Principles of Internal NGO Management

by Theunis Keulder

Principles of Internal
NGO Management

by Theunis Keulder

Foreword

The term *non-governmental organisation,* or NGO, came into use in 1945 because of the need for the UN to differentiate in its Charter between participation rights for intergovernmental specialised agencies and those for international private organisations. NGOs are components of social movements within a civil society. A society comprises three sectors: government; the private sector; and civil society (which does not include businesses). In the case of Namibia, where civil society is often fragmented, NGOs play an important role in strengthening the foundations of an emergent civil society, and can be distinguished into two groups: operational NGOs (promoting small-scale change, achieved directly through projects); and advocacy NGOs (indirectly promoting large-scale change, through influence on the political system). Operational NGOs have to mobilise resources, in the form of financial donations, materials or volunteer labour, in order to sustain their projects and programmes. This process may require quite complex organisation: where finance is obtained from grants or contracts from governments, foundations or companies, time and expertise are required in planning, preparing applications, budgeting, accounting and reporting; major fund-raising events require skills in advertising, media relations and the motivation of supporters. In addition to the operational staff in the field, operational NGOs therefore require a management level.

Advocacy NGOs will carry out many of the same functions, but each with a different emphasis and priority. Fund-raising is still necessary, but on a smaller scale; it can serve the symbolic function of strengthening the donors' identification with the cause. Persuading people to donate their time is still necessary, but in addition to recruiting a small number of people to give a great deal of time, it is also necessary to mobilise large numbers for brief periods. Even when external donors do not impose onerous administrative burdens, supporters still have to be supplied with information on an efficient, regular basis. Major events may aim to attract favourable publicity rather than to raise funds. Thus, despite their differences, both operational and advocacy NGOs need to engage in fund-raising, mobilisation of work by supporters, organising special events, cultivating the media and administering management systems.

Whatever the task of an NGO, the principles of managing the organisation remain universal. Donors and institutions supporting NGOs increasingly view their efficient management as a precondition for support – indeed, efficient project management relies on a well managed organisation.

As part of a larger training manual on strengthening NGO management, this module aims to expose NGO managers to the internal organisational challenges they face, and to act as a guide on how to overcome these challenges to build organisationally strong and sustainable NGOs.

Theunis Keulder
Regional Director
Namibia Institute for Democracy

Contents

1 Introduction to management

It isn't the number of people employed in an organisation that makes it successful. It's the number working.

Learning Outcomes

This section will enable you to:

- understand the important role that NGOs play in modern society;
- understand the interactive nature of components that make up the management process;
- describe the different levels and kinds of managers in an organisation; and
- understand the various managerial roles.

1.1 Introduction

Management principles are universal, whether applied to a large company listed on the stock exchange, a small family-owned business, a government department, or a non-governmental organisation (NGO). Irrespective of whether an organisation's prime objective is to be profitable and make money (for instance, a business enterprise) or to provide a service (such as a government department or an NGO), effective organisational management principles are the same. Although NGOs do not have to be profitable to attract funds, they must still employ sound management principles if they are to survive and achieve their goals; the coordination of different resources within an organisation enables its members to reach goals that would most likely be impossible for one individual alone. Management's role is thus to combine, allocate, coordinate and employ resources in such a way that the organisation's goals are achieved as productively as possible, by following a specific and systematic process entailing four fundamental management functions:

- planning;
- organising;
- leading; and
- controlling.

These fundamental functions link up in a specific and logical sequence in the management process. Any other would be meaningless, since managers cannot lead and control projects unless they know what has to be done and how it should be done; yet they do not occur in a tidy, step-by-step order – at any given time, a manager is likely to be engaged in several management functions simultaneously. The interactive process of management functions as depicted in Figure 1 (next page) provides a framework for this guide.

Figure 1: Four fundamental management functions

External Enviroment

Planning
Managers determine the organisation's vision, mission and goals and decide on a strategy to achieve them

Resources
Human
Financial
Physical
Information

Organising
Managers group activities together, establish authority, allocate resources and delegate functions

Controlling
Managers monitor progress and take corrective steps to reach the mission and goals

Leading
Managers direct and motivate members of the organisation to achieve the mission and goal

Goals
Services
Products
Profit

External Enviroment

Management can thus be defined as the process of planning, organising, leading and controlling the resources of the organisation to achieve stated organisational goals as efficiently as possible. Each of these four management functions will be described in detail later on in this guide, but is briefly described here to clarify the concept of management and the nature of the management process.

Planning

Planning is the function that determines the organisation's mission and goals; it entails identifying appropriate methods and procuring the necessary resources for reaching these goals, determining the future position of the organisation and identifying strategies for reaching that position. The activities of an organisation cannot be performed in a random fashion, but should rather follow a specific, logical plan. Overall **strategic planning** generally falls to top management, and plans are usually long-term (five to ten years). **Tactical plans** to support the organisation's long-term strategic goals are usually made by mid-level functional managers (such as financial, human resources and project managers). **Operational plans** serve to implement tactical plans, and are made by lower management (often called supervisors or foremen) for short periods ahead (daily or weekly).

Organising

Organising is the second step in the management process. Once goals and plans have been determined, management has to allocate and direct the organisation's personnel, finances and

other resources in an orderly and coordinated manner to achieve stated goals, by defining tasks, roles and responsibilities and establishing policies and procedures. The more orderly and structured the process, the greater is the likelihood of achieving the stated goals; **proper structure** is crucial for the organisation's success.

Leading

Leaders direct and motivate human resources within the organisation. Managers are responsible for getting things done through the efforts of their colleagues and subordinates within the organisation, and others from outside of the organisation. Leading the organisation means making use of **influence, power** and **communication** to motivate employees to achieve organisational goals.

Controlling

Controlling requires that managers should keep a constant check on the organisation to ensure that it is on track to achieve its goals. The purpose of control is therefore to **monitor performance** and action, to identify and rectify any deviations from the plans and to take into account factors which may oblige them to revise the organisation's goals and plans. These factors may be external to the organisation, such as changes in laws or regulations, or internal to the organisation, such as personnel changes in top management.

1.2 Levels and areas of management in the organisation

A manager is anyone who carries out the four fundamental functions of management. These functions are performed in all organisations although, depending on their department and managerial level, managers have to meet different requirements. They are usually classified according to two categories: by their **level in the organisation** (top, middle and lower managers); and by their **functional area of responsibility** (such as finance, human resources or marketing). Figure 2 indicates how managers within an organisation can be differentiated according to level and area.

Figure 2: Classification of managers according to level and area

Levels of management: Top, Middle, Lower

Areas of Management: Projects, Finance, Research, Public, Human
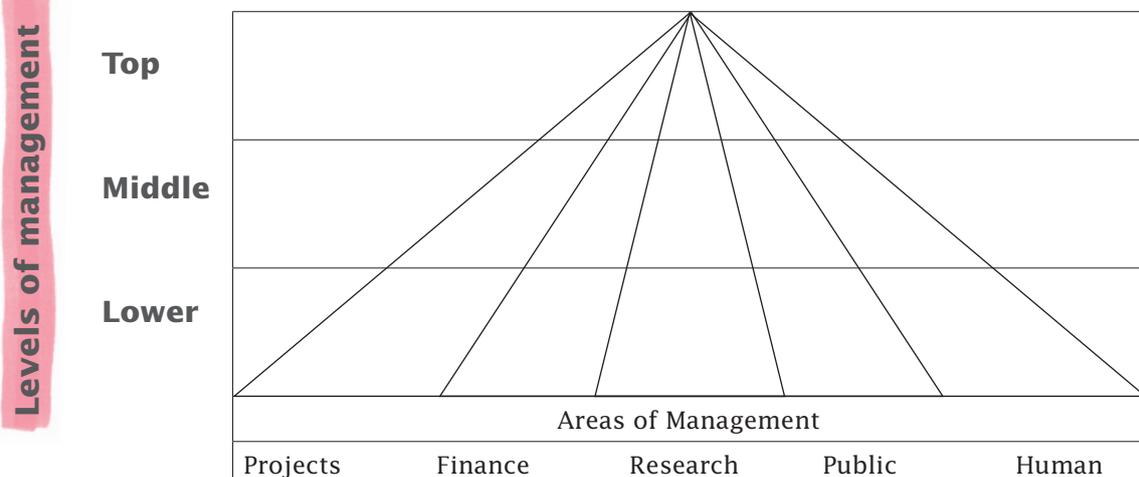
1.2.1 Top management

Top management refers to the relatively small group of managers who control and have the final authority over and responsibility for all aspects of the organisation. For most NGOs, top level management typically comprises the Board of Directors or Trustees, the Executive Committee and the Executive Director, who determine the NGO's mission, goals and overall strategies. Top managers are concerned with long-term planning, designing the organisation's broad organisational structure, and leading and controlling it. The top management also largely influences the organisational culture in an NGO.

1.2.2 Middle management

Middle managers are responsible for specific departments in an organisation and are mainly concerned with implementing the policies, plans and strategies formulated by top management. Examples of middle management in an NGO are the Financial Manager, Research Manager, Human Resources Manager and Project Manager. As NGOs are often relatively small, these functional areas are often combined, with one person responsible for multiple areas of management. Middle management is concerned with the near future and is therefore responsible for medium- to short-term planning and the organisation of functional areas.

1.2.3 Lower management

Lower management is responsible for the implementation of specific activities within a functional area or department. In large organisations such managers may include foremen and supervisors, who are concerned with the daily activities of their departments or functional areas such as short term planning and the implementation of the plans of middle management. Typically, a large portion of their day is spent maintaining the crucial interface between management and employees by supervising the activities of subordinates.

In many NGOs or civil society organisations, however, and particularly in Namibia, where NGOs are mostly relatively small, the levels of management are not so clear cut; lower- and middle-management levels are mostly merged, and there are only a few employees below the lower management level. The Executive Director of an NGO is regularly also involved in the implementation of projects and the management of employees, thereby performing duties related to all levels of management.

1.2.4 Areas of management

So as to group and order activities, NGOs are structured into different functional departments, which may be as follows:

- the **financial function,** which includes the acquisition, utilisation and control of the money with which its activities are financed (bookkeeping, financial reporting, ensuring audits and other administrative tasks relating to the spending of money);
- the **project implementation function,** which includes all aspects of the implementation of projects and programmes;
- the **marketing function,** which may include fundraising, public relations and the marketing of the NGO's services to its constituents; and
- the **human resource function,** which entails the appointment, development and maintenance of all personnel.

Due to the small staff contingent in many NGOs, one person may be responsible for one or more functions, with duties entailing elements of all functions. The functions of organisational management have to be conducted at both lateral and hierarchical levels on a one-to-one basis or through meetings.

1.3 The role of managers

Internal management is central in ensuring the best use of the available human and financial resources to achieve an organisation's mission. The nature of an organisation's internal management is based upon relationships characterised by **authority, power** and **influence,** and on how these are wielded:

Authority is the formal recognition of the legitimacy of the attempt to influence or assert power over individuals or groups to take a particular decision or course of action within the organisation.

Influence is the ability to cause a change in behaviour or attitude such that a desired result is achieved.

Power is the ability (with or without authority) to exert influence. Power may come from an individual's position in an organisation, but can also rest on the following:

- **reward power:** the ability to reward another;
- **coercive power:** the ability to force another;
- **legitimate power:** legal authority;
- **expert power:** the ability to influence through knowledge or experience; and
- **referent power:** power based on the desire of another person to be like, or identify with, the person wielding power.

Managers individually and collectively satisfy specific needs of the NGO as an organisation, and accept certain responsibilities, which can be classified into three overlapping roles: interpersonal, informational and decision-making.

At the **interpersonal level,** three groups of activities can be distinguished. NGO managers often have to perform duties that are **ceremonial** and **symbolic** in nature, such as the delivery of a speech by the Executive Director at the launch of a new project. Managers also **act as leaders,** in appointing new personnel, training them, promoting suitable candidates, motivating employees and ensuring that all employees contribute to the attainment of the organisation's goals. Thirdly, it falls to the manager to **ensure good relations** within and outside of the organisation, such as with the government, donors, other NGOs and the media.

At the informational level, a manager, through his or her position, may acquire information used to make decisions from colleagues and outside sources; a manager also **gathers and analyses information** on issues and trends and passes relevant data on to colleagues, superiors and subordinates.

The decision-making role of a manager concerns the use of information to inform decisions and **solve problems;** a manager, in conducting projects, controls the allocation of resources such as money, people and equipment, and negotiates with colleagues, donors, other organisations and the government regarding, for instance, goals, standards of performance and resources.

Successful managers need three central skills:

- **conceptual skills:** the mental ability to view the operation of an NGO and its relationship with its external environment as a whole and to think strategically;
- **interpersonal skills:** the ability to communicate, to understand the behaviour of others, to resolve conflict, to motivate people and to provide leadership to others; and
- **technical skills:** knowledge about something specific and necessary for the attainment of goals.

A manager is considered competent if he or she can apply these skills in a work situation. It is therefore imperative that NGO managers hone such skills and keep themselves up to date on relevant innovations. Like all other organisations, NGOs are faced with continuous change; managers must ensure that they lead their organisations in adapting to change. Major changes that impact on NGOs as organisations may be:

- political change;
- legislative change;
- globalisation;
- technological change;
- socio-economic change; and
- access to resources.

2 Planning

We are continually faced by great opportunities brilliantly disguised as insoluble problems.

Lee Iacocca

Learning Outcomes

This section will enable you to:

- explain the nature of planning as a management function;
- understand the importance of planning as a management function;
- differentiate between strategic, tactical and operational planning;
- identify and discuss barriers to planning;
- recommend ways of overcoming planning barriers;
- incorporate planning tools when formulating plans; and
- design proper implementation plans for projects.

2.1 Introduction

All managers engage in planning: top managers formulate strategies and plans for the survival of the NGO in an ever-changing environment; middle and lower management must translate these plans into action. Planning occurs in all organisations and at all levels within an organisation; while it is highly valuable, it is time-consuming, and thus expensive; managers are expected to ensure that plans are effective and do not incur unnecessarily high costs.

2.2 Types of organisational plans

2.2.1 Strategic plans

Strategic planning can be defined as the process of reconciling the organisation's resources (funds, equipment and employees) with threats and opportunities brought about by changes in the external environment. The strategic plans formulated by top management are thus designed to ensure that the organisation is aligned with this changing environment, and able to survive it; with an extended time-frame of about five years, and across the entire organisation, strategic plans focus on issues of sustainability. Planning at strategic level includes:

Creating a vision for the future for the entire organisation

Every NGO needs a dynamic collective vision of where they see the organisation placed in the future; this is important because a vision:

- portrays the **ideal** the NGO holds for the future;
- leads to **strategies** for an NGO to adapt to change;
- provides the basis for an overall **strategic plan;**
- gives **focus**, direction, and a context for decision making;
- **demonstrates** to employees how their efforts contribute directly or indirectly to the NGO's success; and
- has **positive consequences**, when clear.

Many organisations articulate their vision through a mission statement.

The mission statement

A vision reflects the ideal of a perfect future, but the mission statement translates this dream into reality. NGOs may typically ask the following questions when formulating their mission statement:

- What is our **core purpose/service?**
- Who are **our stakeholders/target audience/constituency?**
- **How** will we provide this **service** to our stakeholders/target audience?

The answers to these three questions should clearly set the NGO apart from similar organisations, ensure unanimity of purpose within the organisation and serve as the basis for resource allocation, while also setting the parameters within which all decisions should be made. The mission statement should also address the NGO's

- intention to secure its sustainability;
- organisational culture (its beliefs and values);
- public image;
- strengths; and
- social responsibility towards its internal stakeholders (employees) and external stakeholders (members, the public); an analysis of internal and external factors influencing its activities is thus necessary when designing an NGO's mission statement.

Translating the mission statement into measurable long-term goals and strategies

An NGO may take a strategic decision to concentrate only on existing projects, directing resources towards their continuation and an ongoing improvement in the quality of their delivery. Known skills and capabilities are a major advantage in this strategy; building on existing strengths and skills, an NGO can continually hone its skills and can become an expert in a specific area.

Some NGOs, however, continually seek new, innovative and diverse projects, acting only as facilitators, and looking for other organisations, stakeholders and partners to conduct the project implementation.

Strategic planning is essential for any NGO's survival in an ever-changing environment; however, strategies outline only broad brushstrokes. The depth and detail necessary for an organisation to accomplish its goals and implement its strategies require tactical and operational plans.

2.2.2 Operational plans

Whereas strategic plans focus on the entire organisation and its interaction with the external environment, **operational planning** deals primarily with the **people** and **actions** necessary to **implement the strategic plans;** operational plans are thus narrowly focused and have relatively short time horizons (monthly, weekly and day-to-day). They are either single-use plans (non-standardised and made for once-off activities, such as a work plan for the implementation of a specific project, or an annual budget for the activities of an NGO in a particular year), or standing plans (standardised, and generally broadly consistent over longer periods of time).

2.2.3 Management policies

Management policies are **internal sets of rules** that guide decisions toward consistency with the NGO's long-term goals and activities, Such policies limit an area in which decision are to be made and assure that the decisions are consistent with the NGOs goals. Policies are often referred to as **standard operating procedures,** as they standardise routine decisions and control the discretion of managers and subordinates in implementing activities. It is important that NGOs develop a set of standard operating procedures that specify exact steps or tasks to be followed in chronological order in executing routine actions to achieve a specific purpose. Standard operating procedures are routinely followed when procuring goods or services or when recruiting new personnel to ensure that decisions that are being made are in the best interest of the organisation.

2.3 Steps in the planning process

Planning is carried out in identifiable steps. In practice, the following eight practical steps are generally used:

Step 1 Identify changes that necessitate planning

NGOs typically operate in a socio-economic and political environment that is constantly changing, often due to the actions of the NGOs themselves. When, for example, legislation affecting the activities of NGOs changes, NGOs must revise their planning; they need to be continually alert to possible changes that might impact on their organisation or on their projects.

Step 2 Establish goals

Goals give direction to plans and, while flowing directly from the mission statement of the organisation, should be more specific and concrete, as they are generally determined for an NGO's specific current projects. Goals should be:

- **specific,** indicating their area of relevance, the time frame for their accomplishment, and their desired outcome;
- **flexible,** allowing for modification in a continually changing environment;
- **measurable;**
- **realistic** and **attainable,** while still providing a challenge for management and personnel;
- **congruent with one another,** so that the attainment of one goal does not preclude the attainment of another; and
- **acceptable** throughout the organisation.

Step 3 Agree on assumptions

Assumptions often have to be made about the organisation's future and the environment in which it operates; such assumptions should be transparent, and may be related to new legislation, technology or socio-economic factors.

Step 4 Develop various courses of action

If a plan proves unworkable, the NGO requires the flexibility to investigate alternate courses of action.

Step 5 Evaluate various courses of action

All alternative courses of action are evaluated in the light of the premises and goals of the organisation.

Step 6 Selecting a course of action

The real point of decision is now reached: the manager selects the course of action to follow.

Step 7 Budgeting

Finally, it is crucial to ensure that goals are supported by resources available to implement the plans.

2.4 Factors influencing effective planning

The world is changing very fast. Big will not beat small any more. It will be the fast beating the slow.

Rupert Murdoch

It is dangerous to assume that prevailing conditions will remain constant; factors in the environment affecting the organisation, such as **technology, legislation,** the **political situation** and the **economy,** often play havoc with the most carefully developed plans. Fear of failure may cause managers to formulate revised goals or to devise alternate plans, exercises which are both time-consuming and expensive.

There are guidelines that managers can follow to ensure effective planning. Importantly, planning should start at the top of the organisation, highlighting its role as a vital prerequisite, and filter through to everyone in the organisation; subordinates should be involved in the planning process to ensure buy-in, and overall and specific goals should therefore be well communicated throughout the organisation. Planning does not necessarily ensure success; plans should constantly be revised and updated.

3 Organising and delegating

Decentralisation creates superior talent.

Brian Joffe

Learning Outcomes

This section will enable you to:

- explain the concepts behind organising, and the reasons for doing so;
- explain the process of organising;
- understand the principles of organisational design; and
- design implementation guidelines for delegation.

3.1 Introduction

Organising can be defined as the process of creating a structure for an organisation that will enable its people to work effectively towards its vision, mission and goals.

With its plans and goals clearly formulated, an NGO needs to organise its resources optimally. The necessary tasks must be performed to implement plans and so ensure that the organisation's goals are attained. Management should divide the major task into sub-tasks, and then recombine and coordinate them effectively. Organising is the process of arranging or allocating work, authority and resources amongst the members of an organisation. In many smaller NGOs, the process of organising is relatively simple – it is usually a matter of deciding what tasks need to be done and allocating them to various subordinates.

The task of dividing up the work and allocating responsibility is referred to as the design of the organisation structure; this basic structure of relationships among responsibilities, tasks and people in the organisation is often demonstrated in an organisational chart showing the authority and communication relationships between jobs and units.

3.2 Reasons for organising

Organising is an indispensable function in the management process. Without proper deployment of human and other resources, and suitable coordination of relevant activities, plans and strategies will never bear fruit. Leadership requires that the lines of authority and responsibility are clear, and control is possible only when people understand the extent of the tasks falling within their responsibility. The organisation of resources is thus vital in the attainment of goals, and brings with it several positive aspects:

Allocation of responsibilities

The organisational structure clearly indicates who is responsible for what tasks.

Accountability

The responsible employees are expected to account for outcomes, positive or negative, for that portion of the work directly under their control; results are directly linked to the actions of an individual.

Channels of communication

At every level of the organisation, all the information managers and employees require to perform their jobs effectively reaches them through the correct channels.

Resource deployment

Managers deploy resources meaningfully; well organised personnel cooperate synergistically to deliver better results of higher quality.

Division of work

The total workload is divided into activities to be performed by an individual or group of individuals.

Coordination

The organisational structure creates a mechanism to coordinate the activities throughout the entire organisation.

3.3 The organising process

The starting point in the organising process is formulation of the **vision, mission and strategy** of the organisation during the strategic planning phase (refer to section 2). The first stage of the process involves outlining the **tasks** and **activities** to be completed in order to achieve the organisation's goals. This accomplished, **jobs are designed and assigned** to employees within the organisation. Members are grouped into **work units**, mechanisms are developed and integrated to coordinate the efforts of diverse work groups, and the extent to which decision making within the organisation is centralised or decentralised is determined. Finally, a **control mechanism** is put in place to ensure that the chosen organisation structure does indeed enable the organisation to attain its mission and goals. In the organising process, the following principles of organisation should guide managers:

Unity of command and direction

To avoid confusing employees, each employee reports to only one supervisor, as supervisors may focus on different aspects of the work.

Chain of command

A clear, unbroken chain of command links every employee with someone at a higher level.

Span of control

A manager can deal effectively with only a limited number of employees; the fewer subordinates reporting to a manager or supervisor, the narrower the span of control.

Division of work

Work is divided into jobs that can be allocated to suitably qualified and experienced persons.

Standardisation

The development of uniform practices to be followed by employees in doing their jobs ensures a certain level of conformity. In recurring jobs, for instance, it is imperative that such work is always done in the same way in order to ensure efficiency and consistency.

Coordination

All departments, sections, divisions and individuals within the NGO work together to accomplish the goals of the organisation. The greater the interdependence between departments, sections or individuals, the greater the coordination required.

Responsibility and accountability

Responsibility is the obligation to achieve goals by performing required activities. When strategic and operational goals are set, the managers responsible for achieving them are clearly identified. Accountability is the evaluation of how well individuals meet their responsibility. Managers are accountable for everything that happens in their departments or sections; they may delegate responsibility and authority, but they themselves remain accountable.

Power

In an organisation, those in power have the ability to influence the behaviour of others. The following kinds of power can be distinguished:

- **Legitimate power** is the authority granted to a particular position by an organisation (for instance the position of Executive Director in an NGO gives more power to its incumbent than does the position of Project Coordinator).

- The **power of reward** is the power to give or withhold rewards, financial or non-financial (the head of a department, for instance, has the power to allocate a bonus to an employee on account of a favourable performance appraisal).

- **Coercive power** is power wielded through fear.

- **Referent power** is exercised when people follow a person with such power simply because they like, respect or identify with that person.

- **Expert power** is based on knowledge and expertise.

Authority

The right to make decisions, issue orders and use resources resides in positions, rather than in people. Generally, the higher up a position is in the organisational hierarchy, the more authority such a position carries. Authority is, however, sometimes decentralised to lower levels, with the following **advantages:**

- The workload of top management is reduced, enabling them to devote more attention to strategies.
- As decisions are made closer to the core of action, instead of being referred to a higher authority, decision-making is faster and more flexible, which is a priority in a rapidly changing environment.
- Morale and initiative at the lower levels of the organisation improve as persons, sensing that they participate in managing the organisation, experience greater job satisfaction.
- A competitive climate is fostered in the organisation.

However, decentralisation also has certain **disadvantages**, namely:

- the danger of loss of control;
- the danger of duplicating tasks;
- the requirement for more expensive and intensive management training and development of lower level employees; and
- the demand for sophisticated planning and reporting methods (top managers will always be accountable for attaining the goals of the organisation).

3.4 Organisational design

The various positions within an organisation are arranged into departmental work units with defined interrelationships, resulting in good coordination of the work. The structures of an organisation should assist the achievement of its mission. The **three main types** of **organisational structure** are dealt with below.

3.4.1 Functional organisation

The most logical and basic division is of functions into departments; those doing similar work are grouped into one department. This structure is mostly used in smaller organisations with a single focus. An NGO working on only one project at a time may be organised functionally as follows:
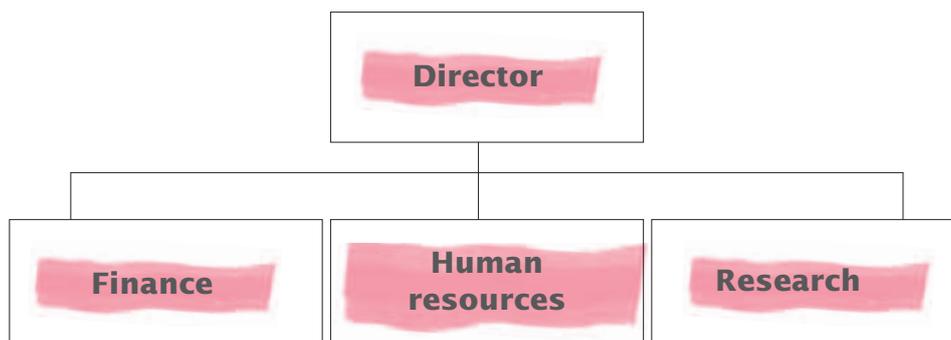
3.4.2 Project organisation

Departments are designed in such a way that all activities concerned with the execution of a specific project are grouped together. NGOs with this structure typically implement a variety of projects, which are often not related to one another. Such an organisational structure may look as follows:

```
                    ┌──────────────┐
                    │   Director   │
                    └──────┬───────┘
          ┌────────────────┼────────────────┐
  ┌───────────────┐ ┌───────────────┐ ┌───────────────┐
  │ Civic education│ │ Anti-corruption│ │  Parliamentary │
  │    project     │ │    project     │ │ support project│
  └───────────────┘ └───────────────┘ └───────────────┘
```
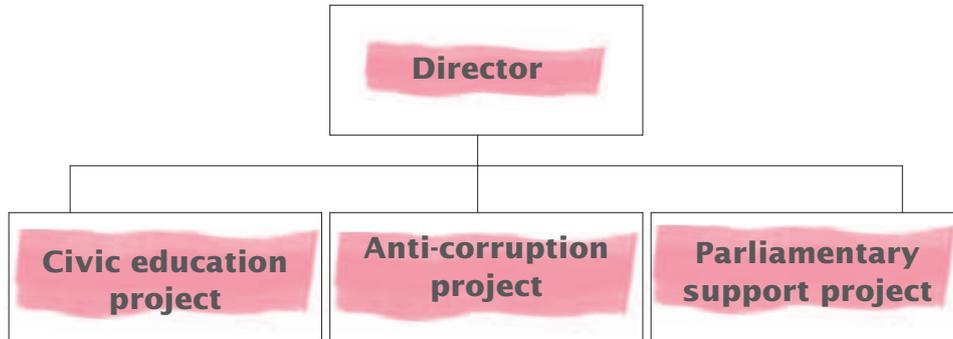
Such divisions may also be made on the basis of geographical area or target group.

## 3.4.3 Matrix organisation

Matrix departmentalisation combines functional and product departmental structures. An employee may work for a functional department, such as finance, but also be assigned to one or more projects, with the advantage of flexibility (it allows the organisation to organise temporarily for a project) and the disadvantage of reporting to two superiors (a functional and a project superior).

An NGO might have several projects, each relying on the basic services of a finance department and a research department. The problem of coordination is reduced because the most important staff for a particular project works together as a group.

```
                         ┌──────────────┐
                         │   Director   │
                         └──────┬───────┘
              ┌─────────────────┼─────────────────┐
      ┌───────────────┐ ┌───────────────┐ ┌───────────────┐
      │Civic education│ │Anti-corruption│ │ Parliamentary │
      │    project    │ │    project    │ │support project│
      └───────┬───────┘ └───────┬───────┘ └───────┬───────┘
  ┌─────────┐ │                 │                 │
  │ Finance │ │                 │                 │
  └─────────┘ │                 │                 │
  ┌─────────┐ │                 │                 │
  │  Human  │ │                 │                 │
  │resources│ │                 │                 │
  └─────────┘ │                 │                 │
  ┌─────────┐ │                 │                 │
  │ Research│ │                 │                 │
  └─────────┘ │                 │                 │
```
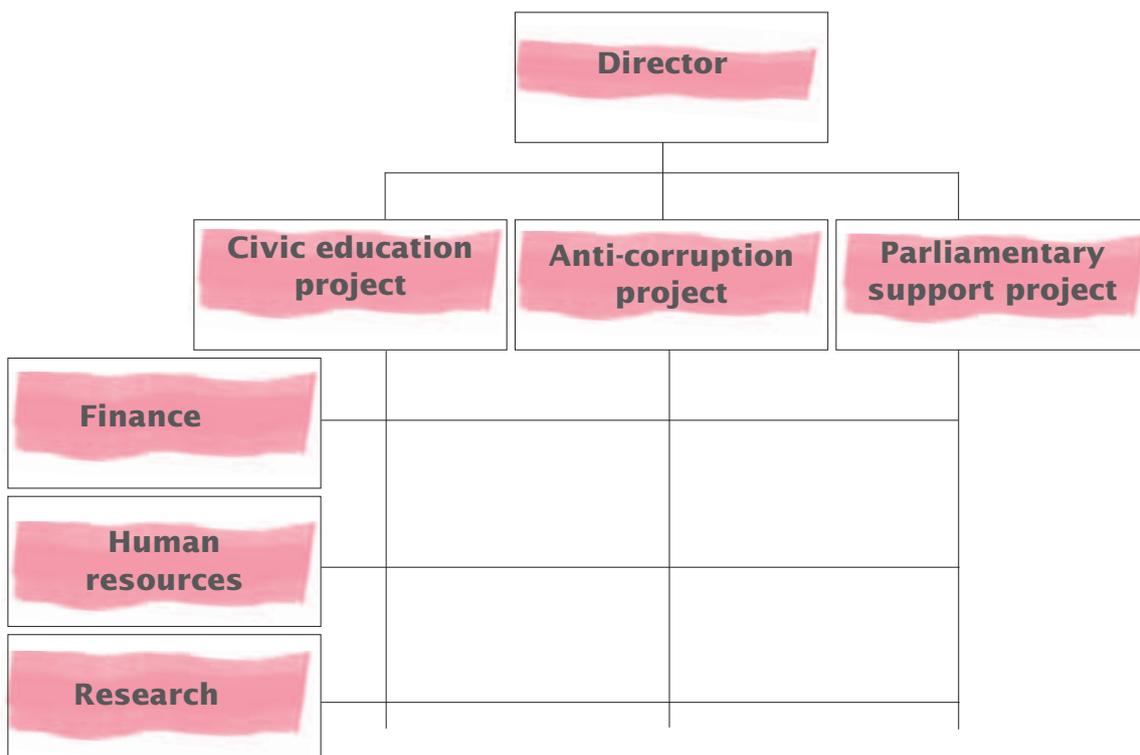
3.4.4 Virtual organisation

It is often no longer necessary to have all employees, teams and departments in one office or facility. Using widely available **information technology,** organisations are able to integrate resources in order to achieve specific goals even where people are spread out in remote locations, but work as though they were in one place. The virtual organisation provides flexibility and efficiency because it can react swiftly to changes in the environment.

3.5 Delegation

The job of a manager is to get work done through the efforts of others; it is generally impossible for a manager to perform all the work for which he or she is held responsible. Through delegation, managers assign a portion of their total workload to others, at the same time passing on authority to subordinates, who then have the authority to deploy the necessary resources in order to complete the delegated task. Delegation is important in promoting succession planning: a subordinate to whom work has been delegated is more easily able to move into his or her superior's position, while the manager is able to undertake more of the work on a strategic level. By participating in more challenging jobs, subordinates also learn to develop their decision-making and problem-solving skills, and in the process improve their managerial skills.

It is, however, important to realise that even though managers delegate authority, they remain accountable for the completion of the job, and for both their own actions and those of their subordinates.

3.5.1 Principles of effective delegation

A common failing of less effective mangers is to attempt to be responsible for everything; such managers soon become overloaded and inefficient, and as a result the whole organisation suffers. The following **guidelines** may be helpful to NGO managers in delegating more effectively:

- **Explain the reasons for delegating;** subordinates need to understand why delegation may be to their advantage, as well as benefiting the manager and the NGO as a whole.
- **Set clear standards and goals;** subordinates should participate in the process of formulating goals for the delegated task and they and their managers should agree on the criteria laid down for measuring their performance.
- Ensure that **authority and responsibilities are clear;** subordinates need to grasp the extent of their tasks and their authority, and to appreciate that they will be held accountable for results.
- **Involve subordinates;** managers motivate subordinates by including them in the decision-making process, informing them of their progress and encouraging them to improve their skills in the delegated task.
- **Request the completion of tasks;** managers should ensure that subordinates complete the tasks that have been delegated to them according to agreed-upon standards and goals.
- **Provide performance training;** managers should ensure that the performance of delegated tasks is within the capabilities of subordinates.
- **Provide feedback** to the subordinate on a regular basis.

3.5.2 Advantages of delegation

The management process relies on the concept of delegation, which has the following important advantages when applied properly:

- Delegation leads to **more work** being done by the entire organisation, as managers who delegate are in a good position to themselves accept more responsibility and tasks.
- Delegation improves the self-confidence and **motivation** of subordinates to perform work for the organisation, as they feel empowered.
- **Better decisions** are often taken by involving subordinates who are "closer to the action".
- Decisions are taken more **quickly.**

3.5.3 Obstacles to effective delegation

One of the first things managers must learn is to delegate those tasks that they know best, moving on to other tasks that will offer further personal growth; yet managers are sometimes unwilling to delegate due to personal and psychological barriers; a manager may

- fear that his or her own performance evaluation will suffer if a subordinate fails to do a job properly;
- doubt the ability of a subordinate to do a job as well as he or she would have;
- be too inflexible or disorganised to delegate; or
- not wish to delegate for fear of a subordinate doing a job better than he or she can (subordinates, on the other hand, sometimes fear failure and exposure to disciplinary action).

Some organisations are structured in a way that inhibits effective delegation; when there is no clear mission and vision for the organisation, no clear segregation of duties and no clear communication of goals, objectives and anticipated results of a project, delegation is not feasible.

These barriers can be overcome by creating in an organisation a culture of **continuous learning,** which in turn allows managers to give their subordinates freedom in performing their delegated tasks in the knowledge that they have been well prepared. It is vital to communicate about goals and expected results, and to supply subordinates with continued feedback on their performance.

3.5.4 Steps to effective delegation

Delegation is initiated by a manager and, depending on the size of the organisation, can be a rather complex process. As NGOs in Namibia are typically relatively small in size, the following general steps to effective delegation can be followed:

- **Identify the tasks to be delegated;** tasks of a repetitive nature or minor tasks are easily delegated, but it is important also to delegate challenging and meaningful tasks that will contribute to the further development of subordinates.
- **Allocate the tasks to suitable individuals,** bearing in mind the time available, the competency required and the experience of subordinates.
- **Provide sufficient resources** for carrying out the delegated task.

- Having delegated the assignment, **ensure that open communication channels** are maintained between the manager and the subordinate.
- **Be prepared to step in,** if necessary.
- Establish a **feedback system entailing** regular progress reports to ensure that incorrect actions can be rectified before damage is done.

4 Leading

People ask the difference between a leader and a boss. The leader leads, and the boss drives.

Theodore Roosevelt

Leadership is not about taking credit for the work of many.

Brian Joffe

Learning Outcomes

This section will enable you to:

- describe the principles of good leadership;
- differentiate between leadership and management; and
- identify the skills necessary to be a good leader.

4.1 Introduction

It is people that give the contemporary organisation its edge; the management of people, the greatest challenge for managers, requires the unique skill of inspiring them to excel in their jobs. If machines could implement plans promptly, predictably and with absolute precision, only the planning and organising tasks of management would be necessary. The management of people is the real challenge: unpredictable and unique, each individual in an organisation has a different combination of interests, capabilities, habits, beliefs, skills and personal goals, and is motivated by different factors. People join organisations for many reasons, with differing perceptions of their roles within the organisation; many put personal agendas ahead of the interests of the organisation.

Guiding the employees of an organisation towards its goals requires **leadership**, and involves three players: the leader, the followers and the organisation; an effective leader understands the behaviour of the followers and their relationship to the organisation. When building a team to perform a specific task, a leader must also **understand** how groups and teams behave, and what induces individuals to join groups. In **motivating** their followers, leaders need to **communicate** their vision, strategies and expectations effectively. With the appropriate **knowledge** and **skills,** a leader has a number of tools with which to lead.

4.2 The nature of leadership

Good managers are not necessarily good leaders; good leaders, however, make better managers. The under-performance of employees can often be traced back to weak leadership in the organisation: in an increasingly fast-changing environment, organisations require more responsible leadership from a wider personnel base; without leadership, organisations stagnate, lose their way, and eventually fail.

From a management perspective, a leader translates plans into reality by infusing energy into the organisation so as to activate its employees and resources, set projects in motion and maintain their momentum. Leadership entails activities such as **formulating** the organisation's mission, goals and strategies and explaining these to employees; giving orders and **instructions** to subordinates; **deliberating** with them and **supervising** their work; taking steps to improve their performance; when necessary, **disciplining** them; and **dealing** with conflicts. **Communication** and the establishment of professional relationships in this process are of the utmost importance to the leader.

In short, leadership is an endeavour undertaken by someone who is in charge of the activities of others.

4.2.1 The components of leadership

Leadership is a complex management function comprising the following components:

- **authority:** the institutional right of a leader to give orders and to demand action from subordinates;

- **power:** the ability of a leader to influence the behaviour of others without necessarily using this authority (in section 3 we distinguished between legitimate power, power of reward, coercive power, referent power and expert power; the use of power appropriate to the situation at hand gives an indication of a manager's leadership qualities);

- **influence:** the ability to apply authority and power in such a way that subordinates take action;

- **delegation:** the passing on of authority to a subordinate to do something on the manager's behalf (often entailing the subdivision of a task into smaller parts, which are then passed on to subordinates); and

- **acceptance of responsibility and accountability:** the adoption of ownership regarding the results of a task, even if that task was delegated.

A good leader and effective manager will maintain a delicate balance between these leadership components. Although excessive use of authority leads to an autocratic leadership style, which could undermine the motivation of subordinates, some situations do demand a firm hand. A good leader understands the interaction between these leadership components and uses the appropriate combination to manage the situation at hand.

4.2.2 Leadership and management

Leadership and management are two distinct and complementary sets of management activities; in a successful organisation, managers are also leaders. Managers set practices and procedures

to reach the goals of an organisation by creating an organisational structure, assigning tasks to people and devising systems to implement the tasks; they control the process of reaching targets by comparing results with goals. Leaders set the organisation's direction and cope with change by aligning people, communicating the new direction and motivating them to follow that route; they bring the human element into the process.

The primary difference between managers who are only managers and managers who are also leaders, is that the first group **focus on goals and processes**, managing people exclusively on account of their position in the organisation; often self-centred, they view subordinates merely as tools to get the work done, and their lack of communication skills leads their subordinates to perform tasks only under duress. **Leader-managers**, on the other hand, **focus on vision** and strategy; by incorporating the human element, they **motivate their followers** to achieve the goals of the organisation and to perform tasks without resort to their status in the organisation or the use of autocratic measures.

4.3 Leadership skills

Many attempts have been made to identify the identifying qualities that are common to good leaders. Were this a simple task, all organisations would benefit by appointing only true leaders. The question of whether true leaders are born or whether leadership can be learned remains unanswered; no common traits or skills are representative of all leaders, and leaders must adapt to the situation and the people involved. Research on leadership behaviour continues in an effort to construct the ultimate leadership model. Some general traits or skills of true leadership can, however, be identified. Leaders:

- **tune into their organisation's environment** to sense needs, opportunities and dangers and, using their intellectual curiosity, look for new possibilities, while maintaining a sense of urgency;

- **challenge assumptions** and conventional thinking to find new solutions to old problems;

- **inspire followers** with their visions, ideals and positive nature, and motivate them with dreams and goals;

- **build teams** and coalitions to support their changes;

- nurture and **support their coalitions,** allowing their followers to take ownership of the task, while providing all the necessary resources and rewarding good performance;

- **drive the change** process and overcome obstacles;

- **share credit** for success and give recognition to their followers;

- **avoid covert behaviour,** handle differences and conflict openly and limit the use of power;

- **communicate effectively** by using methods that are appropriate to the situation and the individuals involved;

- have **ambition and energy,** the desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, intelligence and job-relevant knowledge; and

- **manage themselves** well.

5 Control

Trust is good, control is better

Anonymous

Learning Outcomes

This section will enable you to:

- explain why control is important;
- understand the control process in an organisation; and
- design procedures and a system of control in an organisation

5.1 Introduction

Organisations use control procedures to ensure that they are progressing toward their goals and using their resources productively. The term control implies that management can determine the behaviour of individuals in the course of activities and events to ensure that they support the organisation's predetermined goals. Control is the **last vital link in the management process;** the brilliance of plans and organisational structures is not sufficient – an effective manager ensures that plans are followed through and that predetermined goals are reached. For this reason, managers at every level of every department and section should be involved in the process of control.

5.2 The nature of control

Control is the **regulatory task of management,** correlating action with plans, guiding their execution and measuring performance by monitoring progress towards attaining particular goals and, where deviations from plans and performance levels have occurred, taking steps to rectify errors and prevent further ones. In this final control stage, management effort is evaluated, and the knowledge, experience and information gained become the most important inputs in the next round of planning. A control system informs management of one of the following:

- activities are proceeding according to plan; the existing plan may be continued;
- activities are not proceeding to plan; the existing plan should be adjusted; or
- the situation and environment have changed; a new plan must be devised.

An NGO needs a control process not only because even the best-laid plans go awry, but also:

- to ensure that all activities at all levels of the NGO are in accordance with the organisation's goals;
- to ensure that the NGO's resources are deployed effectively and not wasted;
- to improve the quality of projects;
- to enable management to cope with the change and uncertainty that invariably affects an organisation's goals and plans;
- to coordinate people working for the organisation so as to eliminate errors (the greater the number of persons working for an organisation, the greater the need for control); and
- to facilitate delegation and teamwork.

An overview of the control process will help to demonstrate the importance of control.

5.3 The control process

Control is the process through which management ensures that all the organisation's resources are meaningfully deployed so that the mission and goals of the organisation can be attained. This process consists of the **four main steps** depicted in Figure 3 below:

Setting standards (derived from goals)

Measuring actual performance

Evaluating deviations (performance gap)

Rectifying deviations (corrective actions)
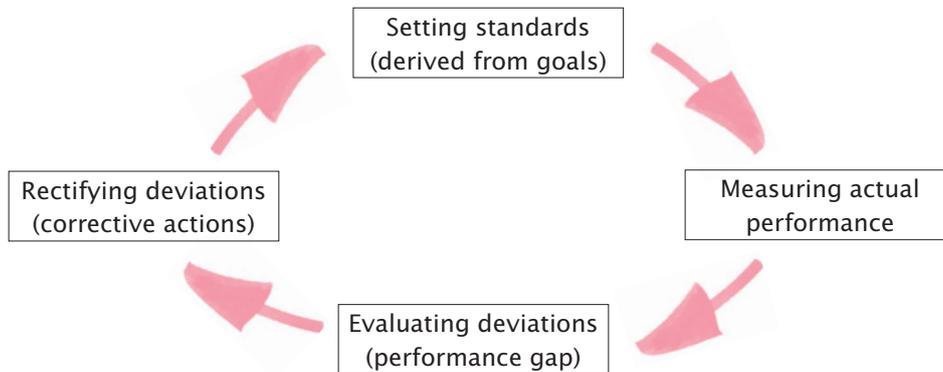
Step 1: Establishing standards of performance

Control starts in the planning stage with the design of a performance standard (a projection of expected performance). Over a period of time, actual performance is monitored against the projected standard, which should be **realistic, attainable** and **measurable** if the control process is to be meaningful. Performance standards for NGOs include staff development standards (personnel training programmes) and standards for annual donor funding levels and project results; they facilitate the distinction between acceptable and unacceptable performance, and should ideally be the responsibility of a particular individual in the organisation.

Step 2: Measuring actual performance

The collecting of performance data can be achieved in many ways; it should be **ongoing** and **quantifiable** to make meaningful comparison possible. The reporting of data should be absolutely **reliable**; the minimum of time should elapse between performance and its measurement so that deviations can be identified and rectified as soon as possible.

Step 3: Evaluating deviations

The extent and causes of differences between actual performance and predetermined standards are evaluated: when the actual performance greatly exceeds the performance standard, the environment may have changed or the goals may have been poorly formulated; if it falls too far short of it, then the resources of the organisation may not have been utilised efficiently enough. Only those differences falling outside of set acceptable limits of deviation should be investigated.

Step 4: Taking corrective action

Corrective action is **aimed at achieving or bettering the performance standard and** ensuring that it is maintained in the future. Where actual performance falls short of the performance standard, management has three options:

- to **improve the actual performance** to attain the standard;
- to **revise the strategy** for attaining the performance standard; or
- to **lower or raise the performance standard** to make it more realistic in the light of prevailing circumstances.

5.4 Characteristics of an effective control system

An effective control system should have the following characteristics:

- **integration**: it is integrated in the planning at the outset of the internal management process, where ample provision for control is built in;
- **flexibility:** it is able to accommodate change and revisions, without management having to develop and implement an expensive new control system;
- **accuracy:** it provides an accurate picture of the situation (inaccurate or unreliable information leads to incorrect or inappropriate modifications to plans);
- **timeliness:** information is gathered regularly to enable management to take corrective action immediately where necessary; and
- **simplicity:** it is to-the-point (too much information makes great demands on the time and attention of management, leading to an expensive control system which is of little benefit).

6 Contemporary challenges for NGO managers

Learning Outcomes

This section will enable you to:

- understand why organisations change;
- explain why the traditional organisational structure does not provide for the needs of contemporary organisations; and
- identify challenges for managers of contemporary organisations

6.1 Introduction

In meeting the challenges of a changing environment, NGOs embracing the more drastic changes may not be able to apply the traditional management strategies, but instead will need to operate an organisation that is a networked entity – **lean, flexible** and **diverse, decentralised, increasingly open** and **geographically spread out.** Over the past decade the pace of change in the way organisations operate has accelerated, due largely to advances in information technology; these advances have had the effect of transforming the way individuals are able (and want) to work, making **learning increasingly important,** facilitating globalisation and changing the socio-political environment.

The internet and other globally connected networks have changed the way in which contemporary NGOs function by facilitating the sharing of information worldwide. **Mobile computing** gives individuals access to information technology irrespective of their physical location, with enormous impacts on both where and how people do their work.

Intellectual capital is the critical resource of many NGOs; the value of an individual's knowledge will determine that individual's value to the organisation. Successful NGOs will develop, measure and manage their people as **intellectual assets,** and promote **continuous learning** for employees; they will build an organisational culture that supports learning and encourages employees to take risks with **new ideas** and to be spontaneous, **creative** and able

to deal with the unexpected. When valued employees leave, they take their knowledge with them; to avoid losing these assets, organisations need to attract and retain knowledgeable employees by providing a **fulfilling structure** in which they can apply their knowledge.

The temporary nature of jobs an NGO performs is a challenge; in an environment often in a state of flux, as the organisation conducts more projects of increasing diversity, so employees need continually to **update their knowledge** and skills to keep abreast of change.

Whereas the classic model of the organisation was based on a strict hierarchy of authority, inflexible rules and procedures, and an impersonal and rigid division of labour, such bureaucracies are now too cumbersome: today's dynamic NGO needs to be **highly flexible,** to operate at speed, to attract well-educated people who generally accept formal employment only on their terms and, in an environment of stretched financial and other resources, to become "lean and mean". Contemporary organisations need a new model as a framework for growth.

6.2 Contemporary organisational model

Drastic environmental change has forced the contemporary organisational model to differ substantially from that embodied in the traditional bureaucracy. An NGO may possess some or all of the features of this model, which highlights the differences between the traditional and the contemporary organisational style:

Dimension	Traditional	Contemporary
Critical tasks	Physical	Knowledge
Relationships	Hierarchical	Lateral
Information flow	Vertical	Horizontal and vertical
Decision making	Top-down	Where information resides
Systems and processes	Inflexible	Flexible
Levels	Many	Few (flat structure)
Boundaries	Fixed	Permeable
Competitive thrust	Vertical integration	Networked
Management style	Autocratic	Participative
Culture	Compliance	Commitment and results
Mindset	Ethnocentric	Diverse
Strategic focus	Efficiency	Innovation

The contemporary organisation may also largely be **virtual**, in that people use a computer network to work cooperatively and share knowledge quickly and easily regardless of time, distance and boundaries. This enables people to work from home, or any other location they choose, using the organisation's head office merely as a base.

6.3 Challenges for management

The following factors in the contemporary management model have implications for the way an NGO operates, and pose specific challenges for managers.

6.3.1 Organisational structure based on networks

Using strategic alliances and outsourcing, the organisation forms networks or coalitions held together by contracts and performance agreements. Each member of the network performs some portion of the activities vital to the network as a whole for the delivery of services. The organisation at the core of the network coordinates the activities of the network members around their core skills. The degree to which organisations outsource their primary functions varies.

Network design facilitates the sharing of authority, responsibility and resources amongst people and departments, ensuring that they cooperate and communicate frequently to achieve common goals.

The **networked NGO** is based on interdependence across individuals, groups and sub-units within and external to the organisation. Within the organisation, the following sub-features are evident:

- teams, rather than individual jobs, are emphasised as fundamental units of activity;
- cross-functional teams draw on people from different departments or sections; and
- information is shared widely among team members.

External to an NGO, the following sub-features are evident:

- a close relationship with donors and other stakeholders; and
- coalitions, alliances and cooperative networks with other organisations.

In the virtual networked organisation, people, employees, stakeholders and project partners use a computer network to work cooperatively as if in an office setting, regardless of time, distance and organisational boundaries, using features such as video conferencing facilities, electronic blackboards and groupware. A number of advances in **information technology** have enabled NGOs to form internal and external networks and to use the virtual organisation design:

- **Open systems:** The latest portable software and compatible technology facilitate a move away from departments and divisions, to a network of linked operational processes. Teams are free to work with other teams on a common project.
- **Distributed computing:** A shift has taken place from centralised computing (where access and use was limited to a few individuals and departments) to network computing (where information is available to all users).
- **Real time:** Databanks are updated in real time with information captured online, providing an instant and accurate picture of information which may be needed for the implementation of projects.
- **Global networking:** Information networks permit both real-time communication and access to electronically stored information anywhere in the world. Work can be performed at any location, with the head office becoming part of the network rather than a place of work.

- **Network organisations rely on teams;** managers must develop their skills as team members and team leaders – an understanding of the dynamics of team interaction, observation skills to probe team dynamics and the insight needed to diagnose team problems. Team structures and processes for operation, which should be clearly understood by all team members, must be developed for each kind of team in the organisation.

6.3.2 Flatter and leaner organisational structure

A common characteristic of the contemporary NGO is a flatter structure, widely considered to be best practice as it leads to higher productivity. The flattening of the hierarchy results in changes in the authority relationships: decision-making takes place at the level where the information resides; the unit responsible for the implementation of a decision asks that authority with the relevant knowledge to make the decision or to participate in the decision-making process. Flatter and leaner organisations generally promote **flexibility,** swift **responses** to change, **improvements in operations** and **higher productivity**. In such organisations, managers cannot rely on the authority relationships created by the traditional organisational hierarchy. In working with many individuals, groups and teams that may have different priorities and be motivated by different incentives, managers need to develop negotiating skills to facilitate optimal outcomes for all players in the organisational process.

As the opportunities for promotion up the hierarchical ladder are reduced, organisations must provide alternative incentive systems and new concepts of career planning that involve more horizontal than vertical movement of employees. In a flat organisation, employees typically **interact more with the external environment**, such as donors, other NGOs and stakeholders; managers are challenged with simultaneously maintaining both effective cooperative links across the boundaries of the organisation, and the commitment of employees to the long-term interest of their NGO.

A less hierarchical organisation needs more frequent and effective communication between employees and managers.

6.3.3 Flexible organisational structure

Flexibility is a key feature for contemporary NGOs as they respond to the increasing pace of socio-political changes in the environment, the changing needs of the population that they serve, and fluctuating funding levels. Flexible organisations are **innovative**, actively **encouraging change** on the part of their employees; they have **fewer rules** and standard operating procedures, and increasingly **employ temporary** or contingent personnel and **short-term volunteers,** a practice leading to a more diverse workforce, another characteristic of the contemporary NGO.

In such environments, managers multi-task, and may be members of different teams at different times. Flexible organisations need flexible labour practices to deal with their flexible working practices. In order to flourish in this flexible work environment, employees of such NGOs need the following characteristics:

- a high degree of **self-discipline;**
- the ability to operate **independently** and autonomously;

- flexibility and **initiative** in improving their own performance;
- adaptability to **change;**
- an **innovative** approach;
- the ability to **balance work and non-work** activities;
- the adoption of **responsibility** for their own careers; and
- a **commitment** to continuous development, retraining and renewal of knowledge as part of employment continuity.

6.3.4 Workforce diversity

NGO managers have to deal with an increasingly heterogeneous staff component in terms of gender, race, ethnicity and cultural background. Effective managers will recognise differences within personnel and respond sensitively and appropriately, so as to ensure productivity, harmony and staff retention, by creating environments that utilise the potential of all sources of difference within an organisation's workforce, and by developing systems for conflict resolution. Diversity, when properly managed, can increase creativity and innovation; but badly managed, it may obstruct communication and sow conflict.

Persons with different needs and expectations present challenges to an organisation's personnel and work policies: working parents with children often require adaptations to work schedules or on-site care; persons with disabilities may require special provisions; and part-time employees and volunteers may need to share responsibilities so that the organisation benefits cohesively from their combined skills and abilities. The organisation's culture also needs to change in terms of values and norms to cater for a heterogeneous staff component.

Bibliography

Camay, P.C. & Gordon, A.J. 1997. *Principles of NGO Management.* Co-operative for Research and Education, Johannesburg.

Cronjé, G.J., Hugo, W.M.J., Neuland, E.W. & van Reenen, M.J. 1994. *Introduction to Business Management.* Southern Book Publishers, Goodwood.

Grant, R.M. 1997. *Contemporary Strategy Analysis.* Blackwell Publishers, Oxford.

Joffe, B. 2007. *My Book.* Phoenix Design, Johannesburg.

Lewis, P.S., Goodman, S.H. & Fandt, P.M. 2001 *Management: Challenges in the 21st Century. 3rd ed.* South-western College Publishing, Cincinnati.

Marquardt, M.J. & Berger, N.O. 2000. *Global Leaders for the twenty-first century.* State University of New York.

Melnyk, S.A. & Denzler, D.R. 1997. *Operations Management. A value-driven approach.* Irwin Publishers, Chicago.

Robbins, S.P. 1996. *Organisational Behaviour.* Prentic-Hall International, Inc, Englewood Cliffs.

Rugman, A.M. & Hodgetts, R.M. 1995. *International Business. A strategic management approach.* McGraw-Hill, Inc., New York.

Smith, P.J. & Cronjé, G.J. 2002. *Management Principles. A Contemporary Edition for Africa (3rd edition).* Juta & Co., Lansdowne.

Thompson, A.A. & Strickland, A.J. 1996. *Strategic Management. Concepts & Cases.* Irwin Publishers, Chicago.

APPENDIX

Exercise

The aim of this exercise is to conduct an organisational management audit of your NGO to determine strengths and weaknesses, to investigate whether the optimal management structure and necessary policies and procedures are in place and to identify strategies to address the weaknesses. This can also assist you to ascertain in which areas further training is needed.

Provide an overview of organisational challenges faced by your organisation and how you plan to make provision for these in your organisational management structure and your management processes. You should commence with a current situational audit according to points identified below and subsequently conduct an analysis of sector specific challenges, key issues and trends, as well as strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats faced by your organisation. Specifically indicate how these challenges impact on the way your organisation is being managed. Specifically identify future issues and trends that may affect your organisation and describe how you will accommodate these, and what your requirements and needs in terms of organisational management are.

Planning:

1. What is the vision of your organisation?

2. What is the mission?

3. Do staff and volunteers know and understand the vision? How do you know?

4. To what extent does the mission and vision influence the actions taken by staff and volunteers?

5. What are your organisation's strategic plans? (Describe how they were developed, who was responsible, who is involved, how was it done)

6. What are the top strategic priorities that you have set over the past 12 months? To what extent have you achieved them and what constraints have you faced?

7. How are workplans for projects developed, are they being adhered to and how often are they revised?

Organisation:

1. Provide the organisational design of your organisation.

2. On which basis and how was the organisational structure designed?

3. Is it appropriate to the operations and goal of your organisation and how often is it changed?

4. Describe the channels of command and feedback.

5. Describe problems encountered relating to the organisational structure.

6. Describe how tasks are divided and how authority is delegated in the organisation. Is this process smooth or are there any problems?

7. Are persons in your organisation suitably qualified and experienced for the positions they hold in your organisational structure? On which basis are persons appointed to positions? Provide details of training being provided for staff.

Leadership:

1. How is your Governing Board constituted/appointed?

2. What is the primary role of your Board?

3. To what extent is the Board involved in operations?

4. How often does your Board meet per year?

5. To what extent do Board members and executive management respond to their responsibilities?

6. What is the leadership style most commonly found in your organisation? Is it appropriate? What are the problems related to this style?

7. How do you promote leadership in your organisation?

Control:

1. Describe the control process in your organisation.

2. How often and how do staff report back on activities/projects?

Funding and fundraising:

1. What are the sources of your current funding?

2. What strategies do you use to generate funding?

3. What are the biggest challenges you face in fundraising?

4. How do you liaise and interact with donors?

5. Who is responsible for fundraising in your organisation?

6. What processes are used in budgeting?

7. Are financial audits conducted and is there a policy for this?

Functional Management:

1. Which organisational management policies do you have in place and which not? Why not?

2. Who is responsible for drawing up such policies and how often are they reviewed?

3. State your experience and ability to cooperate with government.

4. State your experience in cooperating with other NGOs and stakeholders.

5. Who is responsible for official communication to the media, NGOs and the government? Which problems are experienced?

6. Do you have monthly, annual and audited financial reports? Who compiles these?

7. Who is responsible for recruiting, training and administering staff? Which employment related problems have been encountered?

If you wish to receive further technical assistance in the above issues, you may forward the completed questionnaire to the NID.

Fax: 064 - 462346 [Attention: Theunis Keulder]

Email: tkeulder@iway.na

Mail: NID, Theunis Keulder

PO Box 2217, Swakopmund, Namibia

Notes

Notes