CHALLENGES FOR IMPLEMENTING PROJECT PLANNING IN THE NGO SECTOR IN THE OVERBERG MUNICIPALITY

Nomathemba Buyani
(2038750)

A full thesis for the fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
MASTERS IN SOCIAL WORK
UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK
UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE
FACULTY OF COMMUNITY AND HEALTH SCIENCES

SUPERVISOR: DR M DE JAGER
CO-SUPERVISOR: PROF. J FRANTZ
SEPTMBER 2015
DECLARATION

I, Nomathemba Buyani (2038750), declare that this study conducted on the challenges for implementing project planning in the NGO sector is my own work and that all the sources that I have used are quoted and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Nomathemba Buyani
Date:

Signature

..........................
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this research would not be possible without the help of a number of people. I would like to thank:

- Dr M De Jager, my supervisor, for giving up her time, providing me with encouragement, and believing in me. She told me this study was a journey and we would walk together to reach the destination.

- A special thanks to Prof J Frantz for her support for me to complete my dream.

- Mr and Mrs Sotshononda, who gave their time to assist me when I needed their support.

- Mr J Blankenberg, my supervisor at work, for reminding me about the importance of education.

- My friends who encouraged me and provided me with positive feedback when I needed it.

- The NGOs who gladly allowed their social workers to participate in this study.

- My family, who believed in me and encouraged me when I lost hope for finishing this study.

- Lastly to my son Lathi, thank you for being patient with me. Love you so much.
ABSTRACT

Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) played a vital role in the history of the welfare sector in South Africa and are working alongside the government sector to combat social ills. The role of the NGO sector is to ensure the provision of a comprehensive network of social development services that enable and empower the poor, the vulnerable, and those with special needs. The ongoing financial shortages from NGOs were a growing concern for all the stakeholders in the welfare sector. The goal of this study was therefore to explore and describe the challenges in implementing project planning in the NGO sector.

This study followed a qualitative research approach and used exploratory and descriptive research designs. Participants were purposely selected from the various NGOs in the Overberg Municipality. The data collection took place in focus group discussions and individual interviews with the aid of an interview guide. Data was analysed according to the eight steps of Tesch (in Creswell, 2003). Findings were verified according to Guba’s (1981) model of trustworthiness based on the criteria identified in Krefting (1991). The findings that were generated during the research study indicated that challenges for implementing project planning in the NGO sector had an impact on their service delivery. An enabling factor for implementing project planning and the writing of business plans was the fact that training in project management assisted project managers to market their services and permitted supervisors to fulfil different roles. The second theme that emerged from the study was disenabling factors or problems facing the planning and writing of the business plan. It demonstrated a lack of knowledge among social workers who lacked those skills and coordination and planning amongst NGO in the same area. The implementation of a basket of services influenced project outcomes, lack of resources and infrastructure for implementation of projects. The third theme that emerged from the study was stakeholders’ influence in
project implementation and the influence on efficient and effective project outcomes. It included social work goals versus client goals, the relationship between the board members of the NGOs and social workers, the relationship between the Department of Social Development and social workers in the NGO sector, and relationships between the social workers and their supervisors. Recommendations included short- and long-term recommendations. It was concluded that NGOs experience challenges with regard to implementation of project planning.
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<td>CBO</td>
<td>Community Based Organisation</td>
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<td>DSD</td>
<td>Department of Social Development</td>
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<td>FBO</td>
<td>Faith Based Organisation</td>
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<td>ISDM</td>
<td>Integrated Service Delivery Model</td>
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<td>MRC</td>
<td>Medical Research Council</td>
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<td>NPO</td>
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<td>SANGOCO</td>
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Project management has, over the past years, moved from a project management process to a business process. This means that organisations are adapting their management styles to ensure that projects result in sustainable results. Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) often make use of projects to attain service delivery goals, and therefore have to make use of special management techniques with the purpose of “obtaining better control and use of existing resources” (Kerzner, 2009:23-28). The purpose of this research was to explore and describe the challenges of implementing project planning in the NGO sector. This introductory chapter outlines the background and the rationale for the study. Furthermore, the problem statement, the aim and objectives, and the significance of the study, are presented. The key concepts will be discussed and a summary of the chapters will be presented.

1.2. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Managers of organisation in general will be facing increasingly complex challenges during the next decade for such reasons as financial limitations, staff turn-over, and pressures from stakeholders (Kerzner, 2009:1). France (2009.ix) adds to this description of challenges for the management of projects that working practices, relationships (including the development of effective networks), Information Technology (IT) and a new understanding of the organisation’s purpose add to the need to evaluate current project management practices.

In line with the above description of current-day challenges for project management, Spierenburg and Wels (2006:80) maintain that South African development NGOs find themselves in a dynamic external environment. During the pre-1990 period, two kinds of
development organisations evolved, namely progressive or activist organisations that opposed Government and its policies, and social welfare organisations that received state funding and supported the apartheid objectives (or took a political stance, careful not to actively oppose Government). The activist and non-political development NGOs were set up to provide basic services to poor, non-white communities, and bridge the gaps in state–funded welfare provision. Until 1990, the liberation movement was banned, and activist NGOs risked being shut down because they often played an active role in the anti-apartheid struggle.

Women’s organisations in particular played an active role in the broader national democratic struggle. Initially, national unity was given priority over gender equality, and the struggle for gender equality was initially subsumed under the wide political goal of democratising the state. The emphasis on resistance and challenge as well as the reactive stance that many NGOs adopted had important consequences for the internal functioning and the organisational culture of activist NGOs. Lombard (2008) extends this description by noting that there was growth in black community-based organisations during the 1980s as the struggle against apartheid intensified. These NGOs outside the established or formal welfare organisations gained prominence during this time. Most of them also received foreign funding and attempted to address the needs of the neglected black majority. They served as a conduit for external funding from those working to dismantle apartheid.

With the advent of democracy in 1994, the activist NGO sector was bound to exert a huge influence on future policies and practices in the welfare and development arenas. The South African National Non-Governmental Organisations’ Coalition (SANGOCO) emerged in 1995 to coordinate NGOs’ input into government policy and to ensure that the rich traditions of civil society, forged in the resistance to apartheid, continued to serve the people of South Africa. While SANGOCO represents a very broad base of NGOs, another body representing
the interests of NGOs more narrowly defined, as its name implies, was the National Welfare, Social Service and Development Forum (NWSSDF). The funding of non-governmental or not-for-profit organisations changed with the introduction of the State Lottery. Today NGOs have to apply to the National Lotteries Board for grants, and the NWSSDF sometimes serves as a partnership vehicle for such applications.

The changes in the South African context over the past 20 years add to the problems of project management mentioned earlier. The focus of this study is therefore on project management within the NGO sector in the current South African context.

1.3. RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

NGOs continue to play a vital role in South African local communities and they render an essential service on behalf of the government. The role of the NGO sector is to ensure the provision of a comprehensive network of social development services that enables and empowers the poor, the vulnerable, and those with special needs. The Department of Social Development is authorised by the National Treasury to budget and to provide funding to NGOs to render different welfare services to different target groups in the respective communities. The concept of a partnership between Government and NGOs, and addressing the needs of the poor, the vulnerable, and those with special needs, depends on social networks and effective relationships between individuals, groups, and communities (Patel, 2009:242).

Farooq (2012:13) considers opposition and cooperation as two dynamics that could influence these networks and relationships. Opposition is associated with competition and conflict which direct social interactions, while cooperation refers to accommodation, which supports the development of conducive social interactions (Farooq, 2012:13). The degree to which government and the state, the business sector, and civil society (including the NGOs) become
involved and collaborate, therefore affects the way in which social issues will be dealt with. From this viewpoint, partnerships between the mentioned role-players will lead to a fair distribution of resources, knowledge, skills and responsibilities (Handmaker & Berkhout, 2010:ii, National Planning Commission, 2011:14). The mentioned networks and relationships form part of the management of organisations and projects. In this regard, Kerzner (2009:30) points out that project management must be designed in such a way that organisations will make better use of existing resources, and the way in which a project is managed will determine the long-term outcome of service delivery.

The key questions that this research seeks to answer relate to challenges for implementing project planning in the NGO sector, as well as the way the interactions (i.e. relationships) between the state and NGOs reinforce each other to improve service delivery. This investigation was demarcated to the welfare sector of the Overberg district of the Western Cape Province, bearing in mind that the state is funding these NGOs and expects them to render different services, while funding posts and not specific projects. The state is not interested in how the NGOs render these services, because it is concerned with the target outputs stated in the agreement between state and NGOs. This research study attempts to determine the problems of the NGOs regarding meeting the target outputs stipulated by the sponsor/funder.

1.4. RESEARCH QUESTION

Considering the discussion of the rationale of the present study, the research was based on the following research question:

What are the challenges for implementing project planning in the NGO sector in the Overberg?
1.5. AIM AND OBJECTIVES

In order to answer the research question, the aim of the study was to explore and describe the challenges for implementing project planning in the NGO sector. In order to achieve this aim, the researcher identified the following objective:

- To explore and describe the challenges of the NGO sector with regard to the implementation of project planning in the welfare sector.

1.6. RESEARCH APPROACH

This study followed the qualitative approach. De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2011:64) state that qualitative research is used to answer questions about the complex nature of phenomena, with the purpose of describing the phenomena from the participants’ point of view. Creswell (2009:65) explains that “qualitative researchers tend to collect data in the field where participants experience the issue or problem under study”. This study was interested in the participants’ point of view regarding the challenges of implementing project planning in the NGO sector, and therefore a qualitative research approach was seen as applicable.

1.7. RESEARCH DESIGN

De Vaus (2001:16) states that a “research design refers to the structure of an inquiry”. In order to structure the current research study, explorative and descriptive research designs were used to explore and describe the challenges of implementing project planning in the NGO sector.

Blaike (2000) postulates that explorative design is conducted to gain an understanding of a situation. The need for such a study arises out of lack of knowledge or insufficient literature regarding the topic. Neuman & Benz (2000) also alludes to the fact that exploratory research
may be the first in a series of other studies, because it answers the ‘what’ question and opens the space to ask the ‘why, how and when’ questions at a later stage. De Vos et al. (2011:96) describe the *descriptive research design* as a framework to develop a picture of the specific details of a situation, social setting or relationship, and focuses on the ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions.

This design relates to this study, as it provided a framework from which the researcher could firstly explore the challenges of implementing project planning in the NGO sector by asking ‘why, how and when’ questions. Secondly, it assisted the researcher in describing the difficulties of implementing project planning in the NGO sector in terms of ‘why’ and ‘how’.

**1.8. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The researcher provides a broad layout of the research methodology used in this study. The details of the research design, research approach and methodology will be unpacked in Chapter 3.

**1.8.1. Population and sampling**

According to De Vos et al. (2011:223) a ‘population’ in a research study is the totality of persons, events, organisation units, case records or other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned. A ‘sample’ on the other hand is a small representative portion of population.

The population for this study was identified as all project managers in NGOs and supervisors and/or budget holders, as well as social workers working in the welfare sector (NGOs) in the Overberg Municipality, Western Cape Province (Grabouw, Villiersdorp, Genadendal, Caledon, Hermanus, Stanford, Gansbaai, Swellendam, Napier and Bredasdorp).
The sample was obtained by the identification of criteria that would ensure that data was obtained from those who were best suited to answer the research question. Purposive sampling was used to select two project managers of NGOs for individual interviews or until data saturation took place. Social workers were selected for four focus groups with 6-12 members each or until data saturation was observed. The following criteria were used for selection:

- Office Managers and/or project managers who had been working for NGOs for more than two years.
- Social workers working as project managers and supervisors and/or budget holders who were able to communicate in English because the researcher was Xhosa-speaking and was not able to converse in Afrikaans.

### 1.8.2. Data collection

Two methods of data collection were used for this study, namely focus group interviews and individual interviews with the aid of an interview guide. Semi-structured interviews for individual interviews and focus groups enabled the researcher to focus on the full picture of the participants’ experiences or insights into the particular topic (De Vos et al., 2011).

De Vos et al. (2011:351-361) also mention that the purpose of the focus group “is to promote self-disclosure among participants”. The authors also explain that focus groups are useful when multiple viewpoints or responses are needed on a specific topic. Focus groups are used as a self-contained method in studies in which they serve as a principal source of data. In terms of the individual interviews, the researcher obtained individual stories within the participants’ personal experiences and contexts (Creswell, 2006:56).
The researcher used semi-structured interviews in order to gain a detailed picture of participants’ beliefs about, or perceptions or accounts of, the research question. In addition, questions were open-ended to allow participants to fully explore the meaning they attributed to the research question (Marlow, 2011:164). The research guide is attached in Appendix 1. During individual interviews the researcher made sure that “participants were comfortable and guided them instead of dictating to them” (De Vos et al., 2011:353). The researcher prepared for the interviews by studying the questions before the interview, to be able to concentrate during the interview. Prior to the interviews, the researcher conducted a pilot study to establish whether the questions in the interview guide were relevant to answer the research question and to ensure that the participants were able to answer the questions (De Vos et al., 2011:395). The pilot study indicated that the interview schedule would indeed enable the researcher to obtain relevant data.

The researcher scheduled an appointment to meet the participants and gave them details about the topic. They were also provided with a copy of the interview guide. The researcher informed the participants about the aim of the study and the fact that their participation was voluntary and they had the right to withdraw at any time. Permission to audio-record the interviews was also requested. The researcher conducted the interviews at a central place such as an office at the respective welfare organisations. The researcher took field notes during the interviews to avoid any loss of data (De Vos et al., 2011:359).

1.8.3. Data analysis

The researcher made use of Tesch’s (1980) eight steps to analyse the qualitative data, as provided in Creswell (2009:186). These steps were as follows:

- Get a sense of the whole. Following the interviews, the data was transcribed. The researcher then read through the transcripts and got a sense of what was said.
• The researcher selected one transcript to start with and went through the transcripts one at a time. She wrote down thoughts that came to the fore while reading,

• The researcher then made a list of these thoughts. Based on this list she identified common themes and put them together. The common themes were arranged into major topics, unique topics and leftovers.

• The researcher then returned to the data. She related each theme and topic into codes and used different highlighters to identify the themes and topics in the text. New topics were identified and included.

• The researcher found the most descriptive wording for the topics under each theme and turned them into sub-themes and categories.

• The researcher made a final decision on which themes, sub-themes and categories to include.

• She then placed all the verbatim responses under the relevant themes, sub-themes and categories.

• Finally the researcher recoded the existing data.

1.8.4. Trustworthiness

Creswell (2003) concludes that data verification is a distinct strength of qualitative research as the time spent in the field, the closeness to participants, and the detailed description of the findings all contribute to the value of the study. Data verification furthermore emphasises qualitative research as a distinct, legitimate mode of research inquiry.

1.8.4.1. Truth value

According to Lincoln & Guba (1985) cited in Krefting (1991:215) ‘truth value’ assesses whether the researcher has established confidence in the truth of the findings of the subject or
participants, as well as the context in which the study was undertaken. It establishes how confident the researcher is with the truth of the findings based on the research design, participants, and context. Krefting (1991:216) cites Sandelowski who suggested that when human experiences are described and interpreted in such a way that others who share the experiences may immediately identify with the descriptions, the qualitative study is credible. Truth value may be determined using the strategy of credibility, which can be established by, for example, prolonged and varied field experience, triangulation, reflexivity, peer examination, interview techniques and establishing the authority of the researcher (Krefting, 1991:216). To ensure that the subject was accurately identified and described, the researcher maintained credibility of the inquiry by making use of various interviewing techniques such as paraphrasing, probing, focusing, clarifying and summarising. Triangulation was also employed as the researcher made use of different sources of data (i.e. office managers and social workers) and different methods of data collection (i.e. individual interviews and focus groups).

1.8.4.2. Applicability

Krefting (1991:216) refers to this term as the degree to which the findings can be applied to other contexts and settings or with other groups. It is the ability to generalise findings to larger populations, therefore emphasising the importance of the sampling technique. However, the strength of the qualitative method is that it is conducted in naturalistic settings with few controlling variables. Each situation is defined as unique and therefore is less amenable to generalisation. The researcher ensured that she used diverse participants to gain a broader knowledge of different challenges for implementing project planning in the welfare sector (i.e. triangulation) as well as the purposive sampling technique to address the issue of applicability in this study.
1.8.4.3. **Consistency**

Field and Morse cited in Krefting (1991:216) consider the consistency of the data as whether the findings will be consistent if the enquiry is replicated with the same subjects or in a similar context. The key to qualitative research is to learn from the informants rather than a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. Qualitative research looks at the range of experience rather than the average experience; therefore it is important to include typical or non-normative situations in the findings. To prove consistency in this study, the researcher used the same interview schedule, research approach and methodology in the different organisations that dealt with implementing project planning in an NGO sector. An independent coder was also used to enhance consistency.

1.8.4.4. **Neutrality**

Krefting (1991:216) asserts that the fourth criterion of trustworthiness in qualitative research is neutrality. It refers to addressing bias in the research procedures and results. ‘Neutrality’ refers to the degree in which the research findings are reflecting the experiences and perceptions of the participants and not those of the researcher. Auditing by an independent coder ensured neutrality in this study. The researcher maintained neutrality by ensuring that the manner in which data was collected, transcribed and then analysed, resulted in findings which were a true reflection of the experiences and perceptions of the participants.

1.9. **ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Bickman & Rog (1998:127) state that the ethics of social research are about “creating a mutually respectful, win-win relationship in which participants are pleased to respond
candidly, valid results are obtained and the community considers the conclusions constructive”.

This research study was conducted in a professional and structured manner, and ethical considerations were adhered to. De Vos et al. (2011) emphasise that the researcher has an ethical obligation to protect participants from any form of harm during the research process while Creswell (2003:64) concludes that every participant’s participation should be voluntary, and no coercion will be used to obtain involvement. The participants who took part in this study were informed that they had a right to withdraw at any stage of the study without any consequences. The participants who were individually interviewed were requested to sign a consent form, while those who took part in the focus group discussions signed a confidentiality binding form. The privacy and confidentiality of the participants was ensured by changing their true identities and the organisations where they were working, by providing pseudo names. Participants were also made aware of the nature and aims of the study before the interviews took place. They were asked for permission to audio-record the interviews in order to capture the data.

Approval to conduct the anticipated research was acquired from the University of the Western Cape’s Senate Higher Degrees, as well as the Directors of the respective NGOs that took part in the study.

1.10. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

It was envisaged that the findings of this study would contribute to identify challenges experienced by the welfare NGO sector in the Overberg area with regard to project planning. By identifying challenges, some guidelines might be developed to assist both the NGO sector and government, as the funder, to address these challenges effectively.
1.11. DEFINITION AND DESCRIPTIONS OF KEY CONCEPTS AND TERMS

**Social welfare system:** The White Paper on Social Welfare (1997:15) defines social welfare as “a united and complete system of social services, facilities, programmes and social security to support social development, social justice and fairness as well as social functioning of people”.

**Welfare sector:** Non-government Organisations (NGOs), and the Department of Social Development (DSD) have a responsibility to meet the needs of all citizens, but particularly vulnerable and at-risk groups. The welfare sector provides services in partnership with government in often parallel fields such as child and family care, substance abuse and offender care (DSD, Integrated Service Delivery Model: 2004).

**Project:** a planned activity or sets of activities designed to achieve certain specific objectives within a given budget and within a specified period of time (DSD, Provincial Government Policy on Funding of NGO for Rendering of Social Welfare Service: 2011).

**Project management,** in the context of the welfare sector, refers to managing the process of meeting the requirements and time frames of the sponsor in order to complete the project.

**Partnership:** A cooperative effort between government, civil society, and the business sector to deliver services (DSD, Integrated Service Delivery Model: 2004).

**NGO:** The Non-Profit Organisation Act, (No. 71 of 1997) defines an NGO as “a trust, company or other association of persons established for a public purpose and the income and property of which is not distributed to its members or office bearers except as reasonable compensations for service rendered”.


The social developmental approach: uniquely integrates economic and social objectives. It not only recognises the critical importance of economic and social development in raising the client system’s standards of living, but actively seeks to harness economic development for social goals (DSD, Integrated Service Delivery Model: 2004).

1.12. OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 provides a general introduction and the background of the research study. The researcher also discusses the rationale of the study, the research question, aim and objectives, research approach and designs. The population, sampling method, data collection and method of data analysis, as well as method of data verification were explored in the research methodology section. Ethical considerations and definitions of key concepts concluded the first chapter.

Chapter 2 focuses on the literature relating to this study. Both local and global studies will form part of this segment, and a summary will cover the historical background of the welfare sector, professional service, priority groups in the welfare sector, and different role players in the welfare sector. Lastly challenges of project planning in the welfare sector, as described in the literature, will be provided.

Chapter 3 describes research designs and methods and defines the qualitative research approach. This chapter also describes in detail how the research methodology was implemented, including selecting the population, sampling, selection and recruitment of participants, techniques employed by the researcher to collect data, and data analysis.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study by means of the demographic data of the respective participants, as well as the themes and sub-themes that emerged from the study, together with a literature control.
Chapter 5 presents the findings and recommendations, the limitations experienced in this study, and the conclusion based on the findings.

1.13. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presents an outline of the study, the qualitative research methodology, and the methods related to population and sampling; data collection and data verification are introduced to the reader. The ethical considerations relevant to the study are also discussed and the key concepts are described in terms of definitions. Lastly the format of the thesis is presented to the reader. The next chapter will present the literature that was reviewed in relation to the field of study, and the theoretical framework of the research study will be provided.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The literature review presented in this chapter focuses on the history of the social welfare sector in South Africa (SA), and a specific discussion on the components of the welfare sector. This is complemented by a description of levels of intervention as well as social security. The role players in the welfare sectors will be discussed, followed by a description of project planning within the welfare sector. This information serves as a backdrop to the qualitative data obtained in this study.

2.2. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE WELFARE SECTOR

The history of the welfare sector in South Africa should be viewed through the specific influence that the apartheid era had on this sector. Nicholas, Rautenbach & Maistry (2010:7) discuss this aspect and explain that social welfare during apartheid in South Africa (1948-94) was characterised by inequality and unfairness among certain groups. The apartheid ruling regime (The National Party) introduced definitive policies aimed at allocating resources and infrastructural development to a minority group. This was also true regarding allocation of services and resources in the welfare sector (Brown & Neku, 2005:303). One such policy was the implementation of the Population Registration Act, No. 70 of 1950 which classified the South African population into four racial categories: namely African, Coloured, Indian, and White. This policy had a negative impact on the way in which welfare services were provided to the different racial groups, hence some groups benefitted more than others (Patel, 2007:70). For instance, welfare services provided were different in terms of the number of services for each racial group. The white population group had access to more social services
than the other population groups (Letsebe, 1997:75). The disparity between the different races was also demonstrated through the establishment of separate government welfare services according to each race. As such, the social welfare approach during this period was the residual model.

The residual approach in social work service delivery was followed until 1994. This approach identifies two natural systems through which people meet their needs, namely the capitalist economy market and the system consisting of individuals and their families. As for the state, welfare provision took on the form of short-term emergency aid, aiming at assisting affected people during a crisis. When the crisis was over, the individuals and families were expected to resume responsibility for their own needs (Nicholas et al., 2010:51). It is therefore concluded that the residual approach advocates the individual’s responsibility for his or her own welfare with limited input by the state (Nicholas et al., 2010:7).

At the inception of democratic rule in 1994, the ruling party abolished the residual approach. This approach was viewed as not effective in addressing poverty, as well as the needs of the vulnerable. One of the platforms adopted to address the inequality associated with the residual approach was the introduction of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), which aimed to provide a better life for all citizens. The RDP focused on some crucial basic services such as free education, provision of water, electricity and housing. The RDP objectives were to alleviate poverty and to build the economy of the country. In order to accomplish these objectives the state needed to promote economic development in collaboration with economic reconstruction and social development. Throughout its first year, a number of programmes were introduced, such as healthcare services for children and mothers, meals at schools, housing, roads maintenance, clean water and electricity in every household. In 1997, the RDP Ministry noticed that not all the objectives of the RDP had been
reached, as the level of unemployment remained high and most people in SA still did not have access to basic services. It was against this background that the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) was drafted in 1995, with inputs from a wide range of stakeholders and communities.

2.2.1. Social development approach

The roots of the social development approach can be traced to developing countries. Many newly independent countries developed national plans in the 1960s to construct their societies after years of colonialism (Midgley, 1995). However, several factors such as a vast backlog of needs, weak states, political instability, corruption, a lack of human resources, capacity building and the end of the oil crisis of the 1970 impacted negatively on these states’ ability to develop equitably after dependence (Nicholas et al., 2010:52).

In South Africa, the White Paper for Social Welfare was introduced as the basis for change and the development of a more equitable people-centred, democratic and appropriate social welfare system for South Africa that would address the needs of the masses (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997). Social development was the approach identified in this White Paper to alleviate poverty and to address the needs of the vulnerable. The developmental approach in South Africa focuses on poverty alleviation and imbalances in society. Consequently, the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) confirmed the post-1994 government’s commitment to secure basic welfare services to all citizens and to improve economic growth.

Social development is an approach that links social and economic development based on principles such as self-help, self-determination and active participation in service rendering (Boshoff, 2013:2). The United Nations (2011:2) adopted a broad definition of social development, namely: “concerned with processes of change that lead to improvements in human well-being, social relations and social institutions, and that are equitable, sustainable,
and compatible with principles of democratic governance and social justice”. Social development also specifically aims to alleviate poverty.

The link between social development and community development is that democratic governments aim to maximise social-economic development through partnerships and social development policies (Geoghegan & Powell, 2006:845). Community development assists the state to move from a ‘needs-satisfying’ state to a ‘facilitating’ state. Community development may therefore be viewed as a method of implementing social development.

Hart (2012:55-56) notes that in the developmental approach to social welfare, partnerships between the state and stakeholders, role-players and communities, focus on empowerment and participation strategies to attain sustainable and collective change, inclusion, and equality (Hart, 2012:55-56). In a developmental welfare model, the emphasis therefore shifts away from a residential approach (Jamieson, 2013:5). This model is based on the following characteristics:

- **Rights-based approach**: The emphasis is on support to families and on prevention. In the developmental framework, this should be read as a participation-driven process where service providers and families are responsible for prevention and support. The right to obtain support and preventative services is also linked to the responsibility to participate. Development is based on the willingness to take ownership of a situation and to join hands to find solutions (Weyers, 2011:154).

- **Economic development and social development**: The social development approach aims to fight poverty among individuals and communities by creating opportunities for economic development. The need to include different spheres of society to assist with economic empowerment is highlighted in this approach.
• **Democracy and participation:** Community involvement is needed to create sustainable change in society. The focus on providers-and-beneficiaries of services in the previous dispensation created a platform for dependency that inhibited growth (Harvey & Lind, 2005:19). Therefore community involvement should be viewed within the framework of stimulating growth towards independent living.

• **Social development partnerships:** Different roles by government, NGOs, informal and commercial sectors should be clarified and included in community development strategies (Jamieson, 2013:7).

The Framework for Social Welfare Services (2011), based on the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997), states that the South African developmental approach to social welfare evolves from the country’s unique history of inequality and human rights violations based on colonialism and apartheid. In the South African context, this approach emphasises that human agency and social action are required in order to change the aforementioned conditions. As a result, a new social welfare policy was developed to focus on transformation, human emancipation, reconciliation, reconstruction, and development of all members in the South African society.

**2.3. THE WELFARE SECTOR**

A clear distinction should be made between the terms ‘social welfare’ and ‘social development’. ‘Social welfare’ refers broadly to the programmes, benefits and services that are offered by religious, voluntary, non-governmental and governmental organisations to individuals, groups and communities. Activities/actions of community/social development are directed at social, economic, education and health development in a country, and should
therefore be viewed as one part of social welfare services (Green, 2012:30; Patel, 2005:18-19).

Collautt (2005:27) states that ‘social welfare’ is often understood as governmental provision of economic assistance to persons in need. In a broader application, social welfare may mean the provision of a wide range of social services for the benefit of individual citizens. On the other hand, Patel (2005:19) defines social welfare as “a nation’s system of programs, benefits, and services that help people to meet those social, economic, education, and health needs which are fundamental to the maintenance of society” (Zastrow, 2009:5). It could therefore be inferred that the welfare sector is a platform designed to meet the needs of society and to manage and address social problems such as unemployment, substance abuse and poverty.

Patel (2005) maintains that the welfare sector has to enrich social functioning and human capacities in any society. The goal of the social welfare system in South Africa is to facilitate the provision of appropriate social welfare services to all South African citizens, especially the most vulnerable living in poverty, as well as people with special needs. These services include rehabilitative, preventative, developmental and protective services and facilities, and social security (including social relief programmes, social care programmes and the enhancement of social functioning).

2.3.1. Professional service

The Framework for Social Welfare Services (2011) states that social welfare services are rendered in a variety of contexts by a spectrum of practitioners such as social workers, social auxiliary workers, community development assistants, probation officers, assistant probation officers, and child and youth care workers. Specific occupational groups focus their services either on a specific target group or a specific service. These occupational groups complement
each other and provide an integrated and holistic service to enhance the beneficiaries’
capacity to function optimally as they interact with their environment. From this description it
is clear that strong teamwork depends on all practitioners understanding their role and
contribution related to their specific field of expertise or experience. It therefore is a
prerequisite that each occupational group must define their role, responsibility, and scope of
work in relation and complementary to the other occupational groups, to avoid duplication
and to enhance teamwork.

Services may focus on a total population in a specific community or only specific target
groups in the community. The community can be described according to the geographic
location or a specific confined space such as a hospital, a residential facility, a workplace, or
a correctional facility. Services may also address all the needs of people in the community or
a specific focus area. The specific description of a community, target group or focus area
determines which of the collaborative partners should be involved in service delivery. This
will also determine the spectrum of practitioners who will be involved in such an activity.

The Integrated Service Delivery Model (ISDM, 2004) emphasises that social welfare services
should focus on meeting the needs of individuals, families, communities and other social
groups, and building on their strengths. The core services rendered by the social welfare
sector have been grouped into five broad categories, namely promotion and prevention
services, rehabilitation services, protection services, continuing care services, and mental
health and addiction services.
2.3.1.1. *Promotion and prevention services*

Promotion and prevention programmes and services aim to enhance the process by which people are provided with ways and means of taking greater control of factors that affect their well-being. These are anticipatory actions to reduce the likelihood of undesirable conditions. Prevention services take into account individual, environmental and societal factors that contribute to problem development. Promotion and prevention services work towards the upliftment of all people and communities by promoting their well-being, encouraging people to make healthy choices, and supporting them in these choices, such as awareness campaigns and workshops on parenting skills, so that people can make healthy decisions regarding their lives (The Framework for Social Welfare Services, 2011).

2.3.1.2. *Protection services*

The Framework for Social Welfare Services (2011) declares that protection services aim to safeguard the well-being of individuals and families. Protection services are usually provided in the context of legislative and/or policy frameworks, and include statutory services such as removing children from their homes and placing them in foster care. The provision of these statutory services thus empowers designated people or institutions to take specific actions that are deemed necessary to protect the integrity and well-being of the person in the social context of the family and the community. Protective services work towards having families, children and individuals living in a safe and nurturing environment where their rights are promoted and their well-being is ensured.

2.3.1.3. *Rehabilitation services*

Rehabilitation services are focused on improving and maintaining the social functioning of clients whose functioning was impaired as a result of injury, disability, or chronic medical
conditions. In addition to improving the quality of life of a person, rehabilitation services are an effective way of reducing the demands on families and public-funded support systems. Services are provided in a wide range of settings including the home, service agencies, and residential facilities. The vision for rehabilitation services is to enable clients to maximise their functional abilities, minimise the impact of their impairment, and maintain a healthy independent lifestyle (The Framework for Social Welfare Services, 2011).

2.3.1.4. Continuing care services

The Framework for Social Welfare Services (2011) explains that continuing care services are those that maintain or improve the physical, social and psychological well-being of individuals who for various reasons are not able to care totally for themselves. The goal of continuing care is to improve independence and quality of life. However, continuing care requires a progressive and flexible system that allows people to access all the services that they need. Therefore these services work towards meeting needs in the least intrusive manner possible while providing the greatest opportunity for lasting well-being and functional independence.

2.3.1.5. Mental health and addiction services

These services focus on the area of mental health, addiction, and family violence through prevention, treatment, and aftercare. It is structured as an integrated programme to enable the recipients to receive the care and support needed to live optimal lives. These services work towards assisting people to live balanced lives by promoting, protecting and restoring their mental well-being (The Framework for Social Welfare Services, 2011).

Based on the types of services described in this section, the Department of Social Development implemented the Integrated Service Delivery Model (ISDM) which places the
focus on different levels of intervention. NGO sectors also structure their services according to this model.

2.4. LEVELS OF INTERVENTION

The Framework for Social Welfare Services (2011) and ISDM (2004) are similar in that they are based on the assumption that, in order to improve social functioning or increase quality of life, services are rendered at different levels with a specific outcome in mind.

2.4.1. Prevention

This level of service delivery focuses on strengthening and capacity building, self-reliance and resilience of service beneficiaries, while addressing individual, environmental and societal factors to create conditions that enhance or support wellness. Services are focused on preventing developmental needs from developing into social problems or risks.

2.4.2. Early intervention

Services delivered at this level focus on early identification of risks, behaviour, and symptoms in individuals, groups and communities that could affect social well-being. They are aimed at limiting the impact of the risk and preventing the development or progression of social problems. Interventions are aimed at facilitating change in individual, environmental and societal factors that could negatively affect wellness. They include preventative services as described in the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) and secondary prevention which focuses on early detection of symptoms to prevent regression.

2.4.3. Statutory/residential and alternative care

At this level beneficiaries’ quality of life or social functioning is compromised. It could require some form of statutory intervention, for example that the service beneficiary needs to
be moved from the most empowering to the most restrictive environment if they are no longer able to function adequately in the community. This type of movement or relocation may involve partial or total removal from the normal place of living and functioning to an alternative place such as a residential facility or foster care as result of a court order or on the recommendation of a service provider. This level of services includes protection services, which aim to safeguard the wellbeing of service beneficiaries.

2.4.4. Reunification and aftercare

The goal of this level of service delivery is to enable service beneficiaries to regain self-reliance and optimal social functioning in the least restrictive environment possible. It facilitates reintegration into family and community life after a prolonged separation. It also refers to the building of optimal self-reliance and social functioning after residential care in a chronic situation.

These service levels are rendered to different groups such as children, women, older persons, families, people with disabilities, and people affected by HIV/AIDS.

2.5. PRIORITY GROUPS IN THE WELFARE SECTOR

The priority groups for the welfare sector are children, women, and persons with disability, families, older persons, and people affected by HIV/AIDS. The mandate of the welfare sector is to render a service to vulnerable groups as stated in the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) and ISDM (2004).

2.5.1. Children

Children, as a vulnerable group, have a right to nutrition and basic health care service as stipulated in the South Africa constitution (New and Cochran, 2008). The Children’s Act,
(No. 38 of 2005) defines a child as a person under the age of 18 years. In addition, children who are 18 but suffer abuse or neglect, or who are orphaned or abandoned are included in this category. The aforementioned Act also addresses other issues such as children who are in conflict with the law and children living in other difficult circumstances such as forced child labour or prostitution.

Bennet (2004) states that many children are neglected by their parents in South Africa because of the cost of bringing up children which is high compared to the household income. In most cases, it becomes more difficult for extended family members to assist with children’s upbringing. Hofmeyer (2012) provides a description of this situation, and declares that “more than 43% of children in South Africa live in poverty.” The impact of poverty on these children is, among others, that some end up coming into conflict with the law in an attempt to support their families. Liebenberg (2010:229) adds that children growing up in poverty are particularly vulnerable and disadvantaged in a range of areas. For instance, malnutrition in early childhood not only threatens a child’s survival, but has direct effects on its future health, as well as on physical and mental development. Another source of concern is that a number of children in South Africa are growing up in a child-headed household without adult care as a result of the HIV/AIDS epidemic in South Africa. Children are threatened by the HIV/AIDS pandemic, they become stigmatised, and it affects their self-esteem (New and Cochran, 2008)

According to the Medical Research Council Report (MRC, 2010), South Africa has the highest incidences of child rape in the world. Statistics show that one in six of all reported chronic sexual abuse cases is a girl under the age of 12 years. Furthermore, in South Africa it is estimated that one in ten male adults has been sexually abused by other men. The consequences of sexual abuse of boys and girls can be severe and may include Post
Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) symptoms, depression, suicidal notions and attempts, and inappropriate sexualised behaviour. Child sexual abuse is a major international concern and has a profound impact on the physical and mental health of its victims, with both immediate, and long-term consequences (WHO, 2002). Unfortunately, children are most at risk of being assaulted by a person known to them (Makoae, Portillo, Uys, Dlamini, Greeff, Chirwa, 2009; Townsend & Dawes, 2004). South Africa has one of the highest rates of rape in the world, with approximately 65,000 rapes and other sexual assaults being reported for the year ending in March 2012, which represents 127.6 for every 100,000 people. The statistics of children becoming victims of rape are 42% for 2005/2006, 32.7% for 2006/2007, and 44.4% for 2007/2008. The statistics for indecent assault against children are even higher: 48.2% for 2005/2006, 48.2% for 2006/2007 and 52% for 2007/2008.

2.5.2. Families

Hitchcock, Schubert and Thomas (2003) define a family as a group of two or more persons related by birth, marriage, or adoption’ residing together in a household. However, Hitchcock et al. (2003) provide another definition, stating that a family is a self-identified group of two or more individuals whose association is characterised by special terms, who may or may not be related by bloodlines or law, but who function in such a way that they consider themselves to be a family.

The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) notes that families have been particularly affected by the social, economic and political policies of the past, in the inequitable distribution of resources and changes in traditional roles of women and men. This policy document also notes that the well-being of children depends on the ability of families to function effectively.
Patel (2005) stresses that especially single-parent families and child-headed households are vulnerable to HIV/AIDS. The vulnerability of children is because they need to grow in secure and nurturing environments that can ensure their survival, development, protection and participation in family and social life. However, some families are living in unsafe and disadvantaged communities without basic needs like housing, sanitation and recreational facilities (The White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997).

2.5.3. Women

As mentioned under the topic of children as a vulnerable group, sexual violence against women and girl children is a problem of epidemic proportions in South Africa (Human Rights Watch, 2009). Another challenge which highlights the vulnerability of women is that a woman in South Africa experiences widespread gender-based violence including high rape rate and domestic violence. One of the serious associated challenges is HIV/AIDS, with more women than men being infected and dying of AIDS (Human Rights Watch, 2009).

Both the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) and the ISDM (2004) indicate that women who are victims of violence are either poor or unemployed, with vulnerability being higher among black women in rural areas. Linking women and poverty, Goldman and Hatch (2000) state that inequality in the job market, including outright exclusion of women from the formal economy, has forced women into prostitution.

2.5.4. Older persons

The Older Persons Act (No. 13 of 2006) defines an older person as a person who, in the case of a male, is 65 years of age or older, and in the case of a female, is 60 years of age or older.

In 2013, the national government earmarked a budget of R95.9 billion. Of this amount, R95.2 billion was dedicated to social security grants for children, the elderly and disabled people,
with R2.65 million set aside as grants for older people. The latest statistics indicate that the number of older people who are receiving the social security grant is 2,930,177 (South African Social Security Agency [SASSA], 2013).

However, the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) points out that the current description of the aged in South Africa does not take demographic realities into account, because the white population is significantly older than the rest of the population. Demographic projections indicate that over the next 20 years the proportion of elderly people in the population will increase, and the population of older persons will reach 3.4 million by 2015. The estimated percentages of persons aged 80 years and over are also increasing. As a result, persons older than 80 years of age are particularly vulnerable.

Maharag (2013) observes that most elders in South Africa have to share their old age pension with their unemployed children and the rest of the family. This does not mean that they must not look for additional income to sustain their households. Most elders play the role of caregivers because their children have passed away because of AIDS (Lombard and Kruger, 2009:132). Lloyd-Sherlock (2010) have found that older people are concerned about high levels of unemployment, crime and violence, and they become afraid in their homes. According to Townsend and Gordon (2002), poor health and fragility are two main factors that increase the vulnerability of older people. As a result of their weakness they become victims of abuse, crime and violence. Reports from service providers show that the worst form of abuse facing older people is domestic abuse, including physical and emotional assault. Older people experience deep pain when their own children or grandchildren become their worst abusers. For instance, a focus group with older persons in KwaZulu-Natal indicated that a key factor contributing to their poverty and vulnerability was the treatment they received from their families (Townsend & Gordon, 2002). Some felt their families only
pretended to love them when they received their pensions, but kicked them out of the house as soon as the money was spent.

One of the ways to avoid exposing the elderly to this abuse is to put them in residential facilities for older people, such as old age homes. This is an emergency and temporary placement for older persons who needed to be removed by social workers and the South African Police Services, as described in the Older Persons Act (No. 13 of 2006). The Department of Social Development subsidises the old age homes, community-based care and support services such as service centres, clubs and home-based care for elderly who need assistance like cleaning their homes, and taking care of them during the day, and giving them medication. Independent and assisted living requires the provision of affordable safe and accessible accommodation in the community to active older persons, who are fully independent with or without assistive devices and who do not need assistance regarding their daily living activities. The assisted living concept is for older person who need some form of supervision and assistance regarding their activities of daily living (Older Persons Act (No.13 of 2006).

2.5.5. People with disabilities

According to Statistics South Africa (Statistics SA, 2012) 1 019 022 people were identified with sight or hearing disabilities, as well as being physically disabled and mentally impaired. In other words, 4.3% of the South African population suffers from some form of disability.

According to Patel (2005:174), “disability refers to a physical or mental impairment that limits that person’s capacity to perform one or more major life activities”. According to Grobler, Warnich, Carrel, Elbert & Hatfield (2006), there are several types of disability, which include hearing or sight, limited mobility, and mental or emotional deficiencies.
Rimmerman (2013) notes that disabled people are classified as potential beneficiaries of government social assistance programmes, because the disability directly relates to their economic status and they are often classified as poor. Vulnerability of people with disabilities is enhanced by the high rate of unemployment among them, as reported in the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997). People with disabilities frequently cannot access public facilities, because these facilities are not disability-friendly (Patel, 2005).

2.5.6. Services to people affected by HIV/AIDS

According to Patel (2005) the HIV/AIDS pandemic was affecting the world. According to Pearce (2008), cited in Juma & Klot (2011:30), the HIV pandemic in South Africa increased immensely from 2006 to 2011. Abdool-Karim & Adool-Karim (2010) stated that AIDS was first reported in South Africa around 1983. South Africa responded slowly to this AIDS epidemic, especially in the beginning. The pandemic escalated dramatically since 1992, but not much was done by either the apartheid government, neither the new dispensation to intervene in the expansion of HIV/AIDS.

Nash, Munford & O’Donoghue (2005) pointed out that youngsters who experience the loss of a loved one through AIDS often had to cope not only with being orphaned but also with multiple deaths in the family. Often youngsters dropped out of school to look after their sick or surviving relatives while others might leave school to work, sometimes as sole providers for a family. These children did not receive the needed care, support, nurturing and guidance from concerned adults and were often left to cope with their diversities and loss on their own, according to these authors.

Rohleder, Kalichman, Swartz and Simbayi (2009:282) observed that prevention and intervention of HIV infections could be encouraged in clinical care or in community support services. Ideally, a comprehensive approach to prevention would start with post-test
counselling and referral services for people who tested HIV positive. Thereafter, a continuum of integrated supportive and clinical services as prevention mechanism could be sustained for the duration of an individual’s HIV disease.

2.6. SOCIAL SECURITY

Social security is a matter of social assistance and social relief of distress. The International Labour Office (1989:29) defines social security as “the protection which society provides for its members through a series of public measures against the economic and social distress that otherwise would be caused by the stoppage or substantial reduction of earning resulting from sickness, maternity, employment injury, unemployment, invalidity, old age and death; the provision of medical care; and the provision of subsidies for families with children”.

South African policies related to social welfare are based on the developmental approach, as discussed in the previous section. It entails an integrated and comprehensive system on macro level that includes social services, facilities, programmes and social security. The aim is to promote social development, justice and functioning of all South Africans through empowerment and participation as two key principles (White Paper on Social Welfare, 1997). The right to sustainable human (and community) development is furthermore protected in the Bill of Rights (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996: Chapter 2). The Bill of Rights supports the values of human dignity, equality, and freedom. Section 27 specifically discusses the right of South African citizens to health care, food, water, and social security.

Social Security in South Africa covers “a wide range of public and private measures that provide cash or in-kind benefits in the event of an individual’s earning power permanently ceasing, being interrupted, never developing, or being exercised only at unaccepted social costs and when such person was unable to avoid poverty and in order to maintain children” (Patel, 2005:124). The domain of social security includes poverty prevention, poverty

The mandate of the South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) is to ensure the provision of comprehensive social security services against vulnerability and poverty within the constitutional and legislative framework, and creating and enabling environment for sustainable development. Other functions include delivery of integrated, sustainable and quality services in partnership with stakeholders to build a caring society. Social Relief of Distress (SRD) is a temporary grant of assistance intended for someone in such need that they are unable to meet their or their most basic needs. In order to qualify for SRD, the applicant must comply with one or more of the following conditions:

- The applicant is awaiting permanent aid.
- The applicant has been found medically unfit to undertake remunerative work for a period of less than six months.
- The breadwinner is deceased and insufficient means are available.
- The applicant has been affected by a disaster, and the specific area has not yet been declared a disaster area.
- The applicant has appealed against the suspension of his/her grant.
- The person is not a member of a household that has already received social assistance.
- The person is not receiving assistance from any other organisation.
- SRD is issued monthly or for any other period for a maximum period of three months (SASSA, 2013).

During 2012, statistics from SASSA showed that the number of social grants allocated to beneficiaries in South Africa was 16,051,701 (SASSA, 2013), thus a significant proportion of the population.
2.7. NGOS AS ROLE PLAYERS IN THE WELFARE SECTOR

The Non-Profit Organisation Act (No. 71 of 1997) provides the following description of an NGO: “A trust, company or other association of persons established for a public purpose and the income and property of which is not distributed to its members or office bearers except as reasonable compensations for services rendered”. Russell, Swilling & Habib (2002) provide a more comprehensive list of the structural criteria for defining an NGO and asserts that NGOs must be organised with specific formulated goals, structures and activities. Although NGOs are private organisations, they can receive funding from the government but must remain or exist as separate entities from government. They are non–profit organisations, which means that all the profit made must be ploughed back into the basic mission of the organisation, and not be distributed amongst its members or directors. An NGO membership must therefore be voluntary and without compensation. NGOs in SA are guided by the Non-Profit Organisation Act as amended, (No. 17 of 2000). This amended Act provides NGOs with clear guidelines to which they must adhere.

In 2013, it was reported that South Africa had approximately 100 000 registered NPOs and roughly 50 000 unregistered ones (NGO Pulse, 2013). These organisations are diverse and represent the diversity of the South African society (Mueller-Hirth, 2010). Patel (2005) explains that, apart from the diversity of the South African society, the nature of NGOs in the country was determined by the history of inequality, segregation, and oppression. Weisbrod (1986) affirmed long ago that “Non-profit provision of collective goods will be large in societies with high levels of inequality in individuals’ effective demand for collective goods or high degrees of religious or ethnic heterogeneity.” Some examples of services rendered by NGOs to complement the work by the Department of Social Development are the following:
The Community-based organisations focus on early childhood development (ECD), which would include training of the ECD practitioners,

- Information dissemination to the community about basic services,
- Social housing targeted at providing shelter for destitute people,
- Reintegration of people back into communities and developing skills such as baking, sewing and carpentry,
- Social cohesion which would target schools and facilitate youth camps focusing on life skills,
- Skills development which would focus on the conducting of Adult Basic Literacy and Training (ABED) literacy programmes in rural areas with the aim to decrease illiteracy in the country by 2020,
- Community and home-based care, which would specifically deal with the HIV/AIDS pandemic, create awareness and prevention, promote collaboration between organisations that deal with social issues, and lobby for support of programmes and treatment (DSD, 2005:53).

Government acknowledges the important role of NGOs to ensure that all South Africans have access to services. The Integrated Service Delivery Model for Developmental Social Development (DSD, 2004:53) emphasises that the role of NGOs in the South African welfare sector is to work alongside the government to render both generic and specialised services to the public. NGOs are equally important in identifying service needs in the realm of social welfare, and have to set their own priorities accordingly to these needs. NGOs are also required to take an active part in lobbying and advocating on the behalf of their client systems. It is important that NGOs should conduct research with the aim of better understanding their clients and thereby strengthen their ‘partnership’ role with Department of
Social Development. The mentioned acknowledgement of the value of NGOs becomes evident when one acknowledges that the budget of the Department of Social Development (DSD) for funding NGOs raised over the past years; from R767 million in 2012 to R872 million in 2013 and to R964 million for the 2014/2015 financial year (DSD, 2005:53).

Although government is funding these organisations, NGOs are required to effectively market themselves in the form of creating adequate awareness, as well as taking part in fundraising activities with the purpose of rendering services to the public (DSD, 2005:53). The Western Cape Provincial Government also encourages NGOs to raise funds to supplement subsidies and funding received by the Department of Social Development. This provincial body encourages NGOs to register as NPOs. For this to occur, NGOs need formalised constitutions, funding documents, and a memorandum of how assets and funding are being monitored (Western Cape Provincial Government, 2014).

2.7.1. Challenges experienced by the NGOs in the welfare sector

A lack of funding, infrastructure and transport which often results in poor salaries, a shortage of social service practitioners and building needs are only some of the challenges faced by NGOs, as described in the literature.

2.7.1.1. Funding of NGOs

Davids, Nkomo, Mfecane, Skinner & Ratele (2006) agree that the key challenge faced by NGOs/CBOs is inadequate economic support. In most cases, the assistance offered by the Department of

Social Development to NGOs is inadequate to meet their needs, thus leaving most NGOs to function without adequate tools to offer full delivery of their services. For example, most
NGOs do not even have access to telephones, faxes and computers; as a result they have to ask other nearby government offices to use their resources. Spierenburg and Wels (2006) share the same sentiments that obtaining and retaining subsidy remains a problem for NGO managers. Financial and administrative management becomes even more important as a result of the funding challenges. NGOs need to organise resources and to develop long-term fundraising strategies in order to guarantee their existence. The previous author also notes that specific financial and project management knowledge and skills are needed in the NGO sector, and that in many instances, leaders lack skills to interpret finances, as well as other management and monitoring skills.

In addition, according to the Global Report on Human Settlement (2003) rivalry among NGOs and CBOs is growing as they compete for government grants and contracts. This is likely to decrease NGO unity and collaboration, and might possibly demoralise the political authority of NGOs to resist or to influence government. On the other hand, the report highlights that one of the biggest challenges is to make civil society organisations accountable for how financial support was used and regarding sustainable change that was achieved through service delivery.

2.7.1.2. Salaries of social workers

It is a general knowledge that globally, social work is one of the lowest paid professions (Earl, 2008). In the case of South Africa, the Department of Social Development introduced the Recruitment and Retention Strategy (RRS) by re-grading the salaries of social workers in the Department. It was also extended to NGOs (DSD, 2004b). However, there is still significant disparity between remuneration packages of social workers working for the government and NGOs, including benefits such as medical aid, pension, and housing allowances (Govender, 2007). Social workers who work for NGOs earn less than their
counterparts in the government sector and often have to forfeit any benefits. This disparity in salary packages has led to a mass exodus of social workers from NGOs, to work at the Department of Social Development to obtain better remuneration packages (Davids et al., 2006). Apart from a high staff turnover, it also affects the continuity of service delivery at NGOs. It becomes difficult for NGOs to retain volunteers since they cannot offer stipends or some kind of compensation for supportive services offered by the government sector.

2.7.1.3. Shortage of social service practitioners

Staff shortages in critical posts in the welfare sector remain an international and national problem. Powell and Hendricks (2009:305) comment that there is a shortage of social service practitioners in South Africa in general, which can mainly be attributed to growing social ills such as poverty, unemployment, crime, HIV/AIDS, substance abuse, and domestic violence. In 2008, social work was declared a scarce skill in South Africa (Giese, 2008) in order to address this notion. Disparities between the working conditions and salaries of social workers working in the government sector (especially those who are working for the Department of Social Development) and those working in NGOs, also contribute to an even bigger shortage of social service practitioners (including social workers, social auxiliary workers, and child and youth care workers) in the NGO sector (Taylor, 2011). In 2004, it was found that 2 634 social workers were employed by various NGOs in the 9 provinces, while 263 were employed in the Western Cape. In total 6 655 social workers were employed by the Department of Social Development across the 9 provinces of South Africa. The mentioned Recruitment and Retention Strategy by the Department of Social Development resulted in the recruitment of students to study social work through bursaries, as well as adjusting salaries and working conditions (DSD, 2004b).
2.7.1.4. Capacity building

Loffell (2008) observes that although NGOs are performing state functions or supporting the work of the Department of Social Development, few of them have correct service level agreements with the government, and many of them are still struggling to access subsidies. Similarly, other donors to NGOs have increasingly strict demands for measurable outputs and sustainability. Therefore the need to develop the capacity of NGOs could also contribute to the ability to obtain non-government support (Da Silva Wells, 2000).

In terms of capacity building as part of organisational development, Barnard (2008) notes that NGOs’ leaders face unexpected challenges which are very different from those faced by their counterparts in government. Leaders in the NGO sector often function in isolation from each other and without support of the Department of Social Development as representative of the Government. Furthermore they are facing complex and interrelated challenges such as their social change mission, increased pressure for accountability and transparency, the need for unquestioned integrity and to maximise their limited resources. They also lack the ability to network and position their organisations in an uncertain and ever changing political environment.

Dutschke (2008:40) are of the opinion that in order for NGOs to continue to support the mission of the Department of Social Development, their capacity should be developed by means of sustainable funding by government. NGOs who are providing social services on behalf of the government, therefore deserve recognition, development and sustainable support for their contribution to the welfare sector in SA.
2.7.1.5. Transport

Providing services in isolated and remote areas can be a huge task for NGOs. Davids et al., (2006) aver that availability of transport for Non-Profit Organisations to extend their services to towns where it is needed, remains a problem. Apart from making services available, board members are unable to attend meetings because of transport costs in rural areas. The authors maintain that working in rural areas is more expensive than in urban areas.

Rural communities are characterised by homes, businesses and services that are situated far from each other, and they also have to deal with various difficulties such as limited services. Access to transport by NGOs could address the issue of accessibility (National Geographic Education, 2013). In terms of the vulnerable groups discussed earlier, this aspect is also highlighted in the National Youth Policy (2009:17) where it is stated that “interventions should specifically address the situation of young people in rural areas in respect of access to services and creation of opportunities.”

In terms of rural areas, services in rural communities are described as inadequate comparing to urban areas (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997:71-72). In 2011, the Draft Reviewed Framework for Developmental Social Welfare Services (DSD, 2011:32-33) placed the emphasis on youth as a vulnerable group. It was proposed that interventions “individuals should be family focused and community based in line with family preservation and fostering relations with the broader community,” describing the need to assist NGOs with transport to reach vulnerable groups in rural areas.

2.7.2. Role of Department of Social Development (DSD) regarding NGOs

The DSD has a constitutional mandate to provide services for all the different stakeholders in the welfare sector, and also to build the institutional capacity of NGOs, local community-
based organisations (CBOs) and faith-based organisations (FBOs) (ISDM, 2004). In addition, the DSD introduced food vouchers to families classified as ‘undue hardship’ status. This placed the emphasis on the partnership with NGOs, CBOs, FBOs and all the relevant stakeholders in an effort to alleviate poverty by introducing food security such as soup kitchens. The DSD is also responsible to ensure that policies and regulations of the non-profit organisations are implemented correctly, since it has a mandate to fund non-profit organisation that render social welfare services (Non-Profit Act as Amended, No. 17 of 2000).

2.7.2.1. Challenges of DSD

Officials in the DSD, however, have difficulty in understanding developmental social welfare and how to implement this concept in practice (Streak and Poggenpoel, 2005). The mentioned shortage of staff and the high turnover of social workers to implement programmes in the NGO sector are causing growing concern for social development in South Africa. In addition, as mentioned before, there is also insufficient infrastructure to roll out services to rural areas. A further challenge is that NGOs on the one hand sometimes submit application forms for funding late and on the other hand late payments of funding from DSD to NGOs often result in delays in service delivery (Streak and Poggenpoel, 2005). The aim of the Financing Policy for Developmental Social Welfare Services (FPDSWS, 1999) is to meet government agendas to address and eliminate the imbalances in service delivery to SA citizens. This policy focuses primarily on organisations that were previously excluded from receiving financial assistance. The need for partnerships between government departments and NGOs in the welfare sector points to the reality that government alone cannot deliver welfare services in South Africa and are to a large extend dependent on NGO’s.
2.7.2.2. Funding of priority areas by DSD

The overall budget of the South African government shows that the social welfare budget and expenditure are the third largest expenditure after health and education (Triegaardt, 2002), and the social development portion has systematically been squeezed out as increases in the total budget allocation have not kept pace with the rapid expansion of social security spending. The DSD’s total budget allocation for the 2013/2014 financial year was R1 578 billion, while the total budget allocation for the financial year 2014/15 amounts to R1 756 billion. The budget allocation for social welfare services varies between R570 million and R616 million. Based on the Annual Performance Plan of the DSD and the service delivery gaps, it is important every year to look at the priority areas for funding. DSD funds the NGOs by using The National Policy on Financial Awards to Service Providers (NPFASP) (2004:20). As such, funding is currently based on the following criteria:

- **Seed funding**: When the organisation is in the early stages of development it does not qualify for financing; for instance, organisations waiting for an NPO certificate can be considered for this form of start-up funding.

- **Capital financing**: This type of financing may be considered when the organisation wants to buy furniture, equipment and needs money for the maintenance of buildings, and it complies with legislative requirements in terms of ownership.

- **Venture financing**: This is a once-off type of financing for projects that need a start and then become self-sustainable.

- **Partial financing**: This type of financing applies in instances where only part of a broader service is approved for financing, like funding one certain programme in the business proposal.
• **Shared financing:** This financing occurs when different funders decide to jointly fund a service or to fund different parts of a comprehensive service. In this type of funding, DSD funds an organisation for statutory work, and the other funder funds, for instance, awareness and early intervention programmes.

• **Long-term contractual financing:** This method applies to services that operate over a longer period of time and have long-term objectives whose achievement is reliant on financing from the DSD for typical ongoing, recurrent day-to-day operational costs. Financing is continued for as long as the service remains a priority area, and compliance with contractual conditions is confirmed (NPFASP, 2004).

In addition to the NPFASP (2004), the Western Cape Provincial Government Policy on Funding of NGOs for the Rendering of Social Welfare Services (2011:10) in the Western Cape Province uses the following methods in more detail:

• The unit-cost funding method will, where possible, be utilised for the funding of residential and non-residential services.

• The post-funding method will where possible, be utilised to determine funding allocation specifically for community based social welfare programmes (e.g. statutory services).

**2.8. PROJECT PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT IN THE WELFARE SECTOR**

Social work and social care organisations are often required to improve performance with fewer resources (Evans, Hills & Orme, 2012). The organisations are required to be productive and efficient, and to respond to an ever-changing environment. For this reason, project management becomes an important function of social work managers and of social work in general. De Beer (2013:3) explains that a ‘project’ in social welfare sectors refers to “a temporary and one-time endeavour undertaken to create a unique outcome or service, which
brings about beneficial change or added value”. Project management thus entails the application of knowledge, skills, tools and techniques to project activities, to meet project requirements, and organising and managing resources so that the project is completed within defined scope, quality, and time and cost constraints (De Beer, 2013:5).

The Public Service Commission (2007:4) specifically focuses on project planning and management in social development, and proposes the following five-step process:

- Decide what needs to be done. In other words, decide what are the key performance areas and objectives.
- Design measures to assess performance under each key performance area.
- Assign responsibility to a specific person(s) for each key performance area. Make sure resources are allocated, and authority delegated, commensurate with the responsibility conferred.
- Measure performance and give feedback.
- Review performance, preferably in a formal setting, and make the necessary adjustments to plans and processes.

With specific focus on social work services, the Public Service Commission (2007:14-17) proposes the following six steps to guide project planning and management:

**Step 1:** Define each package of service that is offered.

**Step 2:** Cost each package of service.

**Step 3:** Track (count, keep record of) the quantity of services actually delivered.

**Step 4:** Measure the quality of the services delivered.
Step 5: Track the outcomes of the social work interventions.

Step 6: Collect and describe case studies of what works best to achieve intended outcomes.

Both the processes proposed by the Public Service Commission (2007) highlight the importance of monitoring and evaluation as part of project planning and management. In addition, the Department of Social Development Monitoring and Evaluation Manual (2009:10) points to monitoring as a continuing managerial function. The aim of monitoring is to provide managers, decision makers and main stakeholders with regular feedback and early indications of progress in achieving intended results. It involves collecting and analysing data regarding the implementation of objectives, and gives the opportunity to recommend corrective measures. This managerial function requires specific skills, and relates to the mentioned need for capacity building (Fritz-Krockow & Ramlogan, 2007:116).

De Beer (2013:7) also places the emphasis on the importance of monitoring and controlling in project management. This forms an integral part of the project management process as a whole. The previous author provides the following diagram (Figure 2.1) to illustrate the different aspects of project management.

Figure 2.1: Monitoring and controlling as part of the project management cycle
The importance of capacity building in NGOs in order to manage projects effectively, is also accentuated. In this regard, De Beer (2013:23) proposes the following competencies needed for project planning and management:

- Ability to inspire trust and confidence,
- Ability to keep abreast of all project-related developments,
- Communication skills,
- Interpersonal skills,
- Ability to promote empowerment,
- Ability to identify and manage risks, and
- Ability to mentor and guide.

Spolander & Martin (2012:101) also note that a project manager needs to have certain abilities, such as decision-making skills, skills to manage risks, and the ability to manage political issues that may arise while busy with the project. The project manager must also be able to interact with stakeholders in the area. The writers recommend that “a stakeholder’s analysis is a popular project management technique and a useful exercise to help you as the project manager to understand the range and intensity of influence that different stakeholders have at the beginning of the process of engagement.”

2.8.1 Challenges for implementing project planning

Harris, Roussel, Walters & Dearman (2011, 89-90) propose that there are many possible implementation challenges for a project, such as:

- Access to funding and resources,
- Networking and collaboration between stakeholders,
• Different expectations from different funders,
• Lack of leadership,
• Not appointing a skilled project manager,
• Organisational resistance to change, and
• The lack of human resources (Paulinus and Skosana, 2009:86).

2.9. CONCLUSION

Chapter 2 provided a detailed literature review regarding social welfare in the SA context, the
social development approach, and the respective roles of NGOs and the Department of Social
Development. The specific challenges related to NGOs and the Department of Social
Development were also discussed, as well as the role and function of project planning in the
welfare sector. The next chapter deals with the methodology that was implemented to assist
the researcher to reach the goal and objectives and to answer the research question that was
planned at the beginning of the research study.
CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The current chapter unpacks the research methodology which was used in the execution of the study. The research approach, design and methodology that were implemented during the study will be discussed in detail. The population of the study, sampling methods, method of data collection and data analysis are also presented.

- This research aimed to explore and describe the challenges of implementing project planning in the NGO sector in the service delivery of Overberg District.
- In order to achieve this aim, the researcher formulated the following objective: To explore and describe the challenges of the NGO sector with regard to the implementation of project planning in the welfare sector.

3.2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Kothari (2004:8) explains that research methodology is a way to systematically solve a research problem. Jonker & Pennink (2010, 14) add to this description and refer to research methodology as the processes that the researcher follows to answer a research question or to solve a research problem. The term ‘research methodology’ therefore refers to the science of the way research is done scientifically. It includes all those methods and techniques that were used during the implementation of this research study.

3.2.1. Research approach

According to Hennick, Hutter & Bailey (2011:8) qualitative research is a comprehensive term that covers an extensive range of methods and philosophies, so it was not easy to define. In
broad terms, qualitative research is an approach that allows a researcher to examine people’s experience in detail, by using a specific set of methods such as in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, observations, content analysis, visual methods, and life histories or biographies. De Vos et al. (2011:307) describe qualitative research as concerned with understanding rather than explanation; naturalistic observation rather controlled measurement; and with subjective exploration of reality from the perspective of an insider as opposed to that of an outsider predominant in the quantitative paradigm.

Qualitative research allows the researcher to identify concerns from the perspectives of participants in a study and to understand the meaning and interpretations that they give to behaviour, events or objects. Kumar (2005:12) states that a qualitative approach is characterised as unstructured, because it allows flexibility in all the aspects of research process. Creswell (2007:37-39) by describing the characteristics of qualitative research, indicated that it is naturalistic, can draw on multiple methods that respect the humanity of participants in a study, and focuses on context. Qualitative research is emergent and evolving and fundamentally interpretative. All potential participants in the current study were drawn from Non-Government Welfare Organisations in the Overberg Region. The focus group meetings, as well as the individual interviews took place at the respective organisations’ offices, thus using a familiar environment in the context with which participants were familiar. The qualitative approach was used in the following way in this research study:

- The researcher used focus groups and individual interviews as the methods of data collection.
- The researcher was guided by an interview schedule which allowed the participants to freely share their experiences and perspectives. Interview techniques and communication skills were implemented in order to generate rich data (De Vos et al., 2011).
• The study was fundamentally interpretative. The researcher tried to gain understanding and to interpret how social workers and project managers experienced the challenges of implementing project planning in the NGO sector.

Yin (2011:7) states that qualitative research involves studying the meaning of people’s lives, under real-world conditions. Hatch (2010:6) shares the sentiment, and explains that this approach seeks to understand the world from the perspectives of those living in it. Based on this description, the qualitative research method was viewed as best suited for this research study, because an effort was made to understand a phenomenon from the point of view of the people involved. It also focused on the process of interaction between the researcher and the participants in an effort to gain insight from the findings.

3.2.2. Research design

Research designs are chosen based on the identification and formulation of the problem and research question or hypothesis (Mooi & Sarstedt, 2011:9). In the present study, the researcher identified and formulated the research question as: What are the challenges for implementing project planning in the NGO sector in Overberg? This question led to the formulation of the aim to explore and describe the challenges of implementing project planning in the NGO sector in the service delivery of Overberg District. This question guided the researcher’s choice to make use of explorative and descriptive research designs in developing a plan or structure to obtain access to participants and to gather and analyse data in an effort to answer the question (Brockopp & Hastings-Tolsma, 2003:326).

3.2.2.1. Explorative research design

In the social welfare context, the explorative research design has been used to discover a problem or situation, therefore it can help organisations to formulate their problems precisely
(Mooi & Serstedt, 2011:14). Paneerslvam (2004:6) states that this design may be used as preliminary research to explore situations where little information is known.

In the current study, the explorative research design was used to explore the challenges of implementing project planning in the NGO sector in service delivery in the Overberg District. The exploration assisted the researcher to “gain insight into a situation, phenomenon, community or individual” (Wiles, Pain and Crow, 2010:34).

3.2.2.2. Descriptive research design

A descriptive design is similar to an explorative design, but the focus is specifically on providing an accurate description of the phenomenon being investigated. De Vaus (2001:2) explains that descriptive research studies are concerned with describing the characteristics of a particular individual, or of a group, while Bhaltacharyya (2006:141) concurs that the design provides a framework from which the researcher can obtain data to describe the phenomena under study. Gravetter and Forzano (2011:364) explain that this design assists the researcher to address the question of “what was happening”.

3.2.3. Population and sampling

Cunningham, Weathington and Pittenger (2013:51) state that a population in social research is “a group of people or things that share one or more characteristics”. Elaborating further, Sagaard (2010:54) indicates that a precise definition of a target population is essentially done in terms of ‘elements’, sampling and ‘sampling frames’.

In the present study, the researcher identified the population to ensure that it possessed the features that would allow for the most valid data to achieve the aim of the current study. The population was identified as the following:
• All project managers at NGOs,
• Supervisors and/or budget holders and social workers working in the welfare sector, and (NGOs) in the Overberg Municipality, Western Cape Province (Grabouw, Villiersdorp, Genadendal, Caledon, Hermanus, Stanford, Gansbaai, Swellendam, Napier and Bredasdorp).

Once the population was identified, the researcher continued to draw a sample. Sampling is the process of selection of participants from the population who will take part in a research study (Monette, Sullivan and De Jong, 2010:131). The researcher made use of the non-probability sampling method. Gravetter and Forzano (2011:118) say that this sampling method is characterised by the fact that the odds of selecting a particular individual is not known, because the researcher does not know the population size for the study when it begins. The researcher chose the purposive sampling technique to draw the sample for this study. Creswell (2009:125) explains that this technique is relevant for qualitative research where participants and sites are selected to purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem.

In this study, the researcher used the purposive sampling technique and made use of her own judgement regarding participants who were best suited to answer the research question. The researcher identified the criteria for inclusion into this research study as follows:

• Office managers who had been working for NGOs for more than two years,
• Social workers working as project managers and supervisors and/or budget holders who were able to communicate in English as the researcher was Xhosa speaking and was not able to converse in Afrikaans.
The sample size for this research study was not determined before the start of the investigation, and was determined by data saturation. This meant that the researcher continued with data collection until she was sure that no new information was coming forward (Gravetter and Forzano, 2011:118). In this study data saturation was detected after two individual interviews with office managers and after four focus groups with social workers.

3.2.4. Data collection

Qualitative research relies on four methods of data gathering, namely:

- Participant observation,
- Observation,
- In-depth interviewing (individual interviews or focus groups),

The data-gathering method selected for this research was focus groups with social workers and individual interviews with project managers, because the researcher believed that diverse perceptions could be explored and rich data could be collected by means of more than one method of data collection.

3.2.4.1. The focus group method of data collection

Focus groups, according to Hatch (2010:131), are appropriate when using the explorative research design as in the case of the present research study. A focus group can be defined as a “discussion that gathers together people from similar backgrounds or experiences to discuss a specific topic of interest to the researcher” (Fischer, 2011:315). The following steps were taken during the focus group data collection process:
The advantage of focus groups

- The advantage of focus groups is that they are flexible systems of data collection that leave the participants free to elaborate on their answers and to construct meaning as they wish (Monette et al., 2010: 246). This was considered ideal since the focus group sessions took place at the offices of the organisation where the social workers were employed. Another advantage of focus groups was that it enabled the researcher to generate complex information at a low cost in the shortest time (Kroll, Barbour & Harris, 2007:691).

The disadvantage of focus groups

- The researcher took note of the possible disadvantages of focus groups when preparing for these groups. The following were considered: The researcher had less control over the group interview, which could result in lost time while dead-end issues were discussed, and it could be difficult to analyse the data when multiple responses had to be transcribed (Hatch, 2010:131). One way of managing these possible disadvantages was that the researcher continuously reminded the participants of the purpose of the group interview. She also made audio recordings and field notes to ensure that data was not lost.

Smith (2005:80) explains that a researcher facilitates focus group discussions, and that the interview guide serves as an aid to ensure that data relates to the research topic and question. In the present case, the researcher used the interview guide to ensure that the participants had the opportunity to fully explore the questions and that they were able to tell their stories (De Vos et al., 2011:343). This guide assisted the researcher to develop a structure for the discussion in order to keep the focus on the research topic (Willis, 2008:206). The interview guide covered the following questions:
1) What kind of programmes does your organisation render?

2) What challenges do you experience in writing a business plan?

3) What were your challenges in implementing project planning?

4) Tell me about your relationship with DSD with regard to implementing project planning.

5) How does the current funding process impact on your organisation’s funding?

6) Can you make recommendations to improve project planning in the welfare sector?

The following **phases** of focus group interviews, as proposed by Willig (2013:34) guided the researcher:

1) Selection and recruitment of participants,

2) Making a decision regarding the size of the focus groups,

3) Designing the interview guide for the focus groups,

4) Determining the number of groups required,

5) Selecting the interview location, and

6) Conducting the focus group interviews.

The researcher **contacted** the managers of the organisations from the population of this study telephonically and invitation letters were sent to all who agreed to participate and to allow the researcher to speak to the social workers. Three NGOs agreed to participate in the study, but the Department of Social Development did not agree to participate. While the researcher initially wanted to also obtain insight from the perspectives of managers and social workers working at DSD, this was not possible. Letters introducing the researcher and outlining the research were emailed to the three organisations who agreed to participate. This was followed by telephonic contact and emails to ensure that the relevant persons received the letters.
Before commencing with the focus groups, the researcher did a **pilot study** to ensure that the interview guide was sufficient to obtain data to answer the research question. Yin (2011:37) suggests that pilot studies aid the researcher to test and refine one or more features of a final study such as its design, fieldwork procedures, data collection method, the interview guide or analysis plans. In this case, the pilot study provided the researcher with an opportunity to practise. The pilot group showed that the participants had a problem with the language because they were Afrikaans speakers. The researcher then simplified the questions in the interview guide so that the participants could understand the questions.

Four focus groups of 3-5 participants were conducted with social workers working as project managers and supervisors and/or budget holders. The reasons for the small **group size** was that in the Overberg district there were only a limited number of social workers per organisation who were situated in a rural area. Holloway and Wheeler (2013:128-129) note that the number in a focus group depends on the need of the researcher and the demands of the topic. They envisioned hosting four focus group sessions with each group, but to be led by data saturation. In the present study, the researcher terminated the sessions after four focus group interviews as data saturation was obtained.

One way to **prepare** for the focus group interviews was to ensure that the location did not pose a threat, and that it was comfortable for the participants. Quimby (2012: 121) states that the researcher needs to check physical conditions and the arrangement of the interviewing room. The present researcher took special care of the seating arrangements to ensure that all the participants faced each other.

The researcher also spent time to prepare herself and the participants for the focus groups by means of a **pre-interview discussion**. Leavy (2011:39-41) advises that pre-interviews can
open up space for mutual building of trust. The researcher introduced herself and explained the following:

1) All the names would remain anonymous.
2) There would be no remuneration.
3) The researcher would be using audio equipment, and asked if there were any objections.
4) The findings would be published.
5) If at any time they felt uncomfortable they could leave the group.
6) Participation was voluntary.

Participants had no questions or objections and agreed to sign the informed consent forms. The researcher then asked them to introduce themselves and state their portfolio.

The researcher started the interviews with a pre-interview discussion and introductory comments, and then started with the interviews with the first question to encourage the participants to share their perspectives and experiences (Zikmund, Babin, Griffen & Carr, & 2012:154). Interviewing techniques were used to ensure that rich data would be obtained. During the interviews, the researcher asked for clarification when she was not sure about the meaning of a response. She also made use of probing, to ensure that the topic was fully explored. Before concluding the focus group interviews, the researcher made use of summaries and paraphrases to ensure that the participants agreed that her understanding was correct (Smith, 2005:80; De Vos et al., 2011:345).

Rubin and Babbie (2010:470) emphasise that the recording of the exact responses of participants in qualitative research is of great importance. A tape recorder was therefore a powerful tool for the focus group interviews in this study. Thomas, Nelson and Silverman
(2011:359) also mention that “other recording devices include notebooks, narrative field logs, and diaries, in which researchers record their reactions, concerns and speculations”. During the focus group interviews the researcher took field notes and jotted down important issues that were discussed. The audio recordings, together with the field notes, were then transcribed verbatim after the interviews.

3.2.4.2. The individual interview as a method of data collection

Data from the office managers was collected by means of two individual interviews from two of the three participating organisations. The third organisation’s office manager position was vacant at the time when data collection took place.

Based on the explorative and descriptive research designs, the researcher employed individual semi-structured interviews in order to gain a detailed picture of each participant’s beliefs, perceptions, or accounts of the research topic. The participants were viewed as experts sharing and introducing their stories to the researcher. The researcher had a set of predetermined questions and an interview schedule, where the interview guided her rather than being dictated by the schedule. Questions were open-ended to allow participants to fully explore the meaning they attributed to the question (Marlow, 2011:164).

The value of the semi-structured type of interview was that the researcher could ensure that the focus of the discussion remained on the research topic and the research problem. In addition, it provided enough scope for further elaboration and expansion to ensure richness of data that related to the goal of this research study, namely to explore the participants’ experiences, in order to obtain a deeper understanding of their social reality (Gill and Stewart, 2008:293).
The researcher started the interviews with casual conversation to put the participants at ease. She then again explained the purpose of the interview with the participants and placed emphasis on the fact that they could withdraw from the interviews at any time (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2010:182). Once the researcher was sure that the participant was comfortable, she started the interview.

The researcher used an office of the project manager to conduct the interview as it was a comfortable and conducive environment. She introduced herself and explained the following:

- That all the names would remain anonymous,
- That there would be no remuneration,
- That the researcher would be using audio equipment, and asked if there were any objections,
- That the findings would be published,
- That if at any time they felt uncomfortable they could withdraw from the interview, and
- That participation was voluntary.

Informed consent forms were completed and the researcher then proceeded to collect the data. The interview guide for managers at NGOs were as follows:

- What challenges do you and your organisation experience in writing a business plan?
- To what extent did your training prepare you to implement project planning?
- What challenges do you experience in implementing project planning?
- Tell me about your relationship with DSD with regard to implementing project planning?
- What plans did your organisation have in order to address the challenges?
- How does the current funding process impact on your organisation’s funding?
• Can you make recommendations in order to improve project planning in the welfare sector?

The researcher made use of the same interviewing techniques and method of data recording as with the focus groups discussed earlier.

3.2.5. Method of data analysis

Pinneger and Hamilton (2009:148) describe qualitative data analysis as a method of breaking something down with a desire to make sense of it. Schwandt (2007) goes further and explains that the researcher has to then reconstruct the data, so as to answer the research question from the participants’ point of view.

The researcher therefore used the transcripts and then broke the data down to be able to develop a better understanding of the participants’ descriptions of the challenges of implementing project planning in the NGO sector in the service delivery of Overberg District. She made use of the framework for qualitative data analyses by means of eight steps as proposed by Tesch in Creswell (2009:186). These steps and their implementation were discussed and described in Chapter 1. They assisted the researcher to identify themes, sub-themes and categories that described the participants’ experiences and perspectives regarding the challenges of implementing project planning in the NGO sector in the service delivery of Overberg District.

After the researcher had completed this process of data analysis, copies of the transcripts were given to an independent coder as well to the supervisor. A consensus meeting was set up with the independent coder and the supervisor to discuss and compare themes, sub-themes and categories, and a final decision was made on how the data would be presented. The data was further compared and contrasted with a literature control.
3.3. TRUSTWORTHINESS

Guba’s (1981) model for the trustworthiness of qualitative data (in Krefting, 1991:214-222) was used as a framework to ensure the validity of a qualitative research study. Based on the latter model, the criteria that were used in this present research study were: Truth value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality. The implementation of the criteria is illustrated in the table below.

Table 3.1: Data verification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method of trustworthiness</th>
<th>Strategy that was followed</th>
<th>Implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Truth value</td>
<td>The level of confidence in the truth of the findings, based on the research design, participants and the context in which the study was undertaken will determine the truth value of the study (Krefting, 1991:215).</td>
<td>• The researcher implemented this strategy of data verification by using the interview techniques described in this chapter to determine the truth value of the study. • Triangulation of sources (i.e. office managers and social workers) and methods of data collection (i.e. focus groups and individual interviews were used to ensure the truth value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applicability</td>
<td>Guba, (1981) (in Krefting, 1991:216) refers to applicability as the degree to which the findings of the research study were applicable to other contexts or groups.</td>
<td>• Triangulation of sources and methods of data collection contributed to the applicability of the study. • The purposive sampling technique also supported the effort to ensure applicability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency</td>
<td>Guba, (1981) (in Krefting, 1991:216) refer to consistency as “whether the findings would be consistent if the inquiry were replicated with the same subjects or in a similar context”.</td>
<td>• The same methods and techniques were employed throughout the implementation of the study to ensure consistency. • The researcher implemented this strategy of data verification by using the coding system that entails the qualitative data is coded to assist the researcher to identify themes and sub-themes. • The same coding system was implemented by the independent coder, which further ensured the consistency of the findings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutrality</td>
<td>Guba (1881) (in Krefting,</td>
<td>• The researcher transcribed the</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1991:216-217) states that neutrality in qualitative research should reflect the neutrality of the required data, rather than that of the researcher.

- Verbatim responses of the participants, and added field notes to the transcripts. The transcripts ensured that the 'voices of the participants' led to the findings, and that the researcher's own interpretations did not influence the results.
- The use of an independent coder further ensured neutrality.

3.4. CONCLUSION

In this chapter the researcher described the implementation of the qualitative research approach that was followed for this study. The research process assisted the researcher to reach the goal of the study, namely to explore and describe the challenges of implementing project planning in the NGO sector.

The findings of the research study, together with a literature control will be presented in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 4
DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided the reader with some insight of how the research methodology was applied in the current research study. In this chapter a discussion is presented of the findings generated from the individual interviews and focus group discussions with project managers and social workers. The aim of the study was to explore and describe the problems of implementing project planning in the NGO sector; the results are discussed in terms of themes and sub themes that emerged during the process of data analysis. Each of these themes will be supported with verbatim quotes taken from the transcripts and will then be compared and contrasted with existing literature (Creswell, 2009).

4.2. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

The demographic profile of the 16 social workers and project managers who participated in the study is presented in the table below, together with a discussion of the respective demographic details of the participants who took part in the study.

Table 4.1: Overview of the demographics of the research participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant 1</td>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 2</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>15 years</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 3</td>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 4</td>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>7 years</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 5</td>
<td>African</td>
<td>15 years</td>
<td>Xhosa</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 6</td>
<td>Foreigner</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 7</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>17 years</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 8</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>8 years</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 9</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>23 years</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 10</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>45 years</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.1. Experience

The social workers who were working the various NGOs had varying years of experience ranging from five years or less to more than 20 years. It can be therefore be deduced that most of the social workers who took part in the study were experienced social workers. This indicates that many of the participants would have been exposed to management roles before, and more importantly, project management. Streubert, Speziale & Carpenter (2011:30) indicate that “individuals are selected to participate in qualitative research based on their first-hand experience with a culture, social process, or phenomenon of interest”. Thus a wide range of experience among the participants could be seen as an indication that valuable information would be obtained.

4.2.2. Gender

Fourteen of the participants were females and only two were males. Females have held and currently do hold, a number of leadership positions in social work, serving as deans of graduate schools, chairs of undergraduate social work programmes, directors of agencies, and presidents of national, state and local social work organisations (Zastrow, 2009:435). It seems that social work is a female-dominated profession as more than two-thirds of social workers are females in South Africa. In 2005, 89 registered social workers with the South African Council for Social Service Professions (3%), were female (Earle, 2008:46). This indicates a highly female dominated service industry within the South African welfare service. While
this fact cannot be construed as a negative aspect of the local social work sphere, it could be argued that this is an irregular distribution of workers in terms of gender. We also need to realise that the views expressed in this study may thus be gender biased.

4.2.3. Ethnicity

Eight of the 16 participants who took part in the study were White, five were Coloured, two were African and one was an immigrant. In view of the fact that the study took place in the Overberg Municipality, which is situated in the rural area of the Western Cape Province, the ethnic groups in the study were evenly distributed and represent the community. It may not be a representative sample in comparison with the social worker workforce in South Africa, (Earle, 2008:46), but it was able to share the views of the population. By 2005, 50.2 % of South African social workers were Africans. The other 50% of registered social workers were more unevenly distributed amongst the provinces and other racial groups. Of those, 35.6% were Whites, 9.1% Coloureds, and 4.9% Indians and the remainder were Asians (Earle, 2008:46).

4.2.4 Language

The majority, 13 participants, were Afrikaans speaking, two were English speaking and one was Xhosa speaking. Once again, the languages of the participants represented the communities in the Overberg Municipality where the study took place.

4.3 FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The researcher together with an independent coder and the study supervisor, held a discussion after the process of data analysis and reached consensus on the themes that emerged from the findings. The four themes that emerged from the data with their respective sub-themes are portrayed in the following table.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEMES</th>
<th>SUB-THEMES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **A. Enabling factors for implementing project planning and the business plan** | A1. Training to use a business plan as a planning tool related to training in project management  
A2. Training assisted project managers to market services  
A3. Project management capacitated supervisors to do different roles |
| **B. Disenabling factors/Challenges with planning and writing of business plan** | B1. Lack of knowledge and skill in planning and writing of the business plan  
B2. Lack of coordination of services of planning among organisations for services in the same area  
B3. Lack of understanding of the ‘basket of services’ expected of social workers influences project target outcomes  
B4. Lack of resources for implementation of projects |
| **C. Stakeholders’ influence in project implementation that affects efficient and effective project outcomes** | C1. Social work goals versus client goals  
C2. Relationship between the board and social workers  
C3. Relationship between the DSD and social workers in the NGO  
C4. The relationship between the social worker and the supervisor of the NGO |
| **D. Project planning has an impact on the social worker** | D1. Social workers who are working at NGOs are overloaded by diverse roles which leads to burnout  
D2. Discrepancy between the salaries of social workers working for NGOs and the government sector |
4.3.1. Theme A: Enabling factors for implementing project planning and the business plan

In order to unpack the challenges around the implementation of project planning and business planning, one needs to understand the difference between the two. Morris & Pinto (2010:71) state that during the 1960s, after hundreds of projects have been completed, it became apparent that while some projects achieved their basic goals, others failed to achieve their budget, schedule, and performance objectives originally established. The authors carefully reviewed the history of many projects to identify conditions and events common to successfully implementing projects, as well as those conditions and events that occurred frequently on less successfully projects. It appeared that a common identifiable characteristic of the most successful projects seemed to be the quality and depth of early planning by the project management group. Project planning is a process of achieving success in the future of the project and the organisation. It is a plan of action for getting the best return from resources that are going to be used on the project during its life cycle. It is commonly stated that the failing to plan is planning to fail Morris & Pinto (2010:7).

According to Fraser & Matthews (2007:87) business planning – or what some people prefer to call service planning - became an increasingly accepted and developed discipline in non-profit-making organisations after 1990. Most health and social care providers produced some form of annual business plan, for internal and external consumption. Effective business planning should connect with and involve key people at all levels, enabling them to influence the outcome and communicate the respective messages across the organisation. Some agencies take business and service planning even further by involving customers and service users in the planning process, regarding it as very much part of their strategy for quality. Wolfe, Hinds & Sourkes (2011:82) however assert that a business plan is a formal document
that creates a solid case for programmes operations and strategic propositions. Creating a business plan can therefore be helpful in obtaining administrative support for dedicated resources to various care services. Ultimately, a business plan needs to speak the language of those who are running and working at the institution. It should reflect their objectives and their main concerns, be fiscally accountable, and viable, and endorse the required changes to fuel the growth of the organisation.

Melton (2011:16) therefore asserts that a project business plan is the formal articulation of ‘how’ the project will deliver the business case. It links the project to the business and covers the following three planning themes: sponsorship, benefit management, and business change. Thus a business plan should define how one would like to operate one’s business. This includes describing the management team, the marketing strategy, and the methods in which one will interact with customers. A business plan might also project a strategy that reflects the management style of the founders of the business. Germak (2014:5) adds that the key difference between a business plan for profit making and those for a social work organisation, is that a business plan for social work initiatives contains the focus on social outcomes in addition to the emphasis on financial performance.

Alternatively, project planning is an important aspect in social service delivery, because in order to run an organisation and the respective projects, project planning becomes part of a social worker’s day-to-day activities. A project plan is therefore a document that unpacks how to complete a project within a certain timeframe, usually with defined stages and outcomes, and with designated resources. The social work manager can set due dates for different activities, and identify resources that will be used in a specific project. Business planning and project planning is an equally important component of social service delivery as it is imperative to apply for funding or sponsorships, monitoring, implementing and
evaluation of the respective projects. Because NGOs are dependent on their funders and sponsors, such as the DSD in order to continue with service delivery, business planning and project management remains an ongoing process in order to remain financially feasible amidst a high demand in the communities where they are operating. Recently even public sector government agencies are embracing business planning as best practice in light of significant budget pressures and the need to stay focused on achieving outcomes for service recipients amid increased public scrutiny (Germak, 2014:5). Management therefore needs to make sure that the business plan is implemented and that there are enough resources to ensure effective implementation.

The current study identifies mixed experiences related to project planning and has been classified as enabling experiences and disenabling experiences. The following sub theme highlights the enabling experiences of the business plan as a planning tool in project management for social workers and project managers.

4.3.1.1. Sub-theme A1: Training to use a business plan as a planning tool related to training project management

The participants who took part in this study shared enabling experiences of a business plan as a planning tool. They indicated that receiving training in project management was considered a valuable and enabling factor. The following participant expressed her views in this regard:

Training… gives you a better insight on how to deal with a project and be able to plan. It gave me a better understanding and assisted with the implementation. For me the business plan is there as your guide. One becomes more equipped as a manager and are able to lead.
Spolander & Martin (2012) agree that training in project management assists managers and state that as social work is a complex profession, having clear methods and approaches to manage the complexities, is important. Change in social service delivery is constant, and project management is particularly effective for helping social workers and social care managers to cope with the evolving requirements of practice. The role of leaders and managers in health and social welfare sector is however often isolated, compounded by stress, complexity, resource constraints and ongoing multiple demands. Feeling that one is not alone, and having tools to support one can be helpful in managing this complexity. What makes project management special in the field of social welfare is the relationship with service users who are often the poorest of the poor. Managers in the field of social welfare therefore need to understand the impact of the service organisation on the service user. Effective project planning can assist in evaluating the quality of social service delivery and in identifying strengths and weaknesses.

Project management is distinct in the field of social work and social welfare because projects are being coordinated with limited resources, complex deliverables, sector values, and sometimes changing requirements. Spolander & Martin (2012) maintain that “meeting service users and stakeholders’ requirements within limited resources and infrastructure combined with demanding time scales is very difficult.” Using tools and techniques of project management can help project managers in gaining confidence in being honest, critical and challenging when involved in projects. The reality for NGOs and their social workforce today is that they are expected to produce more for less, so balancing quality and budget requires good skills, resourcefulness and integrity. Because of resource constraints and the lack of sufficient operational capacity, project managers need to be resilient, confident in their approach and in the tools they are using, as well as self-assured in dealing with their stakeholders. Key challenges in this sector remain unrealistic deadlines; changing project
requirements which are insufficiently scoped, effective communication and resource constraints and insufficient team skills.

Kadushin & Harkness (2014) are therefore of the opinion that training project managers to implement project planning effectively, results in increased worker satisfaction, reduces preventable turnover and improves service delivery and outcomes. Project managers need clear performance expectations and support for ongoing professional development. Supervisors or project managers’ primary function is therefore to provide administrative, educational and supportive supervision to staff members. The following sub theme highlights that training in project management assisted project managers to market their services.

4.3.1.2. Sub-theme A2: Training in project management assisted project managers to market their services

The participants in this study indicated that training in the area of business planning guided them to market their organisation’s services more effectively and empowered them to improve their services.

*It also provide social workers with better programmes and be able to implement better services to our clients.*

Germak (2014) is in agreement with the previous participant and postulates that a business plan is an essential tool with which a social work manager can demonstrate capacity for sustainable project management. The latter will assist with the ongoing financial soundness of the organisation, achieving the social outcomes for the organisation, and therefore be able to raise sustainable funds from social investment-orientated funders. This clearly indicates that the sound demonstration of success of a project through a business plan can result in an effective marketing strategy. In addition, a business plan can serve as a roadmap with which
the social work manager can launch new projects, managing its various components and navigate its success based on milestones or benchmarks (Score Foundation, 2010). Therefore, the business plan can be used for both external and internal purposes.

Wolfe, et al. (2011:82) are also in agreement with the aforementioned participant’s view that a business plan is a formal document that creates a solid case for the implementation of projects and strategic propositions of welfare organisations. Creating a business plan can therefore be helpful in obtaining administrative support for specific projects and resources. Ultimately, the business plan needs to speak the language of the management team of the institution, and should reflect their objectives and their main concern of being fiscally accountable and viable. Melton (2011:16) supports the notion of the previous author and explains that a project business plan is the formal articulation of ‘how’ the project will deliver the business case. The participants also identified disenabling factors, perceptions and experiences of social workers and project managers related to project planning. The following sub theme points to the fact that project management capacitated supervisors to fulfil their different roles in the NGO.

4.3.1.3. Sub-theme A3: Project management capacitated supervisors to fulfil different roles

The participants in this study also indicated that as their knowledge of project management improved, it became easier for them to fulfil their duties as a supervisor and guiding other colleagues.

‘It makes your life easier and you are be able to guide social workers that work under your supervision.'
De Vilder (2004:39) described project management and its role in simple terms, namely “the skill or practice of controlling, guiding or planning, arranging and mobilising people and resources for a given purpose”. Project management is therefore an instrument to assist with working more efficiently and to bring about change in an organisation, especially in voluntary organisations and youth associations such as NGOs. The change of focus from political education to training is now accompanied by many offers and needs for training among staff members around various management skills, such as time management, project management, organisation management, team management, conflict management, and financial management (De Vilder, 2004:39).

In addition, the increasing cooperation between the business and the non-governmental and non-profit sectors of the previous dispensation in SA has certainly put pressure on NGOs to improve their performance, efficiency and professional management. Competent management of NGOs are furthermore of the utmost importance, seeing that they are using funds from the public sector. The training and preparation of project managers therefore involves mainly technical management skills, seeing that in the social work field, project managers are accountable for managing the material and the human resources as well as for leading the project to the desired outcomes.

A project manager should therefore be able to organise, to understand, plan and coordinate the respective efforts and resources to meet the objectives that were set out at the beginning of the project. In addition, a project manager should also be able to raise funds with the necessary knowledge and self-confidence to apply for available funding and to manage and account for it with integrity and competence. According to De Vilder (2004:39) what is needed is the following:
A strategist, capable to set clear long and short term objectives, keeping these in mind together with the reasons for the project existence. A motivator, with abilities and attitudes enabling him/her to inspire and commit people to the project or to contribute in it. An activist, in the sense of somebody able to spot initiatives and to organise thoughts into meaningful social actions with clear values evolving over time. A teacher and a student capable of empowering persons while at the same time being able to learn from experiences and to use that for the organisation, project or community-monitoring and evaluation a process in relation to the objectives, changing plans and ultimately objectives in relation to the circumstances (De Vilder, 2004:39).

It is evident that among the varying roles of social workers knowledge, skills and training in project management positively impacts on their service delivery. The following theme highlights the disenabling factors/challenges that social workers and project managers who are working in the NGO sector, experienced during the planning and writing of business plans.

4.3.2. Theme B: Disenabling factors or challenges with planning and writing of business plan

This theme highlights disenabling factors or challenges faced with the planning and writing of a business plan. Davids et al. (2006:85) state that recipients of government finance are often not properly prepared in matters related to the management of business, and as a result are unable to sustain them. Therefore the lack of staff members who are trained in business management is seen as an essential barrier that needs to be overcome, not only in government departments but also in NGOs. Staff training as organisational support can serve many purposes and should enhance the professional development of social workers and supervisors
by renewing their interest and confidence (Berry, Segall & Kagitcibosi, 1997:111). Training, particularly for new staff members, should also help to establish appropriate staff attitudes and service priorities. It should help to keep an organisation on track in maintaining its original goals, values and philosophy (Berry et al., 1997). The following sub-themes unpack responses of the participants who took part in this study’s disenabling factors or challenges faced with the planning and writing of a business plan in detail.

4.3.2.1 Sub-theme B1: Lack of knowledge and skill in planning and writing of business plan

The participants in this study indicated that they experience significant challenges when it comes to writing a business plan. Apart from not understanding the specific terminology, such as budgeting, they do not know which information to include in the business plan. The following participant articulated her problem as follows:

*I did not know what information to put in the business plan. It takes a lot of time and effort to write the business plan. The format of the business plan change all the time, you need to understand what they want. The time they give is not enough.*

Gaist (2009:70) is in agreement with this participant and states that not knowing which information to put in the business plan could lead to confusion among staff members of an organisation. This writer is also of the opinion that applying and motivating for subsidy could be intimidating, especially to first-time applicants and offers the following recommendations to elucidate the proposal writing process. The key factor for any social worker working at an NGO is to remember that when preparing a proposal, the compiler of the document is considered as an expert. The compiler (social worker) and co-workers know their respective organisation, programmes, strengths, weaknesses, achievements and desires better than
anyone else. The challenge therefore is to recall this information when writing a proposal. Even expert writers must assume that the person or committee reviewing the proposal knows completely nothing about the organisation, the planned programme, or the writer’s ability to successfully complete and evaluate the proposed outcomes. Therefore successful proposal preparation always begins well before the stated deadline (Gaist, 2009:70).

Quick & New (2003:6) suggest that it is significant to state the purpose for submitting a proposal. The author needs to highlight the intentions of the proposal as well as what he/she hopes to achieve when the application is accepted, rather than just asking for money. Few, if any, funders will fund the total budget of an, but are keen to understand the organisation’s strategies for sustainability. It is therefore important for the author to make clear that he/she has an understanding of the lifespan of funders, Crafford & Moerdyk, Nel, O’Neill, Van Aswegen, Benhegyl, Kleynhans, Markham, Meyer, Schlechter, Train, Dale-Jones, Pilbeam & Southey (2008:137) are also in agreement with this notion and emphasize that a lack of funding is often due to the omission of the above stated information, and that it is vital for social workers as proposal writers to understand these concepts and write their proposal accordingly. As NGOs start approaching bigger funders, the demands become more and more sophisticated, thus skills in the area of budgeting and financial requirements are essential. It is evident that more training in this field is evident.

The social workers and project managers who took part in this study indicated that it remains a challenge for them to write a business plan because they often struggle with the terminology of the required proposals.

*It’s difficult for me to say what the indicator is instead I write the impact. The terms they use in the business plan make it difficult. The application is in English. It becomes a useless paper exercise because we don’t receive money for the projects,*
The aforementioned is a clear indication that if social workers and project planners do not understand the terminology of the respective proposal, it may have a major impact on the outcome of the proposal. Germak, and Singh (2010) cited in Lyons, Hokenstad, Pawar, Huegler & Hall (2012:136) agreed with the participants’ notion and are of the opinion that social workers have not played a strong enough role in developing social enterprise, partly because their training has often not fitted practitioners for a business planning role, and also because many social enterprise developments have been in economic rather than social development. Abye & Butterfield (2013) recommend that the training of social workers needs to be reorientated towards developmental interventions to overcome the current obstacles in implementing the new developmental policies. In addition, if participants still have to overcome language barriers, the problem of understanding terminology is increased.

The participants in this study commented that they were struggling to find experienced staff members to write their business plans. The following participant expressed it as follows:

*We [NGO] have not enough experience people to write this business plan.*

Crafford *et al.* (2008:137) confirmed the previous participant’s concern and elaborate that NGO leaders are struggling to find experienced staff members, and their management skills remain a challenge. They add that most of the people who manage NGOs do not have a business background or the management skills they need to operate an organisation effectively. It is therefore evident that current skills linked to the profession are not always enough, and need to be expanded through continuous professional development if we are to grow our resource base. Managers of NGOs need a wide range of management skills to run their organisation on a day-to-day basis which includes planning, financial management such as costing, budgeting, record keeping, cash flow management and reporting, the ability to plan and organise day-to-day activities in the business, as well as marketing and leadership
skills. They also need to be familiar with, and act in accordance with, a wide range of legislation and regulations. Small and medium-sized organisations are unlikely to last for long if their owners or managers lack management skills. Community Service Organisations (CSOs) are therefore often responsible to outside benefactors for the way in which they use their funds, and they are likely to find themselves in serious trouble if they do not manage their organisation effectively.

Apart from accessing and appointing effective staff to write proposals and business plans, the participants who took part in the study indicated that compiling a budget for the organisation was challenging.

*Compiling the budget is very difficult as our projections are too low instead of being higher as it is only estimations.*

Fertman & Allensworth (2010:73) differ with the aforementioned participant and in their opinion, “a budget is a simple detailed statement of the resources available to a program (income) and what it costs to implement it (expenses). In the planning phase, the budget is a reasoned prediction and in the implementation phase, the budget is a living document which are changing as resources come in and funds are spent”. Although the authors may be oversimplifying budgets, the concerns raised by the participants are real. Budgets for lesser programmes may be simple and fairly straightforward; they often have a restricted number of expense classifications and single funding source estimations. In the complex environment in which social workers operate, compiling the budget with accurate estimates may prove challenging, and therefore training in this regard is required. Added to this is the general lack of consistency in application forms, funding rounds, and engagement levels, which further highlight the need for training.
The social workers and project managers who took part in this study, indicated that a lack of planning is a problem in their service delivery, requiring:

*Planning ahead regarding which project will work in the community.*

Hafford-Letchfield (2009) agrees that social workers need to plan ahead regarding which project will work in the community. This author is also of the opinion that a key to effective management is the requirement of the executives or budget holders to act in cooperation with those staff members who are accountable for assessing and meeting the needs of service users. A scheme of delegation with each organisation should make clear the range of budgets that the manager is directly responsible for in their service area, with financial limits which create boundaries to the extent of decision making around expenditure. Soriano (1995:103) states that need assessments are important methods of gaining critical information needed by organisation to meet the human service needs of their target populations. Benson (2013:88) agrees that an NGO needs to ensure that a needs assessment is conducted and provides what is needed in the community. The following sub-theme refers to a lack of coordination of planning among organisations for service in the same area.

4.3.2.2. *Sub-theme B2: Lack of coordination of planning among organisations for service delivery in the same area*

Some of the participants in this study observed that there is a lack of coordination amongst NGOs who are working alongside in the same area or communities. They therefore do not join forces when they compile business plans, which may be a disenabling factor. The following participants articulated the matter as follows:
The services by the different NGOs are not coordinated. There is no increment and we receive the same amount every year. All of us write separate plans for same activities. We don’t sit together and plan.

Healy (2008:276) highlights the fact that when different NGOs and United Nations (UN) agencies are working in the same area, a lack of coordination may impede their success. There remains considerable tension around collaboration especially because the funding environment is very competitive and organisations struggle with whether to invest limited resources in developing coalitions or in focusing solely on their own organisation (Rosenthal, Mizrahi & Sampson, 1994). Davids et al. (2006:60) too, acknowledge the lack of coordination between different agencies and point out that there are still a lot of organisations who are rendering the same services, which is inefficient in a situation of inadequate funding. A portion of the services that NGOs render also depends on the trend in which funding ship is sailing, therefore some organisations are doing similar work but do not work together.

The following theme highlights the lack of understanding by social workers and project managers who are working at NGOs about how the basket of services expected of social workers influence their project target outcomes.

4.3.2.3. Sub-theme B3: The basket of services expected of social workers influences project target outcomes

The participants who took part in this research study indicated that they rendered a variety of services depending on the needs of the community. Service delivery focuses on various age groups from youth to the elderly, and various at-risk groups such as foster care, disabled, substance abuse, aged, single parenting, unemployed, and so on. Rendering services to the respective social problems demands a variety of skills by social workers.
Our big challenge is the basket of services...Our core business is child protection and we are a child welfare organisation rendering services to children from age 0 to 18 years.... It becomes difficult for our organisation because we also have to render services like substance abuse, render services to families and other social problems in the community. It becomes difficult for a child protection organisation to render effective and efficient services to children among other. When the clients come we attend to their problems immediately. We need to be jack of all trades. We don’t have people that can just specialise.

Nicholas et al. (2010:59) agree with the aforementioned participant with regard to the services that organisations have to deliver, and refer to the Integrated Service Delivery Model (ISDM) (2004b) that classified a bundle of welfare services that would be funded by government. The collective partnership approach in the delivery of social welfare services with CSOs is therefore a basic principle underpinning the policy. NGOs providing welfare services therefore increasingly became more protective services of statutory nature, including foster care placements of children. While more organisations deliver services by a combination of methods of intervention, casework is still a dominant method being utilised. It is thus evident that the current theme is linked to the previous theme that if NGOs consolidate their efforts, it will assist them in limiting services and allowing for master skills in certain aspects.

The participants in this study also indicated that their organisation needed to render services that were listed on the Transfer Payment Agreement (TPA) so that they could meet the targets. NGOs have to render different services stipulated in the TPA and the basket of services and this leads to a high caseload of social workers.
When the clients come we attend to their problems immediately. We want to be jack of all trades. The caseloads are too high... You need to help everyone.

The current international norm for population to social worker ratio is 1:5000. According to the ISDM (2004b), the desired caseload per social worker is 60 cases, but the South African Institute of Race Relations (SAIRR), conceded that owing to high levels of poverty, deprivation, and a high incidence of HIV/AIDS, the actual caseload per social worker is far higher (Moloi:2012). According to DSD, (ISDM (2004:62) the established national and international norm for the ratio of social workers to population is 1:5000. This norm applies to developed countries but, because of the high levels of poverty and deprivation in South Africa, it has to be adjusted to reflect different conditions and needs.

According to DSD’s own costing, a total of 16 504 social workers are required to provide the social welfare needs of children in terms of the Children’s Act (No. 38 of 2005) in South Africa. In comparison with countries such as the UK, where a social worker might work on 12 to 20 cases at most or mostly, social workers in South Africa appear to be overburdened. “I have come across social workers with caseloads of more than 150 families and it becomes impossible for them to manage this,” said Joan van Niekerk, director Childline SA. Iveda Smith, registrar of the SA Council for Social Service Profession, said that social workers, who dealt with fostering, could deal with as many as 500 cases a month (Govender, 2007).

Huge workloads often prevent social workers from dealing with urgent cases involving child abuse, said Jackie Loffell, advocacy co-ordinator for Johannesburg Child Welfare. The administrative functions social workers are required to process to qualify for foster care grants kept them away from counselling and intervening in child abuse cases. The processing of grants applications could take months (Taylor, 2011). Social workers across the country are dealing with mounting foster care cases, stemming from an increase in teenage...
pregnancies, abandoned children, and the growing number of AIDS orphans. They are also increasingly encountering substance abuse and a rise in behavioural problems among children, including domestic violence, rape, and theft (Govender, 2007).

The following theme highlights a lack of resources and infrastructure for implementation of projects amid a lack of funding and high caseloads.

4.3.2.4. Sub-theme B4: Lack of resources and infrastructure for the implementation of projects at NGOs

Some of the participants who took part in this study indicated they were challenged with limited resources to implement programmes, such as a lack of funding and venues to host parenting sessions and others. In cases where they have to place a child in a children’s home they have to drive more than 100 kilometres away as there are no infrastructures in the rural area where they are working, seeing that most of the facilities are situated in Cape Town. The following participant also said that the DSD only fund them for salaries while they also need money for support and prevention services, especially in rural areas.

    Lack of resources in our area to assist our clients like shelter for children is a huge problem.

Within the work environment, quality of service delivery is related both to quality of social work graduates emerging from schools of social work and the quality and quantity of resources available to support their work (Earle 2008:11-12).

The NGO sector has very limited resources that they command, and they have an unpredictable flow of funds. By definition NGOs have to be competitive in their chosen fields of operation in order to survive. However, in the case of NGOs, ‘cooperation’ becomes the basic tenet of operation as opposed to ‘competition’. Rather than compete for limited
resources, NGOs have to look for ways to increase cooperation. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2002:64) states that the NGO sector is weak in areas of strategic planning, management, staffing, technical resources, and constituency building. Mission statements are often very broad, and few NGOs actually apply strategic techniques in their decision-making process and operations. Many NGOs have paid staff but they are usually employed on a project-by-project basis.

Arguden (2011:18) is in agreement with the findings of this study, and emphasises that it is important for NGOs to develop cooperation and coalition by persuasion and communication. Fowler (1991:53-84) however, is of the opinion that the lack of resources is fuelled by an expansion of official aid because the number and size of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) have grown substantially since the 1980s in Africa. This is expected to have at least some effect on the continent’s development. First, NGO activity will help mitigate negative effects of the prevailing macroeconomic policies on poor and vulnerable groups (World Bank 1989a:169, 182), and second that a growing NGO sector will contribute to the needed democratisation of African countries by pluralising and strengthening civil society (Bratton, 1989; Carter Centre, 1989).

In South Africa, NGOs and the state institutions are now seen as partners in a national project, namely the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). However, this process has its challenges, and it has been recognised that irrespective of how much a government may regard itself as being a people’s government, the functioning of its programme and development, without involvement of the public society, will be inclined towards a top–down approach with its innate disadvantages (Currin, 1993).

Van der Waldt & du Toit (1999:8) on the other hand have warned that given the limited resources, there is a potential for conflict when it comes to determining priorities and needs in
the allocation of existing resources. Change in the socio-political context in particular also presents a real possibility of conflict with regard to the specific communication and negotiation skills of the public official. The following responses of participants in this study relate to the situation that resources can be limited for NGOs which can lead to conflict, and NGOs will not want to share resources as it will affect their budget.

The participants also indicated that they experience a shortage of staff in NGOs. Social workers who are highly skilled do not remain in the organisation for long, because of poor salaries. They were also of the opinion that NGOs would be more effective if they were able to introduce areas of specialisation, such as foster care, adoption, and projects, rather than rendering a basket of services. One participant articulated this notion as follows:

*The shortage of staff, shortage of skilled staff, and the lack of specialisation like a social worker that focuses on one specific level of intervention. We are supposed to do foster care like support groups for foster parents but instead we focus on other social issues.*

Spierenberg & Wels (2006:83-103) are in agreement with the above participant’s view regarding a staff shortage and are of the opinion that the shortage of skilled personnel that resulted from apartheid is worsened by the pressure to be ‘politically correct’ and to appoint black and/or female staff members in leadership positions (Hallowes, 1999). NGOs are furthermore in weak positions to attract and to keep capable leaders, because working for an NGO is not always regarded as a real job. Developing human resources and ensuring the continuity of expertise and efforts of NGOs are therefore of vital importance for their continued existence (Watson, 2000).

Against this background, the Recruitment and Retention Strategy for Social workers (Earle, 2007) recommends that specialisation within the field of social work may be a solution to the
rigidity of promotional opportunities. This rigidity can also be seen as a potential stressor for newly qualified social workers, entering a profession where promotion and pay increase may not be seen as viable possibilities.

The research participants added that they have problems regarding a high staff turnover in their organisations. It takes time to fill social work vacancies as potential applicants are not always interested in working in rural areas. The following participant expressed this notion as follows:

Staff turnover….we cannot keep them with the salaries we provide. We spend 2 -3 years training people so that they are able to deliver a good standard of service only to see them leaving the organisation for better jobs elsewhere. The result is that we cannot implement the programmes. At the moment the Social Workers just stay for one year before they leave. It's unfair that the state social workers are earning better salaries than those working for NGOs.

Walker & McLean (2013:157) support this view, saying that under these conditions, it is not surprising that many social workers do not remain in SA and therefore do not join the current workforce. In the context of globalisation and international mobility, SA social workers have highly transferable skills/capabilities, thus making themselves marketable. The movement of social workers is usually from developing to developed countries, and many leave SA, which feeds into the vicious cycle of shortage of social workers and lack of capacity in the current system. Data on the emigration of social workers from SA is patchy, but Earle (2007) estimated that between 10% and 30% of each graduating class leaves the country.

The participants said they are experiencing a lack of infrastructure, such as venues to run their programmes. In addition, they pointed to the fact that they do not have funds to rent any
venues, and therefore they are not always able to meet their targets. One of the participants expressed their challenges in this regard as follows:

*We don’t get money for projects. It (the business plan) becomes a useless paper exercise because we don’t receive money for the projects. DSD expect our organisation to render the specific services without money for programmes. It becomes difficult! Our organisation does not even have venues to run groups with parents or other groups, and we don’t even have funds to pay for venues. This results in us not being able to reach the targets.*

Davids *et al.* (2006) agree that the key challenge faced by NGOs/CBO’s in SA is inadequate economic support. The current financial assistance provided by DSD to NGOs as subsidy, is inadequate to implement their programmes and to render the necessary services. Most of the NGOs are left to function without adequate tools to render social work services to their communities. For example, most of them do not have access to telephones, faxes, or computers; as a result they have to ask other nearby government offices to use their resources. Although this could be seen as a lack of resources, the question could be asked if NGOs have incorporated this information in their business plan.

The DSD as coordinator of social service delivery and administrator of state funds should take responsibility for capacity building in social service delivery. The key stumbling block as far as the partnership between the government and the NGOs is concerned has always been that of funding (Lombard, 2008; Smit, 2005). Loffell (2008:85) cited in Powell & Hendricks (2009) is of the opinion that although NGOs are performing state functions, very few have a correct service level agreement with the government, and many of them struggle to access subsidies. Addressing these challenges therefore includes improving the funding of NGOs,
who are providing social services on behalf of the government, and the recognition and
development of the full range of social service practitioners in SA (Dutschke, 2008:40).

The social workers and project managers who took part in this study uniformly protested that
they did not receive funding from DSD for operational costs such as buying and maintaining
of vehicles and petrol.

*Cars and petrol and funds to run programmes are expensive. The NGOs are not
funded for operational costs by the subsidy. It becomes so difficult for the NGOs to
render efficient services without the necessary funding.*

According to Davids *et al.* (2006), the lack of transport to exercise social service delivery,
especially in the rural areas, is a particular problem for NGOs, because they are unable \(\text{to spread their services to other towns and communities where there is a need. In addition, the expenses of rendering social services in rural societies are often higher than in urban areas, owing to greater needs, as well as a lack of backup services, resources, and infrastructure. These expenses are mainly based on the physical distances between communities and service users, and the poor transportation systems in rural areas. Solutions implemented included renting of cars, but it is an added expense in already resource constrained organisations. Another difficulty named by the participants was that they were struggling to obtain sponsors from the private sector. Sponsors who used to fund them, withdraw their funding or are not able to provide sponsoring on an ongoing basis, especially in rural areas. The following quotation illustrates highlights their problems:}

*It’s always a fight between social workers and management. The expenses are too much and we need to generate money from sponsors like Lotto or local donors.*
Funding from the National Lotteries Board has also become very variable and unpredictable.

Brock-Utne, Desai & Qorro (2006:272) are of the opinion that in the years since the 1994 election in SA, NGOs have had to reconfigure themselves in terms of how they operate. The 1994 elections marked the emergence of a new government supported by many of those who struggled with the ANC, to end the apartheid era government. During the early 1990s there was a hopeful solidarity between NGOs and the new government. The relationship was, however, tempered by the fact that international funding agencies soon began to funnel resources through the government department to distribute funds to NGOs rather than continuing to fund individual NGOs directly. This relationship led to a collapse of the NGO sector when funding agencies withdrew their funding or came to be dependent on and accountable to government for much of its access to financial resources. NGOs’ dependency on government funds has led to what several NGO activists have described as a ‘quitism’ or domestication of the NGO sector. One explanation for the government’s desire to bring NGOs into ranks is that the government lacks the staffing capabilities and knowledge how to deliver needed services. The current funding relationship between NGOs and government is in large part due to the retreat of direct international funding and change from ‘core funding’ to project based funding provided to NGOs.

*We cannot survive without the sponsors. Lotto didn’t ask us to apply again, which means that in six months we will have to close down. The DSD is aware of this matter and offered no assistance.*

These statements draw a bleak picture for social service delivery by the NGO sector and the challenges that social workers experience in exercising their duties. It adds up to a major reshaping of NGOs, as they must continually design projects and ‘build up’ costs to cover
their administration and staffing expenses. The continually changing nature of funding agency priorities can be understood as the most significant reason why many NGOs have changed their actions and have been labelled as money chasers and critiqued for neglecting community needs (Abbot 2013:98). Addressing the power balance between funders and fund seekers continues to be a challenge.

The following theme highlights stakeholders’ influence in project implementation.

4.3.3. Theme C: Stakeholders’ partnerships in project implementation that influence efficient and effective project outcomes

The experts who took part in this study noted that they had positive partnerships with some NGOs and worked very well together. The following quotation bears evidence of this:

It’s another NGO in Napier that we partnered with. We have a good relationship and we work together on the 50/50 programme [youth programme]. During school holidays I’m also assisting in the 50/50 youth programme jointly with Cape Agulhas Municipality for children in Grade 9. There is a retired teacher that assists the learners with homework and career choices.

Swart, Gouws, Petterson, Erasmus & Bosman (2012:237) support the notion of positive partnerships between NGOs and ultimately between the DSD and NGOs. As has been stressed above, comprehensive service welfare delivery is more likely if good networks exist among all the role players in a community. Cagney & Ross (2013:217) are also in agreement with the participants in this research study that working together with other NGOs and government departments can make a significant difference in communities. They are also of the opinion that over the past 10 years the government has come to consider NGOs as essential partners in the delivery of services to communities on behalf of the state. Public-
private partnerships have seen consortiums of NGOs tendering for specific public service delivery initiatives. They have also been seen working together with national, provincial and local government and donors addressing poverty, HIV and AIDS, and housing and environment programmes. Many government development agencies work with NGOs and the private sector to support service delivery and social development. The government is a significant source of support for many non-profits organisations. A study conducted by Swilling & Russel (2002) as a part of John Hopkins University global project measuring the non-profits sector, shows that in general NGOs in South Africa are funded mainly by government (42%), grant funding (29 %), and private sector/philanthropy (25 %). NGOs can also get development and support services from the government through Provincial DSD. It is therefore essential for government departments and NGOs to improve their partnerships, because they are partners in the effort to improve social service delivery. The following sub-theme highlights the social workers and project managers who took part in this study’s conflict between social work and client goals.

4.3.3.1. Sub-theme C1: Social work goals versus client goals

Social workers need to be skilled in marketing their services in order to attract users to their respective programmes. Hardcastle, Powers & Wenocur (2011:304) are of the opinion that NGOs need to have a marketing strategy to market the services that they render in their organisations. It is important for NGOs to conduct a needs assessment in order to address what is needed in the communities where they are working.

The participants in this study perceived clients’ non-attending of educational/preventative programmes that have been offered, as a lack of motivation. The following quotation bears evidence of this:
They [client system] complain that they will lose money if they attend programmes and do not go to work. Our community want something that they can use like food. When you implement these Projects people want to receive something such as food parcels. They sometimes prefer to go to work instead of attending our programmes.

Zastrow (2013:136) agrees with the aforementioned participant’s perception with regard to the commitment of clients to attend programmes offered by welfare organisations. Social work ‘interns’ in field placement and new social workers often report this as their main frustration and a severe ‘reality shock’. They expect that after carefully working out an intervention plan with a client to resolve some problem, the client will follow through. Unfortunately, in many cases this does not happen. Upcoming appointments may be broken by the client, and even if the client responsibly keeps appointments, she/he was likely to have justifications for not following through on commitments. These justifications can usually be interpreted as representing a lack of motivation.

Collins, Jordaan & Coleman (2012:313) share the same sentiments as the aforementioned participant, and said that some clients may seem unmotivated to comply with programme expectations, or to work towards other life objectives that are important. Often social workers label this conduct as resistance, but the conduct may occur in order to avoid pain or conflict between the family social worker and the client over the goals to be accomplished. The family social worker feels irritated about a client’s goal, his/her goals, or goals of the agency. Sometimes the reason for refusing is practical concerns like transportation or missing work. In such cases alternatives that fit the client’s views should be offered when available. It remains important to fit the need with an appropriate intervention.
Apart from the lack of motivation perceived by social workers and project managers who are working for NGOs, they also stressed the relationship between the board members and social workers in the following sub-theme.

4.3.3.2. Sub-theme C2: Relationship between board members of NGOs and social workers

Some participants in this research indicated that they were forced by their board members to do fundraising in addition to their professional duties. They were also challenged by board members and management’s interference with their professional duties as social workers, as expressed in the following quotation.

*When there is no money, the social workers are expected to do fundraising despite our heavy workloads. They [board members and management] always expect us to raise funds ourselves, and they blame us when we don’t reach the targets*.  
*The management don’t do any fundraising. For instance, the Board came with an idea that they will do a sport event during Easter, but in the end it is us who have to run the event. It always comes to us when there is no funds to exercise our duties; the board is not involved in fundraising.*

Although Midgley & Conley (2010:172) are in agreement with the aforementioned participants’ sentiments that fundraising is an important aspect of NGOs functioning, the authors also emphasised that non-profit organisations need to explain in their business plan exactly where they intend to raise the money to support their efforts, and how much they expect to raise. Hardcastle *et al.* (2011:251) agrees with the previous participant’s notion that it is not the responsibility of social worker’s to raise funds for the organisation, but asserts that fundraising is part of the board’s duties, and that boards of directors and trustees are a
special kind of agency task group. The boards of directors of non-profit organisations are primarily responsible for the overall performance and the ultimate achievements of the organisation. Iecovich (2005) is also of the opinion that the board and management of an organisation are the legally responsible body for the NGOs fulfilling its fiduciary responsibility to the community. They are the trustees and stewards of the agency for the community where they are operating. They are therefore responsible to the community, just as a board of a proprietary corporation is responsible to the shareholders.

Boards of NGOs furthermore have several critical stewardship responsibilities, such as establishing the agency’s policies and programme priorities, and overseeing their operation. The board and management also set policies and sees that they are followed by the agency staff, and are responsible for fundraising and resource raising for the agency. Resources include fiscal resources and legitimacy, the annual budget allocation and oversight. Further tasks of the board and management are: determining how resources are to be spent and overseeing the spending; developing responsibilities of recruiting and hiring, and supervising the agency’s top management; linking with critical resources and advocating for the agency in the task environment, including local, regional, and national relations and lobbying. With regard to the agency staff especially that of the top management, their responsibility to their boards is to assist the board in fulfilling its responsibilities and not to usurp them. The board members bear the ultimate fiduciary responsibility. Much of the failure of the financial institutions leading to the Great Recession of 2008 onward can be placed on the boards for not fulfilling their fiduciary responsibilities and allowing executive staff to assume board functions.

Futter, Cion & Overton (2002:230) are also in agreement with the aforementioned notion and argue that if communication and fundraising are matters of commerce with the outside world,
and if we accept that dealing with the outside world is a legitimate board responsibility, then fundraising must be accepted by the boards as one of their important responsibilities. A non-profit organisation with many different constituent groups may desire to have a large board of directors with members either representing or affiliated with its major constituencies. Because fundraising or development is often vital to the life of non-profit organisations such as NGOs, the nominating committee can play a major role in the positioning of the organisation to meet its fundraising needs, by considering the issue of size versus efficiency. The needs of the organisation also affect the types of committees that are necessary. Committees common to most non-profit organisations include an executive committee, a finance committee, a fundraising or development committee, and perhaps a compensation committee. The role of the board is therefore to assist with fundraising, and to allow social workers to proceed with their professional responsibilities. The following sub-theme unpacks the relationship between sponsors and social workers working for NGOs.

4.3.3.3. **Sub-theme C3: Relationship between the DSD and social workers in the NGO**

Partnership in the welfare sector is a cooperative effort between government, civil society, and the business sector, in order to deliver services to communities (DSD, Integrated Service Delivery Model: 2004). Therefore understanding the relationship between the DSD as main sponsor and the NGOs is essential. One of the participants who took part in this study explained this concept as follows:

*We don’t have a good relationship with DSD officials. The social workers from DSD promised they will provide for one of our programmes with catering. On the day of the event they informed us that they didn’t submit the request to the stakeholder on time. It was our organisation ACVV and Geco who were let down. The attitude of the social*
workers of DSD is very negative. They don’t work closely with us. They think that because they are working for DSD, they can do as they please. Previously it was better but now it’s very bad. They don’t respect us but they will still come and expect us to assist them with their work.

In support of this, Earle (2008:33) commented that numerous social workers said that it is ironic that the DSD, which is ultimately responsible for the providing, coordinating and financing of social welfare services and supposed to be supportive to NGOs who are working alongside them, has for a long time in fact been undermining them and is rather trying to find alternative social service professions to do the work. Another issue that presently confuses direction in welfare provision is that, while national government sets the policies and directives, it is left to the respective provinces to deliver the relevant funding. Unfortunately the communication between government levels is usually poor, and the funds for subsidy are frequently not reserved for usage alongside these directives, or the directives are basically ‘interpreted’ in a different way at provincial level, and subsequently the beneficiary becomes underfunded. This matter contributes to the repeated conflict between the three key welfare partners, national government, provincial government, and NGOs, with service recipients suffering the most as a result. One of the participants who took part in the present study commented as follows:

It’s like they don’t want to work collectively. What I noticed is about funding is that previously we worked well together, but now they have their own funding and they don’t want to share. When new approach them for assistance, they will tell you they already planned programmes in their area and are unable to assist.

In the current spirit of absence of acknowledgment and appreciation from the DSD, there is a general sense of discouragement in the NGO sector. The unintentional result of the existing
welfare funding policy has been cumulative tensions inside the NGO sector as their need to access funding is eroded against their self-government and independent professional finding of needs and priorities. Many stakeholders fear that the main economic constraints are currently abolishing NGOs as an accomplished and driven portion of the welfare sector in SA (Smit, 2005). Numerous NGOs have remained powerless to restructure their programmes to suit the review of funding requirements for programmes concentrating on cluster and community work, and have been forced to close their doors (Triegaardt, 2002). In her study, this author suggests that government now controls the entire welfare sector, that welfare agencies are disempowered and owing to their reliance on government funding, have to dance to government’s tune in spite of their occasionally better and extra creative judgement (Triegaardt, 2002:366). While the latest ISDM for DSD states that “the allocation of resources will be determined by the growth of suitable norms and standards” (DSD 2005a:7) and will contribute to bridging present divides, the manager of National Coalition of Social Services (NACOSS) contends that administration still does not appear to have long-term visualisation about social development, and that they incline to “mouth partnership when it suits them” but that in reality NGOs do not experience a true partnership (Earle, 2008:25). The way onward is only viable if there is growth of a proper partnership between government and private welfare sectors, the roles of each partner are clearly defined and respected, and where there is true commitment, trust integrity, accountability and equality within the partnership over the long term (Lombard & Du Preez, 2004; Lombard & Van Rensburg, 2001).

While Noyoo (2000:462) argues that “the affiliation between the DSD and social work practice must be one of complete partnership and not one of chief and servant, as in the days of apartheid” many in the welfare sector argue that the relationship of state as chief and social work as servant has not in fact changed, but rather that the new government has only become
a new master. Apart from challenges with regard to the relationship with DSD, the following sub-theme unpacks the relationship between the social workers and the supervisors of the NGO where they were working.

4.3.3.4. **Sub-theme C4: Relationship between the social worker and the supervisor of the NGO**

The participants in this research study commented that they were pressurised by their supervisors to meet deadlines and targets despite a lack of funds, lack of resources, high caseloads, and the demand for crisis intervention. One of the participants described their experience in this way:

*Area supervision - It's like attacking sessions*

Nicholas *et al.* (2010:110) states that the purpose of supervision is to improve social workers’ professional skills, knowledge and attitudes in order to attain capability in providing excellence services to users and communities. It aids professional growth and development and improves effective service delivery. The social work manager is accountable for two levels of supervision, namely supervision of professional roles and supervision of administrative activities and duties. Green (2011:43) shares the same sentiment and postulates that the intent of supervision is to support the social worker to achieve his/her job requirements within a professional framework. Lishman (2009a:65) cited in Trevithick (2012:298) argues that the main purpose of supervision must be separate from management control and accountability because it is constructed on a professional-to-professional affiliation rather than a higher-to-subordinate one. The following sub-theme explores the impact of project implementation on social workers.
4.3.4. Theme D: Impact of project implementation on social workers

The impact of project implementation on social workers must be understood from the perspective that social workers who are working for NGOs are challenged by various stumbling blocks in an attempt to exercise their roles as social workers and project managers. They have lower salaries than their counterparts, compete with their fellow colleagues in the government sector to reach the same targets with less resources and infrastructure, and have diverse roles in the NGO such as supervisors, managers, social workers and mentors to social auxiliary work and social work students, as well as the need to do fundraising themselves. The following sub-themes are therefore unpacking the impact of project implementation on social workers at NGOs.

4.3.4.1. Sub-theme D1: Social workers who are working at NGOs are overloaded by diverse roles which lead to burnout

The participants in this research study indicated that they were burdened by the often diverse roles that they have to fulfil in the NGO sector, adding that it often contributes to burnout and health-related problems. The following participant described their challenge in this regard as follows:

We are expected to do everything and supervise all these projects as social workers.

We need a project manager to assist us with the projects. That’s why people are having heart attacks and so much stress. I’m always sick and is suffering from headaches. This impact on my health.

This statement bears evidence of a work overload and subsequent stress in the workplace. One of the most evident or obviously discernible causes of stress in the workplace is work overload which refers simply to having an inordinate amount of work, with regard to the
amount of time available to do it in. Essentially, it refers to an impossibly large workload. Social workers who find themselves faced with this problem in the workplace on a more regular basis will experience higher levels of stress (Statt, 2004:91). High workload, with minimal time frames for the completion of such loads, contributes greatly to the experience of stress in the workplace (Dillenburger, 2004:222). Noblet (2003:357) agrees that the lack of time for deadlines is one of the major external job-related causes of stress. The crux of this situation lies in the fact that it is a decision that must be made by the individual about how to approach their problem. The quantity-versus-quality dilemma is often a further source of stress (Huxley, Evans, Gately, Webber, Mears, Pajak, Kendall, Medina & Katona 2005:1067). Should a professional focus on the quantity of work completed with scant regard for its quality, or should the quality of work be focused upon, with its quantity being disregarded? Over-stimulation” another term for over-load, may also incorporate not only a large workload, but also a large amount of data that must be mentally processed. Over-stimulation can be linked to diverse physical and mental symptoms for a social worker, such as stomach ulcers, frequent headache and skin disorders, as well as an increase in alcohol and cigarette consumption. Over-stimulation can also be associated with increased levels of noradrenalin and adrenalin in the bloodstream, hormones linked to the hardening of arteries in the body (Fincham & Rhodes, 1999:47).

The work overload of social workers at NGOs must, however, be seen against the background of limited or no resources, lack of infrastructure, lack of sufficient funds for projects and staffing, high staff turnover, and diverse roles and expectations of board members and management to raise funds in addition to their professional roles. These factors remain a huge challenge for social workers amid managing high caseloads and expectations to meet the same targets as their colleagues in the government sector. The following sub-
theme highlights another challenge for social workers in the NGO sector, namely the discrepancy in their salaries.

4.3.4.2. Sub-theme D2: Discrepancy between the salaries of social workers working for NGOs and the government sector

The participants in this study added that despite their work overload, their salary is much lower than that of their counterparts in the government sector. The following quotation explains this situation.

*Our salaries are too low and it has an impact on service delivery. The subsidies for the salaries of social workers is inadequate. There is a shortage of 20 % on the salaries of social workers in NGO’S in the subsidy. The salaries of social workers who are working for the state is much more than ours... What about experienced social workers who have working for years for this organisation. ...they [DSD in the form of subsidy] don’t pay for the salaries of bookkeepers, administration clerks... The money (subsidy) is always coming late, it’s very irritating. This office could not even pay our salaries in January.*

Earle (2007:66) agrees that social worker salaries have traditionally been low, not only in South Africa but also internationally. This factor is attributed by academics to the fact that the profession is largely practised by women, and to the lower status that this affords it. Despite the fact that the salaries of social workers are traditionally very low, the legislative and governance contexts of social work practice in South Africa after 1994 resulted in a rapid erosion of social worker salaries and in the rise of substantial remuneration inequality, first, between the public and the private welfare sectors, and second, across provinces even within these sectors. One of the first priorities of the DSD as part of the implementation of its
Recruitment and Retention Strategy is the re-grading of social worker salaries within the department, in recognition of the fact that social work is a four-year professional qualification.

As a result of the above atmosphere, qualified social workers can expect little job security in newly attained positions, and in many cases in NGOs, remuneration that may not be very substantial, in comparison with governmental positions. The discrepancy in salaries results in the fact that NGOs are constantly losing of social workers to governmental organisations, as their salaries and benefits are better. Higher subsidies for these organisations would mean more workers within their organisations, and indirectly, lower caseloads (Survey of Social Work Recruitment and Retention in the Western Cape, 2007:7). Although the Recruitment and Retention Strategy for Social workers notes that there have been compensation-related insufficiencies in the field of social work, and that these insufficiencies must be addressed, it has not yet materialised.

The funding of NGOs remains a problem in the South African social work sphere. A Survey of Social Work Recruitment and Retention in the Western Cape (DSD, 2007) found that only 22% of NGOs described their staffing situation as stable. Owing to a lack of funding from the Department of Social Development, many organisations cannot afford to recruit new staff, even though the positions are required. As a result these organisations cannot ensure job security to their newly qualified social workers, and the aforementioned vacancies increase. The disparity in salaries between NGOs and DSD therefore remain a significant threat for the future of social service delivery by NGOs.
4.4. CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an in-depth discussion on the findings of the research study. It included a detail process of identification of the themes and sub-themes that appeared during the process of data analysis. Descriptions of the findings were supported by relevant quotes from the focus groups and individual participation and were compared and contrasted with local and international literature.

The four major themes that emerged were as follows:

- Enabling factors for implementing project planning and the business plan.
- Disenabling factors/challenges with planning and writing of the business plan.
- Stakeholders’ influence in project implementation which affect efficient and effective project outcomes.
- Impact of project planning on social workers.

The following chapter will conclude this report with a summary of the study and research recommendations.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter will provide a summary of the findings that surfaced from the research study, as well as conclusions and recommendations. In general, the goal of the study was to explore and describe challenges for implementing project planning in the NGO sector in Overberg Municipality, Western Cape. The research design for this study was qualitative research using a combination of individual, semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions which were conducted to collect data from the participants. The data was analysed using Creswell’s (2009) eight basic step process of qualitative data analysis. This chapter will provide a summary of the findings, limitations and the recommendations that emerged from the research study.

The four main themes that emerged from the study were enabling factors for implementing project planning and the business plan, disenabling factors/problems with planning and writing of the business plan, stakeholders’ influence on project implementation that influences efficient and effective project outcomes, and the impact that the challenges of implementing project planning in the NGO sector had on the well-being of the social workers. This chapter will provide the reader with a summary of the findings of the study, as well as short- and long-term recommendations, limitations, reflexivity, and a conclusion.
5.2. SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

Based on the findings of the study it was clear that a great deal needed to be done in order to ensure that effective implementation of project planning in the NGO sector was taking place. The group of social workers were of the opinion that they needed more training in project management and the ability to manage project outcomes and project outputs.

They were experiencing problems with regard to completion of a business plan and indicated that they lacked skills and training in the planning and writing of such a plan.

In addition, a lack of resources both in the community and at the organisational level clearly hampered the progress of social workers in implementing project planning in the NGO sector. Lack of resources included human capacity resources, financial resources, infrastructure and skills. Limited human resources also tended to affect the ability of the organisation to implement project planning in the NGO sector. Added to this, a lack of funding for operational cost hampered effective project planning. NGOs’ lack of funding tended to affect the efficient running of programmes as well as on the adherence of clients in participating in the programmes. This ultimately had an impact on the organisation as the project managers were unable to reach the targets that were stipulated in the transfer payment agreement between the NGO and DSD.

In addition, the social workers indicated that that they were overloaded by the diverse roles they were expected to play in the organisation. These challenges were so intense that social workers often suffered from burnout and stress. Some social workers said that they had to be both office managers and practicing social workers despite a high case load. Participants also commented on the fact that there tended to be a lack of supportive environment in their organisation as there was a lack of support from the supervisor. They found that their supervisors were not always available when they needed them. Beside a lack of support from
the supervisors, participants also felt that there was a lack of support from the Department of Social Development with regard to challenges for implementing project planning in the welfare sector.

5.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are by no means comprehensive, but should be seen as a starting point to resolve the developmental areas identified in this study. These are merely guidelines that the respective stakeholders of the Department of Social Development in conjunction with Non-Governmental Organisations and other role players could focus on in order to address the issues discussed.

5.3.1. Short-term recommendations

- Students who receive bursaries from DSD should also be placed in the NGOs so that the vacancies can be filled and to provide some continuity in service delivery. This would also extend the Recruitment and Retention Strategy for Social Workers (2006) to the NGOs who are currently working alongside DSD, producing a significant proportion of welfare service in SA. This partnership would also strengthen the relationship between the state and the NGOs as they are partners in the welfare sector.

- There is a strong indication that the lack of resources of NGOs, such as funding to implement programmes, salaries for social workers and support staff and the lack of infrastructure such as transport and fuel, inhibits the implementation of project planning in the welfare sector. An increase in resources provided by the Department of Social Development in terms of subsidy would allow social workers at NGOs to
continue with their professional duties and enable them to meet their targets instead of
doing fundraising and other non-professional tasks.

- Resources and infrastructure, such as shelters for women and children, and
rehabilitation centres for substance abuse users should be planned, established and
shared jointly by both the DSD and NGOs’ workforce, especially in rural areas. This
strategy would also enable all service users of the welfare sector to benefit from the
same resources.

- Policy makers at DSD should consider moving away from generic social work and/or
the current basket of services to specialised services, such as foster care and other
specialisation areas in this field. This would not only reduce the work overload and
stress for social workers, but would also ensure improved service delivery to those
service users who are in need of specialised services. Specific intervention to retain
skills rather than focusing on all social problems, would also grant social workers
greater job satisfaction.

- In addition management of NGOs should look at employee health and wellness
programmes for social workers and supporting staff. They should create a platform
where they would be able to do debriefing as they are facing a lot of challenges
regarding their work, and should introduce team building to strengthen the
relationship between social workers and managers. This programme would lower
stress levels of social workers. It is also recommended that management should look
at ways of motivating staff by looking at staff performance appraisals and providing
once-off incentives, as this could also motivate staff to work hard.

- Ongoing in-service training by both the managements of NGOs and DSD needs to be
given continuously in order for the social workers to adapt and to react to new
developments in the social work profession.
• Current social workers who are working with NGOs need to receive additional training from the DSD and their own organisations in project planning, monitoring and evaluation, to provide them with the necessary knowledge and skills to improve their current applications for funding, the implementation of projects, and subsequently effective social service delivery.

• Officials of DSD are requested to assist and finalise outstanding service level agreements with NGOs for the implementation of funding strategies in an attempt to provide ultimate social service delivery with a shortage of social workers versus high numbers of service users.

• Board members and the management of NGOs should seriously consider their own roles in organisations and assist with fundraising. It is recommended that social workers who are already battling with high caseloads as well as a lack of resources and infrastructure be allowed to proceed with social work intervention.

• While it is obvious that supervisors in NGOs are under a great amount of pressure to meet their organisation’s targets, it is recommended that they maintain professional relationships with social workers, providing an environment of support, understanding and motivation. Supervisors should also be available for guidance and support when needed.

• It is recommended that both officials of DSD and NGOs conduct ongoing needs assessments in the communities where they are working, to ensure that they meet the demands of their service users and to make sure that funding is spent appropriately.
• Stakeholders at the DSD and NGOs should take responsibility to run effective marketing strategies and awareness programmes in their communities to avoid confusion among service users and to streamline effectiveness.

• Subsidies from the DSD should be paid to NGOs according to the prescribed timelines to ensure continuity in service delivery and prompt salaries of staff and to prevent a lack of resources in the day-to-day functioning of welfare organisations.

• While officials of DSD are responsible for providing direction in welfare provision on a national level, it is left to the respective provinces to deliver the relevant funding. Because communication between government levels is often poor, and the funds for subsidy are not interpreted in the same way on provincial level, they often become underfunded which results in repeated conflict between national government, provincial government and NGOs. In order to ensure that service users are not suffering the consequences, it is recommended that all the partners invest in effective communication strategies.

5.3.2. Long-term recommendations

• There is a great disparity in terms of salaries and service benefits between social workers who are working in the government sector and those employed by the private sector. It is therefore recommended that the DSD reconsider subsidy allocation to NGOs in order to make provision for social workers’ salaries. These gaps need to be addressed so that there is equity among all the different stakeholders in the profession and to address the high turnover of staff, enabling implementation of project planning and consistency in service delivery.

• Managers of NGOs and stakeholders at the DSD need to look at ways in which they can share infrastructure such as venues, staffing, and funding for programmes that are
offered across all communities, such as those for Women’s Day, violence against women and children, and HIV/AIDS month, especially in rural areas seeing that they are rendering the same services at the same time and their resources are both financed by the public sector. By joining human and material resources, rather than running different smaller programmes, they will be able to reach more service users and communities.

- Officials at SACSSP and academic staff at universities where social work qualifications are offered, should take cognisance of the requirements of welfare organisations when they are planning curriculums for qualification. The planning, monitoring and evaluation of project planning should be incorporated in both theoretical and practical modules, in order to equip students with the necessary knowledge and skills before they enter the practice. Once all the beginner social workers are familiar with the basic concepts of project planning, organisations can continue with in-service training instead of doing all the training themselves, thus saving money and resources.

- The Department of Social Development needs to harness all role players in the welfare sector to develop guidelines in order to improve the current implementation for project planning in the NGO sector.

- The Department of Social Development should review the current funding policies (NPFASP, 2004, FPDSWS, 1999, Provincial Policy on Funding of NGO’s for the Rendering of Social Work Services, 2011, Non-Profit Organisations Act 71 of 1997) of non-governmental organisation as it currently does not make provision for the funding of projects and impacts negatively on service delivery and as well as the organisational climate of NGOs.
• The boards and/or management of NGOs are called upon to meet on a regular basis with other NGOs in their areas to plan and coordinate their services in order to prevent overlapping and fragmented service delivery. It is also recommended that NGOs who are delivering similar services in the same areas consider writing some business plans together in order to share resources and time, thus improving their impact in communities. The latter would also be a constructive step towards improving relationships and cooperation among NGOs, thus improving their service delivery and reduce competition.

• In addition, the management of DSD and NGOs should meet regularly on national, provincial, and district level, to plan and coordinate welfare services together, in order to improve relationships and coordinate welfare services as they are both responsible for social service delivery. Once again, it is recommended that in a case where offices of DSD and NGOs are rendering similar services in the same areas, they should consider writing business plans together in order to share resources and to focus on the needs of communities.

• It is also recommended that the management of DSD seriously consider ways in which they can cooperate with NGOs instead of maintaining the current top-down approach and shifting to a climate of corporation.

5.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Every research study no matter how well structured or constructed, has some limitations which may directly or indirectly negatively affect the outcome of the study. The researcher has therefore noted the following as some of the limitations that hampered the outcome of this research study.
A significant limitation of this study was the lack of participation from the Department of Social Development. Their inclusion and participation could have provided more insight into the challenges that social workers are experiencing with regard to the implementation of project planning in the welfare sector as a whole, and to provide feasible recommendations to all the stakeholders.

In view of the fact that the Overberg Municipality is situated in a rural area, the number of social workers who are working in the NGO sector is limited. The population for the study was therefore rather small, with the result that only three NGOs were included in the study.

5.5. SELF-REFLEXIVE MEASUREMENTS THE RESEARCHER

Cohen, Marion & Morrison (2000) cited in Humphries (2008:28) define reflexivity as “a conscious awareness of the effect that the participants as practitioners and researchers are having on the research process”. The process of conducting the research was modest supported by the documentation that was submitted in the research proposal where the researcher followed all necessary steps of initiating contact with the participants, obtaining permission from all relevant parties and conducting of interviews. The researcher therefore managed to conduct the research study as a logical process guided by the relevant literature and research protocol. In doing this research the researcher did not allow her personal opinions to affect the research process and the interviews were carried out in a professional ethical manner showing respect for the respondents’ self-worth and dignity. All the interviews were done at a convenient place for the participants. The researcher avoided sensitive questions so as to avoid coercing the participants into giving information that they were not comfortable with.
The researcher was also guided by her supervisors in order to avoid biasness, remain objective and to follow research protocol at all times.

Although the researcher is a project manager, working at the DSD, she followed research protocol at all times during the execution of the study to prevent bias and to remain objective at all times.

5.6. CONCLUSION

The aim and objective of the study appear to have been met satisfactorily. The study established that social workers who are working in the NGO are experiencing several challenges with regard to project implementation, such as shortage of staff, high staff turnover, diverse roles, lack of resources and infrastructure, as well as insufficient funding, which ultimately have an impact on project implementation and service delivery. Understanding these challenges was a basis for formulating recommendations for short- and long-term recommendations for both NGOs and the DSD. There seemed to be a significant lack of support from DSD with regard to the allocation of funding to NGOs. In general poor cooperation between DSD and the NGO welfare sector as a whole contributes to the disintegrating of welfare services not only in the Overberg Municipality, but in SA as a whole.
LIST OF REFERENCES


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Annexure: 1

Interview schedule:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Years experience</th>
<th>DSD/NGO</th>
<th>Job description</th>
<th>Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

The questions for social workers at NGO’s and DSD will be as follows:

- What kind of programs does your organisation render?
- What challenges do you experience in writing a business plan?
- What are your challenges in implementing project planning?
- How does the current funding process impact on your organisation’s funding?
- Can you make recommendations in order to improve project planning in the welfare sector?

The questions for project managers at NGO’s will be as follows:

- What challenges do you and your organisation experience in writing a business plan?
- To what extent did your training prepare you to implement project planning?
- What challenges do you experience in implementing project planning?
- What plans your organisation had in order to address the challenges?
- How does the current funding process impact on your organisation’s funding?
- Can you make recommendations in order to improve project planning in the welfare sector?

The questions for supervisors and/or budget holders will be as follows:

- What challenges do you experience in the business plans of NGO’s?
- To what extent did your training prepare you for supervising the budget allocation?
- What challenges do you experience during the process of budget allocation to DSD and NGO’s?
- Can you make some recommendations to address the challenges in budget allocation to DSD and NGO’s?
- How does the current budget allocation impact on the welfare sector?
FOCUS GROUP CONFIDENTIALITY BINDING FORM

Title of Research Project: Challenges for implementing project planning in the welfare sector.

The study has been described to me in language that I understand and I freely and voluntarily agree to participate. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed and that I may withdraw from the study without giving a reason at any time and this will not negatively affect me in any way. I agree to be audio-taped during my participation in the study. I also agree not to disclose any information that was discussed during the group discussion.

Participant’s name………………………………………………
Participant’s signature…………………………………………
Witness’s name…………………………………………………
Witness’s signature……………………………………………
Date………………………………………………
CONSENT FORM

Title of Research Project: Challenges for implementing project planning in the welfare sector.

I hereby agree to participate in research regarding the challenges for implementing project planning in the welfare sector.

- I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so.
- I also understand that I can stop this interview at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.
- The purpose of the study has been explained to me, and I understand what is expected of my participation.
- I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.
- I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the questionnaire, and that my answers will remain confidential.

Participant’s name………………………..
Participant’s signature……………………………….
Witness……………………………….
Date………………………

Should you have any questions regarding this study or wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact the study coordinator:
Study Coordinator’s Name: Dr Mariana de Jager
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag X17, Belville 7535
Telephone: (021)959-
Cell:
Fax: (021)959-
Email:
CONSENT LETTER

I’m Nomathemba Buyani a Masters student in Social Work (2038750) at the above mentioned institution and I would like to conduct my research in your organisation. The research title is ‘challenges for implementing project planning in the welfare sector’.

This research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally but the results may help the investigator learn more about challenges for implementing project planning in the welfare sector. The results of this study will strengthen the relationship between government and NGO’s. To provide guideline in order to improve service delivery

I would like your organisation to give me permission to conduct my research.

Please find the attached research proposal and ethical clearance.

Your cooperation in this regard is fully appreciated.

Kind Regards
Nomathemba Buyani

Should you have any questions regarding this study or wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact the study coordinator:
Study Coordinator’s Name: Dr Mariana de Jager
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag X17, Belville 7535
Telephone: (021)959-
Cell:
Fax: (021)959-
Email: mdejager@uwc.ac.za