CHAPTER III

NGOs - DILATION

(Covered in sections 13 to 16)
13. RELATIONSHIPS

NGO – Government Relationship
13.1. According to Misra, Rajeeb (2008)\textsuperscript{16}, there are three differing views regarding the relationship between the government and NGOs. The first view is that NGOs function independently and supplement the government’s development efforts. In this role, they help to fill the gaps left by the government. The second view sees NGOs as partnering and complementing the government. The third view is that NGOs play an adversarial role, by persuading the government to make changes in public policy and to maintain greater accountability to the public. The government in turn plays the role of watchdog and tries to regulate the services of NGOs. Thus, in the words of Clark (1991), “an NGO can oppose the State, complement it, or reform it, but cannot ignore it”. Both NGOs and governments adopt their own strategies to influence the nature of the relationship. Julie Fisher (2003) (s. no. 50 of Bibliography in Appendix) mentions three different NGO strategies for NGO-government relationship

a) Political isolation, which means developing a sense of independence and standing apart from the government;

b) Political advocacy, which means communicating with the government on matters of policy, negotiating on objectives and expressing differing views on major issues and

c) Co-operation with the government.

13.2. Governments in turn have their approaches to NGOs. At one extreme are governments that fear that NGOs are engaged in anti-governmental activities, such as trying to subvert or overthrow the government. Another approach is for governments to ignore NGOs. At the other extreme is “co-option”, which is a close relationship arising out of the need for more resources and the desire to control NGOs. Other approaches include taking advantage of NGOs and cooperating with NGOs in an autonomous partnership.
13.3. As regards the relationship of the target community with state agencies, a survey was conducted among 20 randomly selected Self Help Group members in each NGO project area to measure levels of awareness regarding government schemes, access and utilization of government programs and problems faced in approaching officials. Regarding problems faced in approaching government officials to access the resources, a majority of the SHG members admitted that they did not meet the officials due to the following reasons – remote location of government offices, objection from the male members of their households, complicated procedures and indifferent attitudes of the officials.

13.4. The topic of NGO–government relations has been examined by a number of authors from different perspectives. Clark, John (1993)\textsuperscript{4} looks at the relationship from the point of view of NGO efficacy and impact on social development. He suggests that the contribution of NGOs to social development is affected by the nature of NGO-government relations. The developmental impact of NGOs has been found to vary in different countries and Clark is of the view that a major influencing factor is the government’s policies and practices. More specifically, government policies and practices include aspects such as quality of governance, the legal environment (such as registration of NGOs and reporting procedures), taxation policies and nature of collaboration. The author implies that governments can create either a conducive or an adverse environment for NGOs to function through their policies and practices and thereby affect NGO efficacy.

13.5. Clark is of the opinion that a strong voluntary sector by itself does not mean that the level of interaction with the private and public sectors is high. A high level of interaction among the three sectors of the economy can create an ideal climate for poverty reduction and social development. The role of NGOs in such a scenario would be to encourage the government to pursue these activities, or to assist them in achieving these goals.

13.6. The author lists out the conditions for a healthy NGO-government relationship. Both parties should have the same level of commitment to social development, a common social agenda and mutual respect. However, in practice, there are several examples of mutual distrust. Judging by the experience of NGOs in different countries, it would appear that governments of developing countries are prone to be uncomfortable with the role of NGOs among their communities. Countries with a relatively shorter history of independence feel the
need to secure against possible subversion of their hard won freedom by externally funded institutions gaining excessive influence over the local populations.

13.7. Barriers to a healthy state-NGO relationship can be identified based on the views of several experts (Clark, John cited earlier). Some of these may be summarized as follows.

• Political polarization, where the government considers itself to be the only voice of the people and NGOs fall in the opposition party.

• Some NGOs may deliberately maintain a distant relationship with the government, in order to avoid attracting attention and possible control over their activities. This may actually have the reverse effect and disrupt smooth relations with the government.

13.8. Clark argues that absence of regulations could encourage poor governance, thereby affecting the image of the sector as a whole. For this reason, he is in favor of minimum intervention to ensure that monies are spent for the intended purpose. Based on best policy practices, Clark describes the characteristics of a favorable policy environment as follows:

a) Good governance implies policies to promote civil society and public accountability of state institutions.

b) Regulations that encourage rather than obstruct NGO growth and at the same time discourage unhealthy practices.

c) Taxation policies that encourage local philanthropy and income generation.

d) Collaboration with established NGOs for project/policy implementation. This type of collaboration would allow NGOs to voice the needs of their beneficiaries, share information about the scheme with communities, organize communities to benefit from the scheme, deliver services to segments that are difficult to reach and serve as intermediaries for other NGOs.
e) Involvement in policy formulation could be through providing information, offering NGOs a role in public consultations, inviting them to serve on official committees, etc. (for example, the Indian NGO, DISHA, has been invited to serve on the Central Government's Commission on bonded labor).

f) The Government could provide training for NGO staff and encourage the NGOs to focus on improving their management and strategic planning skills and on sharing their experiences with other NGOs.

g) Official support provides both monetary and non-monetary support in the form of training, especially for NGO activities in priority areas.

**World Bank Policy on NGO Government Relations**


- Keep in mind that government-NGO collaboration is not possible/desirable in all cases.
- Always seek government-NGO complementarity.
- Understand how government policies influence the NGO sector and, where possible, promote an enabling environment for NGOs.

13.10. World Bank recognizes that there may not always be scope for partnership between the NGO and the government.

**NGO-NGO Relationship**

13.11. Misra, Rajeeb (2008)\(^{16}\) cites three reasons for NGOs to associate with each other and to join together to form networks – to avoid isolation, to influence the macro level and to protect their own identity and credibility. Networks of grassroots organizations (GROs) and
grassroots support organizations (GSROs) also offer benefits such as greater impact of programs and more sustainability of individual organizations. Misra classifies NGO networks into the following types.

- **Regional or horizontal networks of Grassroots Organizations** – These are networks that link local community organizations in three ways – i) formal umbrella networks of individual GROs, such as cooperatives and local development organizations. ii) informal economic networks linked together by barter arrangements and iii) amorphous grassroots social movements which are involved with environmental issues.

- **Formal or informal networks of Grassroots Support Organizations (GSROs)**, which focus on one or more development sectors and are either regional or national in scope. Formal GSRO networks represent GSROs as a group while dealing with governments and donors. Informal networks on the other hand are more involved in supporting grassroots organizations as a group.

**NGO UN Relationship**

13.12. A total of 1603 NGOs from all the member countries have registered with the UN, seeking consultative status. However, none of these are from India. In spite of the UN’s interest in developing relations with NGOs, Indian NGOs do not seem to have been proactive in coming forward to register themselves with the world body.

13.13. Article 75 of the UN Charter highlights the importance of partnering with citizen organizations, as a means of supplementing the efforts of the government. In keeping with this, the UN grants consultative status to those NGOs that register with it. This grants them the right to participate in conferences related to the UN’s activities and programs and to express their views, thereby giving them greater clout.

**NGO and Civil Society**

13.14. The term Civil Society is not new and was first used in Latin America during the 1970s, by intellectuals who were opposed to Marxist ideology and later during the 1980s in Central and Eastern Europe, to describe a social process that was in opposition to the State.
Civil society has been defined as “autonomous institutions that may either support or challenge state power.”

13.15. The emergence of grassroots organizations in the NGO sector of Third World countries during the 1970s and 1980s has also helped to strengthen civil society. They have transformed NGOs’ way of thinking regarding social development, by empowering the poor to take control of the process and to get involved in the implementation of projects. The approach adopted by grassroots organizations is that the poor are not just beneficiaries, but controllers of the process of social development. They are encouraged to develop and implement programs aimed at poverty reduction. By imparting confidence and a hand to the people in the development process, NGOs are in a position to make a significant contribution to civil society.

**NGO–Funding Agency Relationship**

13.16. The relationship between NGOs and their donors depends largely on the extent of fund support and the type of donor. In recent years, NGOs in developed countries have emerged as a big source of funds for NGOs in the Third World and developing countries. Some of these NGOs have contributed more to the Southern NGOs than even the World Bank. These NGOs have raised private funds for development and transferred them to developing countries.

13.17. The World Bank’s relationship with NGOs dates back to the early 1980s. Although the World Bank deals mainly with governments, it views collaboration with NGOs as a means to improve the effectiveness of Bank supported projects. In 1982, a World Bank-NGO Committee was set up exclusively for the Bank’s dealings with NGOs. The relationship between NGOs and the World Bank is in the form of operational collaboration in projects and programs, development education, policy dialogue on reduction of poverty and environmental issues and public frameworks for NGOs. The World Bank’s policy lays emphasis on collaboration with certain types of NGOs, such as grassroots NGOs, including water users’ societies and consumer and credit co-operatives, as well as environmental and emergency relief NGOs, since they are in keeping with the World Bank’s development objectives.
Support by Local Organizations

13.18. Rajasekhar, D (2000) says that the support of local organizations can also increase the developmental impact of NGOs and that NGOs cannot function in isolation. His views are based on a study conducted in two NGOs in Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh, to examine the effectiveness of NGOs and local organizations in alleviating poverty. It was assumed that the local organizations such as the gram panchayats had the potential to tackle the root causes of poverty. However, the findings of the study revealed that the gram panchayats did not take into consideration the concerns of the poor and focused only on development of infrastructure in the villages. As for the NGOs, while they were found to be making efforts on poverty, they faced several limitations of technical and political capacity and lack of a “pro-poor” attitude on the part of the local organizations.

Involvement by Community Workers

13.19. Ram, Pavani Kalluri et al (2007) suggest that the success of social marketing programs, especially those designed to reach remote rural populations, depends largely on the involvement of community workers. The authors base their argument on a successful case study of social marketing to promote safe water to remote populations in rural Madagascar by Population Services International, an international NGO with a presence in several countries.

13.20. The success of the above social marketing program was largely due to the use of community based agents, who were trained to sell Safe Water System (SWS) - a household-level water chlorination and safe storage intervention, to rural audiences and to disseminate information about healthy water drinking habits for diarrheal prevention. When the campaign was first launched in 2000, it faced initial constraints, since many rural communities did not have access to the mass media and awareness levels regarding diarrhea and the use of the new intervention were low. Community based sales agents were then trained, one in each village, on the causes and prevention of diarrhea, as well as the use of the SWS. Evaluation of the campaign revealed that there was a high level of motivation among rural populations to use the SWS, as well as a high rate of adoption of the new intervention by villages, indicating the success of the community based agent’s model. The main reason for the success of the community-based agents was their ability to communicate effectively in the local idiom about health issues to less literate and affluent audiences. The authors also suggest that the same model could be further improved to bring about sustained use of the SWS and applied to other social marketing programs aimed at improving the health of remote sections of the population.
14. SUSTAINABILITY

14.1. There are two different aspects of sustainability for NGOs. First, the objective of NGOs is to bring about sustainable social change. This means that the changed practice (for example, giving up smoking or adoption of prescribed sexual habits) has to sustain without the support of the external organization in the post-program phase. In other words, the change should be permanent. The second aspect of sustainability relates to the sustained ability of the NGO itself to continue to pursue its mission. Financially, this implies the continuous ability of the NGO to find financial resources in a continuous and uninterrupted manner. This is achieved by several methods, such as avoiding over reliance on a single or very few sources for assistance, tapping the proximate and local sources, or self generation of funds through contributions from the target community by way of payment for services and other methods.

14.2. Both definitions of sustainability involve the application of marketing principles – one for successfully bringing about adoption of desirable social behavior and the other for projecting an image of the organization as a reliable, professional, transparent, cost-effective and accountable deliverer of services.

Definitions of Sustainability

14.3. Cannon, Lisa (2007)\(^3\) identifies the following types of sustainability – benefit, organizational, financial and community sustainability.

14.4. She defines benefit sustainability as “a continuation of the benefits that result from an activity, with or without the programs or organizations that stimulated the benefit in the first place.” In other words, the NGO may no longer exist or the program may be discontinued, but the initial activity continues to have a favorable and lasting impact.

14.5. Regarding organizational sustainability, the author cites Jordan (1996) and Kean (1987) to define this type of sustainability as “building organizations to achieve sustainable development benefits.”
14.6. Financial sustainability, according to Cannon, is a part of organizational sustainability. It refers to the organization’s ability to raise resources on its own, rather than being dependent on external funding and particularly on foreign funding.

14.7. Community sustainability, means that the NGO will succeed in making the local community self reliant – thus placing emphasis on the whole community, rather than on individual beneficiaries. Communities will be empowered to set up community-based organizations that can provide essential services. Communities will be in a position to lobby the government for the provision of services. Communities can access services within the private sector.

14.8. The author also points out that sustainability may be understood and defined differently by different stakeholders of an NGO. For example, donors may attach more importance to organizational sustainability, while members of the community will be more concerned with community sustainability.

Another View of Sustainability
14.9. O’Sullivan, Gael et al (2007)\textsuperscript{17}, in their technical report on “Moving Toward Sustainability: Transition Strategies for Social Marketing Programs”, prepared for USAID, distinguish between two dimensions of sustainability – institutional sustainability and programmatic sustainability. Institutional sustainability is “the ability of a social marketing program to continue operations with little to no outside support.” This definition of sustainability refers to the financial aspects of a social marketing program. Programmatic sustainability on the other hand has been defined as “using the 4 Ps of marketing to reach maximum efficiency” and refers to the market impact of the social marketing program.

14.10. The authors offer a comprehensive but precise definition of sustainability – “the ability of a social marketing program over time to manage its technical, financial, institutional and market related activities to maximize efficiency, self financing and self governance without reliance on external support.” Based on this definition, the authors have developed a “sustainability continuum”, with four components of sustainability - technical, financial, institutional and market sustainability. Technical sustainability according to the authors is
“the ability of the organization to fulfil the core mission of social marketing.” Financial sustainability is defined as “the degree to which the costs of the social marketing program (including overheads) are covered, typically through revenues generated by the sale of products.” Institutional sustainability is defined as “the management skills and infrastructure required for the social marketing organization to operate efficiently over time.” Market sustainability refers to “the ability of social marketing programs to adapt and innovate to respond to market changes over time.”

14.11. Each of the above components in turn is divided into three levels of sustainability – beginning, intermediate and advanced levels. Indicators of the degree or level of sustainability for each component are also included in the continuum. The authors believe that the continuum and its indicators will serve as a guide to both donors and program managers for assessing the progress of their projects.

14.12. The authors believe that of the four different components, technical sustainability, which involves application of the principles of commercial marketing by planning the marketing mix elements, is the easiest to achieve. They suggest that this could be done by hiring professionals with commercial marketing experience, or by outsourcing services such as market research and advertising.

14.13. A simplified concept of sustainability adapted from O’Sullivan, Gael et al (2007)\textsuperscript{17} is diagrammatically shown below:
Figure 4
Types of Sustainability

COMMUNITY SUSTAINABILITY
Impact sustained with minimal support, Replicability

TECHNICAL SUSTAINABILITY
4+4 Ps of Social Marketing, Staff skill and commitment, Effective use of marketing tools

SUSTAINABILITY

FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY
Low overheads, Cost effectiveness of delivery, Wide base of fund sources, Self-generation of funds, Continuity of fund flow

ORGANIZATIONAL SUSTAINABILITY
Leadership, Management skills, Infrastructure, Processes, Systems, Controls

Attributes of Organizational Sustainability
14.14. VanSant, Jerry (2000)\textsuperscript{23} suggests assessing the institutional capacity of NGOs and other development organizations, by assessing institutional resources (access to human, technical, financial and other resources) and performance (how effectively the resources are used). According to him, organizational sustainability is characterized by attributes such as organizational autonomy, leadership and learning capacity, all of which help to make the organization self-reliant over a long term.

Other Interpretations of Sustainability
14.15. Sekher, Madhusree (2000)\textsuperscript{21} offers an alternative definition of sustainability in the context of environmental problems and natural resource management to create resource sustainability. According to the author, sustainability is “the continued and effective administration of the resource, leading to asset creation (forests) benefiting the entire community.” This includes two aspects of sustainability - sustainability of the resource, as well as sustainability of the collective system of management of the resource. The author
emphasizes the importance of a participatory approach that involves the local communities for achieving resource sustainability.

14.16. Valadez and Bamberger (1994)\textsuperscript{22} define the sustainability of a project as “the ability of the project to continue delivering the planned services and benefits to the intended beneficiary groups.” They suggest that sustainability assessment studies should be carried out to identify, monitor and correct the factors affecting the project’s sustainability.

**Role of the Board of Management in Sustainability**

14.17. Drucker, Peter (1990)\textsuperscript{6} suggests that the sustainability of non-profit organizations or organizational sustainability is influenced by the relationships developed with each of its stakeholders or constituencies. According to Drucker, one of the main differences between commercial and non-profit organizations is that the latter has to manage more number of relationships with multiple stakeholders, as compared to the former.

14.18. Drucker also emphasizes the role of the Board in building organizational sustainability in non-profit organizations. Apart from defining and helping to achieve the organization’s mission, ensuring effective management and assessing performance, the Board should bear the responsibility for fund raising for the non-profit organization. This implies that it is the responsibility of the Board to build financial sustainability, which is a part of organizational sustainability. The author even suggests that Board members themselves should contribute to the organization’s resources. In addition to fund raising, the Board’s task is to provide leadership and a sense of direction to the organization as a whole.

14.19. Drucker advises non-profits to build two-way relationships, rather than a “top down approach” by dictating what needs to be done. He also emphasizes the importance of building relations with the local communities by training the organization’s volunteers to interact with the communities and to act as a link between the community and the organization. Non-profits need to make themselves visible in the community, in order to project a positive image of caring for the community through intensive public relations efforts.

They are of the view that relationship marketing is all the more important in social marketing than in commercial marketing.

**Sustainability – Experiences**

14.21. Based on the findings of a research study conducted to determine the impact, sustainability and cost effectiveness of two NGOs in India and two NGOs in Bangladesh, Fowler, Alan (2007)\(^\text{10}\) offers certain observations regarding sustainability. The Indian NGOs in the study were found to focus more on benefit sustainability rather than on community sustainability - making the local community responsible and self-reliant in the future. The Bangladesh NGOs on the other hand, were found to be more concerned with organizational sustainability. The findings from the study of Indian NGOs revealed mixed results – while one of the NGOs was successful in achieving community sustainability, the other one failed to build self-reliance among women’s groups, which continued to depend on the NGO for basic raw material supplies, production and marketing of the final products.

14.22. Agha, S. et al (2005)\(^\text{13}\) examined contraceptive social marketing in four middle income countries – Morocco, Dominican Republic, Peru and Turkey – implemented through the manufacturer’s model. The purpose was to determine whether social marketing efforts would continue to have positive results even when donor support was fully or partially withdrawn in these countries. The findings revealed that effective social marketing practices could help to maintain increased sales of contraceptives in all countries, even after donor support was discontinued. The authors generalize these findings by suggesting that the sustainability of the social marketing organization does not depend on the size or continuity of funds from donors. Further, social marketing organizations can also bring about sustainable behavioral change through effective strategies. However, they believe that sustainable change can be achieved, provided certain conditions exist – the absence of competition (e.g. from the government), partnership with the private sector and the willingness of the private sector to continue funding social marketing activities after donor support has been withdrawn. Sustainability in the foregoing case could be due to the medium of a tangible product, whereas in behavior change without involvement of a tangible product, market sustainability may be more difficult to achieve.
Using Social Science Disciplines for Sustainable Change

14.23. Bellamy, Hilary et al (1997)\(^2\) prepared a social marketing guide for State Nutrition Education Networks, where they suggest that social marketing can bring about sustainable change by using an interdisciplinary approach. Social marketers should draw concepts from a number of social science disciplines such as social anthropology, behavioral science, health education, mass communication and commercial marketing.

14.24. Social anthropology is the study of customs, norms and values in different cultures. The authors believe that it can help the social marketer in understanding the cultural barriers to change and in developing messages and products that will help the target audience to overcome these barriers and adopt a particular practice.

14.25. The authors suggest that social marketers should first try to understand the motivations and barriers faced by their target audiences while adopting a particular practice. This would involve doing formative research to understand the attitudes of the audience. The authors emphasize the importance of the “Stages of Change Model”, developed by Prochaska and Di Clemente (1983), according to which individuals go through different stages when deciding whether to change a particular behavior – pre-contemplation, contemplation, preparation, action and maintenance. They are of the view that formative research would also help to determine which of these stages the audience is going through, so that messages could be tailored accordingly. For example, if the audience is in the early stages of the model, the messages would have to educate them about the benefits of the change, for example, giving up smoking or change in dietary habits. Therefore, the model can be used by social marketers to understand and segment their audiences and to tailor their messages according to the needs of the audience. All this is aimed at sustainable change.

14.26. Regarding health education, the authors encourage social marketers to use health education models that examine various factors that have either a favorable or adverse impact on change. They cite two such models which they believe are of particular relevance to social marketers – the PRECEDE model and the Health Belief model.

14.27. The PRECEDE model includes predisposing, enabling and reinforcing factors that influence behavioral change. Predisposing factors refer to knowledge, beliefs and behavior
before the social marketing intervention is introduced. Enabling factors refer to the community and environment of the target audience. Reinforcing factors are the positive and negative consequences of change. The authors cite the Health Belief model of Andreasen (1995), which is based on the assumption that behavior is influenced by four beliefs – “perceived susceptibility to a given health problem, perceived severity of the problem, perceived benefits from acting and perceived barriers to taking the action.” Social marketers can use this model to try and change beliefs and perceptions of their target audiences regarding health or any other issue. Both the models may be adopted by social marketers, not only in the area of public health, but in other areas as well.
15. NGO SUCCESS AND FAILURE FACTORS

15.1. The existing literature, consisting of scholarly articles and case studies that throw light on the experiences of the voluntary sector in different parts of the world, provides a basis for formulating a list of factors which lead to the success or failure of NGOs. From these, it may be possible to sift factors that form benchmarks of performance.

Success Factors

15.2. Andreasen, Alan (2000)\(^1\) identifies the adoption of a “customer mindset”, the marketing planning process and marketing concepts and tools as three main success factors for non-profit organizations. According to him, the commercial sector has contributed significantly to the non-profit sector through the transfer of marketing knowledge, concepts and tools. He describes this as the “broadening of marketing.” He is of the view that the conceptual contributions of the commercial sector have been in three areas – mindset, process and concepts and tools.

15.3. Andreasen suggests that non-profit organizations should shift from an “organization-centered” mindset to a “customer mindset”. He describes an organization-centered mindset as one in which the organization assumes that it is aware of the problem and the tendency is to tell the target audience about the benefits of the proposed change in practices. On the other hand, a customer-centered mindset would ensure success of the social marketing program, since it would involve the use of research techniques at different stages of the program, to diagnose the nature of the problem and the receptivity characteristics of the target audience. First of all, it would involve formative research to understand the behavior and needs of the target audience. Secondly, it would mean pre-testing certain elements of the program such as communication channels and messages, before implementation. Thirdly, it would involve customer research to measure performance and to make necessary changes and adjustments in the marketing strategy.

15.4. Andreasen recommends the adoption of the marketing planning process in non-profit organizations. He distinguishes between two types of marketing planning processes: i) organization level planning, which involves planning the direction which the organization
will take in future. For commercial organizations, this would include defining the organization’s mission, doing a SWOT analysis and analyzing the business portfolio. All these are equally applicable to non-profit organizations; ii) planning the marketing mix. In the case of non-profits, Andreasen points out that there is a tendency among social marketers to think that communication is the only element of the marketing mix and that effective communication alone is sufficient to bring about behavioral change. They under-rate the importance of pricing, design and distribution of social marketing “products” or benefit packages. Andreasen recommends even the use of brand management, systems for tracking performance (for example, the use of retail audits to measure the sales of contraceptives) and marketing audits, to measure the marketing effectiveness of non-profit organizations, as part of the planning process.

15.5. Regarding the use of marketing concepts, Andreasen suggests that segmentation, branding and alliance building are three tools which could make social marketing programs more effective.

15.6. Andreasen advocates the use of segmentation techniques by the non-profit sector, in place of the conventional demographic approach that they have tended to focus on. He cites the example of “geo-demographic clustering”, an approach that consists in segmenting markets based on demographic characteristics, as well as geographic clusters such as neighborhoods. For example, the health intervention programs of the American Cancer Society have successfully used geo-demographic clustering to encourage more number of women in specific urban areas to do mammograms. The program concentrated only on those geographic clusters where mammogram rates were low.

15.7. Andreasen justifies the need for brand building in the non-profit sector. Given the importance of partnerships in the non-profit sector, it is essential to create an image of the organization as a brand that is distinct from other organizations, since this would be considered in the decision to forge an alliance or partnership.

15.8. Regarding alliance building, Andreasen suggests that the nature of the relationship between non-profit and commercial organizations needs to change, from one based on corporate philanthropy to one based on more equal partnership. In other words, instead of
depending on the commercial organization as a source of funds, non-profit organizations need to build mutually beneficial alliances based on common social goals. Commercial organizations should realize that such alliances have advantages for them in terms of enhancing the company image and prestige in society.

15.9. Apart from the three success factors that have been described in detail, some of the other ingredients for the future success of non-profit organizations recommended by Andreasen include generation of resources, effective communication of the key message to specialized and general audiences and determining the areas where the organization’s resources should be concentrated.

15.10. One of the factors cited by Andreason, namely branding, needs further understanding, since it may sound odd that voluntary organizations need branding. The Report of the Proceedings of the Non Profit Marketing Summit Conference (2000) of the Social Marketing Institute USA includes a session on branding. A brand is “the relationship between the company and customer that secures future profits by securing preferences and loyalty”. Cynthia Currence, discussion leader, emphasizes the importance of branding in non-profit organizations for reinforcing or creating a unique identity for the organization.

Strategy for Success
15.11. Drucker, Peter (1990)\textsuperscript{6} emphasizes the importance of strategies as opposed to plans, for success. While the plan and the mission are merely blueprints, a strategy is action oriented. Strategies “convert intentions into action and business into work.” Drucker describes the essential features of winning strategies for non-profit organizations.

15.12. First of all, a good strategy should focus on improving what is already in place – for example, it should try to make existing products, processes, working or training methods, better than what they are. For non-profits, an example might be to find ways of getting more out of the available resources. Improvement, according to Drucker, also includes being innovative. A good strategy has a structure. It begins with a goal, which has to be in keeping with the mission of the organization. It also has to take into consideration, the environment of the organization. This would involve segmentation of the market, targeting specific segments and designing a separate marketing plan for each of these segments. Drucker mentions the
American Heart Association as an example of a non-profit organization that has successfully raised funds by segmenting the market into forty-one different groups.

15.13. An important step in developing a strategy is the allocation of resources among the target segments. It is also important to determine how to measure results and to find out whether we are behind or ahead of schedule.

15.14. Since innovation is the hallmark of a winning strategy, Drucker advises non-profits to experiment with new ideas and approaches, by looking for opportunities both inside and outside the organization.

**Capacity Building**

15.15. Capacity building is identified by the World Bank as one of the factors contributing to the success of NGOs. Capacity of an organization refers to not only to its physical equipment and buildings, but more basically to the skills and capabilities of its working force at all levels, their empowerment to take decisions and their innovative abilities, all reinforced and strengthened by periodic exposure and training. Capacity building cannot be separated from marketing, as the effectiveness of the latter is dependent on the former. In its *Working with NGOs: A Practical Guide to Operational Collaboration between the World Bank and Non-Governmental Organizations* (1995)\(^4\), the Bank outlines its policy on NGOs with regard to capacity building as follows.

- Consult with NGOs on appropriate strategies to support their institutional development.
- Where appropriate, build a training component for NGOs into project design.
- Encourage partnerships between international and local NGOs.
- Promote networking and information sharing among NGOs.
15.16. Partnership with other NGOs helps to acquire new skills and knowledge. Local NGOs in particular, should try to benefit from the experience of international NGOs. The bigger, “mother” NGOs and the international NGOs should train the smaller, local NGOs. Ebrahim, Alnoor (2008) argues that capacity building or training of NGOs, which is seen as a factor that leads to more effective performance, can actually lead to failure if it is done in a conventional manner. He identifies and explains some of the reasons why conventional types of capacity building lead to lower effectiveness, performance and accountability.

15.17. Conventional types of capacity building are not based on a proper understanding of the needs of the organization. They should aim at achieving long-term rather than short-term results, as is presently the case. Capacity building has typically concentrated on providing buildings, vehicles and hardware, ignoring the need to build people’s skills and abilities. The author is of the view that the onus for capacity building lies with donors rather than with the NGO. Donors need to help organizations to identify their capacity needs. Apart from focusing on long-term results, he suggests that donors should also use a combination of approaches to capacity building, including training, coaching, consulting and peer exchanges, so as to cater to different needs in the organization. In addition, training programs should be designed at the local level, in order to suit the needs of the field staff.

**Culturally Adapted Social Marketing**

15.18. The concept of Culturally Adapted Social Marketing (CASM) suggests that social marketing strategies should be adapted to the cultural context in which they are developed, since cultural barriers are one of the biggest obstacles to social behavioral change. CASM is recommended for a better understanding of client groups. An essential feature of CASM is Culturally Adapted Social Market Research (CASOMAR), which is conducted during different stages of the program. CASM involves research to understand target audiences—The three stages of CASOMAR are: i) Formative research during the design stage to determine the target audience ii) Process research during the implementation stage to determine whether the project is going according to the plan and iii) Accountability research during the final stage of the project to assess the outcome and impact.

15.19. The impact of culture on behavioral change is often overlooked by social marketers. Social marketing organizations should consider hiring social scientists to help them
understand the prevailing cultural norms, apart from hiring the services of technical experts in particular areas such as health, nutrition or education.

**Importance of Geo-demographic Tools**
15.20. Powell, Jane et al (2007)\(^\text{18}\) examined the application of social marketing to reduce alcohol consumption among population groups with low socio-economic status in Great Britain. Based on the findings, the authors suggest the use of geo-demographic analysis, or segmentation of the population based on both geographic and demographic variables, for successfully bringing about change through social marketing. The advantage of more precise targeting is that scarce resources can be allocated to those areas which need them most. Such an analysis would also help to tailor social marketing interventions to different segments of the population at the country, city or town levels, according to their respective peculiarities. The authors particularly recommend this approach for social marketing programs in the area of public health improvement and in situations where social, cultural and psychological barriers stand in the way of change.

**NGO Failure Factors**
15.21. A review of the existing literature also throws light on factors that lead to failure of NGOs. Zaidi, S Akbar (1999)\(^\text{26}\) analyzes some of the reasons for the failure of NGOs to bring about social development, especially in underdeveloped countries and argues in favor of bringing back the State. In his view, NGOs, which were perceived to be better equipped, more cost effective, community oriented and participatory in their approach to delivering services than the government have failed to live up to the high expectations. Therefore, he sees the only solution to be reforming and bringing back the government. Zaidi considers the primary reason for the failure of NGOs to be over dependence on foreign funds. In fact, he goes as far as saying that NGOs have owed their entire existence to overseas donors. This is supported by the fact that several NGOs have mushroomed in the last few years. He cites Alan Fowler (1991), who also attributes the extraordinary growth in the number of NGOs to the increased flow of official aid from international agencies such as the UN and the World Bank. As an example, in 1993, one third of all approved World Bank projects involved NGOs in one way or another and by 1994, this percentage had risen to almost half.
15.22. As a consequence of increasing foreign aid, the author believes that the agenda of NGOs is dictated by international donors. He quotes Adil Najam (1996): “finance provided by the donor can be a means of ensuring that the donor’s policy agenda is adopted by the NGO and of holding the NGO accountable to the agenda…” This leads to financial control by the donor, since the donor keeps close tabs on whether the money is spent as intended. In addition, the donors insist on concrete results as a condition for continuation of funds. All this has led to a “patron-client” relationship between donors and NGOs, lack of freedom to function for the NGO and sometimes even fudging of results to please donors. The author suggests that NGOs need to reduce their dependence on foreign funding, have more downward accountability (i.e., to beneficiaries), focus more on long-term results and play more of a developmental role, in order to be successful.

**Favorable Policy Environment**

15.23. The Proceedings of the All India Conference on the Role of the Voluntary Sector in National Development (2002) mentions an enabling policy environment as one of the factors contributing to the success of voluntary organizations. The proceedings include the highlights of the report of the Task Force set up by the Planning Commission (2000). The report recommends the following policy and legislative changes to facilitate the role of voluntary organizations.

15.24. The first change is with regard to lack of a separate legal status for voluntary organizations and differing national and state government laws. At the national level, the Society Registration Act of 1860 and the Indian Trust Act of 1882 provide a flexible framework for registration. However, many State governments have laws that make it mandatory for a voluntary organization to renew its registration every five years. The problem here is in defining what is meant by a voluntary organization, since all organizations registering under the Society or Trust Act are clubbed together by the Finance Ministry. The fact that voluntary organizations suffer from a lack of an authentic legal identity has also affected their credibility and fund raising capacity. Unless the policies of the Finance Ministry are changed to grant distinct legal recognition to voluntary organizations engaged in social development, these organizations will become entirely dependent on government and foreign funds.
15.25. The second area where policy change is required, according to the Task Force Report, is with respect to the Foreign Contribution Regulation Act (FCRA) of 1976. The Ministry of Home Affairs strictly enforces the provisions of the Act, which stipulate that foreign funds received by voluntary organizations are not to be misused for purposes other than social development and are to be set aside only for specific earmarked projects. However, in the absence of a separate legal identity for voluntary organizations engaged in social development, the entire amount of foreign funds received does not go to these organizations, but is also distributed among organizations such as clubs, schools, hospitals and others, which are clubbed together as voluntary organizations. This acts as a disincentive for the “real” voluntary organizations engaged in social development and leads to misuse of funds for other purposes.

Viable Strategies for NGOs

15.26. Rajasekhar, D (2000)\textsuperscript{19} takes a different view from Akbar Zaidi, regarding the role of the NGOs and the government in delivering services to the poor. While Zaidi argues in favor of bringing back the government as an answer to the failure of NGOs, Rajasekhar suggests that NGOs should play an active role in facilitating the delivery of services by the government. Rajasekhar proposes that NGOs should play the role of facilitators and persuade the government to deliver services efficiently, by adopting the following strategies:

- NGOs could help to form people’s organizations at different levels, train the poor and encourage leadership among them. This way they would be better equipped to become independent and plan and monitor development activities.

- Secondly, these organizations should be trained to exercise their rights and access resources from the government. They should be encouraged to approach the local governments or the Gram Panchayats, since development projects at the village level are implemented by them.

- NGOs should also come together and form networks among themselves, so that they are in a better position to influence the policies of the government through advocacy and lobbying.
NGO Success Factors – Case Studies

15.27. One area where there is much scope for the application of social marketing is in promoting better water management. Hempstead, Hemel (2003)\textsuperscript{12} cites the experience in South Asian countries, including India and Nepal, that shows that water management could create greater water availability, thus helping small farmers to achieve food security through increased crop yields. There is the case study of a local Indian NGO, Seva Mandir, in Udaipur, which successfully involved the local community in water management practices. The report identifies the primary reason for the success of the program as the integration of various practices, including rainwater harvesting, afforestation, rejuvenation of grazing lands and watershed treatment. The lesson to be learnt is perhaps that an integrated multi-pronged approach leads to greater effectiveness of social marketing programs, as compared to treating one component of the package.

15.28. Duke and Long (2007)\textsuperscript{7} examine the factors that led to the successful use of a model of agricultural development by Healing Hands International, a grassroots NGO, to reduce hunger and establish economic viability in developing countries. HHI has been acclaimed globally for achieving economic viability in developing countries through its four-step approach to agricultural development. The authors identify two factors – training and establishing trust through social networks - that led to the successful implementation of their program. Since there are about 40,000 such NGOs involved in bringing about sustained economic viability in developing countries, they are also of the view that these success factors could serve as a benchmark for the programs developed by these NGOs.

15.29. Healing Hands International’s work in this area was triggered by the World Food Summit (1996) and the report of the Food and Agricultural Organization (2004), which raised awareness about and set goals for reducing world hunger, with a focus on developing countries. HHI was initially involved in providing medical supplies and medicine to hospitals and clinics in third world countries. One of the factors which led to the success of the new agricultural program was the fact that HHI selected persons with agricultural training as well as an understanding of cultural differences. The agricultural model used by HHI involved the following four steps.
15.30. Building trust and social networks by distributing medical aid, food and educational resources - HHI did both the above using a number of methods. First they set up and maintained schools, hospitals and orphanages with the necessary infrastructure. Secondly, they cultivated relationships with important local contacts. Third, they worked closely with USAID and other humanitarian organizations. This helped them to build relationships with residents of the community and build the trust of social networks required to gain access to resources.

15.31. Food security through survival gardening - HHI was successful in bringing about food security in famine stricken Ethiopia, by using the social networks built in step 1 to work with Ethiopian farmers. They conducted Food Security Workshops for the farmers, during which the farmers were trained in “survival gardening” techniques. This involved helping the farmers to identify and make use of neglected resources already available in the area. The workshop also trained farmers in drip irrigation systems. Once the first batch of farmers completed the workshop, they in turn trained other farmers in survival gardening and drip irrigation. This way, a multiplier effect was created and interest in both survival gardening and drip irrigation spread across the entire country, leading to greater self reliance and food security.

15.32. Small farm production and training - The third step in the model involved encouraging farmers to expand both their survival gardens and drip irrigation systems to bigger plots of land of about five to ten acres in area. The idea was to enable them to produce surplus crops that could be sold in the community, so that they could earn real income, become self reliant and raise their living standards.

15.33. Organization of village co-operatives - The purpose of this last step in HHI’s agricultural model was to bring different small farmers together by forming village clubs or co-operatives. The idea of getting together in large numbers was to give them greater access to raw materials, facilitate bulk purchase of seeds and raw materials, pool resources and share the costs of hiring agricultural specialists.

15.34. Having successfully implemented the four step model in Ethiopia, HHI also introduced it in Malawi and other developing countries.
15.35. The authors suggest that the two indicators of success in the case of HHI, namely training and building trust through social networks, can be used as benchmarks for all other NGOs to follow.

15.36. Regarding training, they suggest that the traditional model of organizational training used by HHI which includes three elements – needs assessment, training and development and evaluation should be implemented by all NGOs. Training and development should include behavioral modeling, similar to what was done by HHI with farmers in Ethiopia. In this case, the models were the farmers who had completed the training in survival gardening and drip irrigation systems and were rewarded in terms of greater food security. Other farmers began to model or imitate their behavior. The authors also emphasize the importance of evaluation of training programs using formal methods, in order to assess the reactions to and the impact of the training on behavioral change.

15.37. Working closely with local communities and a needs based approach to social marketing has been identified as yet another success factor by Ebrahim, Alnoor (2001), based on the lessons drawn from case studies of two well established NGOs in Gujarat. The author is of the view that NGOs that are closer to the field are in a better position to understand and speak about specific local issues, than those that are far removed from the community. For example, one of the NGOs, Sadguru, which was in direct contact with village communities, had developed a better understanding of rural needs and this was reflected in their successful introduction of lift irrigation as an intervention. The NGO had conducted a survey of villages in one of the districts of Gujarat, in order to gain insight into local conditions and demands. Since there was a strong local demand for irrigation, Sadguru introduced lift irrigation on an experimental basis in some districts of eastern Gujarat. Soon irrigation projects became their main activity and the NGO was able to successfully raise funds from both the government and corporates for its work.

15.38. Fox, P Michael (2000) draws lessons regarding the success of social marketing from selected case studies of condom social marketing in Haiti and Mozambique. An innovative approach to marketing of condoms used in these countries was Community Based Distribution. In this model, non-professional sales agents were recruited from the general
population, trained in sales of condoms and rewarded through small margins on their sales. The author identifies both the obstacles and lessons to be learnt from these case studies. Conflict between NGO and project objectives, difficulty in selling condoms to rural audiences and an uncertain political and economic environment were some of the main problems encountered. In spite of these constraints, the CBD approach was quite successful in opening up new sales areas and outlets and in educating people about AIDS. The program was also cost effective, since the benefits of using community-based distributors exceeded the costs incurred in appointing and rewarding them. Even small margins were sufficient to motivate the community-based distributors. The lesson to be drawn from this experience is that use of low cost, innovative methods can lead to success of social marketing, in spite of cultural and other barriers.

15.39. Promotion of condoms was also found to have maximum impact when a combination of media, including mass media, interpersonal channels and local media were used. Some other success factors that were identified were securing government cooperation and adapting to local conditions. The case studies were selected from six developing countries – Haiti, Mozambique, India, Cameroon, Kenya and Columbia and present six applications of different techniques of condom social marketing to prevent the spread of HIV/AIDS. In all the countries, social marketing was found to be successful in removing the “stigma” associated with the use of condoms, indicating that it can be effective in helping people to overcome social and cultural resistance to certain types of products or practices. The lesson to be drawn from all the countries is that the ability to operate effectively in different contexts and adapt social marketing techniques to differing situations can lead to success.

15.40. Another key success factor identified by the author is the use of unconventional distribution outlets, in addition to the existing traditional sales and distribution outlets. For example, condoms in the developing countries were made available not only in traditional retail outlets such as pharmacies and drugstores, but also in bars, coffee shops, beauty parlors and gas stations. The use of new, experimental techniques in social marketing is also likely to receive support from international donors, as the experience of the Community Based Social Marketing Model in Chennai, India indicated.
15.41. A study of the effectiveness of the NGOs involved in promoting non-formal environmental education in Bangalore Urban District was undertaken by Yeshodhara K (2004). Some of the common problems and limitations faced by the NGOs that stood in the way of effective performance were inadequacy of funds, especially from the government, delay in receiving funds and lack of information regarding fund raising procedures.

15.42. Holcombe, Susan et al (2004) point out the lessons to be learnt from three case studies of NGOs in Senegal, Malawi and Pakistan, on various aspects such as accountability, trust and capacity building and partnerships with local governments. One of the case studies in Malawi was an attempt to form a partnership between an international NGO, the local government and a Community Based Organization (CBO), with the objective of providing local solutions and community based care to AIDS orphans in Malawi. This was based on the Oxfam model of successfully using partnership to build local capacity. However, in reality, it was found that there was more competition than collaboration between the CBOs and the local government. The CBOs did not establish links with local governments as expected of them and often competed with local governments by hiring their staff. The authors suggest that smooth partnerships based on equal sharing of risks and benefits, a shared vision of common goals, trust and transparency is a key factor that leads to success in social marketing. Mutual understanding of the respective roles would also be a key factor for success, through complementarity rather than competition.

15.43. Regarding capacity building, the authors recommend the use of the Oxfam model, which was based on training local governments in participatory methodologies. This involved working closely with villagers to identify, analyze and find solutions to community related problems. Each ministry of the local government developed a separate work plan, which was then integrated into one, after consultation with the different departments and communities and Oxfam. A single plan was then jointly implemented by Oxfam and the local government. The reason why this model was highly successful, according to the authors, was that all the parties concerned were involved in the process of identifying needs and generating solutions.

15.44. In addition to the above, the Oxfam model also includes a “train the trainer” program. This is implemented by appointing desk officers in each ministry of the local government to train other government officers and communities after completion of their training. The
training is on various aspects such as budgeting, implementation and accounting for funds. Oxfam encourages and facilitates the local government in funding development projects in the long run, by providing training to district level revenue collectors and computers in their offices, to help increase revenue collection.
16. SUCCESS STORIES, MODELS AND CASE STUDIES IN INDIA

16.1. Although social marketing still seems yet to establish itself in India there are several success stories and models available for replication. A review of some of these gathered from the literature on the subject and websites is presented in the following paragraphs. These also provided the basis for the subsequent formulation of benchmark traits for evaluation of the sample NGOs.

Karnataka Success Stories

16.2. Akshaya Patra is essentially a school meal program for underprivileged children. It is a pioneering effort in designing and setting up intelligently engineered kitchens that have the capacity to prepare 100,000 meals in less than 6 hours under hygienic conditions. The organization has a presence in 14 locations, spread across 6 states, covering 4500 schools and 852,000 children. The problems of procurement, manpower, hygiene, quality and nourishment involved in feeding on a large scale are addressed by this institution. Akshaya Patra’s vision is to end children’s hunger, empower underprivileged children with education tools and make them globally competent. It has entered into partnership with the government and gets support from corporates. A study conducted by A C Nielson showed raise in school enrolment and reduction in drop outs. This NGO has received several recognitions and has been used as case study in the Harvard Business School.

16.3. NABARD, a donor agency for NGOs engaged in rural development, was involved in the success of an NGO project – that of MYRADA’s pilot project on Self Help Groups in Mysore (1989-91). MYRADA pioneered the concept of SHGs, SHG-bank linkage and community managed resource centers. NABARD played a significant role in the success of this project, since they were the supporting organization, and launched the SHG-bank linkage program. The basic concept was similar to that of the Grameen Bank model in Bangladesh. The project was a huge success since it was the first of its kind in socio-economic development and was replicated in other areas. 500 SHGs were formed, went through incubation and were rated for their thrift habits.
16.4. Population Services International (PSI) is a multi national organization, funded by USAID and the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation. It works mostly in Sub Saharan Africa and S.E. Asia. It sells and promotes products and services that address major causes of death in developing countries; examples of products sold are condoms, insecticide treated bed-nets for malaria prevention and birth control to prevent unwanted pregnancies. PSI’s strategy is to promote their widespread usage, profit not being the aim. Its revenues cover only 15% of costs. Its promotion strategy includes mass media advertising and interpersonal communication, the latter involving training people to talk to the target audience about condoms, safe sex, etc. It also does continuous monitoring and evaluation of its activities. PSI is known for being cost-effective, spending around $ 1000 per life saved or changed. Its total budget in 2005 was $ 287 million. It spends 50% of its total budget for HIV prevention, 20% on malaria prevention and 10% on family planning. Evaluation claims that it has had an impact in saving lives.

16.5. There are a number of support groups based in Bangalore that help rural development oriented NGOs in evaluating their programs, capacity building for their personnel, creating newsletters and pamphlets. One such support group that serves the southern region and is based in Bangalore is SEARCH. SEARCH was established in 1975 by an ex Oxfam Director and trains people in rural development. They offer a one-year course in rural development that includes a practical component. They later diversified into other areas of training such as gender sensitization and organizing women in villages through a Field Service, which they set up in Tamil Nadu. Today SEARCH offers various training programs for all levels of NGO staff. They also trained women for participation in Panchayati Raj in a program sponsored by the Department of Women and Child Welfare, Govt. of Karnataka. They have their own large training centre outside Bangalore.

16.6. DEEDS is another smaller support organization that operates in a more informal manner. It was established in 1981 and is based in Mangalore. Equipped with staff strength of 10, it is involved in training and evaluation of NGOs in South India. It receives international funding and has supported various field programs. It was also involved in implementing the National Literacy Mission with government support between 1988 and 1991. It has facilitated the formation of women’s groups in the villages of Dakshina Kannada district. Its staff has been active in organizing various marginalized groups such as fisher folk into unions,
sweepers of Mangalore City Corporation and tribals in Uttar Kannada into cooperatives that can give small loans to needy farmers.

16.7. In addition to support groups, Karnataka also has a number of strong, formal networks of NGOs involved both in rural and urban development. The best known among these networks is the State Level Federation of Voluntary Organizations for Rural Development in Karnataka (FEVORD–K). Networks offer the advantage of being a platform for NGOs to share their problems and experiences. They also assist NGOs in interacting with the government, securing funds and preparing grant proposals. FEVORD–K was established in 1982 with the objective of promoting cooperation and understanding among its member NGOs, without direct interference in NGO affairs. Its role is merely to act as a liaison between the member NGOs and the government and donors, as well as to strengthen the NGOs through appropriate training. FEVORD–K has more than 150 member organizations that range from large organizations to small social action groups.

**Tamil Nadu Success Stories**

16.8. Tamil Nadu presents a slightly different picture from Karnataka. The majority of NGOs in Tamil Nadu work in rural development, followed by health and women’s and children’s issues. SHARE, for example, is an NGO working with poor women from landless households in villages in a drought prone area of Tamil Nadu. It was established in 1992 and its “intervention strategy” is to set up craft centers and income generation activities for poor women and to market these products in national and international markets. These incomes have helped to make the poor women, most of whom are from the Dalit and Muslim communities, more secure. SHARE also provides training, education and support services such as child care, safe drinking water and evening study centers for women and their children.

16.9. Centre for Rural Education and Development is a woman headed NGO, set up in 1987, in Madurai and pioneered the concept of micro credit for the empowerment of rural women in Madurai. It also introduced the concept of Self Help Groups (SHG) among women. Selected SHG’s attend training sessions on gender awareness, health, human and child rights and then promote the concepts in their target areas. Initially, the WSHG concept had to face
cultural barriers in a male dominated society, but is said to have overcome these hurdles. As a result, rural women have developed an entrepreneurial mindset, financial skills, communication abilities and an organized way of solving problems. They have also gained self esteem and greater visibility.

16.10. Y.R. Gaitonde is a company linked NGO established in 1993 and is involved in four core areas of AIDS awareness and prevention – education, care and support, research and training. Its main sources of funding are the Ford Foundation and USAID. It claims to be one of the few organizations offering the entire range of services from prevention to care in this area. Its vision is to enable people with AIDS to live in dignity. The activities of the organization include providing support materials for information on AIDS, organizing workshops and developing a network of HIV infected people. Its marketing communication strategy involves the use of art forms such as street plays and folk music to spread awareness. Its programs have been highly successful and are reported to have won international acclaim from the UNICEF, the WHO and the Red Cross.

Successful Models
(Source: JICA Website and Jose, Sunny and Kannan, K.P., (2004)

16.11. Japanese Collaboration Model: The JICA Partnership Program (JPP) is an initiative which supports collaborative projects with Indian NGOs working at the grassroots level. Successful ongoing projects are briefly described below.

16.12. Bellary Project (Karnataka)- Ecologically Sustainable Rural Development through Community Participation with a Focus on Women’s Empowerment: This project is a collaborative effort between Live with Friends on the Earth (LIFE), Tokyo, Japan and Mysore Resettlement and Development Agency (MYRADA), Bangalore, Karnataka, India. The project covers 26 villages in the south-west area of Hospet Taluk, Bellary district, where farmers cannot cultivate land area due to droughts, poor and inefficient distribution of water. The aim of the project is to bring about integrated watershed management by villagers and to increase cultivable land area and land productivity in order to enhance their economic livelihood base. Villagers are encouraged to form Watershed Development Associations (WDAs) and given appropriate training with a special emphasis on women’s empowerment.
16.13. Kerala Model: A case study of the fishing community in the state of Kerala shows success in setting priorities in terms of establishing objectives and in targeting marginalized groups for social development. South Indian Federation of Fishing Communities (SIFFS) has taken the initiative of trying to enhance the welfare of the marginalized fishing folk in Kerala. A study conducted to assess the contribution of SIFFS to the fishing community used a four-pronged approach to measure its effectiveness. Discussions were held with the following groups to assess their perceptions of SIFFS.

- Members of its village level cooperatives
- Executives & Managing Committee of its district level federations
- NGOs that work with the fisher folk and are closely associated with SIFFS
- Organizations that provide similar services to fisher folk and are competitors of SIFFS
- Various individuals who were associated with SIFFS at various levels

16.14. The discussions revealed that SIFFS had contributed significantly in four ways.

a) By showing that marketing co-operative societies at the coastal villages are viable and sustainable and by influencing the state government to establish fisherman’s co-operatives
b) By developing and designing a variety of fleets, which serve as an alternative to mechanized boats and which have improved the economic conditions of the fisher folk
   .By helping to create democratic leadership among the fishing community at the village level
c) By facilitating the emergence of other organizations in the fishing sector and by networking and assisting these organizations

Micro Insurance

16.15. The concept of micro insurance was pioneered in India by the Life Insurance Corporation of India and is essentially life insurance coverage offered to the poorer sections of society. NGOs have been playing an active role in promoting this concept. LIC’s micro insurance scheme, “Jeevan Madur”, was launched in 2006 and promoted by the Confederation of NGOs of Rural India (CNRI), along with micro finance and micro entrepreneurship. The CNRI is LIC’s sole authorized agent for this scheme in India. It started with an initial network of over 800 NGOs that covered the States of Tamil Nadu, Andhra,
Maharashtra, Gujarat, UP and Kerala. This has been gradually scaled up over the last few years. Thanks to the efforts of CNRI, the scheme has been successful in providing insurance coverage of Rs. 110 crores to over 80,000 under-privileged people. The scheme offers benefits not only to the poor in the form of social security and life insurance coverage, but also creates employment in rural areas. CNRI gets 10% commission every time a policy is sold, out of which 1% is retained and the rest is passed on to its member NGOs. This is a good source of revenue for the NGOs, which do not have to depend on funding from the government or foreign donors. CNRI provides training to its member NGOs on how to provide this service and create awareness of the need for insurance. The member NGOs use computerized facilities and local social workers to collect a small premium on a weekly or daily basis, to make it easier for their customers. Given that a majority of the Indian population has no life insurance, the concept of micro insurance has huge potential for growth.

**Condom Marketing**

16.16. A success story is Hindustan Latex’ social marketing programs for condoms in rural India. The cost of “couple-year” of protection (CYP) for social marketing projects of HLFPPT is presented in the table below (Source: HLFPPT website).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Annual Sale</th>
<th>Cost/CYP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural Marketing of Condoms and OCPs* in Rural Statewide UP</td>
<td>25000 villages in UP reaching to 10 million eligible couples</td>
<td>100 million condoms and 2.5 million cycles OCPs*</td>
<td>Rs. 58.00 ($1.23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Based Social Marketing in 12 districts of Bihar, Orissa and Jharkhand</td>
<td>6000 villages each in Bihar, Jharkhand and Orissa reaching to 3 million eligible couples</td>
<td>9 million condoms and 0.15 million cycles OC* and other health care products</td>
<td>Rs. 175.00 ($3.72)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Private Partnership Model of Social Marketing in AP</td>
<td>All settlements of population 5000 and above</td>
<td>10 million condoms and 0.5 million OC*</td>
<td>Rs. 86.95 ($1.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Network for Health Promotion in Western UP</td>
<td>All villages in 23 districts reaching to 16 million eligible couples</td>
<td>10 million condoms and 1 million OCs*</td>
<td>Rs. 150.00 ($3.19)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*OC – Oral Contraceptive, OCP – Oral Contraceptive Pills*
16.17. Clearly, HLFPPT social marketing interventions have been able to generate couple year of protection at a very low cost. Equally important to note is the imaginative manner in which the cost per couple has been calculated with a view to assess the comparative effectiveness of alternate methods of distribution.

16.18. Two major factors that have contributed to the success of Hindustan Latex’ social marketing programs are its strengths in coordinated rural distribution and its effective communication. In order to distribute condoms at rural outlets, Hindustan Latex developed a system of distribution and redistribution, which comprises stockists, redistribution stockists, travelling rural salesman, rural based distributors and block field workers. This network has helped to distribute contraceptives through different types of outlets such as conventional chemist outlets, non-chemist trade outlets, including grocery shops, kirana stores, paan shops, beauty parlors and other non-traditional outlets. Their communication strategy in rural areas included the use of an innovative media mix that comprises stalls in melas (fairs) and haats (weekly markets), video vans, radio, press, wall and shop paintings, hoardings and promotional messages for oral pills on bindi packets to increase recall among rural women. In addition, point of purchase advertising through posters, danglers and stickers at retail outlets have helped to generate top of mind recall. Yet another innovation is the mobile health clinic, which is a doctor’s clinic on wheels that travels around rural areas and services each village twice a month, providing family planning and related services for a nominal fee. The clinic also provides entertainment programs with an underlying education theme. Hindustan Latex also conducted a Female Condom Study to determine the acceptability of a special international product – a condom that could be used by women without the knowledge of the male partner. This product found high acceptability among various sections of women.

16.19. The lesson to be learned from these case studies is that there is much scope for experimentation and creativity in using social marketing as a tool in social development.

**Orissa Micro Finance Case Study**

16.20. The Center for Youth & Social Development is an Orissa based NGO, which successfully introduced the concept of Women’s Self Help Groups (SHGs) in the late 1990s to reach out to Koraput - one of the poorest regions in Orissa. The concept of SHGs is based on contributions from all members of the group to a common fund. Once this fund builds up,
members can borrow from it for emergency purposes. All loan decisions, such as the contribution amount, the rate of interest and the repayment schedule are made by the members themselves. Around 15 to 20 such SHGs have been started in the Koraput village of Orissa. The loans have been used by the women for purposes like meeting emergencies, starting income generating activities, strengthening the husband’s income and building household assets. The SHGs have helped in creating employment opportunities and raising the standard of living of the villagers in Koraput. They have also improved the confidence level of women in the village, who have developed the capability to stand on their own. In addition, the women are now in a position to collectively voice their opinions and exert influence on the local administration and public delivery system to improve their functioning. The biggest benefit of the SHG however, is that it has freed the villagers from the clutches of the village lender who charged exorbitant interest rates on loans. Since the villagers previously had no access to formal or semi-formal financial services, they had no option but to approach the village lender on these terms.

Social Marketing Success Story

16.21. Most social marketing programs use a traditional approach that relies on the existing commercial infrastructure in different countries to distribute products such as condoms. However, the need to reach population groups or geographical areas with special needs in some developing countries has led to the development of alternative, non-traditional approaches to social marketing. One such innovative model - the Community Based Distribution (CBD) Model - has been successfully applied in countries such as Haiti and Mozambique to implement condom social marketing programs. Condoms have also been widely distributed in India, especially in the state of Tamil Nadu, where the first case of AIDS was reported in Chennai in 1986. While the number of those infected has risen significantly since then, safe sex campaigns and intensive promotion of condoms have led to their increasing use in the state. An innovative approach to social marketing and the distribution of condoms was pioneered by International Family Health and its local partner NGO, the Indian Institute of Community Health. Termed Community Based Social Marketing (CBSM), this model is based on direct, person-to-person promotion and sales of condoms. Based on its success in developed countries and the pilot test, the model was felt to have potential for achieving community penetration and involvement in condom promotion in developing countries. Apart from being an effective way of generating awareness about
reproductive health, the CBSM model was also seen as creating employment opportunities for several individuals. The most encouraging part is that it has indicated the willingness of international donors to support innovative concepts in social marketing.

Success Stories of Common Resource Management

16.22. Watershed management: Srikakulam Project (Andhra Pradesh) - This is a three-year project implemented between 2007 to 2010 by SOMNEED, a Japanese NGO based in Gifu, Japan, and SOMNEED-INDIA, a registered trust in Visakhapatnam, Andhra Pradesh. Andhra Pradesh is one of the leading states in micro watershed development. Srikakulam District of A.P. has a large tribal population. This project aims to bring about common property resource management through micro watershed management and forest regeneration with tribal community initiatives. An important outcome of this is to reduce the poverty level of the local people by assisting them in planning and implementing natural resource management, to mobilize necessary resources for village development activities.

16.23. Wasteland Regeneration: Social marketing has been used to promote an innovative new concept – wasteland regeneration. Ananta Paryavarana Parirakshana Samiti (APPS), an Andhra based NGO, has successfully regenerated the degraded revenue forest lands in Anantapur district of Andhra Pradesh, by creating awareness and educating people about the need to conserve land, water and vegetation. Its efforts are reported to have resulted in increased forest cover and commercial crops being cultivated in the wastelands, creating a source of income for the villagers. APPS set up village level committees to promote the concept of wasteland regeneration and adopted low cost methods such as protecting the existing resources. It also involved women, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in its efforts to prevent forest fires and illicit cutting of trees. Eco-clubs were set up at the village level involving school children and encouraging them to spread the word about protecting trees and keeping the environment clean. Its efforts were spread over 50,000 acres and 125 villages. These were expected to have a multiplier effect on the economy, leading to improved water harvesting methods, crop productivity and pest control. APPS was supported by Oxfam (India) in its efforts.

objective is to encourage policies that incorporate “decentralized, participatory and locale-specific water harvesting systems, which use rain water and sub-surface water.” Its mission is to revive the ancient practice of water harvesting, by incorporating modern inputs from scientific knowledge. The specific goals of the organization include promoting “water literacy”, bringing about policy changes, and working with panchayat institutions to promote water harvesting at the local government level. The organization is involved in various activities such as interacting with government and policy makers, organizing conferences, workshops and exhibitions and promoting the concept of water harvesting. It also establishes links with people involved in water harvesting in other countries.

Contributors to NGO Success

16.25 Azim Premji University is an innovative approach to promoting socio economic development through training high caliber professionals for the voluntary sector. It was established under Government of Karnataka’s Azim Premji University Act, 2010 and will be operational from mid - 2011. Following are extracts of information from their website on their mission and activities that are relevant to the subject of this study. Two key focus areas of the University are to: (a) prepare a large number of committed education and development professionals who can significantly contribute to meeting the needs of the country; (b) build new knowledge in the areas of education and development through establishing strong links between theory and practice.

For almost a decade, the Azim Premji Foundation has been active in supporting the primary education sector. It has partnered with state governments across India to pilot initiatives that have the potential for systemic reform to enhance the quality of elementary education within government run school systems. The Foundation’s Programs outreach has been to over 20,000 schools, through its work in partnership with the Governments of thirteen Indian States. The inter-related nature of education, livelihood, governance and sustainability and their contribution to human and social development has become well appreciated through this engagement.

16.26 NABARD has been playing a key role in the NGO sector through financing and otherwise supporting their activities. The Micro Finance Development and Equity Fund (MFDEF), during 2005-06, enhanced the fund size from Rs 100 crore to Rs 200 crore. The objective of the Fund is to facilitate and support the orderly growth of the micro-finance
sector through diverse modalities for enlarging the flow of financial services to the poor, particularly for women and vulnerable sections of society consistent with sustainability. The Fund is utilized to support interventions to eligible institutions and stakeholders. The components of assistance include the following purposes: (a) training of SHGs and other groups for livelihood, skill up-gradation and micro enterprise development. (b) capacity building of staff of institutions involved in micro finance promotion such as Banks, NGOs, government departments. (c) capacity building of micro finance institutions (MFIs) (d) commissioning studies, consultancies, action research, evaluation studies relating to the sector. (e) promoting seminars, conferences and other mechanisms for discussion and dissemination. (f) granting support for research (g) documentation and publication and dissemination of micro finance literature.

The following types of community based organizations and institutions would be eligible for support by way of training and funding: SHGs, CBOs, NGOs, Banks, MFIs.

Concluding Remarks on Chapter III

16.27. This chapter states that relationship based activity is far more likely to succeed than a transaction based approach. Relationship with funding agencies, the local government and, above all, the community are explained. Sustainability of an NGO has four dimensions. Organizational sustainability (management skills and leadership), technical sustainability (technical skills at the operational level), financial sustainability (continuity of fund flow) and, most important, community sustainability (assimilation and pursuit of new practices by the target community even after the program and even without outside support) are the tests of successful NGOs. The success and failure factors are enumerated, supported by actual case studies in a separate section. These have provided the framework for evolving a practical benchmark-based social marketing model dealt with in the research methodology in the next chapter.

References


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