NGOS MANAGEMENT: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

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Abstract –

Objective: Year after year, more researchers join in the ever-growing field of interest of NGOs. Nevertheless, the literature on NGOs management is less rich than the same topics for private companies and bodies in the business world. This paper proposes a framework for managing NGOs effectively. Design/Methods: reviewing the literature on NGOs management from different areas, the paper proposes a conceptual framework aimed to give a framework for managing an NGO linking different areas of management. Findings: The paper provides a conceptual framework on how different management areas are involved in a mutual framework for managing NGOs. Limitations: The author needs to empirically test the suggested framework using qualitative and qualitative techniques. Value: The author perspective on NGOs management is a subject of great interest for different NGOs stakeholders including: donors, communities, volunteers, managers and policy makers.

Index Terms - Framework, NGOs, Management

I. INTRODUCTION

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) are intriguing and complex bodies that have long attracted the interests and curiosity of researchers all around the world. Year after year, and era after era, nonprofits are experiencing increased attention in different societies and for different reasons. It is for this reason that researchers are seeking to learn more about these organizations and build empirical evidence that allows to make strong claims on the topic of non-governmental organizations.

This paper first goes over the different important definitions for the NGO jargon, in order to align understandings and establish a ground level of basic knowledge about the topic on hands, which mainly revolves around the different business disciplinary areas of non-governmental organizations, which is an important added value to our methodology. In general, some areas of NGOs are specifically interesting and appealing for the scrutiny of researches around the world and from different backgrounds. These areas include Strategic Management, marketing, human resources, logistics and supply chain management, project management, organizational culture, performance measurements, and financial management in NGOs. These areas are all derived from business topics and practices, which also heavily impact the operations and the overall performance of nonprofit organizations and can be part of a management framework for these organizations. The scrutiny of the above-mentioned areas in NGOs is done by running an extensive review of the existing literature, from the past till up to date and from different authors and points of view.

II. NGOS DEFINITIONS

In an attempt to define the non-profit sector, authors differ in evaluating the criteria to include. Morris (2000) suggests that the third sector aims at supplying public goods, as a substitute to what the government is responsible for, in order to cut costs. The non-profit sector occupies the role of transforming the economy, as it provides services that cannot be offered by the government, and it is also a powerful proxy in civil society and opinion leading. Morris (2000) defines the sector as “a set of organizations which are collectively considered to possess characteristics that set them apart from states, markets or households. There are three types of distinctive features which, individually or collectively, produce different definitions of the sector. The first relates to the nature of the inputs to the organization; the second to the outputs, the nature of the goods and services they provide; whilst the third concerns how organizations distribute their surplus revenue. On the other hand, Billis and Glennerster (1998) tackles the efficiency and effectiveness of these institutions by looking at the service they are providing. In this sense, governments use the third sector as a tool for public policy, by providing human service at lower costs. Putnam (1995) considered NGOs as the social capital. Social capital is defined as the “features of social organization such as networks, norms, and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit” (Putnam, 1995). This definition points out that the third sector is one variable in promoting economic development and democracy integration. Functionally speaking, this sector is considered to be organized, private, self-governing, nonprofit distributing and voluntary (Salamon and Anheier, 1992; 1996b).
NGOs were defined from the activities perspectives. For instance, Lewis (2009) defined these organizations as:

“Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are now recognized as key third sector actors on the landscapes of development, human rights, humanitarian action, environment, and many other areas of public action”

Similarly, Werker & Ahmed (2007) treated these entities as:

“One group of players who are active in the efforts of international development and increasing the welfare of poor people in poor countries. NGOs work both independently and alongside bilateral aid agencies from developed countries, private-sector infrastructure operators, self-help associations, and local governments.”

Salamon and Anheier (1996) points out that they can be NGOs work is related to into culture & recreation, education & research, health, social services& relief, environment, development & housing, law, advocacy and politics & advocacy organizations. Other work types are deprived of sub groups and are classified under philanthropic intermediaries and voluntarism promotion category, international unite, religion group, professional associations and unions set (Salamon & Anheier, 1996).

III. STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT IN NONPROFITS

Some NGOs have strategies, which define the “direction and scope of an organization over the long term, ideally which matches its resources to its changing environment and in particular its markets, customers and clients so as to meet stakeholder expectations” (Johnson and Scholes, 1993). Historically, it is believed that the increased urge for local governments to adopt modern management techniques has led to similar expectations for NGOs. Moreover, NGOs are also pressured to prove that they are as efficient and effective as private companies (Courtney, 2002). Strategic management was becoming the “rising star of management in the voluntary sector” (Handy, 1981). Strategic management has created a “management boom” in the NGO sector (Drucker, 1990). Nevertheless, people came to the realization that “resistance to management was deep rooted” (Knight, 1993). Such behavior was traced back to the “pervasive worry that management would be a Trojan horse, infiltrating alien systems and practices and undermining the perceived autonomy, cherished values, core identities and distinctive working methods of individual organizations and the sector as a whole” (Batsleer, 1995). Numerous organizations were questioning “why we can’t manage ourselves on the basis of our obvious stock of goodwill, flexibility, commitment and natural ability” (Billis, 1984a). However, it was also argued that NGOs should become more business-minded when approaching strategic management practices in their own operations (Handy, 1988). Here, we should also highlight that NGOs need to recruit consultants if they have no capacity to produce strategic plans According to (Kaplan, 1996).

IV. MARKETING

As any other concept, there are several definitions of Marketing depending on the sector of activity. In general, marketing is “the management process responsible for identifying, anticipating and satisfying consumer requirements profitably” as defined by the CIM (The chartered Institute of Marketing, 2015). This definition provides the economical view of marketing. For NGOs, it is about using marketing strategies to generate funding and human resources. In other words, it is functional in the context of attracting a target segment in particular to volunteer for the benefit of others or community as a group. In accordance, the right terminology of this discipline in NGOs is “Social Marketing”, which is the implementation of marketing concepts to societal issues with the aim of alleviating the life conditions of people in need as stated by Parthasarathy (2012). Moreover, Kotler and Levy were the first to think about social marketing in the framework of “Applying commercial marketing principles to non-commercial organizations” in 1969. As a matter of fact, the first definition of social marketing was provided by Kotler and Zaltman (1971), which is the following:

“Social marketing is the design, implementation and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution, and marketing research”

Andreason (1994) stresses the fact that social marketing is related to triggering a wanted behavioral change, which represents the right measurement of the success of a program instead of focalizing on the number of text messages sent as an indicator.

According to Dolnicar and Lazarevski (2009) marketing orientation is not an important practice for third sector organizations, thus some tools and marketing strategies are available to be used by nonprofit organizations without impacting their true mission. In fact, it is stated that market segmentation, product positioning, advertising and place are types of marketing strategies that are suited for NGOs. They are to be used effectively in order to help the organization face the strong competition and to increase the numbers of donors. Marketing tools are relevant to any type of business either for profit or nonprofit organizations, a central tool indicated by Mun Yee and Yazdanifard (2015) is the SWOT analysis. As explained, it helps the third sector

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organizations to identify their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. Also, it is stated that Porter’s five forces help indicate the degree of competition existing in this sector as well as the bargaining power of both buyers and suppliers and the danger of substitute products or services, which are basically the mission and the originality of ideas.

According to Parthasarathy (2012), the 8’Ps are useful in shaping the noncommercial marketing campaigns because they refine and determine several factors. As stated, the product defines the problem being recognized as for the price, it is generally the cost of obtaining the object of the NGO’s cause (such as water, blankets, clothes…). Moreover, the place means where the beneficiaries are located, and the promotion is about the different advertising and communication tools used in marketing to reach donors and volunteers. In addition, the publics represented by stakeholders and volunteers, and partnership which is very important since a single organization cannot fully fund its causes. Furthermore, policy is a crucial factor when change is needed to sustain the social campaign and finally pursue such as grants and donations with the guarantee of their continuity.

An essential part of marketing is branding, a concept developed during the industrial revolution as mentioned by Clifton et al (2003). As a matter of fact, it was recognized as the directorial factor for making a choice at a first sight before closely investigating the product itself. In other words, it is all about the intangible assets such as feelings, values and impressions. In agreement with the provided definition, in the sector of nonprofit organizations branding is of uttermost importance since it impacts the desire to donate. As declared by Paço et al. (2014), branding in NGOs serves as a differentiation factor, which if managed well would attract numerous donors and increase capital resources. Moreover, it is imperative for the fact that funds available for acquisition are very limited, therefore there is a high competition between NGOs. In the research paper, a model was developed to test different hypothesis about the relationship existing between branding and the intention to donate money and another one including the intention to donate time. The results of the model emphasized the fact that, for any third sector organization brand reputation and image plays a huge role not only in generating monetary benefits but also in attracting volunteers, who will be dedicating their time to serve a good cause. Therefore, branding as part of marketing establishes credibility for NGOs which increases their chances for receiving funds and human resources.

With nowadays advancement in technologies and the availability of internet to connect the whole world, the use of mobile marketing is very advantageous to NGOs, in line with the claims of Lasica & Burke (2012). Moreover, it is mentioned that using text messages to solicit the help of potential donors, the creation and development of a well-designed website and the use of social media (YouTube, Facebook, Twitter…) awareness will be generated for a specific cause at a larger scale. As a result, influence and action will follow represented through the raise of capital as well as attracting volunteers from all over the globe and this will lead certainly to a positive impact. Conforming to the report, it is revealed that the donations or the purchases will be increased by 50% by effectively drawing an action plan and implementing it. Moreover, marketing is related to communication and creating a two-way channel, in which NGOs must develop relationships with their donors, volunteers and stakeholders and this can be achieved through effective usage of social media. In fact, it would enable the NGOs to change from a push communication to a communication that encourages feedback and interaction, and this deepens the relationship with the NGO’s different players which facilitates cooperation. Adequate design of a fundraising campaign according to Pezzullo and Rice (2001) leads to sustaining the achievements of long-term objectives of non-governmental organizations. In fact, it is indicated that it is critical to highlight and emphasis on the positive effect and the role of the specific NGO while developing the campaign. Also, the marketing in this section serves as a communicator of where the funding will be invested in, and who are the beneficiaries. This marketing strategy is directed mostly to donors for capital raising. As listed in the report, several functions must be occupied by skilled employees in order to achieve the goal of this campaign, and the roles include: Campaign Manager, Advertising and Media Relations Manager, Corporate Relations Manager, Financial Manager, Administrator and Program Support.

As claimed by Dolnicar and Lazarevski (2009), the switch from an organization-centric mindset to a customer-centric mindset allows the not-for-profit organization to base its strategic decisions on marketing research in order to focus on sub-segments, their needs and how the campaigns would be designed. Furthermore, this view enables the NGO to tailor targeted and comprehensive campaigns and not only to rely on promotion or communication. However, accordingly with the study conducted by the authors it showed that not-for-profit organization are still on an organization-centric point of view which is based solely on advertising, fundraising and PR. Pope et al. (2009) based on the study conducted argues that when it comes to defining precisely the target segment, who are volunteers and donors, the majority of the NPO failed to do so and therefore provided an ambiguous one.

For the marketing in NGOs there are many constraints and limitations. As mentioned by Yee and Yazdanifar (2015), NGOs cannot invest in costly advertising such
as TV advertisement, which is an effective tool in communicating the message, due to limited financial resources. Pope et al. (2009) adds that the use of internet marketing by NGOs is very limited and highlights a one-way communication channel rather than a tool to exchange ideas with clients and donors. Also, according to the same source the maintenance and usage of most of the NGOs’ websites is done poorly since there is a scarcity of monetary resources. Another factor is the fact that not all third sector organizations are aware of the role of marketing in NGOs as they lack a well-structured marketing department. As brought by Dolnicar and Lazarevski (2009) the limitations surrounding marketing efforts in NGOs can be due to the fact that there is no control over the product as it is predefined as well as the price is usually voluntary and decisions about distribution canals can rarely be made.

V. HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

As stated by Ridder et al. (2012) the hierarchy existing within NGOs is not well-known and it has an impact on performance. As mentioned the scarcity related to capital and the continuous rising costs for the implementation stage affects negatively HR practices including training, payment and development. As a matter of fact, employees are perceived to be an indispensable resource to achieve the NGOs goals and mission. In accordance with Akingbola (2012), Human resources are critical to strategy success since they guide the adaptation to change. Therefore, an alignment of Human Resource Management to the actual and changing objectives of the organization is required. According to the findings of the study conducted by Ridder et al. (2012) there are different HR architectures within NGOs counting Administrative HRM, Motivational HRM Strategic HRM and Values-based HRM. Conforming to Padaki (2007), Human resources role is related highly to attracting qualified individuals in many business disciplines and other in order to help the NGO achieve its objectives. It includes internships, summer projects, reaching campuses creatively and formal education for careers in this sector. Additionally, according to the results of the study performed by Yassine and Zein (2016), the HR practices of NGOs ought to be altered to include recognition, rewards, and incentives to show their employees that they are appreciated. As a result, this would make them feel proud of their job and willing to recommend their NGO to others. Also, it is claimed that the new HR practices in NGOs should be developed to demonstrate a value-driven management.

VI. LOGISTICS AND SUPPLY CHAIN MANAGEMENT

As stated by Cozzolino et al (2012), humanitarian Supply chain is important because it allows the NGO to prepare itself to rescue the victims from a specific incident. For that purpose, four factors in this field must be available which are: mitigation, preparation, response, reconstruction and human relief stream. The focus will be on the last factor, which not only include the successful execution of the plan but also cost saving as one of the goals. According to the same source, logistics plays an essential role in the third sector organizations operating as a disaster relief organization. In other words, two important functions of logistics are very crucial which are: “agility and leanness”. Moreover, as evoked by Thomas (2004) it is meant by disaster any natural disaster or war. Indeed, the primary role of people with logistical functions is to ensure the mobilization of funding and goods from worldwide donors to beneficiaries at tragedy sites. By that its role consists of providing access to procurement and ensuring adequate distribution of goods in a timely manner. In addition, as it is part in different activities of the NGO it can be the most expensive operations. It is expensive because it includes relationships with suppliers and distributers besides the purchasing costs. Ergun et al. (2009) adds that humanitarian logistics is highly related to disasters rather than ongoing conditions as well as it is about a supply meeting the demand of a specific area. In accordance with the same source, the items supplied consist of relief items, personnel/volunteers, and transportation and construction resources, among others. As for the demand, they are the victims of the disaster they have changing needs depending on the type and degree of the disaster.

Moreover, it is claimed by Waweru (2015) that supply chain allows NGOs to efficiently and effectively ensure delivery services of specific relief items as they are an essential component of any third sector organization. A stated by Rodriguez et al. (2016), the purchasing power of the NGO is very critical in order to bring the product in time for the people in need. Also, avoiding trade-offs between the social and economic outcomes by enhancing programs that promote supply chain social sustainability.

In line with Waweru (2015), humanitarian aid is of unique nature which requires different criteria and motives. This implies suppliers meeting quality standards and infrastructure, even if the concern is about obtaining the lowest price for the buyer governments still availability and quality are of uttermost importance. This factor is also emphasized upon by Rodriguez et al (2016) in which the importance of selecting partners and suppliers is essential because they might provide additional useful resources. Another point discussed by Waweru (2015) the combination of supply chain activities and the advanced technologies are becoming competitive requirements in most of the organizations. Hence, the tendency on the way to increasing use of supply chain
technologies is on a clear track forward. However, these technologies require huge investments from NGOs which is not something that they can afford easily and installing an inadequate technology would be a challenge use of inadequate technology is a major challenge for NGO’s supply chain management. Not to forget that, it demands IT skills to accomplish e-procurement transactions and therefore cutting costs. Pursuant to Ergun et al. (2009), humanitarian supply chain does not depend on any profit targets and rely deeply on volunteers and donors still optimization models are highly valued in order to derive the model that would result in the lowest costs.

In agreement with Pettit et al. (2010) supply chain integration is important in supply chain management and it consists of internal and external integration. As explained internal integration is about the integration and collaboration between different parts of the same organization. Whereas, external integration is the collaboration between suppliers, manufacturers, distributors, customers, competitors and other non-competitor organizations. Within the same source, a study was conducted centering around the major aid actors including NGOs, UN and GOs in distinct context one concerning preparedness and the other is immediate response. The key findings are that the strategic, tactical, or operational level of supply chain integration depends on the kind of organization and the stage in which the integration occurs.

VII. PROJECT MANAGEMENT

A recent tool has been introduced as part of project management for NGOs which is “Project Implementation Profile”, as mentioned by Rusare & Ian Jay (2015). This tool allows the project manager to assess success factors on a specific project and therefore, to control it and focus on human relations side of project management. As stated the 10 factors are the following: project mission, project schedule/plans, client consultation, personnel, technical tasks, client acceptance, monitoring and feedback, communication, top management support, and troubleshooting. In addition, one of the important tasks of Project manager-specific in promoting project success in development projects as well as NGOs is: implementation approach and selection of the right project team. Essentially, the author argues that there is no universal set of principles to ensure project success in all contexts, each context needs predefined set to guarantee success. Thus, the PIP is a quality assurance tool to be used by project managers in order to achieve the organization’s goals.

As highlighted by Navarro-Flores (2011) short term and long-term projects cannot be disconnected from their organizational context to understand how to define it, to manage it, and finally how to evaluate its results and long-term impact. In addition, when planning development projects, it is important to consider that a project does not happen in a vacuum; on the contrary, whether it is short- or long-term, it is going to affect the organization as well as its context on a long-term basis.

VIII. ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Empirical studies have claimed that a leader can indulge in developing, shaping and maintaining an optimal organizational culture, and also drive innovation through creating a ground of common values (Conger and Kanungo, 1987). Many authors claim that organizational culture is the main source of motivation and coordination in the activities of the organization; it is believed to be a substitute to the structure and a complement to leadership (Hauser, 1998; Pervaiz, 1998; Schein, 1994). Organizational culture is a very trendy area for research but seems to be much less trendy in the sector of nonprofit organizations (Lewis, 2002). Organizational culture refers to the methodologies which an organization puts in place in order to meet the demand of its own tasks (Reiman & Oedewald, 2002). It is an unconscious process deriving from the outcomes of people’s past experiences (Schein, 1992). Furthermore, Hofstede (1997) suggests that culture is embodied in the rituals, values, symbols and heroes within an organization, hence influencing behaviors. The relationship between organizational culture and performance has been described in four ways (Alvesson, 2002). The first link is that of strong cultures leading to performance. The second link is that of high performance leading to strong culture. The third link is that of a specific type of culture being the optimal in a given situation. As for the fourth link, it is that of that good performance is driven by an adaptive culture. Furthermore, the existence of not only cultures, but also subcultures is believed to increase flexibility within organizations (Boisnier & Chatman, 2002).

IX. PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT IN NGOS

“Today, contributors, donor agencies, scholars, and relief and development practitioners are all asking: do NGOs practice what they preach? How do we know? How effective are their programs and projects?” (Lindenberg and Bryant, 2001). In other words, all parties concerned with the performance of NGOs are trying to measure it and quantify it. This measurement of performance is important to the accountability of NGOs (Beamon, 2004). The ambiguous nature of the performance criteria of NGOs is actually one of the special characteristics of these organizations (O’Neill and Young, 1988). It is already challenging to attempt to measure the performance of for-profit organizations, but the process of measuring the
performance of NGOs is deeply more complex (O’Neill and Young, 1988; Sawhill and Williamson, 2001; Speckbacher, 2003; Micheli and Kennerly, 2005). Profitability is an easy measurement criterion, and much less ambiguous than in the case of non-existence of profitability (Kanter and Summers, 1987). The NGO domain reveals many challenging barriers, namely the intangibility of services, the immeasurability of missions, and the variety of stakeholders (Beamon and Balcić, 2008). “Imagine an organization whose mission is to alleviate human suffering. How can you measure such an abstract notion? How can an organization meaningfully assess its direct contribution to such a broadly stated mission? And by whose criteria should success be measured?” (Sawhill and Williamson, 2001). Such claims underline how the nature of the objectives of NGOs are very vague, which makes the measurement of the advancement towards these goals a complex process. Nevertheless, it is still crucial to measure the performance of NGOs, and that is due to the increased competition in the sector and the scarcity of resources (Kaplan, 2001).

A performance measure is defined as a metric that quantifies how effective and efficient an action is (Folan and Browne 2005). Effectiveness is the extent to which the requirements of a given customer are met, while efficiency is how economic is the process for achieving effectiveness (Beamon and Balcić, 2008). Neely et al. (1995) state that although many measurement systems have been developed, there is still lack for a system that can always be applicable. Although the interest in performance measurement of NGOs is increasing, only few attempts have been made to develop a framework for the performance measurement of NGOs (Micheli and Kennerly, 2005). Buckmaster (1999) has developed a framework which measures the outcomes of the programs of NGOs. Furthermore, Kaplan (2001) has attempted to apply the balanced scorecard technique with regards to multiple NGOs. “The Nature Conservancy” is another performance measurement system developed by Sawhill and Williamson (2001) especially for NGOs, which attempts to assess three areas of performance, namely capacity, impact, and activity. Sowa et al. (2004) have also built a performance measurement system for NGOs, which identifies effectiveness through two dimensions, namely the effectiveness of the programs, and the effectiveness of the management. “Effective performance measurement systems can help nonprofit managers make better decisions, improve performance, and provide accountability. Moreover, when they are designed and implemented effectively, performance measures provide feedback on agency performance, and motivate managers and employees to work harder and smarter to improve performance. They can also help allocate resources more effectively, evaluate the efficacy of alternative approaches, and gain greater control over operations, even while allowing increased flexibility at the operating level” Poister (2003). It is also stated that NGOs measure performance on the scale of inputs rather than outputs (Beamon and Balcić, 2008). Kaplan (2001) and in the following year Henderson et al. (2002) report that NGOs are used to employing input metrics that include the financial and non-financial resources invested in a given program.

X. FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

Nonprofit organizations managers should own the basic understandings of financial management, as it has been empirically proven to be an important area of performance. “An organization’s future support depends on not only its programmatic activities but also on its internal accounting decisions and ability to communicate its financial results to the stakeholder community” (Keating and Frumkin, 2000). However, not all board members of NGOs have the required background in financial management, as it is not a crucial requirement for being designated in the board (Inglis, 1997b).

Accounting systems used in the nonprofit sector are different than those used in the private sectors. Nonprofits rely on fund accounting, which dedicates different accounts for different funds (Voluntary Sector Initiative, 2003). Given that financial resources are the main risk for NGOs, financial management is the most crucial area in the overall management of such organizations (Anheier, 2000). The stakeholders of non-governmental organizations require to be provided with the financial statements of the organization, which are published upon their requests (Voluntary Sector Initiative, 2003). The financial management mission of nonprofits is made more challenging due to the scarcity of complete annual financial statement. NGOs board members often hire an auditing committee to verify the accuracy of the results, their efficiency, and also serve as mentors for the financial affairs of the organization (Persaud and Mason, 2000). One of the tasks of the auditing committee is to remain up-to-date on any occurring modifications in voluntary sector accounting principles and disclosure requirements (Persaud and Mason, 2000). Moreover, the tasks of the audit committee may go beyond the financial performance and encompass the review of human resource practices concerning the exposure to lawsuits and penalties, poorly written contracts of employment, and other concerns in the same line (Gray, 1986).

In technical wording, the NGOs board members are primarily responsible for internal controls, and the control environment (Renz and Herman, 2016). The internal controls are the procedures which “ensure the integrity of financial and accounting information, meet operational and profitability targets, and transmit
management policies throughout the organization. Internal controls work best when they are applied to multiple divisions and deal with the interactions between the various business departments.

As for the control environment, it is the “foundation on which an effective system of internal control is built and operated in an organization that strives to (1) achieve its strategic objectives, (2) provide reliable financial reporting to internal and external stakeholders, (3) operate its business efficiently and effectively, (4) comply with all applicable laws and regulations, and (5) safeguard its assets” (The Institute of Internal Auditors, 2018). The internal financial management of NGOs through ratio analysis allows to detect the strengths and weaknesses of the organization (Glenn et al., 2003). Furthermore, it has been claimed that the employment of financial management techniques is an end rather than a mean, in order to be perceived as “up-to-date and modern to its external controlling environment” (Lapsley, 1999). Hence, financial management in nonprofits is perceived as reactive rather than proactive (Abraham, 2006).

CONCLUSION

NGOs are a rich potential subject for more in-depth research, both in developed and developing countries, and countries all around the world. More interest and attention should be shed on the world of nonprofits, which also includes more research on the matter; this would bring numerous benefits for different stakeholders of non-profit organizations. The definitions of non-governmental organizations are multiple and diverse, which pertains to their complex nature as organizations.

NGOs tasks that puts pressure on the processes and outputs of nonprofits has these organizations them to adopt many techniques that have been adopted by private companies in order to increase efficiency and effectiveness, and that by achieving the most outputs from the least inputs, among other target criteria. The practices are based on strategic management, project which has been increasingly adopted by nonprofits through the years, even though having faced much critics and skepticism in its early starts. Other business practices are also adopted by nonprofits in the aim of achieving increased levels of efficiency and effectiveness, namely marketing, human resources, logistics and supply chain management, project management, organizational culture, performance measurements, and financial management as well. Based on these practices the paper tried to provide a conceptual framework for managing NGOs.

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