rural Development Agency (DRDA).
4. The NGO extensively involved in capacity building processes CBP).

Based on the above conditions, there were identified only 2 NGOs in Angola with representations in the following provinces: Cabinda, Benguela, Huila, Namibe and Luanda in view of the present study. The choice of participants for any study is a critical feature as poor choices could lead to false or misleading outcomes. Hoepf (1994), noted that information regarding the inclusion and exclusion criteria for participants needs to be explicit and justifiable for qualitative field work researchers to draw a purposive sample, and acknowledge opportunities for intensive study. Sampling was always a purposeful selection of participants to inform the emerging theory in study. Purposive sampling uses a small sub-population of accessible cases. In this case two NGO in the same cluster were used as the sample. As the researcher examined various interests in the phenomenon, selecting a case of some typical, but leaning towards those cases that seem to offer opportunity to learn.

Therefore, my aim as the researcher was to examine that case from which I could learn the most and that meant taking the most accessible, the one that I spent most time with. It is therefore better to learn a lot from a typical case than a little from a seeming typical case. Basically, sampling was on the basis of concepts that had proven theoretical relevance to the evolving theory. In all cases, efforts were made to establish situations that promoted the greatest opportunity to gather the most relevant data about the phenomenon under investigation.
Sampling procedures in qualitative research are not so rigidly prescribed as in quantitative studies. In qualitative studies, sample selection has a profound effect on the ultimate quality of the study. In qualitative inquiry, the most dominant sampling strategy is purposive sampling. The major purpose of purposive sampling is subsequent generalization of the research findings to the population. Purposeful sampling was used as the dominant strategy in the current qualitative research. Patton (1990) noted that purposeful sampling seeks information-rich cases which can be studied in depth. According to Patton (1990), there are sixteen types of purposeful sampling and these include, extreme or deviant case sampling, typical case sampling, maximum variation sampling, snowball or chain sampling, conforming or disconfirming case sampling, politically important case sampling, and convenience sampling. The underlying principle that is common to all these strategies is selecting information-rich cases and these cases were selected purposefully to suit the study focus.

The most and commonly used strategy was the maximum variation sampling which was adopted by the current study. This strategy aimed at capturing and describing the central themes or principal outcomes that cut across a greater deal of participants or programme variation. Patton (1990), noted that maximum variation involves purposefully picking a wide range of variations. The sampling strategy involved purposefully picking a wide range of variation on dimensions of interest. It identified important common patterns that cut across variations. According to Patton (1990), the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information rich cases for study in depth. Information rich cases were regarded as those participants one could learn a great deal about, issues of central importance to the purpose of the study. In spite of apparent flexibility in purposeful sampling, the qualitative researcher should be aware of three types of sampling error inherent in qualitative research.

The first relates to distortions caused by insufficient breath in sampling, the second from distortions introduced by changes overtime, and the third from distortions caused by lack of depth in data collection at each site (Patton, 1990). Sampling is a very complex issue in qualitative research as there are many variations of qualitative sampling described in the literature, and much confusion and overlapping of types of sampling particularly in the case of purposeful sampling. I had repeated trips to the NGOs to increase breath in sampling and this
was a way of building trustworthiness in the study. Using the purposeful sampling, participants were selected for the study. Qualitative field workers draw a purposive sample, building in variety and making sure that all categories of participants in the NGOs set up are catered for. The study used a small sub population of accessible cases. In the current qualitative study, cases were decided in advance and there were subsequent choices and adjustments to make about persons, places and events to observe. In the current study, I as the researcher got the bulk of data for analysis from the two NGOs through interviews and observations. I discussed with the participants, got recommendations, and visited all the two NGOs in the five clusters to get their views. I attempted to turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews and conversations, photographs as shown in chapter four and memos.

The current qualitative study sought to study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret phenomenon in terms of the meanings people gave me. The qualitative study on challenges of Sustainability in the operations of NGOs Social Activities in the context of their effort to achieve human resources developmental goals sought to establish a variety of empirical materials, case studies, personal experiences, introspections, life stories, interviews, observational, historical interaction and visual texts that described routine and problematic moments and meanings in individuals’ lives. Accordingly, qualitative researchers adopt several strategies in their sampling in the field which were interconnected interpretive practices, hoping always to get a better understanding of the subject matter at hand.

In the study, I sought to intensively investigate the management of NGOs to a limited set of cases focusing on factors that are likely to impact negatively on the non-sustainability of NGOs, such as lack of resources, inadequate working environment and lack of equipments. The use of purposive sampling in the study was appropriate in the sense that I used it to select unique cases that were especially informative. I as the researcher used many different methods to identify the cases, because the goal was to locate as many cases as possible from the target population. This was a strategic approach to purposefully choose persons, sites or documents that maximized opportunities to elicit data regarding variations along dimensions of participants.
According to Patton (1990) all types of sampling in qualitative research may be encompassed under the broad term of purposeful sampling. The qualitative inquiry typically focused on relatively small samples purposefully selected.

3.8 Data collection instruments and procedures

3.8.1 Data collection instruments

The researcher in qualitative research, as the main instrument of data collection, used data collection techniques approaches such as interview guide (open-ended questions to small samples), observation guides and document analysis. Since analysis moves back and forth between new concepts and the data, all research involves processes of induction and deduction, especially thematic analysis whereby induction creates themes and deduction verifies them. Merriam (1998), asserts that an interview is a conversation between two or more people (the interviewer and the interviewee), where questions are asked by the interviewer to obtain information from the interviewee. In this research the interviewer is the researcher and the interviewee the NGOs participants in the study. Patton (1990), asserts that an interview is an art of obtaining information through asking questions.

In addition to this, the researcher conducted semi-structured and unstructured interviews with the aforementioned participants, i.e., key representatives from the selected organisation and appropriate NGOs staff, e.g., Managers, Administrator and team members, to ensure that there was ample opportunity to gain clarification and additional knowledge from the interviewees’ responses Merriam, (1998). The interview questions were directed toward the primary research question: *what are the enablers and barriers that influence the selected NGOs decisions to offer or not to offer capacity building and other flexible work practices as part of their service delivery to their employees?* Interviews were used in qualitative research in order to conduct exploratory discussions to reveal and understand not only the “what and the how,” but also to place more emphasis on exploring the “why”. The following represent the topics and issues discussed with each interviewee:

- The background and history of the NGOs;
- The centre’s original authorization or charter and how the centre makes decisions in that context;
- The formal and informal relationships with other NGOs;
- The structure of the NGOs management system;
- The interviewee’s educational and professional background;
- The interviewee’s definitions of and experiences with and other flexible work practice;

Patton (1990), identify the above named topics as the integrating phase of the research, which leads to theory development.

### 3.8.2 Data collection procedure

Interviews have a distinctive advantage of enabling the researcher to establish support with potential participants and therefore gain their cooperation. This yields the highest response rates in the research. Besides, the interview also allows the researcher to clarify ambiguity and when it is appropriate to seek follow-up information. Through this, I had the opportunity to rephrase the questions to meet the intellectual and literacy levels of the participants (NGOs personnel). The interview method is a flexible technique because it is dependent on the social context, probing techniques that can be adopted to expose underlying facts, perceptions and opinions. Interviews also afford the interviewee the chance to interpret meaning and attach subjective conclusions (Merriam, 1998:40). However, the shortcomings of interviews are that the presence of the researcher may make the interviewee feel reluctant to deal with matters of ethical controversy, delicate nature and sensitive issues respectively.

What’s more, data processing and recording of responses by interviewer is both taxing and time consuming (Patton, 1990). In this research, interviews required a great deal of paying attention to ethical consideration. In the qualitative ethnographic research paradigm, the researcher himself/herself is the instrument of data collection (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The advantage of the researcher being an instrument is that, he/she experiences the phenomenon under study, at first hand (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), therefore, can develop a much deeper insight into it. In this study, I, as the instrument of data collection, used the following methods:
3.8.3 Interviews

Interviews have a distinctive advantage of enabling the researcher to establish support with potential participants and therefore gain their cooperation. This yields the highest response rates in case study research, more so it also allows the researcher to clarify ambiguity and when it is appropriate to seek follow-up information. The interviewer (researcher) has the opportunity to rephrase the questions to meet the intellectual and literacy levels of the participants (NGOs Staff). The interview method is a flexible technique because depending on the social context, probing techniques can be adopted to expose underlying facts, perceptions and opinions. Interviews also afford the interviewee the chance, to interpret meaning and attach subjective conclusions (Merriam, 1998). However, the shortcomings of interviews are that the presence of the researcher may make the interviewee feel reluctant to deal with matters of ethical controversy, delicate nature and sensitive issues respectively.

More so, data processing and recording of responses by the interviews are both taxing and time consuming, Patton (1990). In this research, interviews required a great deal of paying attention to ethical consideration. The manner in which a question is formulated can also result in inaccurate responses. Individuals tend to provide false answers to particular questions. For example, some people want to feel younger or older for some reason known to them. If you ask such a person their age in years, it is easier for the individual just to lie to you by over stating their age by one or more years than it is if you asked which year they were born, since it will require a bit of quick arithmetic to give a false date and a date of birth will definitely be more accurate. I used formal interviews and informal conversations.

Interviews have a distinctive advantage of enabling the researcher to establish support with potential participants and therefore gain their cooperation. Interviews are used in qualitative research in order to conduct exploratory discussions to reveal and understand not only the “what and the how” but also to place more emphasis on exploring the “why’. Therefore, the Administrator (Head, Deputy and Supervisors), were interviewed formally and later, some informal conversations were followed. These were targeted, because I felt that there is a need to clarify policy and the general culture of the NGOs.
3.8.4 Observation

I also observed days of work of participants and took down notes on the proceedings. These working days also formed the basis of further interviews and informal conversations, to seek clarifications on different issues. The observation method is fundamental to the understanding of another’s culture. Qualitative research uses both participant and non-participant observation. According to Chisaka (2007), the researcher adopts “the perspective of those studied by sharing in their day-to-day experiences”. However, ethnographic research accommodates another strategy, whereby the researcher can be a non-participant observer. According to Chisaka (2007), this strategy is as relevant to ethnographic research as is participant observation, since, “detachment is as important to the ethnographic process as is involvement”. As a non-participant observer, I was detached from the working and administrative process of the five sites, but kept a close eye on the goings-on in the two settings of my study. In my use of observation as a method of data collection, I sat in meetings and took down notes on the proceedings.

I also had informal conversation with administrators, and supervisors during tea breaks, and recorded relevant information to my study soon after taking leave of the company of my participants. I was working within some formal conversations, which I either audio-taped or recorded in my note book. I also gained a lot during my informal conversations, particularly during tea breaks as the participants opened up very well during these informal conversations. Some participants also began to develop interest in what I was doing, two months into my study. They would come to ask me questions on what I was looking for, soon after their work or after meetings. This was one of the ways I gained access to some informal conversations. The classic form of data collection in naturalistic or field research is observation of participants in the context of a natural scene. Therefore, observation data were used for the purpose of descriptions of settings, activities, people and meanings of what was observed from the perspective of the participants. Observations, when effectively prepared and done, can lead to deeper understanding of a phenomenon than interviews alone. They provided a deeper knowledge of the context in which events occurred. Observations enabled me to see things that participants themselves were not aware of or that they were unwilling to discuss.
There are several observation strategies available to qualitative researchers. In some cases it was possible and desirable for me as a researcher to watch from outside, without being observed by participants. Another option was to maintain a passive presence, being as unobtrusive as possible and not interacting with participants. As the observer, I limited interactions, and interviewing only when further clarifications of actions were needed, in some cases, I as the researcher exercised more active control over the observation, as in the case of a formal interview, to elicit specific types of information. The current study used checklists and observation guides in gathering data and observations of lesson delivery in the schools. I as the observer in all cases, was at the centre of the research process. Beyond my methodological planning of observation, I remained open in order to discover the elements making up the non-governmental organisation environment and the community service work. Going into a social situation and looking around was a powerful and important way of gathering empirical data from the two non-governmental organisations. In the final analysis observations confirmed or disconfirmed various interpretations that had emerged from the interviews or reports. The critical aspect of observations was looking and taking in as much as I could without influencing what the participant was doing.

3.8.5 Document Analysis

In this study, document data were important being qualitative a research, because it provided an additional source for analysis and interpretation of the phenomenon under study (Patton, 1990; 373 in Chisaka 2007). The document can provide insights into the policy and philosophy of the NGO, regarding culture and organization. In this study, document data served two purposes:

1- To develop insights into the purposes of the work prepared for the NGO, particularly focusing on aims and objectives;
2- To develop an understanding of the perspectives that are reflected in these documents, as they related to the culture under study (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982). Finally, the examination of the documents also assisted me to compare data collected through interviews with information found in these documents.
3.9 Ethical and Legal Considerations

In many domains, research has become an issue of ethics Torrington and Hall (1987). There are certain ethical issues which were taken into consideration in conducting this study. For instance, this study examined sensitive issues pertaining to the Angolan government; as such the researcher tread carefully not to make comments which could be deemed antagonistic to the government. Questions of how to protect the interests of the participants were taken care of. All information was confidentially kept by the researcher and his assistants. Codes of ethics have been developed in several disciplines and in several countries for the same discipline. Ethics committees have not only been established especially in NGOs, but also in other contexts. Then, considering the barriers that Organisations’ managers could not be very comfortable with the interview research methods and in respect of professional ethics, researchers should exercise caution when conducting social research involving human beings, especially NGOs. To this end, ethics and ethical concerns should be adhered to.

Failure to respect this ethical consideration would open oneself to a flood of litigations, court summons and a plethora of other incriminating criminal circumstances. Having this in mind, the researcher observed the following ethical concerns among others:

- Confidentiality and anonymity
- Informed consent
- Protection from harm, etc.
- Professionalism on the part of the researchers

In preparation for, and during the study, I took into consideration the ethics of research. I sought permission from the Regional Office of the Ministry of Social Welfare to conduct my study in the five provinces. Once granted, I then negotiated entry into the five sites with the provincial Directors. From there, I also negotiated acceptance of participation in the project with the participant administrators and their staff. I also sought the permission of participants to audio-tape the interviews and assured them that the tapes would be destroyed after data had been analysed. I promised to show them my analysis of data in order to allow them to see if what they
had told me was representative of their views on the matter and that I had captured them well. In the interviews themselves, the power dynamics of the interviewer and interviewee Merriam, (1998) had to be taken care of. According to Chisaka (2007), this allows the researcher to try to dismantle the power relationships by ensuring that I did not behave like somebody who was more knowledgeable than the participants. I assured the participants that I had come to learn about the challenges of sustainability in the operations of NGOs Social Activities, in the context of their effort to achieve human resources developmental goals, by reading different newspapers and was not there to impose my own ideas on the subject upon them. When I was introduced to the administrators and supervisors I was to work with, I sought their opinions on when and where we could meet to work out parameters of how we were going to proceed.

I assured them verbally, that the information they were going to supply to me was going to be treated confidentially. I made an undertaking that, should I need to check any information with a third party, for example, information such as a claim that the NGO was experiencing, I would first consult the participants to find out if they would not mind such third party involvement. I also verbally assured the participants that, should they want to withdraw as participants, they would be free to do so any time. Furthermore, I also assured the participants that their real names would not be revealed in the final report, but those pseudonyms, where necessary, would be used. I made it clear to them that they could instruct me to stop the audio-tape recording any time, should they feel that the information they were about to give was sensitive. Finally, all participants granted me their consent to audio-tape the interviews while making field-notes of their responses (Chisaka, 2007).

3.10 Analysis and Interpretation of Data

This section describes the results of a ground-breaking research study that measured the antecedents and consequences of effective capacity building in the achievement of developmental goals. The data is presented following qualitative tradition from emic perspectives. It is usually difficult to make distinction between the concepts “Analysis” and “Interpretation”, because these two processes tend to take place at the same time (Chisaka, 2007). You tend to analyze as you interpret and interpret as you analyze. Yet, a distinction does
exist between the two concepts. The analysis of data in my study was done during and after the process of collection. My analysis was largely confined to the organisation of the raw data of my study. In other words, I employed what Denzin (1989), calls analysis induction, or Fox calls it “Manifest level” analysis, to describe the presentation of data in its raw form. At this level, I transcribed the responses of the participants and details of my observations (including observation obtained from document study). The interpretation, as described by Merriam (1995,) is a process by which the researcher tries to make sense of his/her data. In this study, my interpretation of the data took the following three forms suggested by Vakalisa (1995) and in Chisaka (2007):

- To infer meanings, “not necessarily spelt in data”;
- To link my data with what the documents studied said;
- To give meaning of what “I personally made of data, my own perceptions of the situation that I observed” Vakalisa (1995).

The section also presents the outcome of the research study after a long time in the field. Description, interpretation and analysis of the data concluded the thesis. In presenting the raw data the researcher made use of tables and charts of the participants who participated in the interviews. The major objectives of the present study was to identify the major challenges facing sustainability in the operations of NGOs Social Activities in the context of their effort to achieve human resources developmental goals, and find out the various methods used for capacity building in the context of Angola by NGOs in the studied areas. In order to collect data, various tools and techniques listed in the previous section, were adopted in the study. The exercise of pilot study has helped me to refine and focus the importance of data which were collected. The primary data were collected through various methods such as interview schedule, formal and informal interactions, and observations. The collected data were presented in the format of profile of the NGO and presentation of qualitative analysis of the methods used for Capacity Building by NGOs in a cumulative format.

Data analysis is an ongoing process with the aim of identifying the real major things which are coming out. In other words, a daily analysis helped the researcher to check and recheck the data.
Therefore, at the end was a major analysis through requirements of the qualitative method. This research was based on qualitative research methods derived from primary sources. The data were collected from NGOs directly, by administering open-ended questions in person and collection in the same way. The study was conducted in the said NGOs using the above said criteria. In order to accomplish the objectives of the study, secondary data sources have been read and analysed in accordance with themes pertaining to the topic under investigation. These themes include implementation, national development, capacity building and reconstruction, civil society organisation, Angolan government, pre and post conflict era.

3.11 Validity and reliability

In the qualitative research methodology, the researcher himself is the main instrument of data collection and analysis. This increases the element of subjectivity, and hence the possibilities of unreliability of such research work. This is particularly so when it comes to the interpretation of the findings, where the researcher imposes his own meaning (Merriam, 1995). However, Denzin, (1989) argues that, to be an instrument and researcher at the same time, does not necessarily render one less reflective. Patton (1990) also argues that validity and reliability in research is a question of belief. He says that “it is a belief and expectation that the ethnographer is capable of producing truth from the experience of being there (and that, belief itself) is the great original”. Moreover, Denzin, (1989) argues that, reflexivity and authorship combine… to enhance the authority of accounts”. The point being made here is that, in our daily lives, we reflect on our behaviour, our actions, and our attitudes. We make inference on these, and people accept or reject the inferences, basing their views on whether the inferences are based on a neat organization of events or facts and are plausible.

We all reflect on things that interact with our senses. Therefore, ethnographic research rejects the claim that truth can only be discovered by applying the method of the natural sciences (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1992:195) in Chisaka (2007). Chisaka (2007), argues that human beings cannot be confined to laboratories like objects, and be made to behave in a particular way, in order to verify some behaviour they display under controlled situations. In other words, human life is dynamic, and the ethnographic approach, which demands proximity to the human
phenomenon of study, offers great scope for analysis and interpretation of human behaviour. Moreover, as Denzin, (1989)) says, the ethnographer does not try to change the lives of people he is studying, but studies them in their “natural” situation as it reflects itself to him. The reliability of ethnographic study is found in its open admission that it accommodates subjectivity - in that sense, it prepares the reader to look for possible biases that might interfere with reasonable interpretation of data. Its premise is that validity or “rightness of method (is) the relationship between practices and purpose” Patton, (1990). Moreover, as Merriam point out, educative research does not claim to remove bias and produce objective accounts of reality but it is explicitly political and asks actors to acknowledge prejudices and critically assess them Denzin, (1989). Human settings such as NGOs and community developments are social constructs, and, as such, they cannot be devoid of values and beliefs (Merriam, 1995). In the same vein, analysis and interpretation is a social behavioural process and cannot be separated from beliefs and values of the person engaged in it.

The ethnographer cannot just describe a social situation in order to avoid imposing his own meanings, so that he achieves objectivity (or validity). He has to be cognisant of the nature of ethnographic research, that is, “oriented to cultural interpretation” Denzin, (1989). Abstraction is a characteristic of human behaviour and, therefore, one can legitimately argue that knowledge created through abstraction is valid in its own right. Interpretation belongs to the process of abstraction, therefore, it is a valid process of creating knowledge. Ethnographers believe in their own assessment criteria for reliability and validity of data, although this may be contested by critics of ethnography as an attempt to copy the scientific methodology. The means of ensuring validity and reliability includes actions described below.

- **Prolonged research engagement**: This involves a long stay (two months) at the site of the study and making “persistent observation to provide sufficient scope and depth to observation” ( Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

- **Member checking**: This process involved the submission by me as researcher, the analysis and interpretation I made to the participants for them to validate or comment on them. Denzin, (1989) Robinson 1993), Chisaka (2007).
• **Thick description of data** Denzin, (1989). This entailed detailed descriptions of raw data and provision of background information of the informants accompanied by analysis.

• **Triangulation**: This process involved a multiple approach in the collection and analysis of data, which Merriam (1995), say increases “the reliability of overall findings”.

In my study, I endeavoured to follow the above assessment criteria to my data collection and analysis in order to satisfy the qualitative requirement for validity and reliability. First, the two months that I spent in the field, collecting data, was adequate for studying an existing culture, as I was not studying a process of change and development Yin (1994:36)). Second, member checks were done through the period of interviews. Third, triangulation of data was achieved throughout the multiple data collecting methods of lesson observations, interviews, informal conversations and document study.

### 3.12 Chapter summary

This chapter described and discussed the research paradigm that was used in the study from which this work is derived, that is, interpretive ethnography. This is the design that can be employed to study phenomena in their natural environment such as NGOs (Patton, 1990). The purpose of the study was to investigate the phenomenon of challenges of sustainability in the operations of NGOs Social Activities in the context of their effort to achieve human resources developmental goals in Angola, and its effects on community development, among Angolan citizens. The phenomenon that was studied was an intact culture, hence the choice of the naturalistic design (Merriam, 1998). This design was chosen, because it gave the actors of the two settings (NGO Manager and NGO staff) the opportunity to tell their experiences, feelings and opinions, in their own words, what the non-sustainability of NGO Social Activities in Angola at their own NGO was all about. Furthermore, this research design also gave the researcher the opportunity, not only to clarify perceptions of the actors, but also to develop and propose his own interpretation of this cultural situation. This chapter also described the location of the five sites (provinces) of the case study and a little of their historical and social
backgrounds. The researcher explained that four of the five provinces are located on the coastline of the Atlantic Ocean (see map, Figure 3.1, page 89). It further described and discussed the methods that were used, explained the procedures for analysis and interpretation and how as researcher endeavoured to base my interpretation on my shared experiences with the participants. The researcher concluded this Section with a discussion of the concepts of validity and reliability in qualitative research, and explained how he endeavoured to satisfy those standards.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

This study is not about NGOs per se, but about the challenges of sustainability of Angolan NGOs in enhancing social and economic development of the rural poor. In this chapter, an account of findings from the empirical phase of the investigation is provided. The research results were mainly drawn from the two NGOs’ employees and volunteers. The employees’ records of NGOs under study are reviewed. The field notes from observations are also part of the data whose account of findings were used to interpret the data. This Chapter has reflected on the contents and the debate in each Chapter. The study sought to establish the major challenges and opportunities that can be used to improve the sustainability of NGOs in Angola.

The intention from the onset was to explore in-depth responses from NGOs’ staff, managers and supervisors, and not to generalize. Qualitative data were collected through group and individual interviews to triangulate data from observations and other sources, and secure depth and texture to the information gathered. In a qualitative report of this nature, it was not possible to do justice to the wealth of data gathered from each of the participants involved in the study; nevertheless an attempt was made to present the key issues from each of the participants. The biodata of the key informants which influenced the type and quality of data obtained are thus highlighted in tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 and 4.10. For the confidentiality and anonymity purposes, the names used in this thesis are pseudonyms and not real names of the participants.

4.1 Background information about the NGOs covered by the study

4.1.1 NGO Save the Children in Angola

Save the Children has worked in Angola since 1989, operating programmes in health, education, child protection and poverty reduction — all to help Angolans rebuild their communities and work toward a better future. To better serve the great needs of children and best use the vital resources of our donors, Save the Children has merged programmes and activities with other
members of the International Save the Children Alliance also working in Angola. The Save the Children Fund, commonly known as Save the Children, is an internationally active non-governmental organisation that promotes children's rights, provides relief and helps support children in developing countries. It was established in the United Kingdom in 1919 in order to improve the lives of children through better education, health care, and economic opportunities, as well as providing emergency aid in natural disasters, war, and other conflicts. In addition to the UK organisation, there are 30 other national Save the Children organisations who are members of Save the Children International, a global network of nonprofit making organisations supporting local partners in over 120 countries around the world. Save the Children promotes policy changes in order to gain more rights for young people, especially by enforcing the UN Declaration of the Rights of the Child. Alliance members coordinate emergency-relief efforts, helping to protect children from the effects of war and violence.

The Save the Children Fund was founded in London, England, on April 15, 1919 by Eglantyne Jebb and her sister Dorothy Buxton, as an effort to alleviate starvation of children in Germany and Austria-Hungary during the Allied blockade of Germany in World War I. The Fight The Famine Council was initially started earlier in 1919 in order to put political pressure on the British government to end the blockade, the first meeting having been held at the home of Catherine Courtney, Baroness Courtney of Penwith, in Cheyne Walk. However, on April 15, 1919, the sisters succeeded in separating it from the politics of the Council and creating a separate “Save the Children Fund”. In May 1919, the Fund was publicly established at a meeting in London's Royal Albert Hall in order to "provide relief to children suffering the effects of war" and raise money for emergency aid to children suffering from the wartime shortages of food and supplies.

The first branch was opened in Fife, Scotland in 1919. A counterpart, Rädda Barnen (which means "Save the Children"), was founded later that year in Sweden, and together with a number of other organizations, they founded the International Save the Children Union in Geneva on January 6, 1920. In 1920, Save the Children started individual child sponsorship as a way to engage more donors. By the end of the year, Save the Children raised the equivalent of about £8,000,000 in today’s money. CORE Group Polio Project (CGPP) activities in Angola are funded through a USAID grant that began in October, 2007 and would end in September 2012.
The CGPP partners in Angola include Africare, CARE International, Catholic Relief Services, Salvation Army World Services Organization, Save the Children, and World Vision. Together they began their polio eradication activities in Angola in 2001, under the USAID-funded CORE Group Partners Project Polio Eradication Initiative (PEI), which ended in September 2007. The activities in Angola were funded with US$ 950,000 from the USAID Bureau for Global Health, along with approximately 5% in match funds from the partner organizations. Project activities are intended to contribute directly to the national effort to eradicate polio by supporting universal polio immunization coverage, national and local polio vaccination campaigns, and AFP surveillance. The CGPP baseline activities in Angola were funded with a World Vision-US contribution of US$18,000. The primary focus of the Polio Eradication Initiative (PEI) in Angola was initially to improve surveillance while supporting any supplementary immunization activities that occurred. The PEI established its primary strategy as the establishment of community-based networks of lay workers trained in the recognition of and appropriate response to acute flaccid paralysis (AFP).

Called “activistas (activists) or voluntarios (volunteers)”, these lay workers in the community paid visits to households with children under fifteen as well as to community leaders to raise awareness of AFP symptoms and encourage communities to report cases to the local health post. The volunteers also visited homes to encourage mothers to have their children vaccinated. In 2000, when PEI-Angola began, Angola was still submerged in civil war.

4.1.2 NGO Fundação YME in Angola

Fundação (Foundation) Young Men Experience (YME) Social Awareness Service Organisation as a voluntary organisation, was formed in 1991 by a group of people who had experiences of drug, agony, pain, stigma, discrimination and chaotic lives because of drug abuse. Since its inception YME has been working in the area of intervention and prevention of HIV among the drug users and slowly expanded its activities to cover other vulnerable groups with care and support programmes of people living with HIV/AIDS and issues affecting the lives of women and children across Angola. YME also established meaningful linkages and is collaborating with different local, regional and international agencies. In the context of globalization, the issue of HIV/AIDS has interconnection with the issue of poverty, arms conflict (political unrest), gender
based violence and migration which the people experienced during the country’s civil war. Due to this situation, the Fundação (Foundation) YME felt the need for collective response to the issues. By so doing, the NGO wanted to build models for prevention of drug use, HIV and its related diseases and to provide care support to people who had experiences of drug, agony, pain, stigma, discrimination and chaotic lives because of drug use, and their families adopting a rights-based approach using multi-pronged and multi-sector involvement through advocacy and partnership. Fundação (Foundation) YME has the following as main activities:

- Outreach & friendship building
- Community development & mobilization
- Education & Awareness
- Training and skill building
- Drop in services facilities
- Harm reduction service
- Community capacitating activities
- Care and support programmes
- Psychological support through counselling
- Advocacy & sensitization programmes
- Referral & networking service

4.2 Criteria for evaluation

I used several criteria to evaluate the NGOs management and their impact on sustainability and the involvement of these organisations in the health, education, and rural small business development sectors in the Angolan provinces under study:

- **Effectiveness**: refers to the success of NGO service provision in each sector. This measure includes the relative effectiveness of NGOs at providing services compared to the government and private sector.
- **Cost**: refers to the cost of NGOs providing services in each sector, relative to the cost of government provision.
• **Accountability and transparency**: refer to accountability of NGOs in each sector to government, beneficiaries of services, and donors.

• **Sustainability**: measures the potential of NGO programmes to persist, including possible departure by the operating NGOs or the end of funding for programmes. In other words, sustainability is the capacity to endure. It applies to responsible and proactive decision-making and innovation that minimizes negative impact and maintains balance between economic and environmental activities.

• **Transferability**: considers the potential for lessons learned in each NGO sector in Angola to be applied to the problem of service provision in many countries in Africa.

• **Proactiveness**: Is acting in advance to deal with an expected difficulty. Anticipatory or proactive steps to prevent inconveniences.

• **Reactiveness**: Refers to tendency to be responsive or to react to a stimulus.

### 4.3 Study participants Labelling

Due to the number of participants under each category, some participants were labelled for easy follow up of their responses. Participants from supervisors and managers or their acting personnel were easy to follow because there was only a small number of a participant from each category from the five provinces. However, the employees and volunteers were many hence they had to be labelled. Therefore, the following labels were used for these categories:

- Cabinda NGO Employee (CNGO E1) and Cabinda NGO Volunteer (CNGO V1)
- Luanda NGO Employee (LNGO E1) and Luanda NGO Volunteer (LNGO V1)
- Benguela NGO Employee (BNGO E1) and Benguela NGO Volunteer (BNGO V1)
- Huila NGO Employee (HNGO E1) and Huila NGO Volunteer (HNGO V1)
- Namibe NGO Employee (NNGO E1) and Namibe NGO Volunteer (NNGO V1)
4.4 Findings from the empirical phase of the study

4.4.1 Participants for the study

After examining the segment of data as discussed under Chapter 3, the processed data from individual interview and record reviews were re-arranged into five broad categories (refer to section 1.4). The information included findings from training and meetings, observations as well as field notes. The findings are thus presented and discussed under the five above named broad categories and the subcategories of section 1.3, in relation to research questions which guided the study. In selecting the participants for the study, a conscious strategy was employed to ensure maximum variation of participants and also ensuring the representation of all those involved in community and public service delivery processes. The need for maximum variation in the selection of participants was a crucial characteristic of qualitative research designs. Together with assistant researchers, the researcher identified participants that fitted the identified characteristics. Participants in this study sample differed in terms of sex, education, socio-economic background and other identified characteristics. The table provided below shows a profile of the NGOs in the sample and the selected participants drawn from each NGO.

In order to effectively interpret and monitor the development of Challenges of Sustainability in the operations of Angolan Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO’s) social activities, it was essential to select a variety of participants from each NGO especially those people who were involved in the day to day activities of communities. The NGOs were numbered from (A) to (B) in alphabetical order.
Table 4.1 Biodata of Profile of all participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NGO</th>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Manager Or Acting</th>
<th>Employees</th>
<th>Supervisors</th>
<th>NGO Development Community</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Cabinda</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td> </td>
<td>Luanda</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td> </td>
<td>Benguela</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td> </td>
<td>Huila</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td> </td>
<td>Namibe</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Cabinda</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td> </td>
<td>Luanda</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td> </td>
<td>Huila</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td> </td>
<td>Namibe</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>72</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
<td><strong>41</strong></td>
<td><strong>136</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in the table above, the composition of the interview group by gender gave a shadow representation of the ratio of males to female NGOs fraternity, whereby male were more than their female counterparts. The ratio of diploma to degree holders also depict the situation obtaining generally in the NGOs under study. There were more male with “A” level diplomas and only few females. The academic qualifications that the participants had, also influenced the type of answers and gave credit to the information they gave. As shown in the table above, the study incorporated potential stakeholders and key players in a managerial system. All these informants had a key role to play in the day to day operations of NGOs. A total of one hundred and thirty six (136) participants were interviewed comprising of two NGO development community members, 10 Managers of NGOs, 72 employees, 13 supervisors, 41 members of NGO development communities. In all cases more participants were drawn from NGOs that had more people. In this case the number of communities and supervisors in a particular NGO determined the number of participants.
Table 4.2

Biodata of Responses on whether participants were happy with management style of their NGODTs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>NGO YME Frequency</th>
<th>NGO Save the Children Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managers or Acting</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of supervisors, managers and volunteers were of the opinion that operations of non-governmental organisations development teams (NGODTs) were not up to standard. While the study established that the two NGOs had NGODT, which were established according to a statutory instrument, it was however established that the majority of participants were not happy with the work of their NGO development teams as shown on the responses provided on the table above. Even members of NGODTs who were interviewed indicated that they were not happy with the work of other NGODT members. This on its own was an indication that NGO development team members were not actively involved in the management of NGO affairs; and if they were involved, their contributions were minimal. The majority of employees (85%) indicated that they were not happy with the operations of their NGODT. One of the employees noted that his NGODT members were seen only when there was an important occasion in the NGO like agricultural tool distribution day; otherwise they were never seen in the NGO branch.

This is an indication that non-governmental development teams were not actively involved in decision making on issues related to the welfare of the community. Collaboration and partnership was totally absent in the NGOs yet this was necessary to improve alphabetization learning, HIV and AIDS and welfare conditions for the community. In the two (2) NGOs there were no blue prints for collaborative success, but there were some recipes for failure, such as of participation on the part of NGODT, who are just elected for the sake of satisfying NGOs policies and statutory instruments relating to the involvement of local communities in the NGO development.
and service delivery. In response to questions that sought to establish whether the communities took an active role in their NGOs, one of the community volunteers remarked that, to achieve quality on the NGOs programmes there was need for strong partnership between communities and employees which was totally lacking in the NGOs covered in the study. The major challenge highlighted by employees, managers and supervisors was the need for capacity building for members of the newly elected bodies who did not know their roles in the NGODT. One of the NGO branch managers in Luanda gave an account of their NGODT:

“... We faced challenges in our branch with regard to operations of NGODTs. Earlier contestation of NGODT revolved around their composition, powers, duties and responsibilities particularly around the management of finances”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Point of Observation</th>
<th>NGO Save the Children</th>
<th>NGO YME</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actual</td>
<td>Possible</td>
<td>Actual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Record keeping</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board room</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundraising needs</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water supplies</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training plan</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanitation facilities</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration blocks</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Plan</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundraising plan</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual report</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning events</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N: 12
On the issue of furniture for both employees and alphabetization teachers, the observation established that the two NGOs did not have enough furniture and another had completely no furniture for both employees and the community they serve. On the section provided for comments the two (2) NGOs indicated in the issue of alphabetization, their community were using homemade furniture improvised by themselves which was not up to standard. The observation guide established that in most NGOs furniture was in short supply and this was a serious hindrance to quality delivery. The deficit in basic furniture was significantly high in all the two (2) NGOs. Also most of the furniture in the said organisations was in urgent need of repair since most of the tables were lamentably in bad conditions. Not only that but also in NGO (B) no working plan was found, fundraising plan either annual report. Under such working conditions there was no way quality service and sustainability could be guaranteed.

From the examination of the state of record keeping in the NGOs, the study established that record keeping was not properly done with one (1) NGO having enough records and one (1) NGO not having records at all. The record books referred to include attendance registers, inventory of stock records, training plan and financial records and other related books. The total absence of such record books in one NGO showed that record keeping was not taken seriously. The absence of the training plan for employees was an indication that most of the employees did not receive training for a quiet long time. As a result failing to plan is considered as planning to fail. Managers who taught without adequate planning had very little to offer to their employees.

The observation guide also established that the NGOs lacked current gadgets and equipment such as computers, trucks, fundraising plan, fundraising needs, fundraising activities and planning lunches or events to provide financial contacts for the NGO. The interviews conducted with the employees established that most of them were not computer literate. The observation conducted in the NGOs confirmed why the majority of employees were not computer literate. They had no computers in schools either any training at their workplace. The information provided through observations consistently suggested that low achievement or poor quality of community service delivery was widespread in Angola due to critical shortages of current working conditions. The observations confirmed the major finding from the participants’ interviews.
As shown in the table above, the total number of the employees in the two (2) NGOs is (136) which is made up of 79 male and 57 females. It appears that the study was dominated by men who were 79 (58,08%) while women were only 57 (41,92%). This on its own illustrates that the majority of employees in the NGOs in Angola are men. There is a large gender gap with low ratio of female to male employees; even this does not affect the quality. The study also established that among the ten (10) managers or Acting managers of NGOs, nine (9) were male while only one (1) was female; the same with the supervisors of the thirteen (13) supervisors only one (1), was female (see table 3.2). This was established by the questions which sought to establish the sex of each manager of the NGOs. Disparities between the sexes were even more prevalent in NGO YME than in NGO Save the Children.

In spite of all the tremendous efforts by feminist movements, politicians and civic organizations to fight gender inequalities characterized by the dominant male and subordinate female relationships, gender challenges still dominate in the NGOs and this was observed at every level of society be it in the family, in the school, in higher education or in the work place. In view of the qualifications and experiences of the NGO personnel, reasonable inferences were made about the situation in NGO Save the Children in relation to NGO YME. The composition of study participants (Table 4.3 ) from the personnel of the two NGOs had not balanced between males and females which shows that the information elicited was not of balanced view as males and females view it, regardless of their areas or experience of work. The average age for the managers was between 40 and 49 and for the supervisors were 30 to 39 while the average age of employees was 20 to 29. The majority of employees interviewed were former military personnel of both parties involved in the conflict during the war from these NGOs. These participants had basic knowledge about the operations of NGOs. The majority of managers and/or acting
managers were of middle age, that is, between 40 and 49 and this constituted 70%. Equally the same, the average age for supervisors was between 30 to 39 years who constituted an active group of personnel of about 61 (54%). However, it was also established that among the supervisors, there wasn’t anyone who was above 60 years and this age group according to Public Service Regulations (PSR) was due for retirement and could not provide quality service to the population. The issue of age on the part of managers was reported to have an impact on the delivery of quality services in the NGOs covered by the study, and consequently to the population which they serve. In the two NGOs, the supervisor’s personnel were not clear of the guidelines and process of management of NGOs and branches complications. It was evident from their responses that there was no standard process of managing NGOs. A volunteer from one of the rural area Hospitals assisted by one NGO in Cabinda province was honest about the issue of non-sustainability outcomes of NGOs. She highlighted that it was difficult for the NGO to monitor such hospitals because sometimes they never come back for review of the work done.

“...I have never seen any of managers in our area; I don’t know what happens to them honestly...

Normally because of distance and maybe the language barrier, they never come back for monitoring of service delivery.

Asked if the community should set, extract or demand full information or they must be given full information, and how this community should ensure that information service given to them is full, the midwife volunteer had no answer. It was almost apparent that she was acknowledging and realising the gap in the relationship between the NGO managers and the community stakeholders. However, most participants were of the opinion that the age and education level of the managers and supervisors has an impact on the delivery of quality services especially at rural area level. It was noted that most 60+ supervisors were based in community centres because they were no longer effective in their work. Most of these aged were said to be operating from their rural homes and in most cases, coming to the work place late after working in their fields especially during ploughing seasons. Most participants noted that the sustainability of service delivery is compromised by local supervisors who come to work late thereby reducing working time and in some cases they drank beer before coming to work. The study also examined the qualifications of managers of NGOs, supervisors and employees who participated in the study. The level of supervisors’ qualifications is seen as an important determinant of delivering quality service and sustainability
of NGOs. On the question that sought to establish the qualifications of managers, supervisors and employees, the table below provides the findings as indicated by participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Managers N=10</th>
<th>Supervisors N=13</th>
<th>Employees N=72</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actual NGO</td>
<td>Possible</td>
<td>Actual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YME</td>
<td></td>
<td>Save the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“O” Level and less</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O + A + Diploma</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BA/BSC/Bed</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
<td><strong>72</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in the table above, the majority of supervisors attained “O” level or less, and are not holders of any professional qualification. Also most of the managers were degree holders. There was none of the employees with a degree. It emerged that in some explanations these employees who weren’t holders of degrees were former soldiers who were trying to assist their community to develop. It appeared that supervisors qualifications in the NGOs covered by the study had greatly improved as shown by the number of supervisors who were holders of an “A” level certificate. In respect to the number of supervisors in the NGOs covered by the study and their qualifications, the report points to some general improvement especially on supervisors qualifications. Almost every NGO had one supervisor who was a diploma holder. This condition to a certain extent wasn’t supposed to boost the quality of service delivery in the NGOs, given the number of supervisors who were not degree holders. Out of (136) employees in the NGOs, only 10% were unqualified and these were mainly employed in clusters.
Among the employees who participated in interviews, only a small number were temporary employees with “O” level or “A” level qualifications. Notable improvements were evident in employees’ qualifications especially in the first NGO. As shown in the table 4.5, only 12 employees were holders of “A” level but these were not trained. The study established that the level of education among employees and managers of the first NGO was reasonably high in comparison with the second NGO. As shown in the table above, most employees of the first NGO by way of comparison were almost qualified employees. This was a key enabling factor in improving the sustainability of the NGO. This is supported by Merriam (1995) and Alan (1999), who noted that qualified employees are critical to any reforms designed to improve the quality of service delivery. The study also sought to establish the number of years of experience on the part of managers of NGOs and employees who participated in the study. The table that follows is in response to the question that sought to establish the number of years of experience for the supervisors and managers. It was assumed that experienced supervisors are likely to be more effective in their work. As they work, they use their experiences to solve some of the challenges they encounter in their duties. Table 4.6 shows the distribution of managers and supervisors and their years of experience in their different capacities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N° of Years Experience</th>
<th>Managers or Acting’s N = 10</th>
<th>Supervisors N = 13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actual NGO YME</td>
<td>Actual NGO Save the Children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 20 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=23
As shown in the table above, the majority of managers or acting managers had 1-5 years of experience. What is of significance was that, for the managers and acting managers, most of them were well experienced members of staff with 5 years up to 15 years of experience. This is in line with Alan (1999), who noted that experienced workers are more effective in their workplace. This was contrary to the supervisors whose majority had 6-10, 11-15 and 16-20 years of experience as NGO workers. There were very few managers or supervisors who had less than one year experience. The only manager with one year experience happened to be an acting manager. It was interesting to establish that in both NGOs only 4 supervisors had 16-20 years experience. This was an indication that these supervisors were dedicated to their work. Also 6 supervisors had 11-15 years of experience. In both cases it was established that the majority of these employees with 20 years of experience and above were local employees who operated from their homes. The idea of employees operating from their homes was seen to be counter-productive especially on the part of the NGO that did not have NGO based supervisor. In their comments on the question whether employees and supervisors liked their manager, one of the participants said:

“... At times the gap of productivity is too wide between us and other colleagues working at their homes. I am sorry to say that but I would refer to them as abnormal workers due to their counter productivity. Also, they do not have the desired qualifications to work as autonomous workers.

Most of the participants were of the opinion that they were not happy with their manager because he was ever away from the NGO. The study established that local managers were ever absent from work attending to their domestic issues. One of the managers was said to be ever away on council business for quiet long-time. As a result of this constant absenteeism on the part of local managers and acting managers, supervisors tended also to take advantage and lax on their work and the subsequent supervision. On the advantage side, there was a high percentage of supervisors with 6-10 years of experience in all participants.
One of the Supervisors of the NGO “YME” said:

“...We do not have school qualifications even without our experience, it’s not very difficult to Manage the workers. We don’t have any learning programme or learning materials in our NGO. At times they (Managers) delay our progress because we have to wait for them”.

With such experienced supervisors and managers these NGOs were expected to provide an excellent service delivery to the community and subsequently maintain sustainability of the NGO. But from the look of things and as stated above, there were other factors besides experience of supervisors at play. Supervisors and managers needed qualification and ongoing in-house training programmes. One female employee from the same NGO said:

“...At times we have junior manager and supervisors who have no other experience than of girls. Asked about the outcomes of such girl’s experience, she went on to say, “...these are a number of young supervisors engaged in love affairs with female employee girls and this created disharmony at work places”.

This statement led to a question which tried to indicate the importance of working with the NGOs. She was asked how they ensured that managers were aware of such kind of situations to which she could not answer. She just shrugged her shoulders and shook her head which the researcher took for these sentiments: “I don’t know” and “I don’t have an idea, or “God knows what happens”. The silence that followed her actions also showed that she had never looked at the facts that way. This showed that some supervisors never thought beyond the NGOs.

The composition of the study participants from the managers and supervisors as shown in table 4.6, did not have balance between managers and supervisors. This shows that the information elicited was not of balanced view as male managers and supervisors saw it, regardless of their qualifications and years of experience. The categorisation between the employees and volunteers in terms of years of experience was different because of the differences in their training curricular, mandate and requirements for enrolment. It is recognised that managers had more years of in-depth training as compared to supervisors.
As shown in Table above, the NGOs under study lacked or did not have important management records. It was interesting to note that the two NGOs did not completely have employees’ character records, stock inventory records and fund raising records. As shown in the table above, such crucial records indicate the number of employees hired each year to provide an indicator of drop-outs. Also absent personal file records on supervisors’ education, qualifications and experience and any. Other issues relating to the particular supervisor were not available. Supervisor performance records were not available in NGO YME. This on its own was an indication that some supervisors did not even perform their duties well. It is clear that a supervisor’s performance is key for the achievement of NGO goals and its sustainability.

### Table 4.7 Biodata of Availability and unavailability of management records in the NGOs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Availability of</th>
<th>NGO Save the Children</th>
<th>NGO YME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employees enrolment records</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of villages</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees attendance records</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance records</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors performance records</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal files</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stock inventory records</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment records</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers records</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asset registers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fund raising records</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial records</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other records</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N= 13
It was established that the two NGOs did not have records such as asset registers. Head supervisors’ records and performance records are crucial documents since they show the supervision programme and how employees are performing. The absence of such records was an indication that there was a total lack of supervision in NGO YME. In some fundamental sense, the effectiveness of service delivery within NGOs depends on the supervision of the manager. One of the employees in one of the NGOs indicated that there was a total lack of supervision on the part of the manager and as a result, some supervisors did not work at all. She noted that her manager had not supervised their schemes of work for the past three years and as a result some supervisors also did not perform their duties as it was indicated on their work plans. In a broad-based economic growth and poverty reduction situation characterized by lack of supervision on the part of the supervisor and managers, there is usually confusion and disorder in the application of NGOs policies.

The study established that the two NGOs did not keep fundamental record books which were necessary for assessing employees and maintaining order in the NGOs. NGOs had equipment but with no records, as a result this equipment was prone to misuse by the supervisors and community members. Besides the lack of management records, the study also established that consumables such as stationery, alphabetization, books and other related materials were lacking in the NGOs. In response to the question that sought to establish the availability of consumables such as notebooks, stationary, chalk markers and truck equipments among other items, participants from each of the two NGOs provided information reflected on Table above. The table bellow provides information on the availability of consumables.
As shown in Table above the two NGOs covered by the study lacked essential consumables which were crucial for delivery of quality services in the communities. It was also interesting to note that the two NGOs did have alphabetisation textbooks and other stationary for alphabetization and in job training. The absence of this tool was a critical factor since alphabetization learning process requires these materials. One of the participants in one of the NGOs in response to the question on the availability of consumables, noted that the total lack of or absence of fashion and fabrics material and food and nutrition material, made it difficult to teach illiterates in the rural areas. Participants doing practicals were performing badly due to lack of equipment in the NGOs. Under such working conditions, there was no way quality service delivery and consequently sustainability of NGOs could be guaranteed.

This study also established that service delivery to the community was further constrained by the lack of other resource materials other than textbooks and stationary. The ability of NGOs for example to improve alphabetization teaching and learning within the rural communities can depend significantly on the availability of resources such as stationary. The current study also established a critical shortage of essential learning material, for alphabetization in rural areas. The chapter on review of related literature pointed out clearly to the importance of learning
resource material to improve learning and in-job-training which contribute to the development of quality service delivery within NGOs. Alan (1999), noted that adequate physical resources, learning facilities, equipment and effective supervision were seen as a precondition for the provision of quality service delivery.

### 4.5 Findings and discussions pertaining to research question 1

#### 4.5.1 What are the underlying factors accounting for the non-sustainability of the operations of the national Angolan NGOs?

**a) Findings**

As indicated in the chapter on research methodology, data presentation and analysis was unquestionably one of the most difficult of all the stages of this qualitative research. The study set out to explicitly investigate the major factors contributing to the challenges of sustainability of NGOs social activities in Angola and sought to establish strategies to transform managerial practices in the organisations. The following themes give answers to the above question from the precise statement of the problem emerging from the background of the study, which accounted for non-sustainability:

- Lack of resource materials in NGOs
- NGOs are constantly working for someone else’s agenda
- Lack of effective leadership in the NGOs
- Constant employees absenteeism
- Poor and dilapidated infrastructure in the NGOs
- Lack of current gadgets such as computers
- Employees ineffectiveness
- Lack of in-job-training
- Poor remuneration of employees
- Poor strategic planning
- Lack of fundraising plans
- Lack of water and appropriate sanitation facilities in and around the NGO premises
- Lack of sustainable electricity
• Poor vision and mission statement
• Lack of counselling professionals, legal advisors, training, research and rehabilitation personnel.

On analyzing the bio-data it was established that the majority of employees in the NGOs were male workers. The poor remuneration contributed for constant employee’s absenteeism in cities, due to the inexistence of public transport services, thus employees spend more on private transport than what they get monthly. There was a large gender gap because most of the rural alphabetization schools and malaria combat centres were located eight to ten kilometres from the bus stop and this made it difficult for female employees and volunteers to cope. The long distances walked by employees from the nearest bus stop to workplace, made female employees not to stay long in these NGOs. In the two NGOs covered by the study, the participation of females and males reflected the gender balance that exists in society in general. The results showed that on the whole gender balance had not been achieved. A trend to be watched, however, was that the proportion of female employees was lower in NGOs. On analyzing the average ages of employees, supervisors and managers, most of them were young people between the ages of 20 to 39.

However the trend showed that this generation of young employees in most cases was not committed to their work. During strikes they would be in the forefront. Basing myself on the above stated points, I as a researcher also concluded that, in general, donor organisations are run by hired professionals, while local NGOs are usually run by young people who simply have the ambition to help and are not concerned about accountability issues. On the issue of qualifications for managers, employees, supervisors and volunteers, the majority of them interviewed had plus or minus ‘O” level. I as a researcher therefore concluded that employee qualifications in this study also affected negatively the performance of the NGOs especially in NGO YME covered by this study, since the majority of them were former military people with low education background. This was an indication that the challenges of sustainability of NGOs social activities were also attributed to employee’s qualifications. In the NGO YME poor strategic planning and management were also other cases at play. In support of the foregoing, a manager of the NGO
YME in Luanda province gave an account of the underlying factors accounting for the non-sustainability of the majority of NGOs in Angola, such as his NGO:

“...how can you pretend to see the NGO sustainable if the communities themselves don’t own the projects that they implement, unless there is money they don’t want to participate? Projects seem to have created the impression that nothing can work without money. In Benguela, for example organisation does not give sitting allowances for participants whilst other organisations like UNICEF and Save the Children do”.

On examining the number of years of experience for the employees and managers in the NGOs, the study established that the majority of managers had 1 to 5 years experience while the majority of employees had 11 to 20 years of experience. With respect to the number of employees in the NGOs and their qualifications and experience, the report points to some general improvements. Accordingly employees experience could not be considered as a factor contributing to the challenges of sustainability of NGOs since the majority of employees were well experienced workers. From this finding, employees experience did not have any negative impact on the challenges of sustainability of NGOs social activities in Angola. The study also went on to establish the availability of resource materials in the NGOs. The two NGOs differed in terms of resource allocations with the majority of NGOs branches operating with limited working resource materials. While education development in terms of quantitative developments in Angola indicated progress, the reality is an education system characterised by low quality and limited development of lifelong skills due to a number of operational and methodological problems linked to the lack of both material and financial resources.

The study established that quantitative improvements in NGOs have been achieved but this achievement was eroded by the total lack of quality service provision which also affected the quality of employees and the community in general and other working equipment which had remained a challenge. Also the NGO development committees were not fully functional as organs of democratic governance and they did not carry out their duties effectively across all their areas of responsibility. I as a researcher concluded that, while the basis for transforming the challenges of sustainability of NGOs social activities had been laid aside through the provision
of quality service delivery, the process of improving the desired sustainability will continue to be confronted by challenges related to:

- Inadequate or lack of in-service training for employees
- Lack of current material resources
- Lack of practical application of policies
- Poor funding for NGOs
- Lack of partnership
- Poor infrastructure in the NGOs
- Poor water and sanitation facilities in the NGOs
- High level of dissatisfaction among employees

These findings were also confirmed by the observations made in the NGOs. The same findings were also confirmed in the review of related literature which established that, adequate physical resources, and equipment and of course sound management practices were seen as preconditions for the delivery of sustainability of the Angolan NGOs. Also the lack of water within a walking distance meant that toilets could go for some days without cleaning. This posed significant health hazards for employees and communities which threatened their potential to live. The case study confirmed these conclusions. In relation to the management of NGOs, the case study identified and suggests a number of issues that need to be addressed, especially through management training. In some NGO branches, it emerged that management was not aware of what was happening in their NGOs, while directors of other branches did not supervise employees or did not have mechanisms to monitor employee’s attendance.

Most of the directors of NGO YME did not provide effective supervision of employees. It was therefore concluded that many branches of the above named NGOs are managed by people who lack the necessary competences of managing non-governmental organisations. In some cases, it was concluded that the efficient use of resources is sometimes impaired by the poor capacity to manage resources at non-governmental organisations level. There was critical shortage of funds from central government for building new and solid infrastructure, ensuring that basic water, sanitation and electricity needs were met, and also ensuring that other related working materials
were available. The study established that most NGO “B” branches depended on state provision
because communities had no alternative sources of funds to finance their children’s education or
other basic services. On the other hand government was not forthcoming in providing the
necessary funds to the NGOs. While it was widely accepted that an improvement in the NGO
environment would boost community potential, the study concluded that little was done to
provide for the material needed in the NGOs system.

This was to a greater extent compromising the sustainability of NGOs themselves and the social
services delivery of NGOs in particular. Also local non-governmental organisation planners had
not thought carefully about linking managerial inputs to managerial outcomes. That is, they had
rarely asked themselves which inputs affected achievement of the community service delivery
more than others, given the social background of the communities. Decisions concerning which
inputs and outputs should be measured required knowledge of the research literature on the
relative effects of inputs on outputs, and also required planners to develop hypothesis about the
linkages between those which could operate in a special way in a particular area. This knowledge
seems to be lacking among managers of NGOs and this has impacted on the sustainability of
their organisations. I as the researcher have a feeling that the provision of more and better
information especially to management of non-governmental organisations would improve the
challenges of sustainability faced by the Angolan non-profit organisations. Accordingly, these
were the major factors accounting for the non sustainability of the majority of NGO operations in
Angola, a fact that had a negative impact on the achievement of sustainability of one of the two
organisations studied.

b) Discussions
The study had several questions that were seeking to establish the availability of programme
resources in the NGOs. Among these programme resources examined were capacity building
programmes and in-house training, promotion of self-help groups, micro credit under various
models, integrated skill training programmes, income-generating programmes, rural sanitation
programmes, women empowerment activities, short-stay-home, environmental awareness
programme and crèche programmes. A male supervisor from Cabinda province provided insights
on the outcomes of factors accounting for the non-sustainability of the majority of NGO operations in Angola. He highlighted the following:

“... In Angola, I don’t think the problem of sustainability of NGOs is lack of investment ....I think on the one hand it is lack of engagement with communities where the investment is being made. We need to hear the voice of the people, not just the government talking in their name, telling the people what they need; and on the other hand it is problem of lack of experience and school background of many NGO managers.... Suddenly pouring money into rural communities could possibly do more harm than good: You might have a scheme to give some farmers a tractor, but who will drive it? Who will service it? What will the workers do now that the tractor does the work, and how will the community cope with the increased productivity?

This by its own is a challenge for the sustainability of Angolan Non-Governmental Organisations (N.G.Os), he said. Whilst Angolan economy has achieved significant quantitative development, in NGOs little has been achieved in providing equal access to the rural area communities. The poor rural areas continue to struggle with poor management and poor school facilities, which are not up to current best practices.

NGOs have been important contributors to the delivery of public services in Angola. Angola is a relatively big country in terms of area and contains a population of nearly 21 million. Many Angolans do not have access to government services, so NGOs have stepped in to provide these services. These organizations mainly target the poor, disadvantaged communities. Most NGOs have a formal organizational structure, legal registration with the government, outside funding, and professional staff (World Bank 2005c). They undertake a wide variety of public services that include microfinance, health, education, environmental protection, sanitation, and the provision of clean water. Many organisations have more than one thing to focus on. Local NGOs have accomplished many of the most impressive results in the provision of public services. In recent years, local NGOs have created strategies to scale up small, experimental projects into nationwide projects. Public service provision is difficult in remote communities, yet NGOs have succeeded with strong donor support. International funding of NGOs has risen from 14 percent of total aid to Angola to 25 percent during the past 10 years (World Bank 2005c).
The expansion of the NGO sector is attributed to factors that include a relatively recent transition to democracy, an increase in foreign aid, and the country’s pluralist approach in providing public services. The Angolan government encourages NGO activities and cooperates with NGOs and the private sector to distribute public services. On the other hand, the transformation of the NGO sector has raised questions regarding the suitability of government regulations that were formulated when the number and scope of NGOs were far more limited. The Angolan government reserves the right to determine the size and scope of NGO activities, as well as review and terminate programmes. Laws related to management, taxes and financial accountability, for example, are considered weak and contradictory, creating little incentive for NGOs to audit themselves. Donor reporting requirements and accounting systems vary according to organizations, resulting in a lack of consistent monitoring. This is how one employee expressed his feelings about his non-sustainable NGO:

“...it really upsets me. It irritates me to know that this incompetents managers because they don’t have a good school background, they can’t allowed us to get any in-house training, just to get some standards of education. It is as if we are paying the price for being former soldiers. How can you pretend to see the employees performing?” (Pedro).

4.5.2 Findings pertaining to research question II.

4.5.2.1 Why are Save the Children operations sustainable while other such NGOs’ Activities are non-sustainable?

During the observation period which was done at the same time of conducting interviews, the researcher established that in NGO YME employees were involved in some extra work during working times. Most of these findings from interviews were confirmed by the observations which were a typical indication and a true reflection of the situation in the two NGOs covered by the study. Tables and other types of figures were used to systematically present the findings of the study. Also more statistical quantitative analysis of data was made to supplement the thick descriptions of findings which also had the element of voice in the text (actual words said by participants). Findings from observations, interviews and empirical study show that Save the
Children operations are sustainable because the NGO and its branches are managed by experienced and trained managers, which is not the case with other NGOs. Not only that but also, Save the Children does not face any problem of poor leadership, deliberate planning, lack of funding plan, inequitable distribution of capable human resources or lack of trained personnel. The manager staff from Save the Children in Benguela province highlighted that they attributed their success to proper management of the NGO and their community and timely monitoring and evaluation of the NGO’s work. He also spoke of their ability to mitigate the impact of service delivery complication which he said was owed to the competence of their staff. As stated bellow, the supervisor at Namibe provincial branch proudly gave an account of their management of Save the Children conditions:

“...to be honest our statistics are a lot better than the other NGOs in this country. I have always urged my staff, never to like filling those referral forms. I tell them every time that we should try our best level to deal with all cases we come across within the NGO rather than transfer them to these hospitals”.

He went on to give the reasons for not encountering sustainability challenges.

“...Any manager who does not know how to mobilize his subordinates is like the coach of a football team that would sit in the stands instead of standing behind the bench of his players. It is providing training and motivation that managers can help their subordinates to be more productive, to achieve their goals and work in harmony”.

“...In my view, what matters is the motivation of employees and creating a good working environment. We must pay our people, taking into account the work they do, offer them job security and ensure good relations between all managers and subordinates. We should also reward employees for their efforts and show them that we appreciate them when they are doing well their job”.

A manager at Huila provincial Save the Children branch was asked to explain the secret of sustainability of his NGO, and he said:

“...We live in a society where information is very important. Therefore, all employees should have access to training and systems that provide the data necessary for them to be able to make good decisions. I think it is important to plan well for the future of the NGO, to evaluate different options and choose the most effective without having any unnecessary information as option”.

This by its own answers the second research question where the researcher wanted to know why Save the Children operations are sustainable while other such national NGO’s activities are not
sustainable. Finally, in addition to the findings from the empirical study, the review of related literature confirmed among other things that the challenges of sustainability faced by other NGOs in Angola are the result of problems encountered by the country in terms of general management of companies. This, as a result has prompted the government to institute various commissions of inquiry into the national NGO system. The photo below corroborates with the explanation of the manager at Huila provincial Save the Children branch when asked to explain about the secret of sustainability of his NGO.

![Figure 4.1: NGO Save the Children Staff Training in Angola in April 2013](image)

### 4.5.3 Findings pertaining to research question III

#### 4.5.3.1 Why do the challenges of sustainability in their operations continue to mount as shown by non-sustainability of many NGOs in Angola?

At best, the availability of appropriate information is a necessary condition for improving the sustainability of NGOs in Angola. The in-depth analysis of data established that the challenge of sustainability in the operations of NGOs in Angola continue to mount due to a number of factors
which among others were the lack of resources such as qualified personnel, stationary, equipment and the poor and dilapidated state of the workplaces of the NGOs covered by the study, especially in the NGO YME”. As established in the review of related literature of this study, adequate physical resources including infrastructure, learning facilities, equipment and sound management practices were seen to be affecting the provision of sustainable service outcomes in Angolan NGOs. As explained in the summary of Review of Related Literature of this chapter, for as long as government did not provide the necessary institutional support to improve the non-governmental managerial processes, the sustainability of NGOs especially on the part of central government which wants the communities to bear the heavy costs of their children’s socialization and education in particular, will continue facing challenges.

One of the constant findings throughout the study and in all the NGOs’ branches was the importance attached to the sustainability of these non-profit organisations. This has not been possible to achieve in the NGO YME covered in this study due to the critical shortage of necessary information and resources required for the provision of sustainable NGOs in Angola. The current study established that Huila cluster is one of the resource poor clusters which made it difficult to provide communities with a sustainable services delivery in NGOs. The overall non-profit organisations management could be improved with the provision of resources and other related technologies. The information provided by the four data sources including the observation, consistently suggested that non-sustainability of non-profit organisations was widespread as a result of the total absence of resources necessary for the provision of a quality substance or product.

“...In a situation where more than 4 employees share one office, sustainability of NGO and quality service delivery could not be guaranteed at all. Some of these organisations were NGOs by name. They are still registered, but if you go to most of the offices you will find just a few people and quite a number of them do not even have a programme officer or any programme that they are working on” said one of the volunteers.

There was high level of dissatisfaction among employees and supervisors in the whole branches of NGO YME. Dissatisfied employees indicated that they could not afford to send their children to better schools like the private schools due to their poor salary conditions. Not only that, but
also the NGOs pretend to provide counselling, training, legal assistance, research and rehabilitation as stated in profile or areas covered by them while this organisation does not have any specialized personnel to respond to the above named areas. When grouping information, all points related to employees and supervisors, and all information relating to the physical infrastructure, water and sanitation, desks and chairs and other related resources put in place for employees, a clear pattern emerged. Even though analyzing the results with caution and also taking into account information available from other sections of the interview guide or sources it could generally be seen that most participants were dissatisfied with most aspects of the non-governmental system. Disaggregating data from the interview guides showed that there were greater problems in NGO “B” with employees not attending their workplace regularly. When the researcher asked why the challenge of sustainability in the operations continues to mount in NGOs, the supervisor of the NGO YME in Luanda, was able to acknowledge the weakness and said:

“...Thus, NGOs should become building enterprises capable of continually adapting to changing realities, clearly demanding new ways of thinking and operating. To be quite honest, we are all aware that our sustainability was compromised by dependency on external assistance. Donors get the front sit as compared to the communities that are targeted by donor projects.

Mr Pedro, Manager of NGO YME branch in Namibe province shared the same sentiment when he said:

“...The NGOs are constantly working for someone else’s agenda. Most of the time you serve the interest of the donor and thinking about what the donor wants, how you will account, how you will report and how you could please the donor, in the end we lose capacity to think about what we are doing”.

The Save the Children Manager in Luanda remarked:

“...For some Angolan NGO managers working for donors, they can’t even step aside and see what is good for Angola, they are concerned about keeping their jobs to meet their immediate needs and are not able to challenge the donors and end up reducing the chances for change”.
Alan (1999:p.17), argues that, “If a donor inter-working conditions or methods remain unmodified; the interface between official aid agencies and NGOs can almost hamper an NGO’s sustainability and the ability to follow participatory practices that they already have power to be effective”. The situation could be worsened further by the NGO drive to survive, other than resolving problems in the community.

Mr Pedro, NGO YME manager in Namibe went on to explain his opinion:

“... We hang on to bad donors because we need the money to survive, even when we know things are very difficult but because you must keep afloat, we accept bad donors”.

Interviews with project beneficiaries revealed that, NGOs were found to be responsible for raising community funding expectations by promising people inputs, and funding activities of community groups. In most cases, this was not available to all the groups that asked for it hence affecting their morale to volunteer in community projects. A case in point is the NGO microfinance programme that deliberately stimulated the formation of groups. Documentation review and interviews with the NGO staff revealed that, the NGO initiated sensitisation activities that resulted in the creation of many groups including microfinance groups. This research found out that, most groups were formed as a result of the community’s excitement to get external support on the basis of what they were told by the case study organisation.

It however emerged in this research that, only a few of these groups that were formed after the sensitisation were functional as many had fallen out, because their funding expectations were either not met or had misused funds given to them by the case study Organisation. The NGO staff interviewed in this research said that, a number of groups had lied about their financial positions in the interest of attracting funding support from the case study organisation. Available data at the case study NGO revealed that, out of the 37-microfinance groups that were facilitated to form since 2001, 17/37 either had their contracts terminated, or had been suspended because they had breached the contracting conditions. Interviews with the NGO staff revealed that, the groups had been mismanaged by NGO managers, and some of them had lied about their financial status and always submitted inflated figures of funds that they didn’t have. This finding is further
supported by Merriam (1998), quoted in an article by Alan (1999), that argues that, “there is no
evidence that donors take corruption into account seriously while providing aid”. This would
imply that continued funding of such projects without questioning these deception tendencies
would most likely aggravate the corruption problem already affecting developing countries, like
Angola. One of the NGO project managers, interviewed said:

“...Donor conditions make people tell lies, like they say a group must be gender balanced, so if
there are men only, they will not get money, so they end up making false conditions to suit the
requirements. Sometimes the people they bring to make it gender balanced may not have their
vision and this made implementation very difficult”.

A similar sentiment was echoed by an NGO senior manager interviewed in this research, as he
said:

“... Often the donors don’t understand any of these things, but continue pressing for the
implementation of projects according to the set plans, and yet such social issues play against the
effective implementation and sustainability of the project that requires both the local NGO and
the donor to take some time to learn”.

Interviews with the NGO staff revealed that the communities don’t own the projects that they
implement, unless there is money they don’t want to participate. Projects seem to have created
the impression that nothing can work without money. In Benguela, the researcher was informed
that the case study organisation does not give sitting allowances for participants whilst other
organisations like UNICEF and Save the Children do. Some local leaders who were interviewed
complained that people no longer attend their meetings because they don’t have allowances. As a
result of this, some of the leaders and community members don’t want to attend project meetings
and activities, and this was affecting the ownership of the projects and the work of local leaders.
It also emerged from interviews with NGOs staff that projects often undermine what people
know and they participate for formality reasons not because they believe in the project.
Interviews with volunteer members, project beneficiaries and some of the leaders indicated that
donors and NGOs should regularly follow up ‘their’ projects or else they collapse. Whereas this
was a genuine demand for regular follow up, it was observed in this research that the community
seemed to separate themselves from the project by calling them ‘their’ projects, and for sure that
was likely to affect their sustainability in the absence of the donor. A similar sentiment was echoed by one employee in Huila province as he said:

“...Projects implemented by NGOs are a replica of the “donors” policy objectives and programmes. More often than not, these projects do not involve the primary beneficiaries in their design, but tend to seek the involvement of the primary target including the local leadership at the time of implementing the project”.

According to the sentiments from employees, organisations are becoming more networked, which is weakening traditional management hierarchies and potentially opening up new capacity for continual learning, innovation, and adaptation. Not only that but also, the dysfunctions of the traditional management, keep organisations in perpetual fire-fighting mode, with little time or energy for innovation. Since supervisors and managers of the two NGOs in the country covered by the study were isolated, working in poorly supported NGOs with resource constrains, the motivation and incentives to become proactive participatory managers were severely limited. Most of the branch managers of the NGO YME, in response to the question on whether they had received any professional development course, reported that they had not received any professional development orientation that was linked to NGO sustainability and building a shared vision. This chaos also undermines the building of value-based management cultures and opens the door for opportunistic grabs for individual power and wealth.

Although there were wide variations in the level of impact of particular factors on quality service provision, in general, quality social service is a difficult phenomenon to achieve in NGOs. Also associated with the non-availability of resources were the attendance patterns of the study sample, which demonstrated that a significant number of stakeholders particularly at the branches did not attend their NGO duties regularly. However, in summary the general trend on the findings of the study, is that most participants added the lack of resources to their quality indicators. Qualitative and quantitative data collected in the field sessions indicated that not all is well in the non-governmental organisations system in Angola. The nature of non-profit system is such that there is rarely one cause for a particular problem. Multiple factor causation is the rule and not the exception. Non-profit organisation planners need to think carefully about the
strategies that can be put in place to improve the sustainability of Angolan NGOs. The view that emphasis on access to social services has led to inadequate attention being paid to quality and that improving the quality of existing non-governmental organisations should now be a policy priority should be considered seriously if the non-sustainability of the non-governmental organisations is to be overcome. Finally, these and other factors stated above contributed to the sustainability challenges, in many ways, the archetypal organizational learning challenge of this era.

4.5.4 Findings pertaining to research question IV

4.5.4.1 What are the mechanisms or policies for sustainability used by successful NGOs such as NGO Save the Children?

The study on challenges of sustainability of Angolan NGOs social activities provision is a crucial undertaking given the fact that following independence in Angola in 1975 the country encountered problems in the general management of companies system. This, as a result has prompted the government to institute various commissions of inquiry into the NGO policies. These inquiries found a marked lack of dedication among managerial planners to implement and support strategies that would enhance sustainability and service quality delivery in the NGO system. Contrary to the NGO YME where the supervision of employees was ineffective, Save the Children, being an experienced and multinational NGO, the supervision of employees was always present. It was therefore concluded that NGO Save the Children branches are managed by experienced people with the necessary competences of managing non-governmental organisations. In few cases, it was concluded that the efficient use of resources is sometimes impaired by the poor capacity to manage resources at non-governmental organisations level.

Save the Children does not experience any critical shortage of funds because the NGO does not depend on central government for building new and solid infrastructure, to ensure that basic water, sanitation and electricity needs were met, and also ensuring that other related working materials were available. The study established that NGO Save the Children organisation does not depend on state support. In other words, the communities had alternative sources of funds to finance their children’s education or other basic services. On the other hand government was not
forthcoming in providing the necessary funds to this NGO. The study also established that through the support of the Exxon Mobil Foundation, Save the Children has built four new communities on the NGOs “construction, management and teacher selection. Save the Children ensured that their personnel frequently receive in-house training, attend workshops (see picture on page 141), ensure that schools are safe, accessible and free”- eliminating obstacles to girls attending school. For a number of children, the schools are now closer to their homes and they will no longer have to walk long distances, which used to be another barrier to education. The Polio Eradication Project (PEP), implemented by Save the Children in Kwanza Sul Province, continues to make an important contribution to the national polio eradication initiative. Save the Children supports national immunization days and campaigns, improves the quality of polio eradication and provides long-term assistance to families with paralyzed children. Asked on the mechanisms or policies for sustainability used by a successful NGO such as Save the Children, the Huambo’s provincial NGO manager explained:

Save the Children’s Municipal Development Programme in Huambo Province links communities to local government through development forums. Through the forums, communities discuss their development priorities directly with local government administrations and all parties identify and implement social development projects, such as child daycares centres’. These and other mechanisms or policies used and implemented by Save the Children make the NGO to be sustainable. For this reason, we continue with our adaptation and growth in a changing business environment depending on “institutional learning”, which is the process whereby leaders and management teams change their shared mental models of the company, their markets and their competitors. For this reason also, I “think of planning as learning and of corporate planning as institutional learning and authentic listening”.

As stated by Chipanapah (1997), “Authentic listening is about being generous – listening with a giving attitude that seeks to bring forth the contributions in someone, versus listening with limiting assessments, opinions and judgments”. Therefore, good leadership in the NGOs is about transforming feelings, attitudes and beliefs of employees and stakeholders as well as providing a conductive environment to improve the culture and practice of the NGOs. This research by and large achieved the research objectives and the four key research questions were answered. The interpretation of findings is presented next. The interpretation is based on prior knowledge of
NGOs management from previous studies and its impact on sustainability. The researcher attempts to input deductive and reasonable inferences from the information gathered using various strategies. The meaning from the interpreted data will therefore, guide the recommendation of this study.

4.6 Interpretation of the Findings

Inferences from the empirical phase of the study are highlighted below. The interpretation was done in categories. Each category was analysed separately and then each meaning linked to other categories. Hence categories represent the analysis of each research question.

4.6.1 Interpretation of findings to research question 1.
The chapter on review of related literature pointed out the importance of strong management, the need to adopt current management strategies like Total Quality Management (TQM) to improve community and public service delivery processes outcomes and create a culture of NGOs development. Thus the ability of NGOs to improve community needs does depend significantly on the quality of the professional leadership and management provided by the manager and his or her NGOs development team. This kind of leadership can only be achieved through some form of capacity building for community members and managers. The capacity building for managers and NGOs development team systematically and sustainably was much more difficult in the NGO YME given its limited resources (human, material and financial). The findings also showed that due to lack of continued in-job training in NGO YME the development team members of the said NGO did not know their role as members of NGO development team. All that they knew was that they come to work from time to time to deliver goods, if any to the rural areas. There was no follow up of employees during their working period, unless where problems were apparent.

These and other factors as discussed previously, showed how the role of NGO leader was exercised. The role of an NGO leader involves much more than just ensuring that their organisations comply with all laws, policies and expectations. NGOs, for the most part, have been set up to have a positive impact on society, and so I believe that when necessary, leaders
should be “rebels” who can take on “the system” and be agents of change for the good. Some years ago, while working as a lecturer at the Police Middle Management Institute of Luanda, Angola, a student of mine asked me why it was that so many school “rebel” leaders seemed to have good leadership qualities. I asked her to explain. She said that in her experience, the learners selected to be prefects were not always good leaders. They were the students who were able to maintain the status quo and enforce the rules. On the other hand, the rebels, who were always in trouble, were far more dangerous in that they had a way of getting the others to revolt. Many, she said, were concerned with unfairness, liberation, and wanting to change the system for the better. They were the individuals who were truly counter-hegemonic or groups of people who encourage sharing their views against hegemony through the use of persuasion and/or propaganda whilst raising awareness. Of course, her answer upset many of her peers who asserted that in their experience prefects were good leaders. However, the distinction she made stayed with me and so when I became the manager of one of Departments of CID (Crime Intelligence Department) in Angola, I was conscious of the fact that I wanted to be a leader and not just a “prefect”.

As I see it, the role of an NGO leader involves much more than just ensuring that their organisations comply with all laws, policies and expectations. NGOs, for the most part, have been set up to have a positive impact on society, and so I believe that when necessary leaders should be “rebels” who can take on “the system” and be agents of change for the good.

4.6.2 Interpretation of findings to research question 2.

For me, the following sums up what I think might be some of the key aspirations of an NGO leader: A leader is someone who is willing to listen to others and his/her inner wisdom. He/she is always willing to learn, grow, change, reflect, observe, teach, and let his/her intuition guide him/her. She/he leads by example, lets others be involved in collaborative decision-making, and learns how to calm the mind and body so as to stay productive and healthy. A leader knows when to be quiet and when to speak. For this reason, continuous adaptation and growth in a changing business environment depends on “institutional learning”, which is the process whereby leaders and management teams change their shared mental models of the company,
their markets and their competitors. For this reason also, we “think of planning as learning and of
corporate planning as institutional learning and authentic listening”. “Authentic listening is about
being generous – listening with a giving attitude that seeks to bring forth the contributions in
someone, versus listening with limiting assessments, opinions and judgments” (Andrews (2001).

Therefore, good leadership in the NGOs is about transforming feelings, attitudes and beliefs of
employees and stakeholders as well as providing a conducive environment to improve the culture
and practice of the NGOs. Since supervisors and managers of NGOs in the country covered by
the study were isolated, working in poorly supported NGOs with resource constrains, the
motivation and incentives to become proactive participatory managers were severely limited.
Most of the managers in response to the question on whether they had received any professional
development course, reported that they had not received any professional development
orientation that was linked to NGO sustainability and building a shared vision. If an idea about
leadership has inspired organisations for thousands of years, it’s the capacity to hold a shared
(vision) picture of the future we seek to create. It is quite clear that you cannot share the future
without any professional development orientation. One is hard pressed to think of any
organisation that has sustained some measure of greatness in the absence of goals, values and
missions that become deeply shared throughout the organisation.

For this reason, many leaders have personal visions that never get translated into shared visions
that galvanize an organisation by implementing professional development orientation. As a
researcher, I think that the discipline of a learning NGO leader starts with “dialogue” and the
capacity of members of a team to suspend assumptions and enter into genuine thinking together.
To practice a discipline of learning, the NGO leader has to be a lifelong learner. Not only that,
but also in my view, you never arrive; you spend your life mastering disciplines. Therefore, you
can never say, we are a learning organisation, “any more than you can say, I am an enlightened
person”. The more you learn developing orientation, the more acutely aware you become of
your ignorance. For this reason, Senge (2006), stressed that the only thing a human being knows
is that he/she doesn’t know anything. A newly appointed manager in one branch of the NGO
noted that while NGO managers on their own initiatives should set up cluster group discussions
and workshops to regularly share experiences and advices through visits and seminars to which
they would all contribute and participate, little was done to provide such crucial activities due to lack of funding.

4.6.3 Interpretation of findings to research question 3.

The implication of mounting of challenges in the operations of NGs was that, the Angolan non-governmental system did not provide for professional development which was necessary for newly appointed managers and even the seniors to adopt in their new management strategies in NGOs. This in itself is a lack of systems thinking, reason why when you ask people about what it is “like being part of a great team”, what is most striking is the meaningfulness of the experience. People talk about being part of something larger than themselves, of being connected and of being generative. It becomes quite clear that, for many, their experiences as part of truly great teams stand out as singular periods of life lived to the full. Some spend the rest of their lives looking for ways to recapture that spirit. Therefore, the problem of lack of system thinking and the problem with talking about “learning organisations” is that, the “learning” has lost its central meaning in contemporary usage Senge (2006).

In my experience, I have seen my senior managers whose eyes glaze over if you talk to them about “learning” or learning organisations”; the words tend to immediately evoke images sitting passively in schoolrooms, listening, following directions, and pleasing the teacher by avoiding making mistakes. In effect, in everyday use, learning has become synonymous with “taking in information”. This is how Save the Children Advisor expressed his feelings on the question on why the challenge of sustainability continues to mount in the operations of many NGOs in Angola:

‘...In my view, these challenges are related to laps of continuous learning. Because taking in information is only distantly related to real learning and professional development orientation, real professional development orientation, learning gets to the heart of what it means to be human. Through learning Angolan NGOs personnel shall re-create themselves. Through learning we become able to do something we never were able to do. Through learning we perceive the world and our relationship to it. Through learning we extend our capacity to create, to be part of the generative process of life”.
The feelings of Save the Children Advisor corroborate with the anthropologist, Senge (2006), when he says:

“...Humans are the learning organisation par excellence; the drive to learn is as strong as the sexual drive – it begins earlier and lasts longer”. A few brave organisational pioneers are pointing the way, but the territory of building learning organisations is still largely unexplored, as cited by Senge (2006).... All too often, proactiveness is reactiveness disguise. Whether in business or politics, if we simply become more aggressive, fighting the “enemy out there”, we are reactive – regardless of what we call it... True proactiveness comes from seeing how we contribute to our way of thinking, not our emotional state”.

Senge (2006) emphasized the importance of strong educational leadership emanating from the manager and employees in improving quality service outcomes and creating a culture of NGO development. However, this was not the case in the NGOs covered by the study due to limited inputs from participants. NGO based management and leadership undoubtedly had an impact on sustainability of the organisation, regardless of whether that was its ultimate goal. While statistics for financial management in the NGO “B” became a controversial subject due to poor data base set up in the non-governmental organisation, it was established that financial management was also poorly done. Most of the managers noted that they could not understand the financial management procedures and standards set by government and as a result, wrong transactions were made. On the question whether participants were satisfied with the work of their NGO development team, the majority indicated “no”, because they realised that these organs were not functional in NGOs. The table 4.10 shows responses on whether participants were satisfied with the work of their NGOs development manager team, (NGODMTs).

4.6.4 Interpretation of findings to research question 4.

As expressed by many researchers, the mechanisms or policies of sustainability used by successful non-governmental organisations around the world are among others, to have a stated goal of working closely with national stakeholders Denzin (1989; Alan (1999). This is done with reference to the relevance and efficiency of the work they do in Angola, as well as the importance of strengthening local civil institutions in the country as a goal in itself. There are many indications that some managers of NGOs went aside of their reason of starting and
sustaining an NGO. In addition, the cooperation with the stakeholders and in-house-training of non successful NGOs is weaker in Angola than in most other successful NGOs such as Save the Children. I as a researcher noted five reasons for the above:

i) Solutions to large global challenges often start with small, local actions. When you see a need or a problem in your community, you can make a difference by standing up and taking action. For example, a nurse may learn that women in her community are uninformed about basic health services and organize informational workshops. But, no matter what kind of challenge or opportunity you face, you can accomplish more when you have more resources and people supporting your goal than when you act alone. This is why you start a non-governmental organisation (NGO).

ii) Starting an NGO requires many kinds of support. You need stakeholders who provide resources, volunteers, and advocates who believe in your efforts. Launching projects and activities demands multiple skills and forms of support. You need to make plans, reach out to the community, recruit volunteers, raise funds, monitor projects and evaluate results. Sustaining an NGO over time demands an even greater level of commitment, skills, systems, support and resources.

iii) That with a few exceptions, the competence and capacity of the NGO managers is very weak due to their school background and strengthening their capacity will imply too much time, effort and resources, and

iv) That in emergency situations of countries coming from a long civil war like the one in Angola, training the personnel who implement the NGOs projects in view of saving lives has to be given higher priority.

v) That while an NGO like YME continues to entertain poor cooperation with the stakeholders, in some cases not reporting to the donors, the challenge of sustainability in operations will continue to mount in NGOs.

This on its own shows how lack of capacity building also contributed to non-sustainability of some non-governmental organisations in Angola. Not only that but, also Angolan NGO managers fail to understand that capacity building takes place through two main mechanisms. One is by involving Angolan NGOs and individuals directly in the work of international aid
organisations including NGOs. While there are many Angolans employed in the international NGOs in administrative and practical functions, very few Angolans have higher management positions in these organisations. NGO OIKOS-Cooperation is the only one with an Angolan director. Some (including Development Workshop) have Angolans in senior and middle management positions, who have influence in terms of their long-term experience and employment with the organisation. A second mechanism for capacity building in the researcher’s view is training through special courses or other similar interventions.

There have been a large number of such initiatives in the past few years. The most comprehensive have been implemented by UNDP, and USAID. The programmes are based on courses in basic management, including issues of project formulation, budgeting, general management, and communication techniques and projects implementation. NGOs are selected for participation through comprehensive selection processes. The current most comprehensive effort is the Institutional Development Programme (IDP), carried out by NGO Save the Children. A large number of NGOs around the world have gone through courses of this type. However, the problem remains that very few of these organisations manage to come in positions where they can try out what they have learnt and gain experience as NGOs. Independent funding is difficult to obtain, and still largely depends on establishing partnerships with international NGOs. When funding is received, moreover, there are normally no overheads making it possible for the Non-Governmental Organisation to maintain activities in between projects.

What must we sustain? Answers to that question are sometimes divided into “strong” and “weak” approaches because sustainability requires humans to recognize the simple facts of ecological dependency, it can provoke reflection on our dearest values and most fundamental beliefs, our intimate habits, and our overarching worldviews. To meet the challenges of sustainability of the organisations in the twenty-first century, individuals and communities alike are seeking ways in which to explore the spirit of sustainability—from creating new rituals, such as the Council of All Beings (workshops aimed at alleviating the alienation many people feel from the living Earth) to reviving ancient values, such as respect for God’s creation. What must we sustain? Answers to that question are sometimes divided into “strong” and “weak” approaches.
According to Senge (2006), a “weak sustainability” disregards specific obligations to sustain any particular good, espousing only a general principle to leave future generations no worse off than we are. Because sustainability requires humans to recognize the simple facts of ecological dependency, it can provoke reflection on our dearest values and most fundamental beliefs, our intimate habits, and our overarching worldviews. To meet the challenges of sustainability of an organisations in the twenty-first century, individuals and communities alike are seeking ways in which to explore the spirit of sustainability—from creating new rituals, such as the Council of All Beings (workshops aimed at alleviating the alienation many people feel from the living Earth) to reviving ancient values, such as respect for God’s creation.

4.7 Findings from observations made in the NGOs

The study on challenges of sustainability in the operations of Angolan Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO’s) collected data through interviews, observation and open-ended questions. These were conducted with communities’ volunteers, employees, supervisors and managers of NGOs. Interview questions were provided as unstructured (open ended) questions. All the questions sought participants’ opinions on the delivery of community quality service in a selected cluster of the two NGOs in Angola. Besides the interviews, observation guides were used to gather data in the two NGOs and the findings were established as a major challenge of sustainability facing the operations of Angolan NGOs. The observation guide provided supporting evidence to the findings from the interviews. On each point of observation I as the researcher identified the major areas for observations.

The format for description was based “on enough ”or “ not enough” and “not at all” in all cases. From one observation or description the only comment was that employees should improvise for their work. The specific areas for observations were as follows; furniture, recordkeeping, computers, textbooks, sanitation facilities, administration blocks among other essential resources necessary for the provision of a quality product in NGOs. Observations provided more systematic means of data collection which were used for the purpose of descriptions of setting, activities and other observable situations. These provided a deeper understanding than the interview. The observation allowed me as a researcher to work at the critical aspect of the NGO system and taking in as much without interfering with participants in their work.
On the issue of furniture for both employees and alphabetization teachers, the observation established that the two NGOs did not have enough furniture, record keeping, computers, water supplies, sanitation facilities, work plan, fundraising plan, planning events and annual reports, considering the number of provinces these non-governmental organisations serve. The project monitored in both NGOs with more emphasis in NGO YME, shows that there is a serious hindrance to quality delivery and sustainability of services. Also most of the furniture in the said organisations was in urgent need of repair since most of the tables were lamentably in bad conditions. Not only that but also in NGO YME as indicated in the table above, no working plan was found, fundraising plan either annual report. Under such working conditions there was no way quality service and sustainability could be guaranteed. From examination made, the study established that the state of record keeping in the two NGOs was not properly done with one (1) NGO having enough records and one (1) NGO not having any records.

The record books referred to include attendance registers, inventory stock records, training plan and financial records and other related books. The total absence of such record books in one (1) NGO showed that record keeping was not taken seriously. The absence of the training plan for employees in all the branches was an indication that most of the employees did not receive training for quite long time. As a result failing to plan is considered as planning to fail.
Thereofore, managers who operated without adequate planning had very little to offer to their employees. The observation guide also established that the two NGOs lacked current gadgets and equipment such as computers, trucks, fundraising plan, fundraising needs, fundraising activities and evaluation of results or events to provide financial contacts for the NGO. The interviews conducted with the employees established that most of them were not computer literate. The observation conducted in the NGOs under study confirmed why the majority of employees were not computer literate, because they had no computers in schools, neither did they have any training at their workplace. The information provided through observation consistently suggested that low achievement or poor quality of community service delivery was wide-spread in the country due to critical shortage of current working conditions, like infrastructures. The above findings from observation corroborate with the findings from the participants’ interviews.

4.11 Discussion from Review of Related Literature

4.11.1 Sustainability theory

An NGO is a company that is set up for the purpose of providing sustainable human development through social and economic activities of the country or region where it is established. An NGO is set up in two parts: firstly, the incorporation of the non-profit company and secondly, the application of the NGO status. Theories of sustainability attempt to prioritize and integrate social responses to environmental and cultural problems. An economic model looks at sustaining natural diversity and ecological integrity; a political model looks at social systems that realize human dignity. Religion has entered the debate with symbolic, critical, and motivational resources for cultural change. Senge (2006) indicates:

‘...In its literal rudiments, sustainability means a capacity to maintain some entity, outcome, or process over time’.

In the researcher’s view, NGOs financial investment might be deemed sustainable, meaning that the activity does not exhaust the material resources on which it depends. An analogous use of the term “sustainability” refers to dependent social conditions; for example, a peace treaty, an economic policy, or a cultural practice may be called sustainable if it will not exhaust the support
of a political community. In its increasingly common use, the concept of sustainability frames the ways in which environmental problems jeopardize the conditions of health, economic, ecological, and social systems. This is how Save the Children Manager in Luanda expressed his feeling on the question, “why does the challenge of sustainability continue to mount in the operations of many NGOs in Angola”:

‘...when an NGO is legitimate — accountable, transparent, and connected to the community — then it deserves to be sustained. Sustainability refers to the capacity of an NGO to maintain its activities over time. Often, when we hear the term sustainability, the first thing that jumps to mind is money. But sustainability is about much more than that. It starts with the organisation’s vision and mission’.

As stated by Senge (2006), on a global scale the political challenge of sustainability raises a set of basic problems and comprehensive goals. By focusing on the ecological dependency of economic and social systems, sustainability illuminates the mutual effects between environmental degradation caused by human activities, and the perils to human systems presented by global environmental problems. The concept of sustainability of NGOs thus raises a starkly basic question as asked by Save the Children Manager in Luanda:

‘...Can an NGO activities successfully maintain itself and its goals without exhausting the resources on which it depends?’

Asking that question directs attention toward the planetary impact of human activity and its durability over time. It therefore provokes reflection on the manner and purposes of NGOs management and existence. The practical challenge of sustainability is to find specific ways to pursue those distinct goals that conform to their mutual relation. Therein lies the possibility of maintaining (or developing) over time a decent quality of human life for all. NGOs Sustainability concepts thus confront societies with a new kind of moral question: What must be sustained? What goods may be imperilled by the dramatic expansion of human systems? Which goods must be protected? Which goals must be pursued? And what is the shared foundation for doing so? Within particular institutions, those practical questions can be put into context by the group’s
purpose and its relation to ecological and social systems. For example university sustainability may primarily be an aspect of how it manages its energy and food systems in relation not only to its budget, but also to its sense of civic leadership and educational mission.

Senge (2006) states, for cooperation, sustainability may mean anticipating how the reflexivity of NGOs and social systems will determine market conditions over longer periods of time than those covered by quarterly or annual reports. Therefore, NGOs should focus and pay more attention on ethical debate on the multiple goods at stake and the shared perils faced by the communities, sustainability forces consideration of what they must sustain by identifying what the community stands to lose. As I discussed in the previous sections of this chapter four, solutions to large global challenges often start with small, local actions. These actions also start by paying special attention to the variables such as to make plans, reach out to the community, recruit volunteers, raise funds, monitor projects and evaluate results. Sustaining an NGO over time demands an even greater level of commitment, skills, systems, support and resources. These and among other actions determine the sustainability on an NGO. The figure bellow explains the percentage of participants in the five provinces covered by the study, identifying the cause of challenges of sustainability of NGOs.
Table 4.10: Biodata of the percentage of participants identifying each variable

From the analysis of findings given in the above figure, the majority of participants identified inadequate resource materials, poor working conditions, poor leadership, poor salary and poor education or lack of training in the order of importance, with the economic factor with the least number of participants. From the analysis of findings it was established that poor leadership stand out as the major factor affecting the sustainability of NGOs in Angola and particularly those covered by the study. Basically, the study established that there are multiple barriers contributing to non-sustainability of Angolan NGOs and these barriers do not influence isolation, but there are multiple barriers with multi-interactions to produce cumulative disadvantages, which affect the NGOs activities.
4.12 Summary

At around 05.00, we headed off to the airport for the 08.45 plane to Zimbabwe. Armed with my field notes, recorded auto-tapes, interview transcripts, some documents from NGOs, and obviously all the foodstuffs I thought I would miss, my family bade me an emotional farewell. During my five-hour flight, I was pondering where the data collection period had left me, and contemplating on how I would make sense of all the raw data. A number of questions kept me anxious:

- Will I make sense of the voluminous information that has filled my hand luggage?
- Has my positionality changed after mixing and mingling with NGOs employees?
- Have I really managed to capture all necessary information that will provide some readable narratives?
- Will the participants reject or accept my feedback?
- Have I evoked some emotions within participants?
- Will I be able to use all the information that I have collected from my fieldwork, if not, how will I determine what to include and exclude?
- Is this research going to make a difference to the style of management of NGOs, lives of employees and the quality service delivery of their communities?
- What are the actual expectations of my study participants?

These and many other questions occupied my thoughts such that I did not realise that we were nearing the Harare International Airport when I heard the announcement that we would be landing in thirty minutes time. During my flight I have done some rough analysis, trying to comprehend the themes that emerged from data. I scribbled a number of analytic notes that helped me shape this chapter. Going back home made me think anew of the way I had conducted research at certificate, diploma, first degree levels, and at Master’s level. Never before had I felt so empathetic to the participants. The interviews and focus group discussions really evoked some emotions and challenged me on how I have been doing research prior to this particular study. Listening to them openly telling me their personal experiences and thinking made me realise how privileged as researchers we are that some people can unreservedly allow us to enter into their own lives. The whole experience made me feel indebted in honestly representing the
participants’ lived experiences. This chapter presented findings from the empirical phase of the study. The study showed a relationship between poor planning and sustainability. In fact, as alluded to by the researcher (Table 4.10), NGOs who face challenges of sustainability were lacking in planning of their work, fundraising plan and many other administrative tools. The process involving sustainability requires good leadership, monitoring and evaluation of activities. Training of employees was one of the major concerns in NGO YME. The following chapter provides the summaries, conclusion and recommendations which could be implemented to improve the quality of service delivery within the community which is served by the two NGOs and the sustainability of the said organisations.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The study’s aims were to provide greater insights into factors that determine the organizational problems of sustainability of non-governmental organisations and give indications to possible solutions in order to assist in the development of a new strategy for the NGOs. In this chapter, the researcher summarises the study findings, highlights the major conclusions from the study and suggests recommendations, including areas for further research basing on the findings.

5.1 Summary of the study findings

Non-governmental organisations’ planners around the world are becoming more preoccupied with strategies that would facilitate efficient delivery of services to communities, and the emphasis in their work is on coverage of delivery, with very little concern being expressed about whether this large-scale mobilisation of resources would establish the kind of conditions that lead to an improvement in NGOs’ outputs, especially those associated with community learning programmes. This study aimed at:

- Identifying and evaluating what has been done in Angola in order to promote greater and better quality service delivery and the sustainability of NGOs within the country.
- Establishing and assessing the opportunities that exist for greater quality of service delivery within the rural area communities served by NGOs.
- Highlighting what can be done to improve the quality of service delivery of NGOs in the districts they operate in.
- Assessing and evaluating the extent to which quality service delivery has been maintained in the expanded system of NGOs in Angola.
The major goal of the study was to provide institutional planners, policy makers and first line implementers with the necessary conceptual and analytical tools and indicators to monitor the development of NGOs’ programmes. The study on challenges of sustainability of Angolan NGOs attempted to address the following main research questions in relation to the challenges of sustainability facing the provision of quality service delivery:

- What are the underlying factors accounting for the non-sustainability of the operations of the national Angolan NGOs?
- Why are Save the Children operations sustainable while other such NGOs’ activities are non-sustainable?
- Why do the challenges of sustainability in their operations continue to mount as shown by non-sustainability of many NGOs in Angola?
- What are the mechanisms or policies for sustainability used by successful NGOs such as Save the Children?

The research questions specifically dwelt on non-sustainability related issues in the NGO system in Angola. They also permitted the researcher to adjust the direction of the inquiry based on the ongoing field experiences. The research questions provided flexibility and freedom to explore the phenomenon. The first chapter also examined the theoretical frameworks of the study. In the process sustainability experts and their powerful works were examined. The five experts, Peter M. Senge, W.E. Deming, J.J. Juran, P. Crosby and K. Ishikawa were the major theorists the study was based on. These theorists made a significant contribution to Japan’s later reputation for innovative high quality products. Basically, the study is based on the theories of Deming and his philosophical thinking that, quality processes are crucial to meet the needs of consumers. The ultimate rationale of the study on challenges of sustainability of Angolan NGOs’ social activities was basically to establish major factors that influence the sustainability of one NGO and non-sustainability of most NGOs in Angola and possibly provide policy makers and all those with an interest in NGO services with necessary analytical tools to raise the sustainability of service delivery in communities. The study contributes to the NGOs’ approaches and to the NGOs development in general and the provision of sustainable work in particular. This study should hopefully benefit those engaged in NGOs administration in Angola and in addition, to help those
managers planning to achieve quality service delivery and how it is related to overall national
development. The findings from this study can be used to mitigate the current non-sustainability
by improving the general environment in which employees work. They can also guide
managerial planners operating at the different levels of the NGO system in their decision making
concerning the provision of quality service delivery and the realization that countries should
invest more and more in human resources training. The study focused on the major factors that
affect the provision of the said service and it was a case study covering two NGOs operating in
five provinces. The two NGOs are represented in five provinces.

Data were mainly collected from employees of the said NGOs, members of the NGO
development committees, volunteers, supervisors and managers. Interview guides were used to
collect data and for purposes of triangulation, an observation guide was used to collect data from
the NGOs. Five assistant researchers were trained and these collected data from their respective
NGOs. The first chapter has made efforts to define key operational terms that are used in the
study. These terms are defined in the context and reference in which they were used in the study.
The definition of terms was followed by precise discussion on the research methodology. In this
study the qualitative research methodology was chosen and this type of research seeks to
understand phenomena in context specific settings such as NGOs. The methodology involves a
clear focus on the research questions. It was a generic investigative research, and these are used
to better understand any phenomenon about which little is known.

The discussion on research methodology on chapter three was followed by discussion of ethical
and legal considerations in conducting empirical studies. In this discussion, the element of
morality in the creation of knowledge as determined not only by the scientific community but by
the larger society was emphasised. Some codes of conduct regarded as binding to ensure that the
research field is not put into disrepute have been highlighted. The study was conducted honestly
and fairly respecting the rules binding research processes and valuing all living beings. Data for
the study were collected through face to face interviews, open ended questions which were
responded to by participants and observation guides were used in each of the two NGOs. The
researcher’s involvement and immersion into the study or research, discussing and recording
information from information rich cases drawn from managers of NGOs, employees, supervisors
and volunteers, was a crucial activity for the qualitative study and this provided primary data for the study. To acquire validity and reliability of information, multiple data sources were used and multiple research instruments were engaged. All these issues are highlighted in the methodology chapter. On issues relating to sampling techniques, the study used purposeful sampling and in all cases maximum variation was maintained. Purposeful sampling is the most dominant strategy in qualitative cases which were studied in depth. The chapter also examined the research instruments used in the study focusing on their suitability, strengths and weaknesses.

The chapter concluded by examining issues relating to triangulation, reliability and validity and how validity and reliability was maximised in this study. The data presentation and analysis chapter started off by giving a historical perspective of the NGO system in Angola and this was followed by a brief examination of managerial resources in the NGOs. Within this framework the human element which is the most important asset in an organisation was also examined considering their ages, sex, qualifications, experience and to a certain extent, their effectiveness in their day to day operations in NGOs. Issues relating to economic factors, poor management, inadequate resources, lack or poor fundraising plans, fundraising needs, poor training plans, poor planning of events, poor mission statement and other issues also took centre stage in the analysis of data. On comparing the findings from different data sources such as the review of related literature, empirical study and different research instruments, there was a general pattern showing the same themes emerging from different sources.

Some photographs were taken mainly from rural areas by NGOs volunteers which show the type of working environment. The observation in general established that in almost all NGOs covered by the study, the NGO infrastructure was in a state of dilapidation. Most of these findings were raised by participants during face to face interviews and they were also confirmed by observations made at each NGO. The interview guide also confirmed some of the unplanned activities done by employees during working times. Chapter four commenced with introduction presents the background information about the NGOs covered by the study, criteria for evaluation, study participants numbering and gives presentation and analysis of major findings. The chapter also presents the interpretation of the findings and presents discussions from review of related literature. In addition, chapter four answered the four main research questions of the
problem emerging from the background to the study and presents a brief summary of the study. Chapter five commences with an introduction, summary of the study, summary of the review of related literature, summary of the empirical study, where the four main questions were discussed, and the chapter ends with the conclusion, recommendations and recommendations for further research. While there were some variations of results when the four main research questions were analysed by NGOs or by participants, most participants attached very high value to the need to provide the following to enhance the sustainability of NGOs (see figure 4:1 on page 134):

- Working plan
- Fundraising plan
- Institutional resource material like furniture and computers
- Employees training plan
- Provision of training rooms
- Fundraising needs
- Fundraising activities
- Provision of planning launches or events to provide financial contacts for the NGO
- Provision of water and sanitation facilities within the NGO environment
- Improved participant leadership from the NGO managers
- Establish training needs
- Provision of incentives and salaries in view to reduce the high level of dissatisfaction of employees.

All the above were the major elements identified by participants as key factors contributing to the declining quality of service delivery, and subsequently, to the non-sustainability of NGOs in Angola. There were several other factors contributing to non-sustainability and these are summarized in the graph on page 154, Figure 4.10 which shows the possible factors identified by participants and the number of participants identifying each factor. There was also the issue of learning challenges. Learning challenges elaborated for the particular co-operation of NGOs in Angola confirm a number of previous arguments considering partnerships of NGOs in other contexts (Ebrahim 2003; Hudock 1999; Lister 2000; Mancuso Brehm 2004; Mawdsley et. al.
2002; Wallace 1997). Although the Angolan NGOs were not professional NGOs with which most of the previous studies were dealt, a number of similarities in the findings could be identified. The learning challenge of moving from the legitimate of finished ideas supports similar findings in other studies. For example, Wallace (1997) has claimed that what is typical to NGO development co-operation is not transformation of ideas on the basis of feedback from Southern partners but the complete lack of changes made notwithstanding feedback received. Accordingly, some studies on participation in development co-operation like Cooke and Kothari (2001), have shown how the idea of enhancing participation of the local people in design and implementation of NGOs projects easily turn into an act of legitimating the initial ideas of the Angolan partners.

5.2 Summary of the Review of Related Literature

The review of related literature analyzed major theories and research findings from other researchers regarding the sustainability and the provision of sustainable services of NGOs in Africa and around the world in particular. While the findings from empirical study established that the declining of sustainability of Angolan NGOs was caused by the inequitable distribution of capable human and material resources, employee resources, poor management, poor financing strategies and the general lack of resources in the NGOs, findings from review of related literature confirmed that despite government instituting some commissions of inquiry into the national NGO system, the central government in Angola did not give priority to where social activities took place. Very little was done by central government as a way of supporting non-governmental institutions. Support reforms should be instituted in the NGOs that focus on social activities, alphabetization teaching and learning in rural areas.

For as long as government did not provide the necessary institutional support to improve the non-governmental managerial processes, the sustainability of NGOs especially on the part of central government which wants the communities to bear the heavy costs of their children’s socialization and education in particular, will continue facing challenges. There was no way communities could mobilize significant private resources for improving their quality of life, HIV prevention and their alphabetization. Efforts made by the employees to improve the quality of
service delivery to the communities have been seen to worsen the situation by providing substandard materials especially furniture. In addition, the review of related literature established that the high failure rate in most NGOs in Angola was not only due to lack of resources but also as a result of deliberate lack of planning. To a large extent this was true because elaborate NGO systems were imposed on a weak national policy and economy. Most of the planning from the look of things did not consider the capacity of the country coming from a long civil war to shoulder the consequent recurrent financial overheads. This is the Angolan context. Leaving the Angolan context and looking to what happens in other countries around the world, we find out that in 2010 the isgmit.org/projects-storage/NGOManagement carried out the “2010 NGO Sustainability index” in more than 50 countries of Europe and Asia. This research established the following findings:

- The legal framework remains a work in progress in many countries, with concerns over registration, government harassment, and implementation of NGO legislation still present.
- Organisational capacity throughout the two regions (Europe and Asia) for most part experienced little change until 2010.
- Strategic planning, functioning government systems, and long-term employees are still an exception for most NGOs around the world.
- Some NGOs’ emphasis on capacity building efforts is focused on the regions, but much of this is in its early stages.
- There was little change in the financial viability of the regions on average.
- NGO’s efforts to interact with government actors continue to develop, sometimes albeit slowly.
- The average score for service provision did not change in 2010.
- Most governments have some types of contracting mechanism for some portion of services, but these are still limited in scope.
- Infrastructure for NGOs across the regions remain weak.
- Only six NGOs of ten countries had improvements in their legal environments, four of these were from “sustainability” evolving countries but one improvement was also registered in a “sustainability impeded” country.”
• In post-conflict environment, for instance, the highest paid jobs are in NGOs Senior personnel. This has led to suspicion that NGOs are in fact for profit organisations which has resulted in governments regulating and standardizing activities of such NGOs.

• The study concluded that Asia is the region which collectively has the lowest scores.

From a general understanding and according to what is stated previously, it is therefore concluded that the review of related literature of this study managed to identify the major barriers to sustainability of Angolan NGOs. However, little has been established from the review of related literature on what should be done to improve the challenges of sustainability of NGOs. The review of related literature only pointed to the weak areas without providing the necessary information on the strategies to improve the challenges on sustainability of NGOs. Common sense suggests that NGOs should have motivated employees, enough resource materials and conducive workplace accommodation if NGOs are to be centres of managerial excellence. The fact that donor agencies withdrew their food supply in different forms in NGOs greatly affected the quality service delivery in the rural areas. This therefore meant that the withdrawal of donor support had a negative impact on the interests of communities in NGO work.

Also the employees were demoralized since they were “feeding” together with their communities. From the look of things it is concluded that NGOs in Angola have been for all along depending on donors, as a result it is failing to give priority to where HIV prevention, malaria combats and alphabetization learning actually takes place. The NGO managerial system can be improved by building professional support systems as established in the review of related literature. The review of related literature established that in NGO “B” employees no longer held refresher courses in their districts and in their clusters. Most of these crucial understandings were left to the junior managers who also did not do much in as far as refresher courses were concerned. The review of related literature examined issues relating to employees motivation through incentives and remunerations. It was therefore concluded that the introduction of incentives affected most rural employees with volunteers who could not manage to raise the necessary incentives.
This had a negative impact on employee’s motivation which naturally affected the communities. Finally, while the 2010 NGO sustainability Index study established that in post conflict environment, for instance, the highest paid jobs are in NGOs, this study concluded that in NGOs the highest paid employees are the non-resident personnel.

5.3 Summary and Discussion of the empirical study

5.3.1 What are the underlying factors accounting for the non-sustainability of the national NGO operations in Angola?

As indicated in the chapter on research methodology, data presentation and analysis was unquestionably one of the most complicated of all the stages of this qualitative research. The study set out to systematically investigate the major factors contributing to the mounting challenges of sustainability of national NGOs social activities in Angola and sought to establish strategies to transform managerial practices in the country. It has informed increasingly outmoded policy models and ideas about NGOs (such as the idea of the complementary division of labour in service delivery between government and NGOs), while the more critical work has fuelled equally crude and often highly generalized ideas about the limitations and ‘failures’ of NGOs (such as the view of NGOs as self-serving vehicles for individual gain). The heavily normative approach to NGOs defined in/by the dominant literature has been influential at the policy level and provided, and continues to provide, the rationale for the continuous use and support by governments and donors of NGOs and their roles in development.

What is needed, as Tvedt (2000) argues, is a new analytical framework, which ensures organisational essentialism and normative instrumentalism and better reflects empirical realities of the world of NGOs, including their wide diversity. Work of this kind, which explores a new and embedded political economy of NGOs but rooted in ethnographic study that links global and local contexts, is beginning to emerge (Hilhorst, 2003; Igoe and Kelsall, 2005).

This new agenda according to Tvedt (2000) is exciting and diverse, ranging from the moral dimensions of NGO work and the shifting meanings and representations around ideas of non-
NGO field as a sustainable and theoretically-grounded subject of research. The author also suggests that the institutionalization of the NGO shall be done within development studies (and social sciences more widely) precisely because of the way that NGO research to date has too often been buffeted by the changing fashions of development policy. If development research is to be ‘relevant’ research - as Bebbington (2005) puts it, - then both researchers and policy makers have a strong and mutual vested interest in achieving a consistent academically-grounded dialogue around NGO issues. If closer links are to be constructed between research and policy (Court and Maxwell, 2005), then we need to go beyond dominant thinking about simply bridging ‘a gap’ between researchers and practitioners to understand more clearly the ways in which knowledge of sustainability is produced.

We must therefore seek to improve our understanding of NGOs as both subjects of development research, and as actors in development processes, since these are inextricably linked. This means locating NGO research more firmly within the structural context in which NGO activities take place. Just as research on NGOs has often adopted an overly organisational focus, policy discussions on NGOs have also taken place within a similar organisational framework in which NGOs are frequently challenged to organizationally “scale up” or refocus their activities if they are to remain “relevant” (Lewis, 2001). Yet the current evolution of NGOs and their development roles cannot simply be seen as an organisational response to existing development problems, but also as an effect of specific policy decisions by donors and governments. If the main contribution of this collection is a call to reframe NGO research away from its organisational focus, the same applies to NGO policy discussions. These policy discussions need to shift to the context, policies and practices of the international aid system itself, which creates expectations, as well as the conditions for NGOs to address them.

This is not to impose structural analysis on all discussions on NGOs, for as Nelson (2003) (in this issue) argues, organisational characteristics do still matter. Rather, my aim is to stress the importance of the structural context in which NGOs operate - and in particular that created by donor policies and practices - in relation to NGO organisational performance. The ability of NGOs to contribute and respond in different ways to these policies and practices is ultimately shaped by their political stance and level of financial dependence. A greater level of
understanding of NGO agency may therefore ultimately inform a set of policies that can achieve a better fit with the realities and potentials of NGO roles in development. In order to fill the existing gap of non-sustainability there should be community development promotion programmes under NGOSSP, to support the cohesion and growth of coalition of existing NGOs in the identified sectors. Participating NGOs in each coalition with government or other NGO can be orientated to “World Learning”, the programme goals of institutional capacity and programme components (training, technical assistance and sub-grants). Then, the NGOs facing challenges will be assisted in development of coalition by-laws to determine how the organisations will work together to plan and coordinate programme activities throughout the provinces of Angola targeting their respective sector.

In addition, particular emphasis should be placed on the involvement of coalition members in all aspects of the programme to assure that they are committed to growth and change, and they develop the skills and knowledge necessary to function as independent effective organisations. These World learning programmes will enable NGOs to enhance combined capacities including democracy building, NGO capacity-strengthening, training and exchanges, international education, teacher education and training, sustainable development, and conflict resolution throughout the World. As a result, these methods will continue to support civil society organisations to develop their organisational capacity building to achieve developmental goals, and to advocate for effective democratic process and develop capacity for service delivery. Finally, this thesis assumes that any approach by itself is not an end in itself unless a person internalizes it positively or follows through by “valuing it, knowing it, internalizing and acting on it”. It is also assumed that the human attitude and behaviour based on positive core can achieve higher capacity of sustainability than the ones based on negative cores, because companies’ lives are based on the commitment of their leaders to the development of employee skills and consequently to the sustainability of the company itself.
5.3.2 Discussion on research question 2: Why are Save the Children operations sustainable while other such NGO’s activities are non-sustainable?

At best, the availability of appropriate information is a necessary condition for improving the sustainability of NGOs in Angola. The in-depth analysis of data established that the challenges of sustainability in the operations of NGOs in Angola continue to mount due to a number of factors which among others were the lack of resources such as qualified personnel, stationary, equipment and the poor and dilapidated state of workplaces of the NGOs covered by the study, especially in the NGO YME. As established in the review of related literature of this study, adequate physical resources including infrastructure, learning facilities, equipment and sound management practices were seen to be affecting the provision of sustainable service outcomes in Angolan NGOs. As explained in the summary of Review of Related Literature of this thesis, for as long as government did not provide the necessary institutional support to improve the non-governmental managerial processes, the sustainability of NGOs especially on the part of central government which wants the communities to bear the heavy costs of their children’s socialization and education in particular, will continue facing challenges.

One of the constant findings throughout the study and in all the NGOs branches was the importance attached to the sustainability of these non-profit organisations. This has not been possible to achieve in the NGO covered in this study due to the critical shortage of necessary information and resources required for the provision of sustainable NGOs in Angola. The current study established that Huila cluster is one of the resource poor clusters which made it difficult to provide communities with a sustainable service delivery in NGOs. The overall non-profit organisations management could be improved with the provision of resources and other related technology. The information provided by the four data sources including the observation, consistently suggested that non-sustainability of non-profit organisations was widespread as a result of the total absence of resources necessary for the provision of a quality substance or product. In a situation where more than 4 employees share one office, sustainability of NGO and quality service delivery could not be guaranteed at all. There was high level of dissatisfaction among employees and supervisors in all the branches of NGO YME. Dissatisfied employees indicated that they could not afford to send their children to better schools like the private
schools due to their poor salary conditions. Besides that, the NGOs pretend to provide counselling, training, legal assistance, research and rehabilitation as stated in profile or areas covered by them while this organisation does not have any specialized personnel to respond to the above named areas. When grouping information, all points related to employees and supervisors, and all information relating to the physical infrastructure, water and sanitation, desks and chairs and other related resources put in place for employees, a clear pattern emerged.

Even though analyzing the results with caution and also taking into account information available from other sections of the interview guide or sources it could generally be seen that most participants were dissatisfied with most aspects of the non-governmental system. Desegregating data from the interview guides showed that there were greater problems in NGO YME with employees not attending their workplace regularly. Although there were wide variations in the level of impact of particular factors on quality service provision, in general, quality social service is a difficult phenomenon to achieve in NGOs. Also associated with the non-availability of resources were the attendance patterns of the study sample, which demonstrated that a significant number of stakeholders particularly at the branches did not attend their NGO duties regularly. However in addition to the general trend on the findings of the study, most participants added the lack of resources to their quality indicators. Qualitative and quantitative data collected in the field sessions indicated that not all is well in the non-governmental organisations system in Angola.

The nature of the non-profit system is such that there is rarely one cause for a particular problem. Multiple factor causation is the rule and not the exception. Non-profit organisation planners need to think carefully about the strategies that can be put in place to improve the sustainability of Angolan NGOs. The view that emphasis on access to social services has led to inadequate attention being paid to quality and that improving the quality of existing non-governmental organisations should now be a policy priority, should be considered seriously if the sustainability of the non-governmental organisations is to improve. Thus, NGOs should become building enterprises capable of continually adapting to changing realities, clearly demanding new ways of thinking and operating. It clearly emerged from this research that NGO beliefs such as participation and their sustainability were compromised by dependency on external assistance.
Donors get the front sit as compared to the communities that are targeted by donor projects. The case NGO senior Manager said:

“the NGOs are constantly working for someone else’s agenda. Most of the time you serve the interest of the donor and thinking about what the donor wants, how you will account, how you will report and how you could please the donor, in the end they lose capacity to think about what they are doing”.

For some Angolan NGO managers working for donors, they can’t even step aside and see what is good for Angola, they are concerned about keeping their jobs to meet their immediate needs and are not able to challenge the donors and end up reducing the chances for change. Alan Fowler (1992:p.17), argues that, “If a donor inter-working conditions/methods remain unmodified; the interface between official aid agencies and NGOs can almost hamper a NGO’s sustainability and the ability to follow participatory practices that they already have power to be effective”. The situation, could be worsened further by the NGO drive to survive, other than resolving problems in the community, just like one of the NGO senior staff said, “we hang on to bad donors because we need the money to survive, even when we know things are very difficult but because you must keep afloat, we accept bad donors”. Interviews with project beneficiaries revealed that, the case study NGOs and other NGOs alike were found to be responsible for raising community funding expectations by promising people inputs, and funding activities of community groups.

In most cases, this was not available to all the groups that asked for it whence affecting their morale to volunteer in community projects. The case study organisations deliberately embarked on a campaign to form groups both in the area of microfinance and agricultural production. A case in point is the NGO microfinance programme that deliberately stimulated the formation of groups. Documentation review and interviews with the NGO staff revealed the existence of NGO initiated sensitisation activities that resulted in the creation of many groups including microfinance groups. This research found out that, most groups were formed as a result of the community’s excitement to get external support on the basis of what they were told by the case study organisation. It however emerged in this research that, only a few of these groups that were formed after the sensitisation were functional as many had fallen out, because their funding
expectations were either not met or had misused funds given to them by the case study Organisation. The NGO staff interviewed in this research said that, a number of groups had lied about their financial positions in the interest of attracting funding support from the case study organisation. Available data at the case study NGO revealed that, out of the 37-microfinance groups that were facilitated to form since 2001, 17/37 either had their contracts terminated, or had been suspended because they had faltered the breached conditions. Interviews with the NGO staff revealed that, the groups had been mismanaged by NGO managers, and some of them had lied about their financial status and always submitted inflated figures of funds that they didn’t have. This finding is further supported by Svensson (1998), quoted in an article by Vu Minh Duc (1999), and argues that, “there is no evidence that donors take corruption into account seriously while providing aid”. This would imply that continued funding of such projects without questioning these deception tendencies would most likely to aggravate the corruption problem already affecting developing countries, like Angola. One of the NGO project managers, interviewed said,

“...donor conditions make people tell lies, like they say a group must be gender balanced, so if there are men only, we will not get money, so we end up making false conditions to suit the requirements. Sometimes the people they bring to make it gender balanced may not have their vision and this made implementation very difficult”.

According to the case study NGO senior manager interviewed in this research, said:

“...often the donors don’t understand any of these things, but continue pressing for the implementation of projects according to the set plans, and yet such social issues play against the effective implementation of the project that requires both the local NGO and the donor to take some time to learn”.

Interviews with the NGO staff revealed that the communities don’t own the projects that they implement, and unless there is money they don’t want to participate. Projects seem to have created the impression that nothing can work without money. In Benguela, the researcher was informed that the case study organisation does not give sitting allowances for participants whilst
other organisations like UNICEF and Save the Children do. Some local leaders interviewed complained that people no longer attend their meetings because they don’t have allowances. As a result of this, some of the leaders and community members don’t want to attend project meetings and activities, and this was affecting the ownership of the projects and the work of local leaders. It also emerged from interviews with NGOs staff that projects often undermine what people know and they participate for formality reasons and not because they believe in the project. Interviews with volunteer members, project beneficiaries and some of the leaders indicated that donors and NGOs should regularly follow up ‘their’ projects or else they collapse. Whereas this was a genuine demand for regular follow up, it was observed in this research that the community seemed to separate themselves from the project by calling them ‘their’ projects, that was likely to affect their sustainability in the absence of the donor. This research has found out that projects implemented by NGOs are a replica of the donors’ policy objectives and programmes. More often than not, these projects do not involve the primary beneficiaries in their design, but tend to seek the involvement of the primary target including the local leadership at the time of implementing the project. Finally, these and other factors stated above contributed to the sustainability challenges, in many ways, the archetypal organizational learning challenge of this era.

In addition, organisations are becoming more networked, which is weakening traditional management hierarchies and potentially opening up new capacity for continual learning, innovation, and adaptation. In addition, the dysfunctions of the traditional management, keep organisations in perpetual fire-fighting mode, with little time or energy for innovation. Since supervisors and managers of the two NGOs in the country covered by the study were isolated, working in poorly supported NGOs with resource constrains, the motivation and incentives to become proactive participatory managers were severely limited. Most of managers of branches of the NGO YME in response to the question on whether they had received any professional development course, reported that they had not received any professional development orientation that was linked to NGO sustainability and building shared vision. All these named factors also undermines the building of value-based management cultures and opens the door for opportunistic grabs at individual power and wealth.
5.3.3 **Discussion on research question 3:** *Why do the challenges of sustainability in their operations continue to mount as shown by non sustainability of many NGOs in Angola?*

NGOs do not give priority to financial assistance for which they need to conceptualize projects, write proposals, contact donors and follow-up for assured funding. While working on these time-consuming processes, NGOs fail to realize the importance of non-financial assets and transferring them to needy communities and NGOs in developing countries. To overcome the challenge of sustainability, NGOs also should emphasise on non-financial donations, which include learning materials, computers, furniture, stationary, desks, chairs and even vehicles. These resources can be very crucial for long-term sustainability for projects and programmes implemented by NGOs. Small organisations that struggle with resources can look for these easily available non-financial donations to develop their office facilities in remote areas. Other organisations can also seek such donations to implement community-based organisational mechanisms or set-ups and transfer such assets to them. The sustainability of project infrastructure and ownership problems are core reasons for donors to move away from covering infrastructural costs and directly funding community based actions.

5.3.4 **Discussion on research question 4:** *What are the mechanisms or policies for sustainability used by successful NGOs such as NGO Save the Children?*

The study on challenges of sustainability of Angolan NGOs social activities provision is a crucial undertaking given the fact that following independence in Angola the country encountered problems in the general management of companies system. This, as a result has prompted the government to institute various commissions of inquiry into the NGO policies. These inquiries found a market lack of dedication among managerial planners to implement and support strategies that would enhance sustainability and quality service delivery in the NGO system. Contrary to the NGO YME where the supervision of employees was ineffective, Save the Children, being an experienced and multinational NGO, the supervision of employees was always present. It was therefore concluded that NGO Save the Children branches are managed by experienced people with the necessary competences of managing non-governmental organisations. In few cases, it was concluded that the efficient use of resources is sometimes
impaired by the poor capacity to manage resources at non-governmental organisations level. Save the Children does not experience any critical shortage of funds because the NGO does not depend on central government for building new and solid infrastructure, to ensure that basic water, sanitation and electricity needs were met, and also to ensure that other related working materials were available. The study established that NGO Save the Children does not depend on state support for all its activities. In other words, the communities had alternative sources of funds to finance their children’s education or other basic services. On the other hand government was not forthcoming in providing the necessary funds to this NGO. This study also brought to the fore that through the support of the Exxon Mobil Foundation, Save the Children has built four new communities on the NGOs “construction, management and teacher selection. Save the Children ensured that their personnel frequently receive in-house training, attend workshops (see picture on page 141), ensure that schools are safe, accessible and free”- eliminating obstacles to girls attending school.

For a number of children, the schools are now closer to their homes and they will no longer have to walk long distances, which used to be another barrier to education. The Polio Eradication Project (PEP), implemented by Save the Children in Kwanza Sul Province, continues to make an important contribution to the national polio eradication initiative. Save the Children supports national immunization days and campaigns, improves the quality of polio eradication and provides long-term assistance to families with paralyzed children. Save the Children’s Municipal Development Programme in Huambo Province links communities to local government through development forums. Through the forums, communities discuss their development priorities directly with local government administrations and all parties identify and implement social development projects, such as child day-care centres. These and other mechanisms or policies used and implemented by Save the Children make the NGO to be sustainable. In line with the changing business environment, these sustainable practices reiterate Senge (2006) continuous adaptation and growth in a changing business environment depends on “institutional learning”, which is the process whereby leaders and management teams change their shared mental models of the company, their markets and their competitors.
For this reason also, according to Senge (2006) learning of corporate planning as institutional learning and authentic listening are the key elements of institutional sustainability. Chipanapah (1997 argues that the sustainability of NGOs is achieved by being generous – listening with a giving attitude that seeks to bring forth the contributions in someone, versus listening with limiting assessments, opinions and judgments. Therefore, good leadership in the NGOs is about transforming feelings, attitudes and beliefs of employees and stakeholders as well as providing a conducive environment to improve the culture and practice of the NGOs. This research by and large achieved the research objectives and the four key research questions were answered, and therefore made the following conclusions:

5.4 Conclusions

National and international NGOs in Angola are part of a complex political setting in constant change. Their status and role cannot only be assessed by focusing on the non-sustainability and the impact of their programmes and projects in isolation. Equally important is the question of how they relate to other parts of Angolan society. For a sustainability recovery, the state, the civil society and the private sector all have to inter-relate constructively. As I have discussed in this thesis, the state and the private sector in Angola are currently extremely weak, leaving political and social space for a civil society defined broadly as “informal and formal institutions between the state and the household that are not private enterprises with profit motives”. We know far too little about the informal components of civil society in Angola, in the form of traditional institutions, local associations, social relations and networks, except that they are probably extremely important for peoples’ daily coping strategies both in urban and rural areas. The space for formal civil society institutions was, as shown in the previous chapters of this thesis, enhanced with the process of democratisation and liberalization in the early 1990s.

It is not difficult to find support for arguments that despite this, sustainability even for the church, professional labour unions, the media and the NGOs themselves have functioned under very difficult conditions throughout the 1990s (Torrington and Hall 1987, Vines 1990, Hodges 2001). In this context, the sustainability of national NGOs has an important role to play both for
social development and for human rights. They represent a broad spectrum of social categories and interest groups, and have a flexibility that may make them into effective development agents and human rights advocates. To be able to have an influence for development agency and human rights, I argue that the NGOs must strike a balance between relating constructively to the state, the private sector and other parts of civil society and working for alternative development strategies and radical change. The international community, including international and local NGOs, have a particular responsibility for contributing towards such a process. Although the capacity building community is committed and executing excellent programmes, progress in the field of NGOs is still needed, especially in Angola. Increased examination of NGOs will not only allow us to more fully describe the field of organizational types (corporate, government, non-governmental) and their communicative characteristics and dynamics but also will provide a wealth of opportunities to validate and/or question our current theoretical assumptions that have largely been based on the empirical picture presented in corporate organizations (Lewis, 2001). Although NGOs have become established organizational actors within development policy and practice, critical questions are increasingly being asked of their performance and accountability.

In general, the roles and activities of NGOs have been relatively well covered in the literature, but there is far less systematic research on internal organizational processes and management (Lewis & Madon, 2002). There are many positive changes in development policy and practice that can be associated with the increased role and profile of NGOs. They include the growth of participatory planning techniques, the integration of gender concerns into mainstream development thinking, and the continuing advocacy of human rights and environmental concerns. There is every reason to believe that NGOs of various kinds will continue to play important roles as actors in development processes (Lewis & Madon, 2002). The ordinary Angolans’ future has been decided by themselves. First, there has been the Portuguese with their colonial rule and then civil war started just after independence in 1975. In addition, a conflict mainly driven by greed, third power and control over the natural resources, this civil conflict made life even more difficult for all citizens in the country. Civil society organisations such as NGOs have had a relevant role in working and denouncing the issues of central government accountability and transparency of public finance management, and budgeting. Indeed they were significant, since they were, for many years, the only forum civil society to oppose the war.
Therefore, the civil society’s role in addressing the difficult situation of the poor at the edge of the end of the conflict was extremely important since the impact of their activities throughout the country was huge. Given the elevated market prices and the existence of serious financial constraints as reported by the UNDO, their performance on capacity building seems to be remarkably good in terms of efficiency in relation to funds/result, especially if compared to that of the government with much larger economic resources. Civil society assumes a crucial role in Angola by demanding government transparency. Civil society also demands an end to the corrupt practices, the protection of human rights and their enforcement, as well as a larger commitment to the social sector.

There is the risk for civil society not playing this critical role and hence the government getting rid of its due responsibilities towards communities capacity building by substituting it, particularly regarding the delivery of social services. A broader coordination among Capacity building Organisations (CBOs), national and international NGOs could concede their alliance a superior power than the sum of their individual strengths, which would significantly improve their role in voicing the needs and offering mechanisms to address them. Although their coordination in terms of networking appears weak, cooperation among Angolan NGOs is probably on the increase given the widely-recognised need for more grassroot participation along with strong gender focused commitment as the clue for an inclusive development. Additionally, civil society is likely to have a total funding level considerably higher than the state controlled civil organisations, which means that if they worked more closely they could improve their role within the development community, thus their ascendance over the government, providing more room for the bottom-up development discourse to reach decision making centres.

Angolan civil society organisations’ commitment to advocacy work, struggle for rights and the necessary critic as watchdogs over the government’s performance remains low, particularly among the National Non-Governmental Organisations (NNGOs), with few brave and valuable exceptions. Increasing capacity of civil society organisations is commonly recognised as a key mechanism to encourage and facilitate participation by strengthening their skills to develop collective action and channel the incipient engagement that is growing within the new Angolan context. The relevance of civil society organisations regarding this particular issue is not
despicable since some influential civil societies are leading this field through intensive work throughout Angola. Overall, it seems to the understanding of the researcher, that sustainability of NGOs and National Development and Reconstruction should be pursued through joint efforts by all actors of the development community, which should assume specific key roles. This basically implies a compromise in which the government mainly contributes with the financial resources and policy implementation, civil society organisations primarily put in with NGOs participation and policy debate, and INGOs work with and encourage both parties, also assuming a coordination role and negotiation of tasks. I as a researcher am not suggesting in this policy arena that development studies have failed to engage with the issue of NGOs, but I do argue that such engagement has been limited. My aim therefore is to draw attention to the need for development studies to draw more fully on themes that are emerging from new work that can help NGOs to focus research more fully on non-governmental action in relation to theory, agency, method and context.

While there has already been some important work of this kind undertaken, too much NGO research has been hampered by the methodological limitations that I have noted and furthermore, has become increasingly out of step with the changing realities of policy. Yet the influence of this work has been wide ranging, among both critics and supporters of NGOs sustainability.

5.5 Recommendations

Perceptions of what should be the main priorities and activities of NGOs in order to achieve minimum service standards in Angola differ considerably between civil societies. In Angola, civil society is more concerned with end results and service delivery but less concerned with strategic objectives and how to accomplish them. Angolan civil society top priorities are income redistribution and poverty alleviation instead of combating corruption and increasing transparency. Civil society in Angola needs to mature from a compliant service delivery tool to an actual pivotal basis for social change. On the other hand, a parallel basic services infrastructure may cause further deterioration of an already thinly spread government administration.
Therefore, engagement with the government as a partner is highly advisable although practical difficulties remain pervasive. NGOs should consider the enduring consequences of their decisions despite their difficulty to move around. There is an underlying conflict of interest in the development and reconstruction dynamics in Angola, since government control and political will may represent less political freedom, free market initiatives and general and organized civil society participation.

However, different approaches are demanded, considering that state frailty can be traced as the main independent variable in some of Angola’s worst social disasters since independence. The opportunities for government to engage with civil society have been mixed. However, there are persistent government efforts to control the civil society organisations and undermine their activities in Angola. The government needs to give NGOs opportunities to participate fully in rebuilding the country after decades of civil conflict rather than in restricting them. The nature of the non-profit enterprise is such that there is rarely any cause for a particular phenomenon. Multi-factor causation is in most cases the rule and not the exception. Therefore some wide-range decisions and recommendations can be taken to improve the challenges of sustainability of Angolan non-governmental organisations. The discussions presented in each chapter of this study were centered on the challenges of sustainability of social services of the Angolan non-governmental organisations and the different strategies to improve the quality of social service delivery.

The opportunities to improve the sustainability are also looked at. In the following section of this discussion some recommendations are provided which could be considered by NGOs. Below are some of the recommendations drawn from the discussion and analysis of findings. The recommendations are structured and directed to; the NGO, donors, local governments, local leaders and the academia. Two new areas as a result of this research have been recommended for further research. For improving sustainability of NGOs in Angola the study recommends that:
1. Working plan and working place
   a)- There is a critical need to improve the standard of the offices and also to increase the number of the offices in the NGOs to avoid a situation where three employees simultaneously share the same office, computer and desk. This kind of working atmosphere does not provide quality outcomes.

   b)- The government of Angola should provide an enabling environment, with good working materials, that are used well by workers, a safe health infrastructure, professional and motivated workers and well organized, well led NGOs which are the central social service providers for improving sustainability.

2. Fundraising plan (Fundraising needs and Fundraising activities)
   a)- Promote government funding, through subsidies, of NGO activism. The funds can be designated as a portion of income tax that is set aside specifically for NGOs. For instance, national fiscal legislation can mandate that two percent of income tax is set aside for NGOs to cover their administrative costs. A similar financing scheme can be considered for an international fiscal system, through which global financing is provided for civil society organizations.

   b)- Conduct a comparative political economy study on civil society funding.

   c)- The research findings strongly suggest that supporting NGO fundraising programmes will lead to an improvement in the efficiency and the sustainability of NGOs as a whole. This can be done through the development of a meaningful two-way dialogue between the Ministry of Social Welfare officials and the NGOs.

3. Institutional resource material like computers
   NGOs should give high priority to institutional furniture like desks, chairs and even vehicles. These resources can be very crucial for long-term sustainability of projects and programmes implemented by NGOs.
4. Employees training plan, recruitment programme and Provision of training rooms

a) Efforts should be made to provide support reforms that focus on job training and managing outcomes, appropriate goals and relevant content, values as well as skills, sufficient and effective instructional time for training improvement.

b) As the study report shows, maintaining the NGOs sustainability while expanding access, require a level of sustained investment that is beyond the reach of many states even if national budgets to support non-profit organisations were to a rise. This therefore means that there is need to invest more on capacity building if Angolan NGOs are to achieve world excellence in the provision of social services.

c) NGOs regional directors need to conduct staff development programmes at NGO or cluster level with employees and supervisors of organisations. These programmes would provide employees with current working strategies, so that they can be innovative and effective under unfavorable conditions as those found in Angola.

d) Considering that the overall goal of the NGO facing challenges is to carry out research, provide training, increase community awareness and youth’s awareness in particular about the problem and danger of drugs or drug abuse, provide psychological and social counselling to the addict’s family members to help them overcome their problems and crisis resulting from the taking of drugs by one of their members, NGO managers should recruit or contract part-time specialized personnel in these areas to provide services.

e) NGOs should train active young leaderships in the youth community to play a leading and effective role in assisting their peers to avoid slipping into the quagmire of drugs and behavioural deviation.

5. Improved participant leadership from the NGO managers

a) NGO managers should forge partnerships with other civil institutions and sectors concerned with drug addition to create joint national programmes to protect the Angolan young people from drug abuse.

b) It’s also important that NGOs in collaboration with the specialized educational institutions in sciences and humanities hold workshops, seminars and lectures for educational counselors, psychologists and social workers to enrich their experience on how to identify drug addiction
cases, eliminate the selling of alcohol in the streets and how to deal with them on the level of prevention and referral.

c)- The manager of the NGO facing challenges should link with the managers of sustainable NGOs such as Save the Children in view to exchange experience, share information and subsequently request assistance and learn on the application of the mechanisms or policies for sustainability used by successful NGOs.

d)- Finally, NGOs should provide these institutions of education with references, books, CDs, DVDs and video cassettes as well as fresh research and studies about drugs and alcohol.

6. Establish training needs

a)- The study also suggest that a lot needs to be done for on-going development and capacity building for NGOs’ development committee members who are not very clear about their operations in NGOs. Such exercises are necessary since most of these organs are not aware of their roles. Support structures and training should be seen as a vital process given the lack of skills, competence and confidence in the operations of NGOs development members. There is need for NGO management training to be provided to both managers and employees, and NGOs development committees to equip them with current management skills. A well co-ordinated capacity building programme is necessary in NGOs which should be adopted and implemented so as to provide NGO managers and supervisors with knowledge, skills, information and material resource to sustain NGOs sustainability.

7. Provision of financial and non-financial incentives in view to reduce the high level of dissatisfaction of employees.

Armstrong (2002) notes that there are five areas where employees’ needs may be met by non-financial rewards: Achievement, Recognition, Responsibility, Influence and Personal Growth. Reward has always enjoyed something of a Cinderella status in the world of personnel management. Therefore, NGOs managers should consider and realise that rewards are important within an organisation and these complement their other business strategies, whereas historically people have tended to view them in glorious isolation. It may seem equally curious to see personal growth as a non-financial reward. Yet many individuals rate the opportunity for personal growth higher than financial reward. It is important for NGOs managers to understand
that financial and non-financial rewards are particularly important as motivational tools for some employees. In addition, paying attention to these rewards increases the possibility of more positive employee attitude and behaviours.

8. **Strategic planning**

a)- The study also recommend that planning and managing the sustainability of NGOs requires the availability of accurate and timely information that links together resource inputs to NGO managerial outputs and process and appropriate indicators of the knowledge, skills and values acquired by the employees. There is need to provide for strategic planning based on accurate information. There is also need to consider issues of analyzing the NGOs environment for their sustainability to provide quality service delivery.

b)- It is important to take a holistic approach when it comes to NGO accountability and sustainability, and there are no magic solutions. NGO leaders must work at different levels with different ranges of stakeholders, and they must also gain governmental support.

c)- Hold discussions between donors and their recipients. This is important for addressing the accountability and sustainability challenges that NGOs face.

d)- All parties must develop consultative measurement indicators.

e)- A lot needs to be improved in the NGO system if the system is to match with best international practices. Therefore, central government should give priority to where NGO activities are focused on.

f)- In order to achieve sustainability, improvement and quality delivery of services provided in NGOs, more attention should be given to the need for managerial planners to share information pertaining to the provision of quality services. Regular workshops need to be provided for, to share information on how to address the challenge of sustainability in NGOs. This could be done at cluster, district and provincial levels. All these practices would make significant contribution in improving information that would address the challenge of sustainability of NGOs in Angola.

g)- There is need to establish networks of international planners that will facilitate the sharing of knowledge, experiences and approaches to planning and improving the challenge of sustainability of NGOs. This would assist in addressing barriers to sustainability, build partnership, develop accountability and in the process combat corruption. Such issues of cooperate governance are crucial. Some NGOs have been affected by corruption in resource
allocation and the general management of the institutions and this could be reduced if partnership were established, rather than relying on NGOs development committees which are not effective enough to monitor the development of NGOs in their communities.

h)- NGOs managers, their deputies and regional directors have multiple functions in the NGO system and they occupy a position in management which includes planning, organizing, leading and controlling activities in the NGOs and stimulating the internal life of the NGOs. As a result a lot more needs to be done in the staff development of their management and where applicable adopt current management practices such as Total Quality Management, (TQM).

i)- There is need for managers to adopt leadership roles which support employees in decision making. j)- There is need for a clear and strong strategic quality NGO plan which identifies a critical time line and outcomes. This will manage the planned expansion of quality service work and identify programme and project outputs in relation to measurable milestones. This therefore means that non-profit organisation planners should come up with a thematic strategic plan or focus on the sustainability which should continue to be a major priority in their development work. Strategic plans should have a focus on quality service delivery and sustainability of NGOs, rather than on increased working only.

5.6 Recommendations for Further Research

The study on challenges of sustainability of non-governmental organisations in the operations of Angolan NGO’s Social activities and the capacity building process has analyzed major challenges impacting on the provision of sustainable NGOs, with specific reference to NGO Fundação YME in all districts. The study however could not address all related non-sustainability issues since the concept of sustainability in NGOs is rather relative, elusive and complex. Standing by itself, the term is devoid of meaning due to its perceived dichotomy between “sustainability” and “sustainable” and has multiple criteria. That being the case, the study could not address all sustainability related challenges and further research studies are recommended. Empirical research studies could be conducted in the areas of planning sustainable non-profit Organisations. Such research studies could be aimed at re-shaping the direction of non-governmental organisations planning in accordance with the prevailing social and economic challenges faced by non-governmental systems.
Such research studies would centre on the philosophical debate that seeks to clarify the concept of planning the sustainability of NGOs and to explore the relationships with the field of non-governmental planning. Furthermore these studies would scrutinize the uneven patterns of success that non-profit organisations planners have experienced in seeking to improve the sustainability of NGOs for all. These studies, to a great extent should seek to develop from their findings an agenda for national action that would be designed to foster improvements in the collection and use of managerial information. Research of issues and practices in planning the sustainability of NGOs, clarification of vision and mission statement would improve to a great extent the direction of managerial planning. All in all, findings established from such studies should shade light on the alternative strategic plan to improve the sustainability of non-governmental organisations and would generate information that would be used to improve the challenge of sustainability of the studied organisations. Some donor agencies would use the findings to contribute to the non-sustainability debate in Angola.
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Appendix 1: Questionnaire for NGO staff

Dear sir/madam

My name is Filipe Bulola Pange and I am a Doctorate (PhD) student at Zimbabwe Open University. I am doing my research on challenges of non sustainability in the operations of Angolan NGO’s Social activities and the capacity building process carried out by the NGO Save the Children and NGO Fundação YME, from 2000 to 2010 in Angola. I would like to request your participation in this study. This questionnaire is targeted at NGO workplaces and is meant to collect data that will be used purely for my Doctorate study purposes. Your response will therefore be treated with utmost confidentiality. The respondents are kindly requested to respond to all questions and as honestly and humanly as possible in order to enable the researcher to draw the most accurate conclusions on Human Resources Capacity Building in the Organisations issues in the NGOs.

The survey will also be followed up by interviews that will include respondents other than those targeted by this instrument. It may however be more informative following up certain responses given in this survey by interviewing the same respondents. Please not that you are also free to send any other relevant information or ideas you may have on Human Resources Capacity Building issues at your NGO workplace through my contact details provided below. A copy of the thesis report will be sent to your NGO Office after the thesis is completed and examined. Your cooperation and support in this study will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you for participating in the study.

Filipe Bulola PANGE
E-mail: f.pange@interpol.int
Tel. (+263)0774420282
Questionnaire for NGO Employees

A. Basic demographic data

1. What is the name of your NGO and the Province you are located?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NGO</th>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>Address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

2. Please indicate sex by ticking in the relevant box.

A. Female | B. Male

3. Please indicate your age in the space below.

| A | Under 20 years |
| B | 20 to 29       |
| C | 30 to 39       |
| D | 40 to 49       |
| E | 50 to 59       |
| F | 60+            |

4. What is your employee status?

A. Permanent | B. Temporary | C. Full time | D. Part time

5. Indicate your highest academic qualifications by ticking in the relevant circle below.

| A | Bachelor’s degree |
| B | Honors degree     |
| C | Master’s degree   |
| D | Doctoral degree   |
| E | Other (Please specify) |
6. Where was this qualification obtained?

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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Angola</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>SADC Countries</td>
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<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Rest of Africa (Other than SADC Countries)</td>
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<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Europe</td>
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<td>E</td>
<td>North America</td>
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<td>F</td>
<td>Central and South America and Caribbean</td>
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<td>G</td>
<td>Asia</td>
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<td>H</td>
<td>Austria and New Zealand</td>
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<td>I</td>
<td>Other (Please specify)</td>
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7. What position do you hold in your Organization?

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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Head of Department</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Acting Head of department</td>
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<td>C</td>
<td>Head of Repartition</td>
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<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Acting Head of Repartition</td>
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<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Human resource Manager</td>
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<td>F</td>
<td>Support staff</td>
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<td>G</td>
<td>Other (Please specify)</td>
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8. Where were you born?

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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Luanda</td>
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<td>B</td>
<td>Cabinda</td>
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<td>C</td>
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<td>D</td>
<td>Benguela</td>
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<td>E</td>
<td>Zaire</td>
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<td>F</td>
<td>Malange</td>
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<td>G</td>
<td>Bengo</td>
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<td>H</td>
<td>Kuanza-Norte</td>
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<td>I</td>
<td>Kuanza-Sul</td>
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<td>J</td>
<td>Lunda-Norte</td>
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<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>Lunda-Sul</td>
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<td>L</td>
<td>Moxico</td>
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<td>M</td>
<td>Kuando-Kubango</td>
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<td>N</td>
<td>Cunene</td>
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<td>O</td>
<td>Huambo</td>
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<td>P</td>
<td>Bie</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Lubango</td>
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<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Namibe</td>
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</table>

9. For how long have you been working in the Organization?
B. Quality assurance policies and Practices

1. Does the company train employees to ensure Capacity Building?

Yes  No

2. Do you have any qualification on Human Resource management?

Yes  No

3. What kind of on-the-job training were you offered?

A Coaching  B Leadership  C Job Rotation  D In house training

4. How many complaints on quality valuation does your NGO receive per month?

A None  B Less than 5  C Above 10

5. Is there, at your NGO office, a suggestion box which employees and customers can make suggestions to contribute to Capacity Building in Organisation?

Yes  No

6. Does the NGO offer incentives to ensure Capacity Building?

Yes  No

7. If YES are these given as:

A As Team
8. Which incentive is offered by the company?

<p>| | |</p>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Money rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Promotional recognition</td>
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<td>C</td>
<td>Less time working</td>
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<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Scholarship</td>
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<td>E</td>
<td>Professional course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Trip</td>
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<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Other (Please specify)</td>
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</table>

9. In your view, are these incentives effective enough to encourage quality valuation and framing of human capital within NGO?

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
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10. Do you have any mechanism of assuring quality valuation on your duty?

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<td>Yes</td>
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11. What is the average size of your workplace?

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>10 to 20 employees</td>
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<td>B</td>
<td>21 to 29</td>
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<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>30 to 39</td>
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<td>D</td>
<td>40 to 59</td>
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<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>60+</td>
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12. How many hours per week do you work?

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<tbody>
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<td>A</td>
<td>4 hours</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>5-8</td>
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<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>9-12</td>
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<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>13+</td>
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<td>E</td>
<td>Not sure</td>
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13. Is there any specific policy you follow in insuring quality valuation in the following activities?

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
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</table>
14. If yes, where does the policy come from? (You may tick more than one response)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>The government</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Quality assurance agencies independent of government</td>
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<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>FONGA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Outside stakeholders (like professional organizations)</td>
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<td>E</td>
<td>Other (Please specify)</td>
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</table>

15 The themes in the interviews of NGOs actors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Codes included in the interview (ordered by frequency number of quotations attached to each theme in parenthesis)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Personal Biography and motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Involvement in project work development (57)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Gain from development co-operation (54)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Entering development co-operation (54)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Background of interviewee (26)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Motivation for engaging in development co-operation (22)</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Work content of the interview (16)</td>
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<td>7. Involvement in development co-operation in general (8)</td>
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<td>8. Relationships (7)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>9. Belonging to a group (6)</td>
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<td>10. Training (5)</td>
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<td>11. Title of the interviewee (4)</td>
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<td>12. Language skills (4)</td>
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<td>13. Mutual growth (1)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>14. Personal health (1)</td>
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<td>15. Gender (4)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>C. Co-operation between NGOs and other institutions</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Co-operation between Angolan NGOs (28)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Contents of the projects (138)</td>
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<td>3. Communication (114)</td>
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<td>4. Contacts (103)</td>
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<td>5. Visit to communities (78)</td>
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<td>6. Problems in co-operation (61)</td>
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<td>7. Joint planning (54)</td>
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<td>8. Partnership (38)</td>
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<td>9. Cultural exchange (28)</td>
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<td>10. Funding (22)</td>
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<td>11. Training outside Angola (2)</td>
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<td>12. Training certificate in Angola (4)</td>
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<td>13. Critique from Angola (3)</td>
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<td>14. Cooperation (2)</td>
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<td>15. Cooperation with foreign NGOs (2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>D. Development</td>
<td>1. Development co-operation in general (27)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2. Documents (11)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3. Voluntarism (7)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Future of NGO-development co-operation (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Development (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. NGO development co-operation (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Change in the development co-operation (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Project model (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) (2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: One quotation (speech turn) might be included in several themes.
APPENDIX 3: Interview Schedule – NGO Station responding for quality Assurance

1. What policy does the institution have on assuring quality in:
   i. Human Resource Programme Development?
   ii. NGO employees support?
   iii. NGO learning and assessment?
   iv. Research output by NGO office?
2. Who develops institutional policy on capacity building?
3. What is the official position of government on capacity building by the NGO offices?
4. Do NGO staff members know the official position and how do they do so?
5. Is the NGO required to make any form of reporting to the
   i. Government?
   ii. Professional bodies?
   iii. National/Regional/ International quality assurance agency?
6. How often does the organisation get a complete institutional review?
7. Who initiates it and who is responsible for undertaking the review?
8. What guides bench-marking in the NGO offices?
9. How is staff involved in developing capacity building policies and practices in the NGO?
10. What mechanisms are in place to ensure that NGO meets institutional requirements in terms of performance?
11. Is there any kind of support offered to NGO offices in order to ensure their systemic development?
12. What is the Organization’s policy on employees recruitment (minimum academic/professional requirements, employment conditions-contract permanent, temporary until tenured).
13. What strategies does the institution use to recruit, attract professional staff?
14. How does the Organization promote sound scholarship by employees?
15. How many publications has the institution realized over the last year?
16. How many NGO Staff as been evaluated over the last two years?
17. How many (PAR) Performance Assessment Reports as been made over the last two years?
18. Are there any collaborative linkages the Organisation has with:
   i. other local organizations?
   ii. regional organizations?
   iii. international organizations?
19. What incentive are offered to the NGO Middle Managers in order to retain them?
20. What is the official NGO policy on employees ratios?
21. Is the organization accountable to any other external authority on quality assurance?
APPENDICE 4: Interview Schedule – NGO Staff

1. If I may start by finding out if you have any policy that you follow in quality valuation and framing of human capital in your Police Station
2. Who developed that policy?
3. In your own words can you explain what you understand by capacity building?
4. What are your suggestions on capacity building development at your workplace?
5. In your experience what strategies have worked for you in the field of capacity building development?
6. Are there difficulties in achieving capacity building policy at your workplace?
7. Is there any institutional policy on capacity building from which you draw in developing work policy?
8. What is the understanding of capacity building that you go by as a workplace?
9. So who decides on capacity building processes like employee’s assessment and even promotion or transferring at your workplace?
10. As a worker, how much participation do you have in the development of the institution-wide capacity building policy?
11. How about the ordinary members of staff, how much participation do they have in the development of the policy?
12. Does the NGO office have a policy on things like staff ratios and working loads?
13. What’s your opinion on NGO personnel through rates in the NGO?
14. What role does the NGO office play in the recruitment of new staff that is appointed to the provinces or Municipalities?
15. Would you like to comment on the performance output of your workplace?
16. What kind of staff support do you get to enhance the performance skills of staff?
17. Apart from that, are there other incentives for Personnel?
18. How often does your immediate superior delegates his power?
19. What’s your opinion on organisational culture of your NGO?
20. What’s your opinion on management philosophy and leadership style of your manager?
21. How does Capacity building assure programme development of your workplace?
22. Finally, do you have any suggestions as to how human resources capacity building should be improved in your NGO as a whole?
## APPENDICE 5: Interview Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provinces</th>
<th>Designation of interview</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Luanda Province</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cabinda Province</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Benguela Province</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Huila Province</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Namibe Province</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDICE 6: Format for preparation of profile of the NGO under the Study

1. Name and address of the NGO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Registered Office</th>
<th>Head &amp; Administrative Office</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Details of Branch Offices if any.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field Office</th>
<th>Field Office</th>
<th>Field Office</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Years of Existence in operational areas.

From ................ to ................ Total ............

4. Legal status of the NGO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Registration Act</th>
<th>Yes/No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Registration under Society/Trust Registration Act</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Registration Under FONGA</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Organisational Management structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EC/Trustees</th>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Type of NGO
- Development
- Research
- Training
- Advocacy
- Campaign
- Other, specify
7. **Organisational objectives**
   1.
   2.
   3.
   4.
   5.
   6.
   7.
   8.
   9.
   10.

8. **Operational Areas**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Districts</th>
<th>Blocks</th>
<th>Number of Pts</th>
<th>Number of Villages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. **Target groups**
   1.
   2.
   3.
   4.
   5.

10. **Type of activities**
   1.
   2.
   3.
   4.
   5.
   6.
   7.
   8.
   9.
   10.

11. **Type of Economic activities**
   1.
   2.
   3.
   4.
   5.

12. **Type of economic activities under Capacity Building development**
13. Involvement in implementation of community social development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Village Development Committees (VDC)</th>
<th>Number of Village Development Committees linked with NGO under FONGA</th>
<th>Number of Groups linked Development Committees (DC)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14. Support for the NGOs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State Level</th>
<th>S/N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Level</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Foreign Sources | 1  |
|                 | 2  |
|                 | 3  |
APPENDICE 7: Format for preparation of profile of the NGO under Study
Open Ended Questionnaires for Primary Data collection for Study

1. NGO’s objectives of Social Mobilization in context of Angola
   1. 
   2. 
   3. 
   4. 
   5. 

2. Methods used in social mobilization of capacity building
   - Extension Methods/Activities used
     1. 
     2. 
     3. 
   - Educational methods/Activities used
     1. 
     2. 
     3. 
   - Social methods/Activities uses
     1. 
     2. 
     3. 
   - Motivational Activities used
     1. 
     2. 
     3. 
   - Other Methods/Activities used
     1. 
     2. 
     3.
3. Individuals involved and type of support extended in capacity building

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Persons involved</th>
<th>Type of participation/Support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NGO’s Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Official Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Concrete achievement or Impact made out of capacity building
   1. 
   2. 
   3. 
   4. 

5. How did you assess the impact of capacity building process?
   1. 
   2. 
   3. 
   4. 

6. Problems faced during the Capacity building
   1. 
   2. 
   3. 
   4. 
7. Experiences gained out of capacity building
   1.
   2.
   3.
   4

8. Steps taken to sustain the motivation attained through capacity building
   1.
   2.
   3.
   4

9. How Capacity Building process helped your NGO to grow
   1.
   2.
   3.
   4

10. Other details related do CB wishes to share
    1.
    2.
    3.
    4

11. Any other opinion on capacity building in the context of Angola
    1.
    2.
    3.

Thank you for responding to this questionnaire