THE DETERMINANTS OF ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS IN CAMEROON

KANGATLAM, Alexis
Lecturer, University of Maroua, Cameroon

ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study is to analyze the internal and external factors that explain the organisational development of NGOs in Cameroon in order to propose an organisational development model. To achieve this objective, the researched used a qualitative analysis through a multiple case study of 16 NGOs based in the Sudano-Saharan region of Cameroon. In order to collect the necessary information to conduct this study, we use three procedures: semi-directed interviews, documentary analysis, and participatory observation. At the end of our content analysis, we find that the organisational development of NGOs is explained by the level of education of the manager, the use of internal rules and regulations, the diffusion of reports, the self-evaluation, the development of operational plans, and the development of technical and financial partnerships. Based on these determinants, we propose an organisational development model which highlights three levels of organisational development: the low level of organization, the average level of organization, and the advanced level of organization.

Keywords: NGO, organisational development, model, structural contingency.

JEL Classifications: C21, O11, O16, Q01.

1. INTRODUCTION

The 70s and 80s were marked by the inability of the State and markets to address development problems. NGOs (non-governmental organisations) therefore arouse as actors in the development process under the impulse of technical partners and international cooperation. Kenmogne (2003) in his book “Non-governmental organisations and participative development” holds that: “NGOs inherit a double failure: the failure of the State to guarantee the welfare of all and satisfy all the desires of the populations; and the inability of the profit seeking private sector to ensure an equitable distribution of goods and services through the market mechanism”. Tarray (Cité in Kenmogne) regards the State as a giant with Lilliputian hands and NGOs as organisations which take into account the needs of the population that have not been addressed by government action. NGOs thus play a complementary role with regard to the State which remains a catalyst in the development process.

In the northern regions of Cameroon, there are several types of government organisations: networks, platforms, federations, unions, support organisations and basic groups. The support organisations accompany basic organisations in their structuring and development. It has been observed that in the northern regions of Cameroon, NGOs after their creation, evolve in a saw-
tooth manner and die a few years afterwards or remain stagnant without any real progress or remarkable growth. This vulnerability can be explained by several reasons. One of these reasons is related to the unsuited organisation of NGOs and the unclear position of the NGO in the institutional and legal context. Local NGOs do not develop themselves and are vulnerable to changes in their environment (Diro, 2010). In the literature, the management of organisational development consists in working out strategies, implementing projects, programs and processes, and carrying out interventions which contribute to the achievement of the mission of the organisation and ensure its survival.

Beckhard (1969) on the basis of pioneer studies by certain authors (Mc Gregor, Likert, Argyris) and on studies in behavioural psychology (Maslow, Lewin) defines organisational development as an effort of a planned change of the company in order to improve the organisational efficiency and satisfaction of people. Leavitt (1969) focuses on the unit of the company and defines organisational development as the desire for an organisation to combine in a coherent manner its human and technical resources in an appropriate structure to execute the tasks or missions of the company. Although a good number of authors have focused on organisational development in NGOs, very few address its determinants. These determinants can be internal or external. This study thus aims at highlighting the internal and external factors determinants of organisational development in NGOs. We thus have as main research question: “What are the factors which explain organisational development in non-governmental organisations?”

The main objective of this study is to highlight the internal and external factors that explain the organisational development of co-operatives. To achieve this objective, we apply content analysis to data on a sample of 16 NGOs in the Sudano-Sahelian regions of Cameroon. This study is structured as follows: a first part presents the theoretical framework of the study; the second presents the methodological framework and the third the main results.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The challenges of organisational development today raise important questions to which organisations have to find self-specific answers if they want to be able to continue to change and to adapt to new environmental and numerical realities. These questions are related to:

2.1 The behaviour of the manager

The theory that uses the behavior of the manager to explain growth is advanced by Kirkpatrick and Locke who distinguish between leaders and non-leaders. Leaders are motivated, have integrity and self-confidence; while being emotionally stable. This “ideal” profile is consolidated by more recent studies. Bolden (2004) adds to this long list of qualities, that of sociability and motivation as well as certain reinforced abilities (intelligence, eloquence). The theory of the “big five” is advanced in the nineties (Digman, 1990; Costa and Mc Rae, 1995). According to this theory, individuals are structured around five stable features through time and situations: the neuroticism (adaptation to emotional instability), extraversion, openness, agreeableness (quality of interpersonal orientation of the individual), and conscientiousness. We also retain behavioural theories which seek to distinguish leaders from the non-leaders on the basis of specific behaviour. The first studies in this field were carried out in the USA by academicians from the universities of Michigan and Ohio.

The researchers of the University of Ohio classify behavior using a model with two dimensions: initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure is the capacity of a leader to define and structure his role and that of his subordinates for the achievement of a goal. It is a question assigning and distributing tasks and objectives (like performance objectives). Consideration is the ability of the leader to maintain employment relationships based on confidence and the respect of subordinates. A recent study shows that the recommendations of these researchers are still important today. According to researchers in occupational psychology (Palo
Alto, 1992), consideration will bring better employment relationships when the initiating structure is relevant in the event of an analysis of performance and productivity objectives.

The researchers of the University of Michigan try to identify the behaviours likely to determine the efficiency of leadership. They arrive at a model usually used by certain consultants and based, once again, on a two-dimensional approach. Certain leaders would be centered on production while others would focus more on the employee (Kahn and Katz, 1966). The “employee centered” leader will seek to set up important interpersonal relationships by respecting the needs of the employees. The “production oriented” leader will be interested in the technique and labor productivity. In this case, the leader oriented towards the employees will be recognized as more effective. These approaches through style try to establish a typology of leaders in order to distinguish between them and show their importance and constraints. Several models exist. They can be “psychological” or multi-factor. Certain models can be qualified as “psychological” because they represent the typology of leaders based on their perception, especially by the collaborators who work with them.

In his social analysis of the reports of domination (in “The Protestant ethics and the spirit of capitalism”), Weber (1947) establishes the types of powers reserved for the leaders: traditional leadership, legal leadership, charismatic leadership.

According to Bédard (2008), there exist four types of leaders: The systematic leader, the pragmatic leader, the mythical leader, the relational leader. What is interesting in this approach is that each type of leader can correspond to a basic activity of the life of the company. The multi-factor models lay emphasis on “factors” or “levels of implication” making it possible to qualify the leader. The Collins (2001) model represents the leadership through various “levels” (five levels). What is interesting in this typology is that one talks of leader only starting from the fourth “level”, which means that one could be a good collaborator but not sufficiently to become a leader, i.e. not being able to transcend the objectives and carry the others. For this reason, we could say that level 3 is that of the effective manager while level 4 represents that of the efficient leader.

2.2 Decision making in organisations

Decision making is the set of key periods in the course of the process, the route which leads to the final decision. In his more modern approach, Sfez (1992) considers that “decision making is a process of progressive engagement which is connected to others and marked by the recognised existence of several ways to arrive at the same and single goal”. Any human activity or behavior requires that the actor makes a decision. A decision-making process includes the choice of a goal and the choice of behaviour. Initially, the decision maker is brought to choose final objectives, referred to as “value judgments” by Simon (1947).

The decision maker is interested in the decisions of implementation of the projects, referred to as “factual judgments”. The modeling of the processes of decision making is of interest to researchers in the field of the social sciences at two levels. The first lies in the proposition of prescriptive or normative models of decision making. This type of models constitutes a tool making that enables the researcher to address problems that are clearly posed in identifiable situations. Such is the case of models developed models for example when it comes to making a choice of investment, launch the production of a good, or manage a stock. The second importance lies in the construction of descriptive models of decision making. It is from this second point of view that Simon (1947) proposes his model of decision making. This model is sufficiently general that it is recognised as a canonical model of decision making. This model distinguishes four phases in decision making: the phase of intelligence, the phase of design, the phase of choice, and the phase of evaluation or assessment.

In the process of decision making, one chooses the alternatives supposed to provide the adequate means to meet the set ends (Simon, 1947). The model of the decision-making process highlights that human behavior is rational. Managing an organisation well requires the development within the organization of behaviours adapted to the realisation of certain ends. From
this point of view, the behaviours address the need to meet the desired ends. One finds a certain form of rationality in organisations. This is why in the organisational development process, the individual who is involved is paramount and his behaviour is also important in the quest of organisational goals. Organisations seek a collective rationality, which is beyond individual rationality.

According to Simon (1947), “a means-ends chain is a series of forecasts which associate a value to the situations which concretise it, and these situations to the behaviours which produce them” (Simon, 1947). The concept of rationality is thus inevitably contingent; a decision is rational taking into account the situation, the context, the intention which precedes the decision.

2.3. Structural contingency

With Lawrence and Lorsch (1967), the school of contingency developed with ramifications extending until today and related for example to knowledge management (Birkinshaw, Nobel, and Riddelstrale, 2002). The ideology of this school of thought is sometimes explicit and sometimes implicit. Firstly, the use of the term of contingency leaves a “postmodern” appearance according to which it is advisable to relativise the contents of a strategy according to the context where the organisation operates. In fact, the role of contingency theory in strategy is to control contingency by resorting to a structuralism whose origin and contents are based on universalism. This observation is in line with the remark by Clegg and Westwood (2003) who hold that the idea of contingency in management forms an integral part of the traditional structuro-functionalist school of thought. However, the originality of the contingency school in strategy probably lies in this absence of critical reflexivity on its own approach. The delimitation of contingent objects to which it proceeds anticipates their future via the development of contingent models which are certainly local but have an extensive vocation. In the literature, there are several factors of contingency: size of the company, age, environment, and technology.

Size is a factor retained in analysis of the Aston group in their attempt to categorise bureaucracies and their evolution. The most important study in this field is that by Blau (1970). Blau develops the idea that an increase in the size of the organisation involves a larger differentiation of the organisation at the cost of a fall in intensity and the global effects. Recent extensions from the crossing of antagonists deal with the problem of the specificity of SME in another manner by posing the concept of SME as the focus of the study (Torrés, 2001). This trend of denaturation reminds us how many small companies can, in certain contexts, function like large companies (Messeghem, 1997, Torrés et al., 2005), thus relativising the general scope of the specificities of SME management. Among the characteristics of the company that have an impact on growth, size is that which most considered by researchers because of its importance in the determination of adapted national economic policies. Many researchers conclude on a negative relationship between size and growth (Davidsson et al., 2002; Almus and Nerlinger, 1999; Delmar, 1997), whereas some rare studies carried out in very varied contexts find a positive relationship between size and growth (Roper, 1999; Wijewardena and Tibbits, 1999) or do not find any relationship between these two concepts (Delmar, 1997; Wiklund, 1999). If one cannot determine with certainty how the size of the company affects its growth, we can however suppose that size has an effect on growth (Delmar et al., 2003).

Age is also an internal factor of structural contingency. Several researchers have studied the effect of time on organisations. Intuitively, it appears that age and size are partially correlated. Starbuck (1965) comes to moderate the approximations on these variables. He initially notes that whatever their age, organisations generally resist change, confirming the bureaucratic hypothesis. In fact, the studies on the relationship between the age of companies and their growth quasi unanimously find a negative relationship (Davidsson et al., 2002; OECD, 2002; Julien, 2000; Almus and Nerlinger, 1999). Young companies are thus more likely to grow faster than older companies or, at the very least, to adopt different growth trajectories (Delmar et al., 2003; Mustar,
It is thus possible that it is age, rather than size which exerts a significant effect on growth.

Technology as a variable affecting growth was developed in pioneer work of Woodward (1965) which is appropriate to retain as starting point of our analysis. Woodward finds a linear or curvi-linear relationship between its scale of types of technology and the variation in certain structural features. In addition, the Perrow model deserves also to be considered. It widens the concept of technology as an explanatory variable into the field of industrial companies and well beyond structure. Technology is thus the independent variable whereas the objectives are the dependant variables.

The environment of a company is a set of sociological, economic, legal, financial, technical, and cultural factors which affect the life of the company. It can be general or specific. Uncertainty characterises the environment. The company, to be in line with its environment, must often anticipate the evolution of this environment. In order to adjust itself to these constraints, Julien and Marchesnay (1988) identify three types of flexibility: operational, organisational and strategic flexibility. For William Dill, it is difficult to measure the effects of the environment when it is necessary to be in the logic of a precise and rigorous analysis. The meanings are different and the frameworks of reflection are not homogeneous. According to Martinet (1984), there exist as many environments as there are strategists.

Burns and Stalker (1961) finds that it is generally the nature of the environment that explains the form chosen by the organizations. Emery and Trist (1964) thus identify four categories of environments: The placid random environment, the placid grouped environment which is always rather stable, the reactive changing environment which is much more complex, and the turbulent environment. Ansoff (1979) hold that strategic turbulences cause particular and unexpected events which resist traditional successful reactions and whose result has a major impact on the profits of the company. Later (Ansoff et al., 1990), will consider that turbulence corresponds to variability in an environment characterized by a degree of innovation of challenges and by the speed at which they develop. Complexity corresponds to heterogeneity and the extent of the activities of an organisation (Dess et Beard, 1984). It can represent the competitive measure of the number of configurations that a firm can ideally regard as good for its own strategy (Chakravarthy, 1997). For Marchesnay (1993) a system becomes complex when the number of actors is high and when the relationship between these actors are strong and interactive. Lawrence and Lorsch (1976) show that depending on whether an organisation is differentiated or integrated, coordination is necessary. The environment is described as variable and dynamic.

After presenting the theories that explain organisational development, we see that some use the position of the leader, while others use the importance of the implication of the members in decision making, and openness and confidence between the members. Some relevant factors of structural contingency are also presented. Some of these factors are of an internal nature and others are of an external nature. We do not consider that we have made a complete review of the theory. An empirical analysis going from a sample of NGOs of the Sudano-Sahelian regions will enable us to reveal the factors of organisational development specific to NGOs in Cameroon. But before that, it is necessary to present the methodology of this study.

3. MATERIALS AND METHOD

3.1 Epistemological aspects

In management, it is often considered that two or three epistemological paradigms are opposed, between which it is necessary to choose: positivism on the one hand, and constructivism and interpretivism of the other. Interpretivism is often presented as an alternative to constructivism (Perret and Seville, 1999). In carrying out this study, we chose interpretivism. In line with Popper, interpretivism allows a fine analysis of knowledge and information available to the actors in a given situation. If this information relates to a process or a changing situation, this fine analysis
must highlight the knowledge of the actors ex-ante and ex-post, with their evolution during the period, and the observer also builds his interpretation of events by taking into account the ex-ante and ex-post (Dumez, 2006). This epistemological choice is recommended within the framework of a qualitative research.

3.2 Sample and data-collection

For the constitution of the sample, we proceed through a census of the local organisations going from studies on the evaluation of groups in certain support organisations and in reports on the regional socio-economic studies in Cameroon (for example the civil society support program, the United Nations Development Program, the European Union, and the office of support services to projects) or by word of mouth. Several criteria (representativeness, the diversity of the sector and the site) are used to select the organisations which can be part of the study. We make sure we respect representativeness in the groups (men, women, youths) and the diversity of the branch of industry (human rights, governance, health, rural development, social development) and site (North Cameroonian, particularly in the regional head quarters).

After this first stage, the second is characterised by the method of convenience which enabled us to approach the identified organisations which were within our range. Thus, the sample used within the framework of this study consists of 16 NGOs of the Sudano-Sahelian regions of Cameroon, 10 (ten) being from the Far-North, 3 (three) from the North and 3 (three) others from the Adamawa regions. With regard to the data collection, we used several means: documentary research and analysis (Statutes and internal rules, the charter and code of conduct, the handbook of management procedures, management reports, official reports of the political and administrative bodies, technical documents, management tools and sources of funding), participatory observation, and semi-structured interviews.

3.3 Data preparation and analysis

The analysis of the contents of the documents of the various organisations and interviews carried out on the 16 cases in our sample enable us to highlight the endogenous and exogenous factors that affect the organisational development of NGOs of the Sudano-Sahelian regions in Cameroon. The researcher thus opt to go from the research hypothesis to make empirical verifications and give an account of the experiences witnessed in their complexity and dynamics. The “action” dimension of our study acts as facilitator of an inductive approach.

4. RESULTS

The content analysis of the 16 cases reveals a certain number of findings. Firstly, as concerns the determinants of organisational development and secondly, on the classification of the NGOs of the sample. After the content analysis of the reports of the interviews carried out in the NGOs of the sample, it arises that organisational development in these NGOs can be explained using factors common to any organisation and factors specific to NGOs. The common to the organisations include the behavior of the leader, the participation of members in decision making, confidence and openness, collegial work and the development of partnerships. The behavior of the leaders were measured with the results showing that the proponents of organisational development defend the idea that a democratic leadership and helping management are more effective.

The results obtained from 16 organisations give the following trends, classified by order of importance concerning the behavior of the leader. The educational level of the leaders (88%), the use of internal rules as code of operation (81,25%), the practice of auto-evaluation in the organisations (75%), the practice of operational planning (68,75%), the installation of a simplified accounting system (37,25%), the behavior of the general assembly and board of directors (31,25%), the use of the management tools (31,25%), the existence of internal control mechanisms (25%), the
creation of the organisation as a means of survival and self employment (25%). These results are in line with those of Lewin who develops democratic leadership, contrary to authoritative leadership. According to Duluc (2003), companies are increasingly conscious of the importance of intellectual and human capital. Viviane Amar (2000) notes that culture transmitted two types of management to us: Pharaoh and Moses.

The first, conscious of its power and its knowledge, controls, enslaves, conquers, and monopolises. The second makes the people leave their interior prisons, transmits direction, and seeks the right action. According to Viviane, to manage men according to the Pharaonic structure is an anachronism given the technological changes and the need for pro-activity of markets, customers and shareholders. According to Gordon (2005), the efficient leaders are at the same time specialists in human relations, who can satisfy the needs of their collaborators and specialists in productivity, who can satisfy the needs of the company. This position is in line with the classical theory of Taylor who tries to organise the companies rationally by proposing scientific management, the will of the rationalisation proposed by max Weber, Henri Fayol (1916) who theorises on the management of firms by proposing a simple definition of direction. The social psychologists of the school of “efficient command” strongly defend democratic leadership (Mintzberg, 1984). Several researchers work on this model in the middle of the years 2000. They propose the need for an ethical approach based on confidence. The authentic leadership is therefore the most successful form of leadership (Avolio and al., 2004). These results bring us to conclude that the educational level, the use of internal rules, the practice of operational planning and the practice of auto-evaluation support the organisational development of non-governmental organisations. We confirm the thesis according to which democratic leadership is the mode of governance which is more adapted to non-governmental organisations in which the modes of action are based on initiative and creativity.

4.1 The participation of members in decision making

The summary of the results in the 16 organisations reveal the participative approaches developed in the decision-making processes in NGOs. Support through participative strategies is observed in several manners. The participation in decision making by the members at the time of statutory meetings (75%), the support of participative processes through the collective bearing of actions (50%), the support of participative processes through Community mobilisation in some cases (health and environment (44%)), the support of participative processes through co-administration (31%), participation through work groups and support for the autonomisation and responsibilisation (19%).

Likert was able to show in the superiority of the system of organisation of companies in the forties that the participative system, which according to him is by far the most effective and corresponds to the preferences of leaders. Sainsaulieu (1987) also clearly locates participation in a strategic perspective which cannot be separated from approaches aiming at free expression and democracy in the organisation. Victor Vroom and Arthur Jago establish a model of leadership based on styles related to the role played by the leaders in decision making. They postulate that the leader can modify his style, which sometimes lead the specialists to qualify this approach of contingent. Kaur (1993) in the same vein confirms that the performance of an organisation does not depend solely on the efficiency of the technology used, but mainly on the style of decision of the manager. Wu, Chiang and Jiang (2002) add that the management style does not affect only the performance of the organisation, but it is also related to the maintenance of its competitive advantage. These observations are in line with the result from the study by Hofstede (1980) according to which the choice of the style of decision of management also depends on the culture of the subordinates. Simon (1947) concludes that decision making necessarily passes through a participative approach of analysis and choice. These results bring us to conclude that the participative strategies common in organisations are participation in decision making by the members at the time of statutory meetings, the collective bearing of actions and Community
mobilisation in non-governmental organisations. The participation of members of the NGO in decision making processes improves organisational development which is based on the permanent interaction between members.

4.2 Confidence and openness

The initiative of the members in NGOs is based on the sharing of common interests and problems. Confidence between the members is necessary for a shared vision. Confidence constitutes one of the factors most strongly correlated with the engagement and performance of collaborators. It is the basis of the necessary co-operation in the face of complexity. In the same manner, innovating behaviors are based on confidence in oneself and in the organisation (Peretti, 2014). This confidence appears through co-operation between individuals and teams which is always under construction and produces human and social actions, beginning from exchange to the service of a joint project. Honesty, openness and confidence facilitate the exchange of information as well as productivity, a thesis defended by proponents of organisational development. This thesis is confirmed in NGOs insofar as the basis of these NGOs is confidence and co-operation. These values are regarded as paramount values for the survival of a non-governmental organisation. In this line, it contributes to humanise the company and the relations between the company and its environment (Kaspar et al., 2014).

Confidence and openness appear in the organisations in several manners. The manifestation of confidence by the sharing of the vision by all the members (100%), the development of partnerships with all the actors in the environment (100%), the existence of co-operatives in organisations (63%), the manifestation of honesty in organisations (38%), and the operationality of exchange and the interactions between the bodies (31%). Several authors defend the thesis of confidence and co-operation. Mintzberg goes further to say that: “True leadership is deserved internally, i.e. in the unit, the organisation, the community, or in the nation. This leadership is not satisfied with the direction of one person, it initially seeks the person who is convenient and supports him with enthusiasm” (Mintzberg, 2008). Schindler (1993) proposes five dimensions of confidence while insisting on integrity, honesty, and openness. Confidence is solid if it is based on the capacity to understand the intentions of the other. We then talk about “confidence of identification” (Shapiro, 1992). However, numerous excesses and abuses in the years 2000 reinforced the need for an ethical approach from the leader. Business (Enron, Parmalat, Servier 2001) put some large companies in lawsuits which revealed the condemnable action of leaders.

The openness of the organisation to its environment is essential for its survival. Although several authors consider that the variable “environment” has more visible effects on structure, other variables are included and used to explain its impact. These include: age (Meyer and Brown, 1978), size (Hall and Al, 1977; Blau, 1970), choice and power (Child, 1972), socio-cultural conditions (England et al., 1979), strategic conditions (Hickson et al., 1971), technology (Perrow, 1967; Woodward, 1965) and the technical system (Mintzberg, 1982). It is in this line that Lawrence and Lorsch (1967), while talking of organisational structures states: “There is no structure which is better, but rather various structures which are the best under various conditions”. Von Bertalanffy (1968) considers the organisation as a concrete system (comprising of men and machines); a finalised system (goal seeking); an organised system which has a structure; a dynamic system which evolves (according to the principles of entropy) and finally a regulated system.

The system theory gives a central role to feedback since it can stabilise the system or disturb it. These results lead us to conclude that confidence and openness in non-governmental organisations are explained by sharing, the development of partnerships and the existence of co-operative devices. Confidence and openness support a mutually beneficial exchange for the members of the NGO and support organisational development. However, it is necessary to pay attention to the socio-cultural factor. The management of resources is characterised in NGOs by the recruitment procedures which are described simply in the internal rules (75%), the taking into
account of socio-cultural and religious factors in the human resource management (25%), the non registration of personnel with the CNPS (38%) and part-time work (25%).

The management of resources is also included in internal rules. The socio-cultural factors are also integrated in the practices of human resource management. In non-governmental organizations, the motivation to work is all the more psychological (44%) and the aspect voluntary service is well developed. However, material motivation (31%) is also important because the managerial practices integrate material aspect well in the treatment and working conditions.

4.3 Collegial work

Collegial work is manifested in NGOs in several manners: the putting in place of specialised Committees, the setting of themes in work groups, steering committees, sections, components and working axes. These bodies clearly show the importance of collaborative work for non-governmental organisations. Out of the company, it is manifested by networking and the setting-up of sectoral platforms of dialogue multi-actor forums. Collegial enables the members to exchange information, experiences and make decisions in a collective manner. Collegial work and interactive communication can be characterised through the deployment of animators and mobiliser in the zones of activity (56.5%), the creation of a general secretariat (54%), the diffusion of activity reports (43.75%), the creation of archives and libraries (37.5%), the publication of news bulletins (25%), the setting-up of focal points (18.75%), information circulation by mailing list (12.5%) and the registration of the personnel with the National Social Insurance Fund (38%).

Collegial work and communication are promoted in non-governmental organisations through the deployment of organisers and mobilisers, the diffusion of the reports and the creation of archives and libraries. Supporters of organisational development defend the idea according to which a “dynamic organisation of the work groups affects the results of the company”. Today, people talk more of collective intelligence. According to Pierre Levy, collective intelligence is “intelligence distributed everywhere, continuously developed, and coordinated in real-time which leads to a full mobilisation of competences”.

Collective intelligence is the intelligence of work groups (Stake, 2009). According to Manfred Mack, it is also “an ability which, through the combination and putting in place of knowledge, ideas, opinions, questions, and doubts of several people, generates value”. For Malone (2004), the collective or team management is based on individual management. It consists in developing the autonomy of a team, the motivation and competence to work together at the service of a mission. If one seeks to distinguish several approaches, a first approach rather stresses results and the product effect (Ram, 1999) which legitimates the development of an engineering of competence. A second approach sticks more to the environmental determinants and the concept of adaptation to the context and uncertainty (Parlier, 1998) which moves away from the traditional approach and the quest for infinitely reproducible procedures. A third series of approaches deals with the social construct with a very marked normative aspect. Lastly, a fourth approach focuses on the cognitive dimension and dwells on the functions mobilised by the individual to address a complex situation (Mayen, 2003).

One of the important components to be retained in an organisation is culture. It affects all the other aspects of the life of an organisation. We recall following Kamdem (2002) that “the analysis of the ethnic phenomenon proves a little complex insofar as it brings into play a multitude of competing parameters”. Thus, according to Kamdem (1996), this reality must be better known and understood because it can be a determining basis of social integration and change, thesis that is supported by several authors (Abou, 1981, Clarence-Smith, 1989, Nkoth Bisseck, 1997). The existing studies within the framework of human resource management (GRH) in African companies highlight the absence of practices likely to facilitate co-operation on the work place. This problem occurs particularly in the African context; the problem of co-operation between the different ethnic groups taking part in the production work in companies. On this issue, Ahiauzu
(1983, 1984, 1989 cited in Kamdem, 2004) thinks that the organisational model likely to support co-operation in an ethnic context of mixture of employees should take into account the values of the dominant cultural group in the company based on a series of monographs done in Nigeria on the Ibo and Hausa. These results corroborate with those of Kurt Lewin who highlight the development of technical and financial partnerships. Michel Croisier and Erhard Friedberg show that the organisation is understood as the result of a permanent process of negotiation of power. Collegial work and the taking into account of tribal origin in the managerial practices of non-governmental organisations support organisational development.

4.4 Development of partnership

In the environment of NGOs, there exist certain actors with whom they must necessarily collaborate. One of the main actors is the technical and financial partner. The studied non-governmental organisations develop themselves in a diversified manner. Some developed themselves through the technical and financial support of partners (50%), some developed thanks to the putting in place of management and organization tools (31.25%), others through direct subsidies from the State (25%) and by rapid development through facilities of large financing (only one case). NGOs develop through the follow-up and support of technical and financial partners and organisational and institutional processes.

The level of openness of NGOs is measured by several factors: the provision of services and execution of government projects (68.75%), the representation of NGOs in the national and regional committees (31.75%), The capacity building of the members in the networks and NGO organisations (18.75), conflicting relations between the NGO and the state (12.5%). NGOs have a high level of openness to public authorities, advisory committees and networks. This result clearly shows the well developed dilemma between the development of militancy as a factor of membership and of bureaucratic practices to continue to receive external funds. More and more financial partners require from the local NGO rigorous accounts which leads to the bureaucratic processes in NGOs. This collaboration becomes negative and decreases the membership of the NGO. Dahlqvist et al., (1999) in their study conclude on a negative relationship between obtaining assistance for creation and growth. A study carried out in Quebec however finds a positive effect of government subsidies on growth (Julien 2000).

The danger in seeing an association moderating its speech and controlling its register of membership in order not to go against or lose its partners is therefore real (Monciaud, 2000). This justifies the theory of dependence which holds that poverty, the political instability and the underdevelopment of countries of the South are the effect of a historical process set up by the countries of North having as result, the economic dependence of the countries of the South (Yotopoulos, 1966). Certain technical and financial partners integrate organisational development as a priority in their collaboration with non-governmental organisations. They develop trainings and meetings on coaching in organisational development and organisational reinforcement (this is the case of the partners of the CDD, INADES-FORMATION, SAILD, CADPEN). The financial partners do not affect the organisational efficiency negatively. They negatively affect the choice of the internal rules and management procedures of the non-governmental organisations. The non-governmental organisations easily carry out organisational processes thanks to the level of education of the leader, the use of internal rules, the diffusion of reports, auto-evaluation, the development of operational plans and the development of technical and financial partnerships. The factors specific to NGOs include: the follow-up and evaluation in the execution of projects, the capitalisation of experiences, Community organisation which facilitates cohesion, dialogue, concertation at the local level and networking.

Follow-up and evaluation are important components of project management. They constitute at the same time the intermediate stages of capitalisation and organisational development. Anshen and Epstein hold that follow-up and evaluation are the instruments of the
management of the social performance of the companies. For Anshen, the social and economic objectives of a company go hand in hand and this dynamic relationship is compatible with the principle of maximisation of long-run profits. In many organisations, “follow-up and evaluation” are perceived more as a requirement of the donors than as a tool for administration. It is obvious that the donors have the right to know if you use their money well. But follow-up and evaluation should first allow an organisation or a project to know if they are in line with the objectives, if they have an impact, if they work efficiently, and enable them to gather all this information in a more effective manner. In his book ‘Organisations in Action’, Thompson (1967) treats instrumental organisations within the framework of a strategic model of study of complex organisations which he defines as follows: “We conceive complex organisations as opened systems which are undetermined and confronted with uncertainty, but at the same time subject to the criteria of rationality and thus requiring determinism and certainty”. He considers that what is important is to be able to evaluate, record, and compare the performances of complex organisations in standards of technical rationality when it is possible, if not, in instrumental standards and, as a last resort, in social norms. Within this framework, the degree or technical standard of rationality (or technology) of these organisations thus measures their capacity to produce the desired results. Thus, for Anshen, the social and economic objectives of a company go hand in hand and this dynamic relationship is compatible with the principle of maximisation of the long-run profit. He adds that the concept of social performance which is more operational, must replace that of social responsibility.

Community organisation can facilitate the organisational development process in local support organisations. It is therefore important to have a Community organisation so as to facilitate cohesion, dialog, and concertation at the local level. In all fields, the Community phenomenon becomes obvious. Human businesses, competences, projects, and endeavors are always within a community framework. Inspired by the work of Rothman, Doucet and Favreau identify four stages in the process of community organisation: seeing, judgement, action and evaluation. Going from this general methodology, they then define three models of community organisation.

Functional literacy meets an urgent need for a successful approach to organisational development in agencies of local support to groups of producers, who in their process of autonomisation which will have to be made responsible in the management of their organisations. In one of his publications, Linh (1994) holds that the technical effectiveness of the producers of rice in Vietnam is significantly affected by the primary education of the owners and regional factors. Africa did not remain in margin of this trend. Thus, Nkamleu (2004) analyses the growth of the total productivity of factors of production and its decomposition into technological change and evolution of efficiency. The study concludes that technological change is the main obstacle to the realisation of high levels of productivity of factors in sub-Saharan Africa during the period considered. In the literature, education is a factor most cited by authors as a determinant of the level of efficiency of producers (Zonon, 2003). However, there is no global consensus as concerns the effect of investment in education on the productivity of peasants. Gurgand (1994, 1997) finds that education has a negative effect on agriculture in the Ivory Coast. On the other hand, Tilak (1993) and Coltear (1990, cited in Bako, 2011) make a review of several studies in Asia and Europe that show that the elimination of illiteracy has a significant impact on the level of efficiency of peasants.

In local non-governmental organizations, the mobilisation of equities remains difficult. When the resources are insufficient, the management bodies do not meet regularly and are thus non-functional. The members of the technical team do not have the adequate profile for their positions. The organisations recruit people they can pay, or if they have the desired profile, they are not well treated and are not motivated in their work. Certain key positions do not exist in the organisational chart. Frédéric Prévot, Franck Brulhart, Gilles Guieu and Lionel Maltese (Brulhart Franck et al., 2010) make a synthesis of the central prospects in strategic management, resulting from the theory of resources: the strategic management of competences, knowledge based theory, dynamic
capacities and relational approach. Sandrine Gherra proposes to integrate the principles of sustainable development (economic efficiency, respect for the environment, social equity) within company strategy by jointly mobilising the theory of resources and competences and the stakeholders approach (Brulhart Franck et al., 2010). Anne-Sophie Fernandez and Frederic Roy show the central role of the theory of resources in explaining the co-operation between competitors. In fact, within the framework of co-operative space programs, the strategies of conquering the market and innovation passes through co-operation between competitors when the company does not have the essential resources to achieve these objectives (Brulhart Franck et al., 2010). Élodie Gardet and Caroline Mothe study the role of resources and competences in the evolution of the level of dependence of the pivot within innovation networks. The theory of resources was subjected to violent criticism. Examples include; the argument based on the principle of tautology developed by Porter (1991), and “conversation” by Priem and Butler (2001) and Barney (2001). However, reconciliation is possible between the theory of resources and the standpoints of some of its critics (Saïas, Mètais, 2001). This presentation should not appear as a source of confusion but rather as an improvement.

The capitalisation of experiences is a recurrent idea in the field of international solidarity organisations. The knowledge of an organisation is divided into explicit knowledge which is already expressed and preserved on a documentary support, and tacit, implicit or diffused knowledge which is knowledge, know-how, and undocumented knowledge transmitted by word of mouth and which resides in the head of the agents. This ice which is essential for NGOs is in line with the theses developed by the supporters of knowledge management. According to Norris (2004), the development of knowledge companies represents their deep transformation. Studies by Nelson (1959), the Nobel Prize of economics Arrow (1952), Machlup (1984), and Dominique Forry (2004) show that there is an unquestionable correlation between the practices of knowledge management and the performance of the company. Coate (2002) holds that the knowledge capital is a support of competitiveness and impacts performance: it uses the generation of new competences and organisational routines in to improve the value of the products and services.

Concertation between NGOs meets the need of governance. Through its capacity to bring together various actors and to transform them into a “collective actor”, it is the path to follow in order to reinforce and manage “living together”. NGOs are often put in networks for the efficiency of public policies, better recognition, and the transformation of the institutional executives (PASC, 2015). The results in this study reinforce the conclusions of the supporters of co-operation between actors. By means of agreements on prices or alliances aimed at innovation (technical, ecological, legal, sociological, or other), the co-operation between competitors has become - after capital, labor and natural resources - a fourth factor of production. In the writings of management specialists or those of economic game theorists, this phenomenon is known under the name of “coopetition” (Nalebuff and Brandenburger, 1996) or “collective strategies” (Bresser and Harl, 1986) carried out by competing companies, particularly in knowledge intensive sectors (Von Hippel, 1987; Hamel et al., 1989; Lado et al., 1997). This literature increasingly uses the sociological approach of the embedding of the contractual activity in social networks to identify the abstract and “non-economic” relational strategies necessary to the stabilisation of oligopolistic competition (Bengtsson and Kock, 2000; Ibert, 2004; Dumez and Jeunemaître, 2005; Perret and Josserand, 2003). Levine and White (1961) already set the foundations of an analysis of inter-organisational relations in terms of exchange and dependence of resources (Aldrich and Marsden, 1988). These inter-organisational resources are exchanged through multiple relationships which can consist of training, goods, services, are not inevitably of monetary nature or purely functional.

The level of organisation is the functional device which makes it possible to achieve the goals effectively and efficiently. These levels are obtained from the facts observed within the studied NGOs. The level of organisation is measured by indicators of organisational development which we identified: organisational legitimacy, the management of processes, the organisational motivation, political arena and organisational survival. The measurement of these indicators also informs us about the effectiveness, efficiency, durability, impact and the relevance of the
organisation. This measure finally informs us finally on the organisations performance. Within the framework of this study, we identify three levels of organisation: the low level of organisation, the average level of organisation and the advanced level of organisation. We describe the characteristics of each level of organisation. The low level of organisation is observed in local associations. The average level of organisation is observed within organizations in a network and association. Finally, the advanced level of organisation is observed within support organisations. The organisational development model that we propose brings closer to the integrated model of organisation developed by the experts of the MDF who identify six criteria (Aptitude, Legitimacy, Efficiency, Effectiveness, Continuity, and Flexibility) in the evaluation of organisational development and four levels of organisational development (“does not exist; exists but does not function; exists and does not function very well; exists and that functions”). This model also presents the basis of the Theory of the change, which according to James, “is a continuous process of reflection to explore change and how it occurs - and what that means for the role that we play in a particular context, sector and/or group of people” (James, 2011).

The advanced level of organisation is characterised by several elements. Within these organisations, the leadership is participative and positive. It is characterised by a justified experience of the leader and his members. The managerial practices are formalised by control mechanisms and good management. The participation of members and the targets in decision making is observed at all levels (identification of activities, design of actions, execution, follow-up and evaluation). These organisations also regularly take part in the development of public policies and development policies. The organisation adapts its internal factors to the environmental variables. Capitalisation is an important activity. The organisation reformulates in a regular manner its vision and mission. The management systems of work, human and financial resources are formalised and are effective and efficient. Partnership is very advanced; it is observed through the implementation of several projects and strategic positionings in associative networks and advisory committees. The organisation is credible in the eyes of its targets, its technical and financial partners, and public authorities. The organisation has an international recognition and often has a status of public utility.

5. CONCLUSION

This study seeks to highlight the endogenous and exogenous factors that explain the organisational development of NGOs in the Sudano-Sahelian region of Cameroon in view of proposing an organisational development model adapted to this context. Using content analysis, interviews and the internal documents of 16 NGOs of the sample, we first find that the level of organisational development is differentiated according to the style of leadership practiced. Secondly, we find that differences in the level of organisational development of NGOs of the sample can be explained by endogenous and exogenous factors.

Among these factors, we can retain the participation of members in decision-making processes (the participation in meetings and behaviour of the general meetings and boards of directors in NGOs), confidence and openness (diffusion of the reports and news letters within NGOs), collegial work, and the taking into account of the tribal origin in the managerial practices of NGOs, the mode of partnership with the donors (government NGOs, international and development projects). Thirdly, we find that a certain number of factors specific to NGOs such as the follow-up and evaluation in the execution of projects, the capitalization of experiences, community organisation that facilitate cohesion, dialogue, dialogue at the local level and networking also affect organizational development. Lastly, we find that certain factors found important in the literature are not sufficiently used in NGOs. It is for example the case of the performance of auditing and internal and external controls, the adoption of a code of procedures, the development of strategic planning, the practice of capitalisation, external evaluation and the signature of the permanent contracts which render personnel loyal.
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