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CHALLENGES FACED BY NGO'S IN IMPLEMENTING STRATEGIC PLANS:

WAJIR PEACE AND DEVELOPMENT AGENCY, WAJIR COUNTY, KENYA.

BY

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*Challenges faced by
NGO's in implementing*



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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this is my own original work and that it has never been submitted for a degree award to any other college or university

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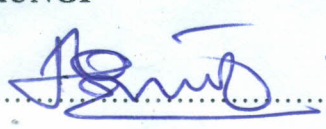
SUPERVISOR

This research project has been presented for examination with approval as the university supervisor.

Signed..........

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Signed..........

Date.....5/6/13.....

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DEDICATIONS

I would like to dedicate this work to my friend Mr. Ahmed without whose guidance, support and encouragement I would not have reached this far.

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I thank the almighty God for granting me favor and grace to join this program. The successful completion of this work reflects the input of an infinite number of people who have supported my educational goals. Most important am greatly indebted to Mr. Julius Murungi my immediate supervisor, who undertook the supervisory role and made me believe I could do it and with his comments and criticism, he prepared me do and complete the work.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

WPDA	: Wajir Peace Development Agency
ALRMP	: Arid Land Resource Management Project
NGO	: Non Governmental Organization
USAID	: United States Agency for International Development
UN	: United Nation
UNICEF	: United nation Children's Fund
SPSS	: Statistical Package for Social Science

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ABSTRACT

The specific objectives of the study were; To find out whether leadership is a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs; To investigate whether insecurity is a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs; To determine whether culture is a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs; To examine whether infrastructure is a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs and to find out whether availability of funds is a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs.

The main tools of data collection were questionnaires and interviews. The researcher employed the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) to analyze the data. The study used charts, bar graphs and frequency histograms to present the results of analyzed data.

The study concluded that most NGOs source their funds from international donors, followed by religious organizations, followed by governments, and lastly from individuals in that order; Most of the NGOs were had available and adequate funding; and that the organizations had enough equipment and that most of the organizations had enough space to offer all services required. NGOs are therefore recommended to pay more attention to finding funds as they do to using those funds. So that they can be able to meet their current program needs as well as expand their program activities. They are also encouraged to improve on their planning techniques and hard work that brought them success in their core activities and also tap donors for monetary and in-kind support. NGOs should also redesign program implementation strategies to include cost-recovery components whereby beneficiaries of the program pay part, and sometimes all.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Wajir County (formerly Wajir district) is one of the largest counties in Kenya. It borders Ethiopia to the north, Somalia to the East, Mandera District to the north-east, Marsabit, Moyale and Isiolo Districts to the west and Garissa to the south. The population of the district was estimated to be around 471,000 in 1998 (ALRMP, 1999). Wajir district is shared by a number of Somali clans, principally the Ajuraan, Degodia, and Ogaden. The Ajuraan consider them to be the “original” inhabitants of much of the land, and enjoyed protected access to Wajir-West under the British colonial system. Since independence they have faced long-term migratory pressure and changing demographics from westward-expanding neighbors, especially the Degodia (Goldsmith 1997: 30). The economy of the district is based on nomadic pastoralism, although a large proportion of the population has been forced to leave pastoralism in recent years as they lost their stock during droughts. A little crop production does take place, mainly in the north of the district around the settlements of Bute and Gurar where rainfall is higher and comparatively reliable in contrast to the rest of the district. Elsewhere agriculture is an opportunistic and spontaneous activity, triggered by good rains, and takes advantage of water that accumulates in natural depressions and elsewhere. Rainfall is bimodal in its distribution which (in average times) spreads the availability of water and pasture across the seasons (ALRMP, 2006). Pastoral activity is centered on the herding of camels, cattle, sheep and goats and is characterized by mobility in response to changing weather and pasture conditions. Access and availability of water are also crucial to the success of pastoral livestock production. Poor infrastructure limits access for water (DSG

minutes, 2006). The highest concentration of population is found around major centers and other settlements with permanent water sources. Wajir District experiences frequent droughts with recent significant events occurring during 1991/92 and 1996/97. These droughts generally result in loss of livestock and are often associated with high child malnutrition and sometimes mortality, and with the displacement as destitute of large numbers of pastoral households into urban or peri-urban areas, in particular in the villages surrounding Wajir town itself. The settlement of pastoralist households has increased in recent years as more and more people have lost their livestock, and therefore their means of subsistence, during drought and have been unable to re-build their herds and resume their pastoralist activities since. Semi-permanent or permanent settlements are often inhabited by the most vulnerable (the very young or old, pregnant and nursing women). People in these settlements have attempted to develop their own livelihood systems such as firewood collection, charcoal making, collection and sale of building materials, petty trade etc. However, most can only expect to make a meager and unreliable living.

The huge pressure exerted on the above limited resources has resulted in insecurity, conflicts and human displacement. The conflicts have further been amplified by the presence of distinct clans in the region. The inter-clan conflicts are particularly centered on struggle for watering points and grazing areas. In July 2000, clashes erupted between the Garre and Ajuraan in northern Wajir district. The clashes were sparked by a spiraling cycle of banditry raids and counter-raids, involving as many as 100 armed men and producing 30 deaths (Menkhaus, 2008).

To alleviate human suffering brought about by the hardships and violence, a wide array of humanitarian and non-governmental organizations have set up operations in Wajir. Besides promoting relief food and facilitating education, the organizations also aim at promoting lasting peace in the region. The vastness of the region and poor infrastructure leads to massive spending by these organizations. OXFAM's expenditure on the entire relief programme of 1996 alone (excluding the final recovery phase) was £4,612,029 over a two year period. This compares with a budget of £1,223,360 over 3 years for OXFAM's Wajir Pastoral Development Project: Phase 2 – October 1997 to September 2000, (OXFAM, 1997).

The NGO's and other humanitarian organizations have adapted and embraced strategic management techniques to enable easier solution of the humanitarian crisis in Wajir County. The strategies are aimed at eliminating wastage of donors' funds, effective distribution of relief food and other basic necessities, sustainable education for all children of school going age among other goals. However, the implementation of these strategies has not been a smooth ride. Numerous challenges have dogged the process of implementation of the strategies. These challenges include poor leadership, lack of adequate funds, insecurity, poor infrastructure and technology, geographic extent of the area. These challenges form the basis of the study.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The conflict cycle that relates with the occurrence of drought and famine is relatively predictable in Wajir County. The chief cause of conflicts is pressure on the limited resources that have to support a number of clans in the area. NGOs, having noted the root cause of problem, have devised strategies that are targeted at relieving pressure on the resources. The NGOs are

currently (in general) using four strategies that will promote the welfare of the community and at the same time foster peaceful coexistence amongst the various clans. The four strategies include provision of relief foods to needy families in the community in times of drought and famine and whenever else necessary. Provision of monthly allowance to needy elderly members of the community- those that cannot engage in manual labour. The NGO also provides supplementary and nutritious foods to malnourished infants. The NGO has developed a program where it pays school fees for school going children in exchange for their labour in community activities e.g. watering trees, cleaning the town amongst other activities. Parents can also contribute their labour in cases where the activities are too demanding for the children to undertake. However, the goals are only being partially realized. This is due to diverse challenges that stand in the way of the NGOs. The community, donors and the government feels that NGOs are not reaching their set targets. Donors' funds and government grants are not effectively trickling down to the common man in the community. The efficiency of responding to calls for aid from the community is not appealing. The NGOs are also lacking in effectiveness in implementing their set targets. The above problems have motivated the research to try and find out what barriers the organization could be facing. The study sought to fill the gap by investigating these challenges by focusing on the nongovernmental organizations in Wajir County. These challenges have not been tackled by other researcher before specifically on nongovernmental organizations.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The main purpose of the study was to expose the challenges faced by NGOs in implementing their strategic plans, the factors that limit the ability of humanitarian organizations in implementing their mandate.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study was to find out the challenges faced by NGOs in implementing their strategic plans.

1.4.1 Specific objectives.

This study focused on the following specific objectives

1. To find out whether leadership is a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs
2. To investigate whether insecurity is a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs
3. To determine whether culture is a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs
4. To examine whether infrastructure is a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs
5. To find out whether availability of funds is a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs

1.4 Research Questions

The following research questions guided the researcher in conducting the study;

- i. Is leadership a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs?
- ii. Is insecurity a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs?
- iii. Is culture is a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs?

- iv. Is infrastructure is a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs?
- v. Is lack of adequate funds a challenge hindering implementation of strategic plans of NGOs?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study are expected to provide insights on the challenges faced by various NGOs in providing humanitarian aid. The revelations of the study will be instrumental in guiding the future provision of humanitarian aid in various parts of the world. The study will also propose ways of overcoming these challenges and thus aiding the providers of aid in meeting their objectives effectively and efficiently. The research will provide reference material for other researchers and students in institutions of learning. The findings will also be important to the government in development and implementation various policies that focus on the welfare of communities living in arid and semi-arid areas.

1.7 Scope of the study

The study confined itself to humanitarian activities humanitarian and non-governmental organizations in Wajir County. The study focused on the challenges faced by various strategies that the non-governmental organization uses to uplift the welfare of people living in Wajir. The study will dwell on all spheres of the community from malnourished infants, school-going children, the elderly and the families. This is because most NGOs in general employ specific strategies to meet the need of each category in the community. The research will initially study the challenges faced by each strategy independently to expose their impact on the community.

Conclusively, the researcher will try to figure out the degree of interdependency of the challenges in implementing strategies and their overall impact on the community. Further, the recommendations of the study will give means of overcoming the challenges.

1.8 Limitations of the study

The responsiveness of the targeted respondents is a limiting factor of the study. Considering that, the majority of the target population largely consists of persons who are not well educated; the design of the data collection tools will need tailoring to suit the respondents. The tailoring and simplification of data collection tools will lead to dilution of desired response. The expansiveness and climate of the area under study will hinder the movement and penetration of the researcher.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature related to challenges facing strategic management and how they apply to humanitarian organization. It also reviews previous studies on peace building efforts, economic development in arid areas and improving the welfare of communities living arid and semi-arid areas.

2.1 Leadership

NGO leaders often face extraordinary challenges – both at a personal and organizational level. They work long hours with limited resources in uncertain and volatile political and economic circumstances to help the most marginalized and disadvantaged members of their communities. The complex managerial challenges they face have been documented in a small, but growing, body of research (Smillie, 1995; Fowler, 1997; Eade, 2000; Lewis, 2001; Smillie & Hailey, 2001; Edwards & Fowler, 2002; Hailey & James, 2004; James et al., 2005). Reviewing this literature one can but conclude that these challenges are demanding, and distinct from those faced by governments or the for-profit sector. NGO leaders are often isolated and unsupported. There is talk of a leadership deficit, because of the shortage of talented leaders and the growth of the non-profit sector generally. As a result there is some urgency in attempts to develop a new generation of leaders, and to provide relevant support to existing and future leaders. Leadership development programmes designed for NGO leaders must as a consequence incorporate best practice and current experience rather than rehashing tired, traditional approaches to leadership training. This Praxis Paper examines the role of leaders and leadership in NGOs. It draws on the

analysis of recent research into the characteristics of NGO leaders, and explores the challenges of designing leadership development programmes appropriate to the needs of NGOs. This paper identifies the elements of successful leadership development, and assesses the skills or competencies that need be developed.

This section focuses on the evolving role of NGO leaders and the way the environment in which they work impacts on this role. It draws on research from a variety of sources, and sees leadership in the particular cultures and contexts in which NGOs operate. What is clear from this research is that not only do individual leaders play a central role in shaping the destiny of many NGOs, but that their role and effectiveness is in part determined by the environment in which they work (Kelleher & McLaren, 1996, Fowler, 1997, Smillie & Hailey, 2001, Hailey & James, 2004, James et al. 2005). There are also worries about the lack of leadership talent to be found within the context of the non-profit sector as a whole. This 'leadership deficit' will become a matter of urgency as the sector expands over the next twenty years. It is estimated that in the US alone over half a million new senior managers will have to be developed for leadership positions in the period 2007–2016. What is also apparent is that many of these jobs will be filled by individuals recruited from outside the sector who will have had limited experience of running non-profits at a senior level. Currently it is estimated that only 40 per cent of senior management positions in US non-profits are filled by internal appointments and that the remainder are recruited externally (Tierney, 2006). In the 1990s the International Forum on Capacity Building, which was an international coalition of NGOs concerned with building the organizational and managerial capacity of the sector as a whole, consistently voiced its concerns at the quality and availability of appropriate leadership. It argued strongly for increased investment to develop a

new generation of NGO leaders (1998 and 2001). CIVICUS, an international alliance of civil society organizations, similarly identified the lack of NGO leadership talent as a matter of particular concern. It suggested that this was partly a consequence of the rapid turnover of senior staff and the difficulty in replacing them, and that NGOs needed to do more to recruit and retain effective leaders (CIVICUS, 2002). Unfortunately much of our understanding of the way leaders work and what motivates them is based on research into the role and character of leaders in the business, political or military sectors. Furthermore, much of this research is based on studies in the developed industrialized countries of the North, with a particular focus on the individualistic, low power distance cultures of North America or Europe (Kotter, 1996, Adair, 2002, Bennis & Nanus, 2004). Relatively little research has been undertaken on leadership in the non-profit or public sector, and what research there is has mainly been based on the experience of US non-profits and has focused on the work of Boards rather than individual leaders. Allison (2002) reviewed the number of books concerned with non-profit management carried by Amazon.com, and estimated that only about 10 per cent were concerned with non-profit leadership – virtually all of which were based on the US experience and were concerned with Board and Governance issues. Much of the current leadership research is therefore not relevant to the different social, cultural and political environments in which NGO leaders work (Hailey & James, 2004). The INTRAC Praxis programme is trying to address this gap (see the range of Praxis Papers and Notes in this area: e.g. James et al. 2005, James, 2005 a, b and c, Symes, 2006). While NGO-specific research and writing on leadership may be in short supply, it does exist and is growing. Some of the conclusions of this work are analyzed below. Clearly leadership styles are contingent on the context in which they are applied. But they also depend on the ability of the

individual's diagnostic skills and judgment to know what style to adopt and when to adapt their style to suit the circumstances. This influence of culture and context on leadership styles is highlighted in the recent research into NGO leadership in South Asia (see for example Smillie & Hailey, 2001) or sub-Saharan Africa (see for example Fowler et al., 2002; James, 2005a). The conclusions are supported by the findings of researchers analyzing the characteristics of leadership styles of African managers generally. Mintzberg (2006) refers to what he calls their 'engaging' management style, while Jackson (2004a) highlights the importance of a 'humanist' style in the African cultural context. Any understanding of the role and performance of NGO leaders must incorporate the environment in which they work. Recent research into NGO leaders in Kenya, Malawi and Uganda highlights the way in which they operate simultaneously in three different worlds – the global aid world, the urban context in which they live and work, and the rural village setting where many of their extended family still lives (James, 2005a). This research reveals how NGO leaders have to adapt to new leadership roles, the stresses arising from pressure of work, and the demands of organizational crises –commonly around financial shortfalls, internal conflicts or tensions between the staff and the Board. Kaplan (2002) concludes that the unrealistic and artificial demand placed by aid donors adds to the pressure faced by local NGO leaders. The donor's emphasis on tight project schedules, over-hasty timeframes and quick results is both unrealistic, developmental bad-practice, and has a negative impact on the credibility and confidence of NGO leaders. Such demands have a detrimental effect on the ability of many NGO leaders to pursue long-term goals or develop a degree of financial sustainability. NGO leadership also needs to be seen in the wider political and social context. For example, Fowler, Ng'ethe and Owiti's (2002) analysis of the determinants of civic

leadership in Kenya emphasized the importance of the wider political and institutional framework in determining the performance of NGO leaders. NGOs, as part of an active civil society, are inherently part of a wider political process. As a result their work is susceptible to politically-inspired restrictions. NGO leaders are commonly perceived as a political threat that needs to be subverted or removed. Apart from the impact of such tangible political concerns there is also the unquantifiable and intangible influence of caste, class, religion and culture.

2.2 Insecurity

The bombing of the headquarters of the United Nations (UN) in the Canal Hotel complex and the placing of explosives outside the offices of the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) in Baghdad, Iraq, in 2003 serve to highlight the risks associated with humanitarian action. The kidnapping and murder of Margaret Hassan, long-time director of CARE, in Iraq in 2004, the shooting of a member of the Disaster Assistance Response Team (DART), United States Agency for International Development (USAID), in Darfur, Sudan, in March 2005, and the deaths of 17 non-governmental organization (NGO) workers in Sri Lanka in August 2006 provide further evidence of the sometimes deadly dangers aid workers face. The prevailing perception is that violence against aid workers is increasing globally. The Office of the United Nations Security Coordinator determined that 229 international and national UN staff died in malicious attacks between 1992 and mid-2005 (UN, 2005). A 1998 ICRC report chronicles security incidents from around the world, including places not normally thought of as experiencing high crime or violence (ICRC, 1998). A number of contemporary books document aid workers' experiences, with stories that routinely underline the hazards of their work (Danieli, 2002; Bergman, 2003). Additional studies suggest a broader set of factors that deteriorate the climate in which aid

workers operate, such as the widespread availability of small arms and light weapons (SALW) (see Muggah and Berman, 2001; Muggah, 2001; Beasley Buchanan and Muggah, 2003; Buchanan and Muggah, 2005) or the 'War on Terror' (Helton and Loescher, 2003; Donini, 2003; Macrae and Harmer, 2003). Understandably, bombings and murder draw the media, but the numbers of aid workers killed in the line of duty are not an accurate reflection of the issue. Security incidents differ in degree, and the least severe of these garner little attention. Dramatic incidents, like those mentioned above, capture headlines, and while accounts of rape, armed robbery or individuals caught in the crossfire seldom result in more than a report to headquarters. The rape of and violence against national staff members are underreported (see, for example, InterAction, 2001; Fast, 2002), and various studies acknowledge the dearth and incompleteness of data (Dworken, 1998; Sheik et al., 2000; Barnett, 2004). Some analysts intimate that the increased numbers of humanitarian workers operating in conflict areas accounts, in part, for the rise in exposure to violence. Because accurate and comparable statistics have been difficult to find and few agencies have conducted systematic incident analyses, it has been impossible to assess if this is true or what might have caused specific incidents (Van Brabant, 1998; Sheik et al., 2000). Recent studies, however, counter the prevailing wisdom, proposing that deaths have stabilized since the mid-1990s (Buchanan and Muggah, 2005). Furthermore, 'broad brush assumptions about insecurity are unhelpful: each context for humanitarian work needs to be continually assessed for emerging threats and changing threat patterns' (Barnett, 2004, p. 25). Despite advances in security management approaches (see, for example, Rogers and Sytsma, 1998; Roberts, 1999; Van Brabant, 2000; Bickley, 2003; Mayhew, 2004) and legal protection through UN Security Council Resolution 1502, the 1999 Convention on the Safety of United

Nations and Associated Personnel and the 2005 Optional Protocol, the available statistics point to the substantial risks to humanitarians. Research projects have attempted to analyse trends, especially in fatalities, or compile data on the type and number of incidents involving humanitarian personnel. Sheik et al. (2000) identify intentional violence as the leading cause of death (253 of 375 fatalities between 1985 and 1998), find that many deaths occur early in an assignment, and conclude that the total number of deaths of NGO workers is increasing, whereas deaths of UN programme employees and peacekeepers began to decrease after 1995. The authors suggest that these trends reflect the violence related to refugee movements and displacement in general (Sheik et al., 2000). In a related study documenting the numbers of deaths of UN peacekeepers, Seet and Burnham (2000) conclude that the rise in deaths is due to the growing number and scale of missions, and that the relative risk to peacekeepers escalates in missions that include humanitarian assistance.

The analysis by King (2002) reveals that there are more reports of deaths due to acts of violence than to accidents, and highlights the elevated risks associated with ambushes on vehicles and convoys. His later study names 2003 as the 'year of living dangerously', following the highest number of humanitarian worker fatalities (King, 2004). Another data set of 729 fatalities among humanitarians between 1990 and 2000 based on news sources affirms acute violence as the cause of 82 per cent of all deaths, with NGO agencies experiencing the highest number, and names Africa as the most dangerous continent, with 66 per cent of reported fatalities (Abbott, 2005). No Relief confirms Larissa Fast the injurious impact of firearms in terms of the deadly and more subtle threats that pervade the daily lives of humanitarian and development workers (Buchanan and Muggah, 2005). A number of ongoing initiatives are focusing on the morbidity and mortality

of humanitarian workers or examining the operational, policy and philosophical implications of security concerns for humanitarian action. Despite these developments, few collaborative initiatives to document and analyze security incidents exist, for various reasons, such as confidentiality, liability and the sensitive nature of the subject. Furthermore, many of the authors that do address the issue of the insecurity of aid personnel aim to establish trends or concentrate on the contextual reasons for violence against them, rather than seeking to explain why certain NGOs are targeted and not others, even among those operating in the same country or area. If global trends are to blame, what accounts for the different levels of insecurity particular NGOs face in the same country? Exactly which NGOs are targeted and what differentiates them from their sister organizations that are somehow more insulated from violence?

2.3 Availability of funds

Despite the vast differences among the world's non-governmental organizations (NGOs), most share a common dilemma: Lack of funds limits the quantity and/ or quality of the important work they do. Unlimited needs chasing limited resources are a fundamental fact of economic life in rich countries and in poor countries. It affects large international organizations, such as the United Nations, down to the smallest local NGOs. From rural development agencies to museums, and from health care providers to education and training institutes, managers of NGOs must often pay as much (if not more) attention to finding funds as they do to using those funds. NGOs increasingly find that grants and donations are inadequate to meet current program needs, much less to expand program activities. With so many worthy causes that address genuine needs competing for the attention and generosity of the public, even wealthy donors lack the

resources needed to fund every worthwhile effort. Furthermore, as populations grow, so do the numbers of vulnerable groups needing assistance from NGOs. New problems can appear, such as HIV/AIDS, which demand urgent attention and require substantial funding. Meanwhile, NGOs face rising costs for staff and other program inputs, further straining their limited budgets. Dependence on grants and donations can also inhibit the autonomy of NGOs to choose which program activities to undertake and to select the most effective intervention strategies to achieve program goals. To a certain extent, all donors have their own agenda, i.e., their own views as to which problems are important and the best intervention strategies to address these problems. NGO managers may be compelled to follow the money” and allow donors to dictate the scope and direction of their activities, or else receive no funds at all. As the old saying goes, beggars can't be choosers. Another problem is that many grants and donations carry restrictions on the types of expenses that they may cover. The most common restriction is to cover only direct program costs, but not the cost of support services or other overhead costs incurred by the NGO. The NGOs must “contribute” these costs on their own, or at least cover an increasing share of these costs over time. But how? Even those NGOs fortunate enough to be fully funded in their current operations may face uncertainty over future funding. If the problems they address are still around in five, ten, twenty years, will donors keep paying program costs ad infinitum? Or will donors' generosity shift to other more needy or more popular causes? As one country develops economically, will donations be diverted to other, poorer countries? Could local political or social problems lead to a cut-off of donor support? What if a key donor itself goes out of business? The uncertain continuity of donor funding, be it short term or long term, makes it extremely difficult for NGO managers to plan and implement their organizations core activities.

It also may force an NGO to live a project- to-project existence, being unable to make long term plans to expand core activities or to improve the quality of program services. Thus we see that today's NGO managers face an increasing need for their organizations' services, increasing costs for providing those services, and an increasingly competitive and restrictive environment for obtaining funds through grants and donations. At best, these problems prevent NGOs – and those they serve – from reaching their full potential; at worst, the very survival of many NGOs is at stake. The challenge facing NGO managers is to find ways to increase their financial security without sacrificing the mission of their organizations. There is no standard, proven method to meet this challenge. All NGOs are different in terms of their missions, philosophies, client bases, skills and experience. But increasing financial security is an important part of planning for all NGOs. Becoming completely independent of donors may be a realistic goal for some NGOs, while trying to self-generate funds just to cover overhead costs may be more suitable to others. Still others may legitimately determine that relying on grants and donations, at least for now, is the best approach. There is no right answer. It is up to each NGO and its managers to consider all the funding options available and to choose the most appropriate mix, just as they must determine which core activities and implementation strategies are most appropriate to their mission and goals. The funding challenge described earlier is already well understood by most NGOs, and many have responded with the same entrepreneurial spirit, good planning and hard work that brought them success in their core activities. They have expanded fund-raising activities directed at the general public, tapped new corporate donors for monetary and in-kind support, and held one-time events such as the LIVE/AIDS concert. They have redesigned program implementation strategies to include cost-recovery components whereby the

beneficiaries of the program pay part, and sometimes all, program costs. And today we even see NGOs owning and managing restaurants, tour companies, banks, clinics and other businesses.

Consider the case of museums. A generation ago, most covered their costs through wealthy patrons, civic grants, and minimal admission fees. Now, museums commonly have restaurants to feed their visitors, operate shops that sell reproductions of their unique artworks along with other products that appeal to the tastes of museum goers, and rent out their exhibition halls for private receptions and events. Likewise, Goodwill and Oxfam have long operated retail stores to subsidize their development activities, and T-shirts and other promotional items sold through shops, catalogs and the internet are net sources of cash for CARE, Save the Children, and the World Wide Fund for Nature and many other NGOs. Cards and calendars from UNICEF are popular worldwide, while the UN also operates shops at its major offices, implements programs in partnership with private companies to offset costs, and seeks donations outside its traditional source of payments by governments. Large, broadly based NGOs are generally better equipped to diversify their funding sources than smaller NGOs. They can take advantage of their recognizable name and logo. They have more technical skills on which to build commercial activities. They have more contacts and connections with outside groups with which to form partnerships. And internally they have more experience adopting new programs and adapting to organizational change. These NGOs also often have a greater need to seek outside funding because of their higher costs for support services and overhead. On the other hand, smaller NGOs have the advantage that relatively small amounts of self-generated funds can make a big difference in ensuring their financial viability. For example, Green Line, a small environmental

NGO in Slovakia, covers approximately three-fourths of its operating budget through membership fees, training charges, and the sale of books, games and promotional items.

2.4 Infrastructure

NGOs also recognize that there is very poor communication within the sector. The majority of NGOs have little or no access to reliable email and internet connections; they receive almost no literature on development issues and are generally out of touch with issues of global, regional and national importance. Their lack of understanding of the difference between the Board and Council is just one example of the knowledge gaps that exist.

2.5 Socio-cultural factors

Management training and development in a multicultural context (involving the three levels of cross-cultural dynamics discussed in Praxis Note 1) involves both process (how do we do it?) and content (what do we do?). Process can further be considered in terms of individual and organizational learning. 'Learning' as a concept varies across cultures, so much so that the Anglo-Saxon notion of learning is difficult to translate even into other European languages. Such a concept is learner centered and process-focused. The emphasis is on process (how to learn) rather than on the content (what you know). Many non-Anglo-Saxon approaches to 'teaching' are content focused, such as the French teaching concept. Similarly, Sawadogo (1995) asserts that this is the case for African cultures which emphasize observation and an oral tradition of knowledge transmission and memorization. For example, he suggests that lecture methods may be far more appropriate for individual learning than workshop methods. He goes on to explain that knowledge is highly respected, highly valued and almost feared: the learner becomes

dependent on the trainer as a source of wisdom. The idea of the 'independent learner' does not appear to be appropriate. The Anglo-Saxon concept of the 'learning organization' may also be inappropriate in a developing country context. First, it relies heavily on the idea of experiential learning, and learning as a process, which may be at variance to African notions, among others. Secondly, it relies on the perception of organizations as instrumental and 'open systems' in which the executive goals of the organization are pursued, and where learning takes place to fulfill goals. This also touches on the discussion above about the narrowly defined and tactical nature of participation. To be successful, organizational learning for NGOs working in developing countries should be inclusive of a wider stakeholder base. At both individual and organizational levels, management learning and development should include the following aspects that have been discussed above:

Awareness amongst the management team members of the broader operating constraints (political, economic, legislative, social and cultural) within a complex operating environment, and reflecting on how these may be turned into opportunities.

Incorporation of the interests of the NGO's multiple stakeholders into its strategic objectives (including employees and their representatives, managers, community, government, suppliers, clients and donor agencies).

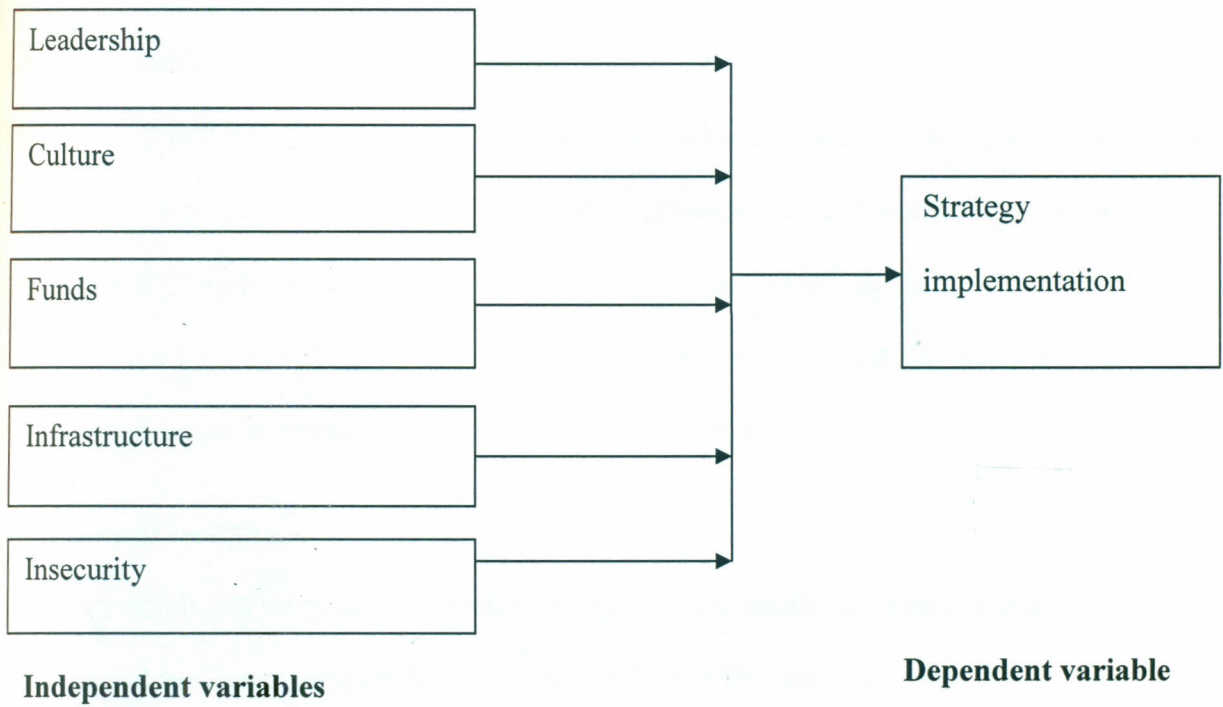
Development of real and effective internal means for incorporating the perceptions, expectations, strengths and interests of stakeholders (including different cultural and gender groups) into decision making and change management, through active and wider (rather than simply 'tactical') participation.

Obtaining commitment and motivation by developing an understanding of the relationship between community/family life and work life, and the way this relationship is differently perceived from different cultural perspectives.

Awareness of the contributing factors to the way the organization is managed through principles, policies and practices, and their applicability to the socio-cultural contexts within which the organization operates.

Conscious management of the multicultural dynamics in order to develop strengths and synergies from these, including the management of equal opportunities for individuals from different ethnic and gender groups to influence the direction of the organization. Many of these aspects of management development and organizational capacity building involve a consideration of the transfer of knowledge and best practice from one organization to another and from one culture to another. This raises issues of management practices and organizational learning, of the nature of leadership and the ethical aspects of decision-making, as well as the way that change is managed. These issues of transferability are discussed in Praxis Note 3.

2.6 Conceptual Framework



The above conceptual framework guided the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Methodology refers to the system of methods or procedures used in sampling and collecting data required for a particular research. It is also the application of the principles of data collection methods and procedures in any field of knowledge. This section describes the research design, target population, sampling design and sample size, data collection methods, validity and reliability of research instruments and data analysis technique.

3.2 Research Design

The study employed empirical research technique, where results are derived from data collected from the fields. The researcher is out to verify whether the strategies employed by Wajir Peace and Development Agency are fruitful. The study sought to investigate the effectiveness and efficiency of the four main strategies on their ability to improve the lives of the members of Wajir community. The researcher wanted to go beyond simple reporting observation. Empirical research method helps integrating research and practice. It provides respect to contextual differences and also provides standard of professional research.

3.3 Study Area

The study was carried out in public Wajir County. This is where the operations of WPDA are localized. As state earlier, the area has in the past experience outbreaks of inter-clan violence coupled with droughts and famine. This is mainly due to the pressure on limited resources. Most residents just like most Kenyans live below the poverty line. The number of Kenyans living

below the poverty line increased from 3.7 million in 1972/73, to 11.5 million in 1994 and 12.5 million in 1997 to 22 million by end of 1998 (UNDP, 2009). This implies that the socio-economic status of the people in Wajir County is a vital prerequisite of the presence of NGOs in the area.

3.4 Target Population

The target population of this study comprised of five top management of WPDA, fifty employees of WPDA and ten volunteer workers. The Public health officers were also interviewed to clarify issues that were not captured well in the questionnaire. The research also interviewed the management of WPDA to a clear picture of the challenges faced by their attempt to use the strategies and their achievements.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Procedures

The study adopted purposeful, systematic and simple random sampling. Purposeful sampling was used to select teachers in the sampled school to participate in the interview. Through simple random sampling technique, 30% of all the staff was selected. The names of the employees were written on small papers that were folded, put in a container and mixed thoroughly. After every picking, the containers were shaken again to ensure thorough picking. This was done repeatedly until the fourteen papers were picked. The names of the employees on selected/picked papers formed the sample. The study sampled 30% of the target population since Neuman (2000) argues that it is enough in an ex post facto survey study.

3.6 Data Collection Methods

The main instrument for data collection was the questionnaire. The questionnaire is a convenient tool especially where there are large numbers of subjects to be handled. It facilitates easy and quick derivation of information within a short time (Patton, 2002). A self-administered questionnaire was used by the researcher as it is economically in terms of time. Interviews were also engaged for the purpose of clarification and in-depth understanding of various issues.

3.7 Reliability and Validity of Research Instrument

3.7.1 Validity of Research Instruments

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) validity is quality attributed to proposition or measures to the degree to which they conform to establish knowledge or truth. An attitude scale is considered valid, for example, to the degree to which its results conform to other measures of possession of the attitude. Validity therefore refers to the extent to which an instrument can measure what it ought to measure. It therefore refers to the extent to which an instrument asks the right questions in terms of accuracy. Mugenda et al (1999) validity is the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences, which are based on research results. Validity is the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of the data actually represents the phenomenon under study. Validity therefore, has to do with how accurately the data obtained in the study represents the variables of the study. If such data is a true reflection of the variables, then inferences based on such data will be accurate and meaningful. The instrument was rated in terms of how effectively it sampled significant aspects of the purpose of the study. The content validity of the instrument was determined in two ways. First the researcher discussed the items in the instrument with the supervisor, lecturers from the department and colleagues. These people were

expected to indicate by tick or cross for every item in the questionnaire if it measured what it was supposed to measure or not. A coefficient of those that measured was computed. A coefficient of above 0.5 implies that the instrument is valid. Advice given by these people helped the researcher determine the validity of the research instruments. The advice included suggestions, clarifications and other inputs in order. These suggestions were used in making necessary changes. Secondly, content validity of the instrument was determined through piloting, where the responses of the subjects were checked against the research objectives. This also gave a reason as to why content was used. For a research instrument to be considered valid, the content selected and included in the questionnaire must be relevant to the variable being investigated argues Kerlinger, (1973).

3.7.2 Reliability of Instrument of Data Collection

Patton (2002) states that the reliability of a test refers to the ability of that test to consistently yield the same results when repeated measurements are taken of the same individual under the same conditions. Basically reliability is concerned with consistency in the production of the results and refers to the requirement that, at least in principle, another researcher, or the same researcher on another occasion, should be able to replicate the original piece of researcher and achieve comparable evidence or results, with similar or same study population.

The reliability coefficient was determined using scores from the test retest technique that was used. This is because the method will be more accurate as it determines the stability of the instrument. A reliability coefficient of at least 0.5 will be considered high enough for the instruments to be used for the study (Neuman, 2000).

Feedback obtained from the pilot study will assist the researcher in revising the instrument of data collection to ensure that it covers the objectives of the study. The main reason for piloting the questionnaire was to ensure that the items would detect the kind of responses the researcher intends to get, that the items they are acceptable in terms of their content, and they adequately covers any aspects of the unit, which the researcher particularly wishes to explore. In a case where it was discovered that the items in the questionnaire were difficult for the respondents, they were rectified accordingly.

3.8 Data Collection

Data was collected from Public health officer, pupils, parents, teachers and the elderly population from March 2013 to April 2013. The Instrument of data collection was the questionnaire and interview schedules. The data was collected by the researcher to get first-hand experience in conducting the study.

The researcher sought permission from the Ministry of Education and District Commission Office. The researcher carried out a reconnaissance trip to the county in order to familiarize herself with what goes on in the district. This trip made the researcher to seek the consent of the participants.

3.9 Data Analysis

Data was analyzed descriptively. Data analysis was facilitated by use of SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Scientist) Computer package. Descriptive methods were employed in analyzing qualitative data where frequencies and proportions were used in interpreting the respondent's perception of issues raised in the questionnaires so as to answer the research questions. Descriptive statistics such as frequency distribution, percentages, means and standard deviations will be calculated and data presented in form of tables, graphs and charts. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and chi-square, which are inferential statistical techniques, were used to test the hypotheses. The level of significance was tested at 0.05.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

The researcher respected the respondents' privacy. The participants were not expected to write their names on the questionnaire, but each questionnaire had a code number for reference. The participants were assured that the information given would be treated confidentially and for the purpose intended only. They also had the freedom to withdraw from the study at any point or time.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents analysis and findings of the study as set out in the research methodology. The data was gathered exclusively from the questionnaire as the research instrument. The questionnaire was designed in line with the objectives of the study.

4.2 General Information

Position held by the respondents in their organizations

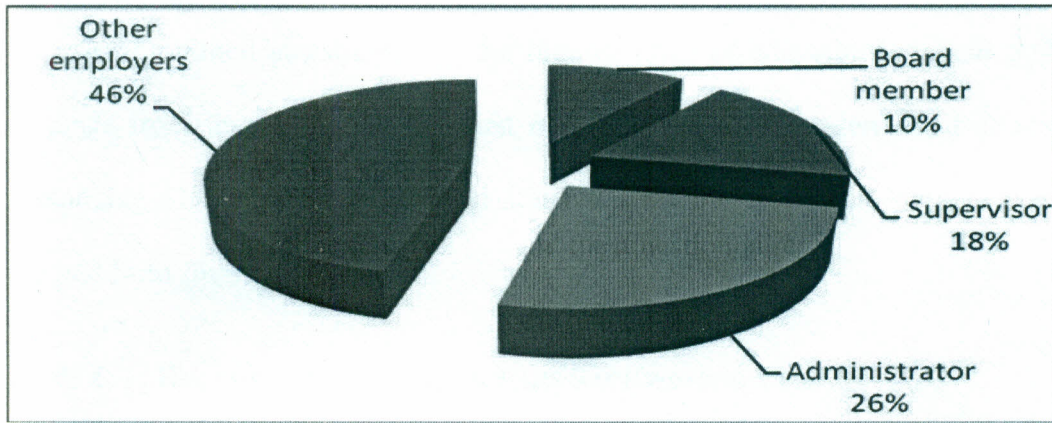


Figure 4. 1; Position held by the respondents in their organizations

On the Position held by the respondents in their organizations, descriptive data from the study revealed that most of the respondents were just normal employees shown by 46.0 percent followed by administrators with 34.4%, and then supervisors with 18%. Board Members were only 10 percent of the survey population studied.

Highest level of education attained by the respondents

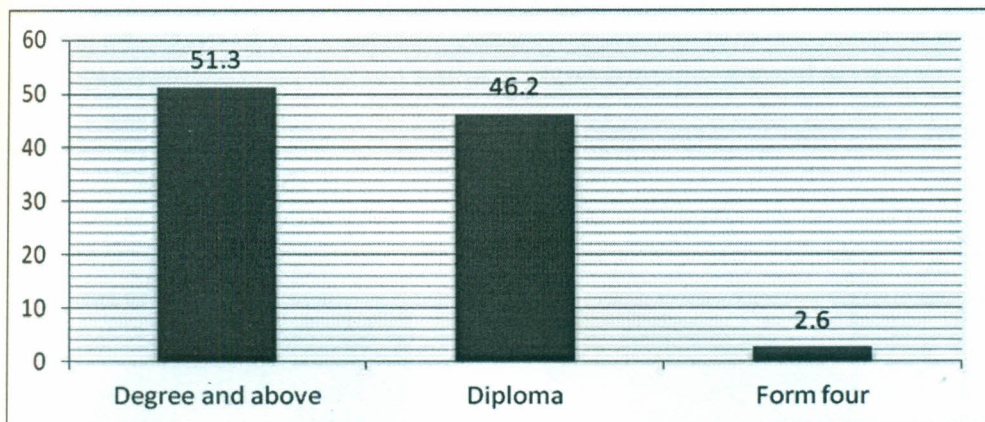


Figure 4. 2; Highest level of education attained by the respondents

This section aimed at establishing the highest level of education attained by the respondents. Findings from the study revealed that majority of the respondents had attained a degree and comprising 51.3 percent, 46.2% had attained diplomas, while 2.6 percent attended mixed had reached form four.

Table 4. 1; Duration of time respondents have worked with the NGO

	Frequency	Percent
10 years and above	3	7.7
Between 5 and 10 years	7	17.9
Between 1 and 5 years	29	74.4
Total	39	100

On the duration of time respondents have worked with the NGO, 29 (74.4%) of the respondents had worked with the NGO for between 1 and 5 years, 7 (17.9%) for between 5 and 10 years, while only 3 (7.7%) had worked with the NGO for 10 years and above.

Gender of the respondents

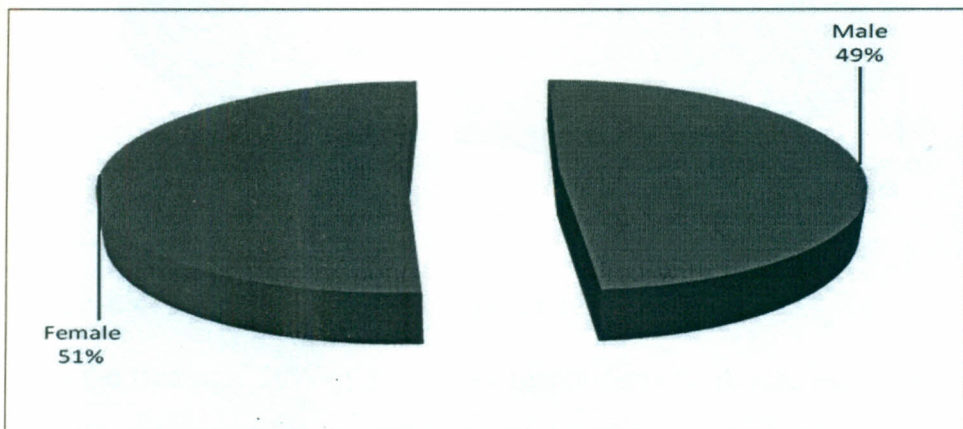


Figure 4. 3; Gender of the respondents

The study in this section aimed at establishing the gender of the respondents. Results depicted in figure 4.3 revealed that a small majority of the respondents were females comprising 51 percent while 49 percent were male.

Marital status of the respondents

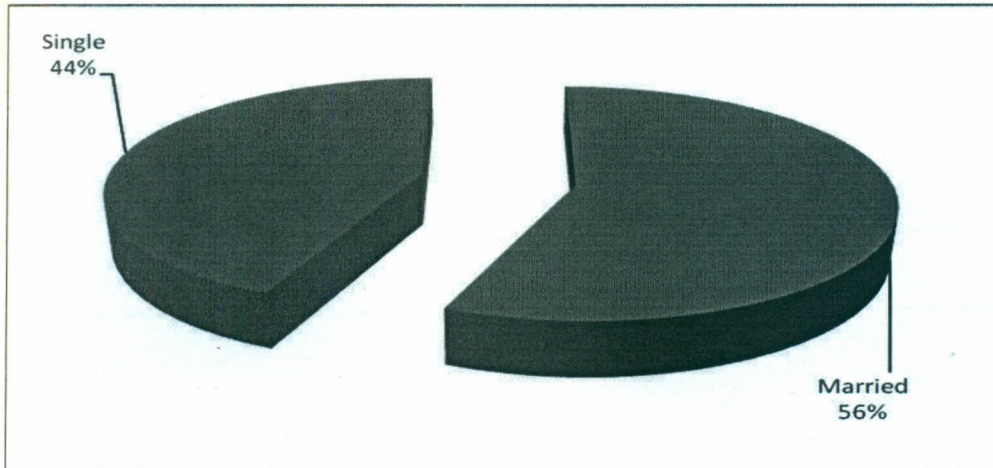


Figure 4. 4; Marital status of the respondents

From the findings, 56% of the survey respondents were married while the rest (44%) were not, hence single.

4.3 Availability of funds

Source of the organization's funding

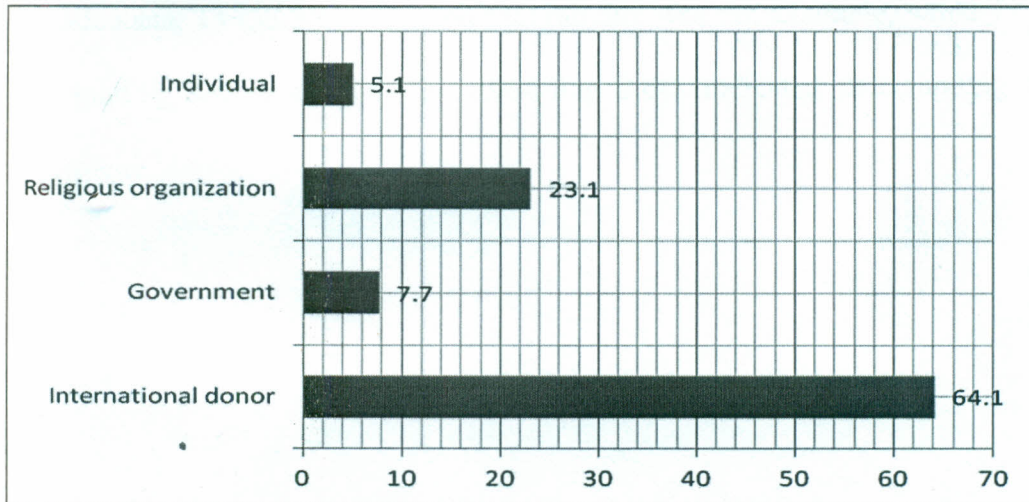


Figure 4. 5; Source of the organization's funding

When asked the Source of the organization's funding, 64.1% of respondents indicated that funding was from international donors, 23.1% from religious organizations, 7.7% from the government and rest (5.1%) from individuals.

Adequacy and Availability of funds

	Frequency	Percent
Available	11	28.2
Adequate	14	35.9
Not available	13	33.3
Available but inadequate	1	2.6
Total	39	100

The study in this section sought to establish whether funding was available and adequate. According to the findings, 14 (35.9%) of the respondents indicated that funding was available and adequate, 13 (33.3%) indicated that funding was not available, while 11 (28.2%) indicated that funding was available. The remaining 2.6% indicated that funding was available but inadequate.

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Respondents' opinion on whether NGOs have sound financial policy

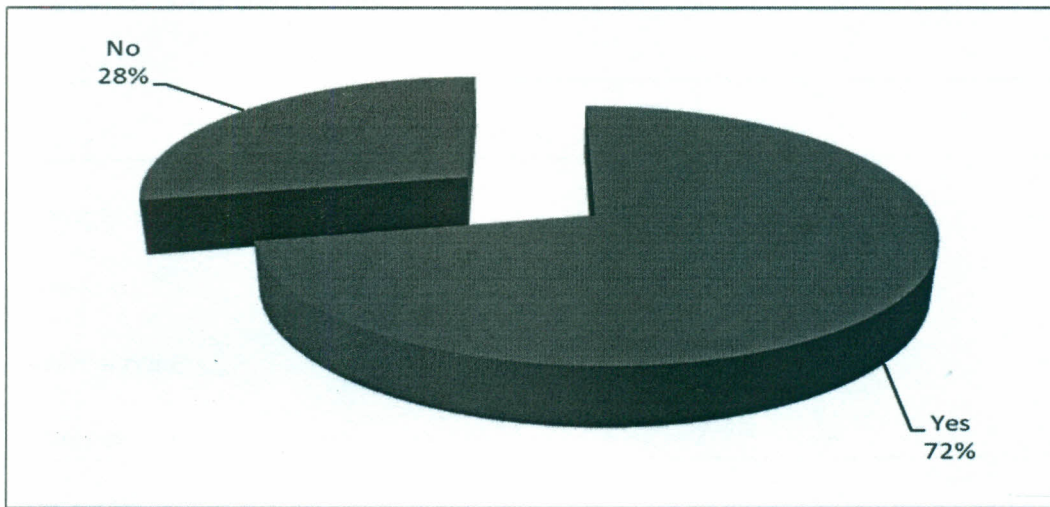


Figure 4. 6; Respondents' opinion on whether NGOs have sound financial policy

The researcher in this section sought to establish the respondents' opinion on whether NGOs have sound financial policy. Findings of the study revealed that majority of the NGOs have a sound financial policy as shown by 72%. Only 28% of the respondents indicated that the NGOs did not have a sound financial policy.

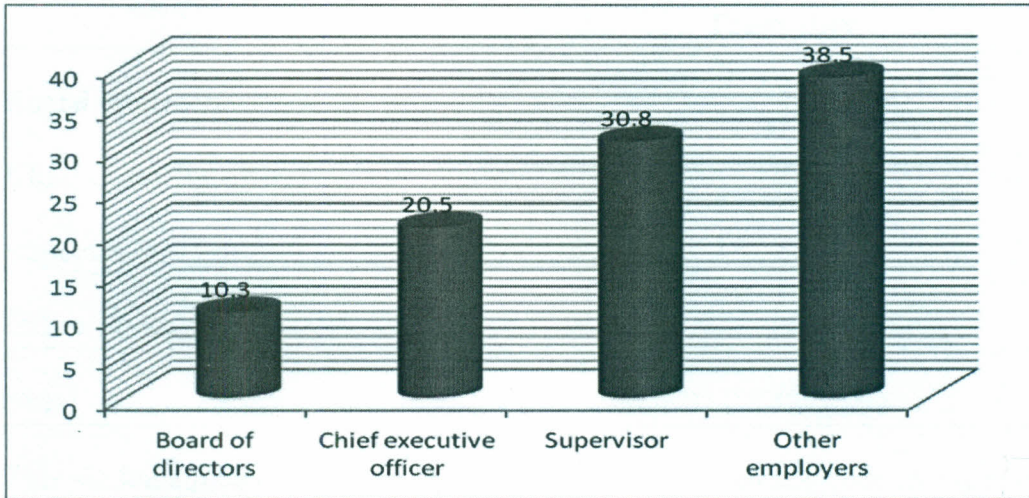
Table 4. 2; Extent to which respondents agree that financial constrain impact on strategies employed by the organization

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	12	30.8
Agree	17	43.6
Partly agree	8	20.5
Disagree	2	5.1
Total	39	100

The study sought to establish the extent to which respondents agreed that financial constrains impact on strategies employed by the organization. According to the findings, 43.6% of the respondents agreed that financial constrains impact on strategies employed by the organization, 30.8% strongly agree, 20.5% partly agreed while the rest (5.1%) disagreed.

4.4 Leadership

Respondents opinion on who is the most supportive in strategy implementation



Respondents opinion on who is the most supportive in strategy implementation

The study revealed that majority of the respondents find other employees (other than board of directors, chief executive officer, and Supervisors) being the most supportive in strategy implementation as shown by 38.5%, followed by the supervisor (30.8%), then the Chief executive (20.5%). The least supportive in strategy implementation was the board of directors as shown by 10.3% as shown in table 4.1 above.

Table 4. 3; Quarters from which respondents experience resistance and lack of support most

	Frequency	Percent
Board of directors	9	23.1
Chief executive officer	10	25.6
Supervisor	5	12.8
Other employers	15	38.5
Total	39	100

This section aimed at establishing the quarters from which respondents experience resistance and lack of support most. Findings from the study revealed that a majority of the respondents indicated that they experienced resistance and lack of support most from other employees other than board of directors, chief executive officer, and Supervisors comprising 38.5 percent. This was followed by 25.6% who indicated that they experienced resistance most from the chief executive officers (C.E.Os), 23.1% of them indicated that the resistance was from the Board of Directors while the rest (12.8%) indicated that most resistance came from their supervisors.

Table 4. 4; Extent to which respondents agreed with various statements on leadership as a challenge to strategic plan implementation in Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs)

	Strongly agree	Agree	Moderately agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Stdev
Organization policies pose a challenge to strategy	43.6	25.6	15.4	12.8	2.6	3.97	1.169
The management has the required skills to successfully implement strategy	46.2	20.5	33.3	0	0	4.13	0.894
Board members have the experience and skills necessary for propelling the organization to a world class organization	30.8	17.9	46.2	5.1	0	3.74	0.966

As shown in table 4.4 above, respondents agreed that the management in NGOs had the required skills to successfully implement strategy as shown by a mean of 4.13 and a standard deviation of 0.894; that organization policies pose a challenge to strategy as shown by a mean of 3.97 and a standard deviation of 1.169; and that board members have the experience and skills necessary for propelling the organization to a world class organization as shown by a mean of 3.74 and a standard deviation of 0.966.

4.5 Insecurity

Table 4. 5; How insecurity is a challenge to the process of strategic plan implementation in Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs).

Whether security situation impacts on service provision in NGO		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	32	82.1
No	7	18
Total	39	100
Whether there are security related issues targeted at NGOs		
Yes	27	69.2
No	12	30.8
Total	39	100
Proximity of the organizations office to nearest police station		
5 Kilometers	19	48.7
10 Kilometers	13	33.3
Negligible	7	17.9
Total	39	100
Availability and adequacy of security stations in respondents' area of transaction		
Adequate	16	41
Available but Inadequate	17	43.6
Inadequate	6	15.4
Total	39	100
Whether the organization has alternative security plans		
Yes	22	56.4
No	17	43.6
Total	39	100

The study in this section aimed at establishing how insecurity is a challenge to the process of strategic plan implementation in Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs).

Results from the study revealed that as shown in table 4.5 above.

Majority (82.1%) of the respondents indicated that security situation impacts on service provision in NGOs, while 18% indicated that security situation did not impact on service provision in the NGOs.

Respondents also indicated that there were security related issues targeted at the NGOs as shown by 69.2%. The remaining 30.8% of the respondents indicated that there were no security related issues targeted at the NGO. 48.7% of the respondents indicated that their organizations office was 5 kilometers from the nearest police station, 33.3% indicated that their organizations office was 10 kilometers from the nearest police station while the rest (17.9%) indicated that the distance from their organizations office to the nearest police station was negligible.

43.6% of the respondents indicated that security stations in their area of transaction were available but inadequate; 41% indicated that security stations in their area of transaction were adequate; while only 15.4% indicated that security stations in their area of transaction were inadequate.

Respondents were also required to indicate whether the organization has alternative security plans. 56.4% of them indicated that their organizations has alternative security plans, while 43.6% indicated that the organization did not have alternative security plans

4.6 Culture

The researcher in this section sought to understand how culture is a challenge to the process of strategic plan implementation in Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs). The researcher began by investigating whether the organization has institutional culture. Below are the findings.

Table 4. 6; Culture (As a challenge to strategic plan implementation)

Whether the organization has institutional culture		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	23	59
No	16	41
Total	39	100
Whether institutional culture is functional		
Yes	18	46.2
No	21	53.8
Total	39	100
Whether institutional culture is inclusive		
Yes	20	51.3
No	19	48.7
Total	39	100
Whether the management and staff aware of their role in defining and implementing the institutions culture		
Yes	14	35.9
No	25	64.1
Total	39	100

Fifty nine (59) percent out of the respondents surveyed indicated that the organization has institutional culture, while 41% indicated that the organization lacked institutional culture.

On whether institutional culture adopted by the organization was functional, majority of the respondents (53.8%) indicated that it was not functional while the rest (46.2%) indicated that it was functional.

When asked whether institutional culture adopted by the organization was inclusive, most of them indicated that it was as shown by 51.3%, while the remaining 48.7% indicated that it wasn't inclusive.

The study also sought the respondents' opinion on whether management and staff of the NGOs were aware of their role in defining and implementing the institutions culture. Data findings from the study revealed that majority (64.1%) of the respondents felt that the management and staff of the NGOs were not aware of their role in defining and implementing the institutions culture, while only 35.9% of them felt that they were aware.

4.7 Infrastructure

Whether organization has enough equipment		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	17	43.6
No	13	33.3
Some	9	23.1
Total	39	100
Whether organization has enough space to offer all services required		
Yes	18	46.2
No	21	53.8
Total	39	100
Whether intervening variables like road network and accessibility to the health facility affect respondents' work		
Yes	20	51.3
No	19	48.7
Total	39	100

Majority of the respondents indicated that the organizations had enough equipment as shown by 43.6%; 33.3% indicated that the organizations did not have equipment; while the rest (23.1%) indicated that the organizations had some equipment, though not enough.

When asked whether organization has enough space to offer all services required, 53.8 percent indicated yes while 46.2% indicated no.

Majority of the respondents also agreed that intervening variables like road network and accessibility to the health facility affected their work as shown by 51.3% while 48.7 indicated that it did not.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The chapter provides the summary of the findings from chapter four, and it also gives the conclusions and recommendations of the study based on the objectives of the study. The objective of this study was to assess the challenges faced by NGOs in implementing their strategic plans.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

5.2.1 Availability of funds

Majority of the organizations source their funds international donors (64.1%), followed by religious organizations (23.1%), then the government with 7.7% and only 5.1% comes from individuals. 14 (35.9%) of the respondents indicated that funding was available and adequate, 13 (33.3%) indicated that funding was not available, while 11 (28.2%) indicated that funding was available. The remaining 2.6% indicated that funding was available but inadequate.

Findings of the study revealed that majority of the NGOs have a sound financial policy as shown by 72%. Only 28% of the respondents indicated that the NGOs did not have a sound financial policy.

According to the findings, 43.6% of the respondents agreed that financial constrains impact on strategies employed by the organization, 30.8% strongly agree, 20.5% partly agreed while the rest (5.1%) disagreed.

5.2.2 Leadership

The study revealed that other employees (other than board of directors, chief executive officer, and supervisors) are the most supportive in strategy implementation as shown by 38.5%, followed by the supervisor (30.8%), then the Chief executive (20.5%). The least supportive in strategy implementation was the board of directors as shown by 10.3% as shown in table 4.1 above.

It was also observed that resistance and lack of support was experienced most from other employees (other than board of directors, chief executive officer, and Supervisors), followed by chief executive officers (C.E.Os), Board of Directors and the least resistance from their supervisors.

The management in NGOs was found to have the required skills to successfully implement strategy as shown by a mean of 4.13 and a standard deviation of 0.894; that organization policies pose a challenge to strategy as shown by a mean of 3.97 and a standard deviation of 1.169; and that board members have the experience and skills necessary for propelling the organization to a world class organization as shown by a mean of 3.74 and a standard deviation of 0.966.

5.2.3 Insecurity

Security situation was reported to impact on service provision in NGOs, there were security related issues targeted at the NGOs ; most of the NGOs were had proximity to police stations; security stations in their area of transaction were found to be available but inadequate making the organizations to secure alternative security plans.

5.2.4 Culture

Study findings revealed that most of the NGOs lacked functional institutional culture, while those that had an institutional culture customized it to be inclusive,

The management and staff of the NGOs were found to lack awareness on their role in defining and implementing the institutions culture.

5.2.5 Infrastructure

The study also found out that majority of the respondents indicated that the organizations had enough equipment as shown by 43.6%; and that most of the organizations had enough space to offer all services required

Intervening variables like road network and accessibility to the health facility were found to affect the respondents' work as shown by 51.3%.

5.3 Conclusion

The study concluded that most NGOs source their funds from international donors, followed by religious organizations, followed by governments, and lastly from individuals in that order; Most of the NGOs were had available and adequate funding; Majority of the NGOs have a sound financial policy Financial constrains impact on strategies employed by the organization.

The study also concluded that other employees (other than board of directors, chief executive officer, and supervisors) are the most supportive in strategy implementation; followed by the supervisor, the Chief executive and finally the board of directors in that order. The study also concludes that resistance and lack of support was experienced most from other employees (other

than board of directors, chief executive officer, and Supervisors), followed by chief executive officers (C.E.Os), Board of Directors and the least resistance from their supervisors; the management in NGOs was found to have the required skills to successfully implement strategy; that organization policies pose a challenge to strategy; and that board members have the experience and skills necessary for propelling the organization to a world class organization.

Security situation was reported to impact on service provision in NGOs, there were security related issues targeted at the NGOs; most of the NGOs were had proximity to police stations; security stations in their area of transaction were found to be available but inadequate making the organizations to secure alternative security plans.

Study findings revealed that most of the NGOs lacked functional institutional culture, while those that had an institutional culture customized it to be inclusive. The management and staff of the NGOs were found to lack awareness on their role in defining and implementing the institutions culture.

The study also found out that majority of the respondents indicated that the organizations had enough equipment and that most of the organizations had enough space to offer all services required. Intervening variables like road network and accessibility to the health facility were found to affect the respondents' work.

5.4 Recommendations

NGOs are recommended to pay more attention to finding funds as they do to using those funds. So that they can be able to meet their current program needs as well as expand their program activities. They are also encouraged to improve on their planning techniques and hard work that

brought them success in their core activities and also tap donors for monetary and in-kind support. NGOs should also redesign program implementation strategies to include cost-recovery components whereby beneficiaries of the program pay part, and sometimes all. NGOs should also try to invest in restaurants, tour companies, banks, clinics and other businesses.

NGO leaders should try to adapt to new leadership roles, and acquire skills to tackle stresses arising from pressure of work, and the demands of organizational crises; commonly around financial shortfalls, internal conflicts or tensions between the staff and the Board.

They should also train on how to deal with unrealistic and artificial demand placed by aid donors adds to the pressure faced by local NGO leaders.

The NGOs should also have a reliable email and internet connections; to ensure that they are in touch with issues of global, regional and national importance.

Further, the CEOs, Supervisors, board of directors and all employees should work together without frustrating each other to ensure that targets set are met and the organization is efficient.

5.5 Recommendation for Further Studies

The study aimed to find out the challenges faced by NGOs in implementing their strategic plans, therefore further study needs to be carried out to establish how NGOs tackle challenges they face in implementing their strategic plans.

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APPENDIX A: A SPECIMEN LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO THE RESPONDENTS.

Date:

Dear Respondent,

RE: A STUDY OF CHALLENGES FACING IMPLEMENTATION OF STRATEGIES PLANS IN NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATION IN WAJIR PEACE AND DEVELOPMENT AGENCY.

I am a post graduate student at Kenyatta University pursuing masters in business administration. I am carrying out a research study on the above named subject. You have been selected to take part in the study as a respondent. Attached is a questionnaire aimed at gathering information which will be vital for the above research. I am kindly requesting you to respond to the questionnaire items as honestly as you can and to the best of your knowledge. The questionnaire is for the purpose of the research only and therefore the response shall be absolutely confidential and anonymously given. Do not include your name in the questionnaire. Your participation in the survey will be highly appreciated.

Thank you in advance.

Abdikadir Billow Abdille

School of business,

Kenyatta university.

Appendix B: Research Questionnaire

This questionnaire is intended to gather information from you and the organization where you are stationed. The study is on challenges facing implementation of strategic plans in nongovernmental organizations. Kindly answer all the questions.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND OF THE RESPONDENT.

Tick the appropriate box.

1. What position do you hold in your organization

Board member

Supervisor

Administrator

Other employers

2. What is your highest level of education

Degree and above

Diploma

Form six

Form four

Below form four

3. For how long were you working with this NGO?

10 years and above

Between 5 and 10 years

Between 1 and 5 years

4. State your gender

Male

Female

What is your marital status

Married

Single

5. Availability of funds

From which source does the organization get its funding

a) International donor

b) Government

c) Religious organization

d) Individual

6. In your opinion are funds

Available

Adequate

Not available

Available but inadequate

7. Do you think NGOs have sound financial policy

Yes

No

a. To what extent do you agree financial constrain impact on strategies employed by organization

Strongly agree

Agree

Partly agree

Disagree

Leadership

b. In your opinion who among the following is the most supportive in strategy implementation

Board of directors

Chief executive officer

Supervisor

Other employers

From which quarters did you experience resistance and lack of support most?

Board of directors

Chief executive officer

Supervisor

Other employers

8. For Question 3, 4 and 5 rate the extent to which you agree with the statement given using the scale provided below

S.A – strongly agree, **A** – agree, **A.A** - agree a little, **D** – Disagree, **S.D** strongly disagree

Question No	STATEMENT	S	A	A.A	D	S.D
3.	Organization policies pose a challenge to strategy implementation					
4.	The management has the required skills to successfully					

	implement strategy					
5.	Board members have the experience and skills necessary for propelling the organizatio n to a world class organizatio n.					

Insecurity

Does the security situation impact on service provision in NGO?

YES

NO

Are there security related issues targeted at NGOs?

YES

NO

What is the proximity of the organizations office to police station?

5KM

10KM

Negligible

Are there security stations in your area of transaction?

Available

Available but not adequate

Not available

Does the organization have alternative security plans

YES

NO

Culture

Do you have institutional culture

YES

NO

In your opinion is the institutional culture functional

YES

NO

Does the institutions culture collide with the society's culture?

YES

NO

Is the institutions culture inclusive

YES

NO

Are the management and staff aware of their role in defining and implementing the institutions culture?

YES

NO

SOME

Infrastructure

Do you have enough equipment

YES

NO

Do you have enough space to offer all services required

YES

NO

Does the intervening variables like road network and accessibility to the health facility affect your work

YES

NO

Please explain