

THE ROLE OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN SUSTAINING NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS' OPERATIONS IN ZIMBABWE: A CASE STUDY OF HARARE

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ABSTRACT

Since independence non-governmental organisations have played a vital role in the political, social and economic development of Zimbabwe and have managed to achieve this through advocating general public goods such as human rights, democracy and providing service to the poor people and this has been seen as a significant complement to the government efforts of delivering basic rights and improving livelihoods of Zimbabwean people. In spite of this critical role, the studies show that NGOs face a multiple challenges, including dwindling donor funding due to donor fatigue and increased competition for funds, limiting the scope and complexity of the projects they can implement. Thus, this study aims to establish the role of entrepreneurship in sustaining NGOs's operations in Zimbabwe focusing on Harare Metropolitan. Furthermore, the study adopted the phenomenological approach. Consequently, the study shows that entrepreneurship is significant to the sustenance of NGOs' operations and for that reason, entrepreneurial culture should be adopted.

KEYWORDS: Non Governmental Organisations, Entrepreneurial Culture, Sustenance, Livelihoods

INTRODUCTION

Since the 1980s non-governmental organisations (NGOs) have played an important role in the political, social and economic development of Zimbabwe (Chambers, 2005). They have managed to achieve this through advocating for recognition and upholding of general public goods such as human rights and democracy as well as providing service to the poor people and this has been seen as a significant complement to the government efforts of delivering basic rights and improving livelihoods of Zimbabwean people (Brüntrup-Seidemann, 2011). On the other hand, as noted by Stromquist (2002) three major functions for NGOs namely service delivery (e.g. relief, welfare, basic skills); education provision and public policy advocacy are seen as fundamental human rights and important to Zimbabwean people. A study conducted by the European Union (EU) on Non-Governmental Organizations in Zimbabwe revealed NGOs work to eradicate poverty and protect fundamental socio-economic rights (EU, 2014). Despite this critical role by NGOs, the study by EU also revealed multiple challenges being faced by NGOs (Kang'ethe & Manomano, 2014). First, NGOs in Zimbabwe have very limited capacity for fundraising and this has constantly reduced their sustainability. This, coupled with dwindling donor funding due to donor fatigue, increased competition for funds due to the numerous local NGOs in existence, the small size of these organisations that limits the scope and complexity of the projects they can implement, weak administrative capacity, mistrust by government and lack of resources, has led to the failure by NGOs to provide service to their clients

(Davidson & Purohit, 2014). Furthermore, it is unfortunate that this is happening at a time the non-governmental organizations are over relying on donor funding and this renders most of the NGOs ineffective as they do not have the capacity to negotiate with donors, who often will impose projects that may not be beneficial to the communities (EU, 2014). As stated above, this has resulted in many of the local NGOs facing closure (Gweru, 2011). Many NGOs in Zimbabwe are awakening to the idea that relying primarily on charity, donor funding and government subsidy is no longer sustainable (Financial Gazette, 2014; The Herald, 2014). Hence, this study aims to establish the role of entrepreneurship in sustaining NGOs operations in Zimbabwe.

LITERATURE REVIEW

What is a Non-Governmental Organisation

Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) have existed in various forms for decades, but the term 'NGO' was initially used by the United Nations (UN) in 1945 for use in its charter to differentiate between participation rights for intergovernmental specialized agencies and those for international private organisations. The term NGO has become more popular and widespread over the years, however, the structure and nature of organisations that are now identified as NGOs have undergone much change and this has led to inconsistencies with the use of the term as it carries different connotations in different contexts (Raju, 2009). Willetts (2002) contends that there is no generally accepted definition for NGO. Consequently, Njugi et al (2014) defined non-governmental organizations (NGOs) as legally constituted organizations created by natural or legal people that operate independently from any form of government. Furthermore, they note that non-governmental organisations are complex political and social ecosystems that include many organisations ranging from Transnational Federations, such as Red Cross, to grass-roots or Community Based Organisations (CBOs), Churches and Trade Unions that operate at the local, national or even global levels.

Michael (2004) defined NGOs as independent development actors existing apart from government and corporations, operating on non-profit or for profit basis, with degree of emphasis on voluntary and undertaking community development work or advocating on development issues. Although there is no universal definition for non-governmental organisation, the UN has stipulated several characteristics that define NGOs should follow and these are: it must be independent from the control of government, it should not be constituted as a political party, it should be non-profit-making and it should not be a criminal group or engaged in violent activities (Rhoden, 2014). The Commonwealth Foundation adds two further characteristics of NGOs to those stated above: it must be voluntary that is there is nothing in the legal, statutory framework of any country which requires them to be formed or prevents them from being formed; and there will be an element of voluntary participation in the organisation: whether in the form of small numbers of board members or large numbers of members or beneficiaries giving their time voluntarily. It is important to note that, although NGOs are non-profit making, they may also engage in revenue-generating activities as noted by Ball & Dunn (1995) and Rhoden (2014). However, they are not allowed to distribute profits or surpluses to shareholders or members as is with the case with profit making organisations. Instead, they use revenues they will have generated solely in pursuit of their aims and objectives. In Zimbabwe, Non-Governmental Organisation means any non-profit making non-governmental body that receives funds from a donor or donors and which performs work intended to benefit the public or a sector of the public and which applies any fees or profits from its activities to the furtherance of its objects (Law, 2014). For the purposes of this study, an NGO is defined as a legally constituted non-profit entity that can apply business principles in its operations to help fulfil its social mission.

The History of Non-Governmental Organisations

The history of NGOs dates back to the period after World War II, 1945 -1960, a period when some of the African countries were emerging from colonialism and World War II. During this time, the west decided to show compassion in support of recovery programs from the damage of war. There was also a feeling of guilty by Europe for colonialism and the conditions in which their colonial masters had released countries into independence. More so, there was the motive to maintain the grip to pursue capitalistic and communist ideologies after the cold war (Kuhnen, 1995). At this time, most of the United Nations agencies like UNESCO and UNICEF were formed. The term 'Non-Governmental Organisation' was initially coined by the United Nations (UN) in 1945 for use in its charter to differentiate between participation rights for intergovernmental specialized agencies and those for international private organisations. The charter provides the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) of the United Nations with the power to make suitable arrangements for consultation with non-governmental organizations which are concerned with matters within its competence. Although NGOs were influential in attaining the inclusion of human rights standards in the United Nations Charter in 1945, they were a very small number at that time. According to a United Nations report, only forty-one NGOs held consultative status with ECOSOC in 1948 and fewer yet focused wholly on human rights matters. However, since 1960s, the number of NGOs and their influence both nationally and internationally has grown exceptionally (Korey, 1998). Organisations such as Oxfam and Save the Children appeared in 1960s and 70s as development focused non-governmental organisations. The advent of non- governmental organisations is also as a result of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) that filled the space created as private agencies to the poorest, especially those failing through the neo-liberal policies like Structural Adjustment Programmes. Many organisations emerged with the collapse of the Soviet bloc and emergent of third world economies as an avenue for opposition of the prevailing political agenda and much emphasis has been placed on their role in poverty alleviation as argued by Anthony and David (1994) and Fisher (1997).

In Zimbabwe, Non-governmental organisations became prominent in the first decade after independence as they partnered government in community development programmes that cut across health, education and income generating projects (Murisa, 2010). Their operations have been governed by legislation since the colonial era. During the colonial era, the Welfare Organizations Act (1967) was aimed at controlling the operations of organizations believed to be linked to the liberation movement and to be spreading information about the human rights situation in what was then Rhodesia and is now Zimbabwe. While the Welfare Organizations Act remained in force, most NGOs focused on humanitarian efforts and operated under the auspices of churches, as church-related bodies, training and education institutions. Post-independence, NGOs and church related organisations were at the forefront of rolling out primary health care, education, drought relief and development programmes, notably in the communal and resettlement areas (Helliker, 2008). During the mid to late 1990s relations between the government, NGOs and donors became tenuous and were characterised by mistrust. NGOs began to complain about the centralist thrust of state policy and about the inaccessibility of policy decisions (Kerkhoven, 1992, Helliker, 2008). The period from the late 1990s to date also saw a shift within the donor community towards human rights. A number of NGOs emerged within the policy advocacy landscape in the late 1990s and shifted the discourse towards political and civil rights without a complementary discourse on social and economic rights (Masunungure, 2008) under the assumption that restoration of 'good governance' will lead to socioeconomic development. In the face of a crisis of livelihood emerging from ESAP and with autonomous opposition to the ruling party emerging in the early 1990s, NGOs were increasingly demanding involvement in the policy formulation process, that went beyond provincial level (Sibanda,

1994). Few CSOs dared tread into the political rights arena, as this attracted the wrath of the colonial government, which condemned any such activity, especially to the extent it was perceived to support, aid and/or abet the liberation cause. The Welfare Organisation Act was repealed in 1996 and replaced by the Private Voluntary Organisation Act (Mapuva & Muyengwa, 2012).

Types of Non-Governmental Organisations

The three primary forms of NGO in Zimbabwe are private voluntary organizations (PVOs), trusts and the associational form known as universitas (NANGO 2013; Civic Freedom Monitor, 2017). According to NANGO (2013) in 2012 Zimbabwe had 993 NGOs registered as PVOs, and about 1 198 NGOs registered as Trusts though many more were operating without registration owing to stringent registration requirements. The characteristics and governing framework for each type of non-governmental organisation are described below.

Private Voluntary Organizations

A private voluntary organization (PVO) is defined as anybody or association of persons, corporate or unincorporated, or any institution, the objects of which include or are one or more of the following: the provision of all or any of the material, mental, physical or social needs of persons or families; the rendering of charity to persons or families in distress; the prevention of social distress or destitution of persons or families; the provision of assistance in, or promotion of, activities aimed at uplifting the standard of living of persons or families; the provision of funds for legal aid; the prevention of cruelty to, or the promotion of the welfare of, animals; such other objects as may be prescribed; and the collection of contributions for any of the foregoing (Private Voluntary Organizations Act)

Trusts

Trusts are regulated under the Deeds Registries Act, which allows the Registrar of Deeds to register notarial deeds in donation or in trust. Trusts typically have unlimited objectives which are often intended to benefit an identifiable constituency (Civic Freedom Monitor, 2017). The trust form, however, has also been used as a way of registering organizations that have faced difficulties in registering under the PVO Act. The PVO Act excludes trusts in its definition of what constitutes a PVO. (PVO Act)

Universitas.

Universitas are a product of the common law and are not regulated by statute. A universitas exists when there is an entity which has a constitution and members that agree to achieve a common objective out of activities that are entirely for the benefit of its members. This is the easiest way of forming an institution where two or three partners come together and make an understanding through an agreed constitution, which establishes the modus operandi. Although it is an easy and straight forward option few NGOs operate under this form of establishment. The National Constitution Assembly and church related NGOs like Catholic Commission for Justice and Peace (CCJP) are not officially registered but operate under the common law universitas, which is lawfully acceptable in Zimbabwe. A Common Law Universitas can be viewed as a common law persona. Such an entity is excluded from registering under the PVO Act and is therefore, not viewed as a PVO, but as the corporate form universities or with a corporate form legal personality (Mhlanga, 2016).

Roles of Non-Governmental Organisations

Globally, NGOs are involved in pressing forward for international human rights primarily by setting standards, documenting violations and lobbying for successful enforcement of the human rights norms. NGOs also give pressure to national governments to sign and ratify the treaties that embody human rights norms and have worked to enhance the use of the complaint mechanisms of these treaties (Paul :2000). Korey explained that, NGOs played a decisive role in transforming the phrase human right from but a Charter provision or a Declaration article into a critical element of foreign policy discussions in and out of governmental or intergovernmental circles (Korey, 1998). A study conducted by the European Union (EU) on Non-Governmental Organizations in Zimbabwe revealed NGOs work to eradicate poverty and protect fundamental socio-economic rights (EU, 2014). Stromquist (2002) has identified two major functions for NGOs. These are explained in detail below:

Service Delivery

NGOs have an important role to play in complementing government efforts at equitable service provision. NGOs work in the health sector through provision of various health services and products such as health promotion; food supply, nutrition education, provision of safe water and sanitation; family planning, maternal and child care; immunisation; prevention and control of locally endemic diseases; appropriate treatment of common diseases; promotion of mental, emotional and spiritual health; and provision of essential drugs (Wolvaardt et al, 2010). They also support the efforts of poor people to tackle the causes and effects of food insecurity. Throughout the 1980s, alongside global and national policies for economy growth there has been an increasing emphasis on the potential role of NGOs in rural food security at household's level in Zimbabwe. According to Ulleberg (2009), NGOs have traditionally taken on the role of gap filling; that is, taking on activities of basic education provision where the government lacks the capacity to do so or does not consider it a priority. Some scholars link this role to the structural adjustment programmes that were introduced in the 1980s and 1990s, claiming that they lead to the disengagement of most African governments from their role as providers of social services such as education and health, as they were termed as non-productive sectors (UNDP, 2007).

Public Policy Advocacy.

A rapidly growing population of overseas aid resources is now flowing through indigenous NGOs in Africa. A thriving and mature NGO sector is an important catalyst of self-reliant development activities, but can also become a permanent sector in society that influences policy, empowers grassroots organisations, forges links with public and private debates. It can become a permanent sector in society actively striving to create the conditions conducive to more equitable forms of development (Sahley, 1997). NGOs advocate general public goods such as human rights and democracy (Brüntrup-Seidemann, 2011). NGOs embrace the general public and they help communities by representing them in policy platforms. They are capable of providing power to groups in society and helping them in developing and conveying their views to duty bearers and policy makers (WHO, 2002). NGOs combine the collective interests of communities to engage in issues or activities that need to be addressed, e.g. development projects and policy formulation,

The Challenges facing Non-Governmental Organisations

The increasing number of Non- Governmental Organisations (NGOs) that have been developed over the years as well as worsening economic conditions globally, have contributed to the reduction in the amount of funding available for

NGOs to serve their communities, execute projects and remain sustainable (Rhoden, 2014). Studies have indicated that international donors are the biggest contributor to NGO funding in African countries (Lee, 1997; Moore, 2005; NANGO, 2013). In Uganda, Barr et al (2005) revealed that most funding for NGOs came from grants from International NGOs and bilateral donors. This sentiment agreed with what USAID (2010) found in the case of Zimbabwe. While there has been a growth in official funding of NGOs in developing years over the last twenty years (most dramatically in the area of funding of emergency and humanitarian work), the projections are that official aid for NGOs will be reduced, as has already been seen in Zimbabwe, or restructured. This is reflected in the moves by donors to develop diversified funding models such as contracting or Payment by Results commissioning, or the use of large consortia-based funding frameworks based on competitive bidding processes, similar to European Union's Support to Civil Society Organisation grants. This trend is partly due to financial exigencies, political and ideological pressures, but also an increased disaffection among the general public as to the principle of foreign aid and the use of tax money to support countries and projects overseas at a time when there are significant pressures on government finances those countries such as Great Britain and USA just to name a few (Hailey, 2014).

Recently, in early March 2017, the new Trump administration published a budget proposal which, among other things, called for a 28% cut to United States spending abroad including the State Department and USAID for fiscal year 2018 and this is a troubling prospect for many international organizations relying on the US government for funding (Alonzi, 2017). Since most or all the NGOs operate on a non-profit basis and are dependent on donations and grants it therefore makes their survival unpredictable especially if market fluctuations occur and recessions descend upon global economies (Agere, 2014). This continued reliance by some NGOs on such official funding raises questions about their sustainability and this includes questions as to the reliability and predictability of such funding at a time when aid budgets are being cut; as well as the impact on their identity and independence resulting from the onerous nature of the conditions attached to such funding; as well as the transaction costs associated with servicing such official aid funds, (Turary, 2002; Andreas, 2005; USAID, 2010, NANGO, 2013). Many of the local NGOs have also been forced to shut down due to donor fatigue (Jackson, 2015).

The lack of co-operation from the government poses a serious detriment to the efficiency of NGOs in service delivery (Kang'ethe, 2010) In many countries especially where democratic dispensation has not taken roots, the governments have been viewing NGOs as sympathizers of the opposition politicians and therefore using bureaucracy and administrative forces to harass them (African Commission on People's and Human Rights, 2009). In Zimbabwe, following independence, and as the socio-political situation in post-independent Zimbabwe deteriorated in the late 1990s, there was a huge shift of emphasis by both old and new NGOs to issues dealing with democracy and governance. With the increased demand for democratic space and reforms in Zimbabwe, government introduced increased legislative and administrative processes as NGOs were perceived as extensions of political opposition (Kang'ethe & Serima, 2014). This lack of government goodwill for the NGOs has resulted in poor collaboration between the government and the NGOs, impeding their fraternity's effectiveness and efficiency, sometimes making them fail to achieve their set goals and objectives (Manomano, 2015). The small size of some non-governmental organisations limits the scope and complexity of the projects they can implement, and the weak administrative capacity, low level of skills, which results in limited capacity to negotiate with donors, who often will impose projects that may not be beneficial to the communities (EU, 2014). Currently poverty reduction approaches are donor driven and dependent and they have re-organised themselves according to the logic

of donor capital and in the process potentially misdirect their activities. One observer argued that such NGOs think for their intended beneficiaries and their approaches have created a dependency syndrome rather than economic self-reliance (Helliker, 2008).

For example, many NGOs strive to improve their fundraising efforts through application of models such grant making, gift-based funding strategies, including a variety of ways including one-off gifts, personal donations and legacies, community collections or special events, regular bank-based giving by standing order or direct debit, child sponsorship, or new approaches to web-based giving. Faith-based Organisations (FBOs) may also raise funds through a range of personal pledges and church collections (Hailey, 2014) and cost recovery approaches, which refer to the ways in which CSOs ensure that all the costs that they incur when implementing donor projects are recouped (Longhurst & Watson, 2016). It is a means to recuperate all or a percentage of the costs to deliver a non-profit service or fund a discrete activity related to the organization's mission. Special events, conference fees, paid training, and fee-for-service are examples; earned income provides a stream of unrestricted revenue to the organization, generated through activities both related and unrelated to the mission. Membership dues, sales of publications and products, and consulting services are examples; earned income activities are rooted in operations; they may progress into social enterprises when implementation is accompanied by a business plan (Alter, 2007). Temple (2011) defined social franchising as the application of commercial franchising methods to concepts to achieve socially beneficial ends. According to Ahlert et al (2008) social franchises could take the form of a commercially organized system designed to achieve social benefits, a non-profit replication system, which includes core elements of franchising, but without the classical fee and profit elements or a subsidized franchise system to make services available at a lower cost than commercial solutions. The essence of franchising is that a proven organisational model is turned into a franchise and then quickly replicated. However, many organisations in Zimbabwe are still not engaged any in form of enterprising activities and lack innovative and business skills that are required to be a sustainable enterprise. The research therefore examines the possibility of NGOs in Zimbabwe adopting entrepreneurship within their operations.

What is Entrepreneurship

Schumpeter in 1965 defined entrepreneurs as individuals who exploit market opportunity through technical and/or organizational innovation, and he was the first one to include innovation in the definition of entrepreneurship (Munyoro et al, 2016). Entrepreneurship entails continuous evaluation of the existing modes of business operations to enable adoption of more efficient and effective systems (Chand, 2015). In addition to innovation, entrepreneurship is about the discovery and creation of opportunities and ventures and their subsequent pursuit by individuals with a view to creating value or wealth by ensuring optimum utilisation of scarce resources (Alvarez and Barney, 2007; Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990; Venkataraman, 1997; Chand, 2015). It is important to note that, the essence of entrepreneurship is the willingness to assume risk arising out of the creation and implementation of new ideas. This notion is supported by Munyoro et al (2016) who defined an entrepreneur as one who creates a new business in the face of risk and uncertainty for the purpose of achieving profit and growth, by identifying opportunities and assembling the necessary resources to capitalize on those opportunities. Furthermore, Hisrich (1990) purports that, an entrepreneur is characterized as someone who accepts risk and failure, demonstrates initiative and creative thinking, is able to organize social and economic mechanisms to turn resources and situations to practical account. According to Onuoha (2007) entrepreneurship is the practice of starting new

organizations or revitalizing mature organizations, particularly new businesses generally in response to identified opportunities. Bolton and Thompson (2000) have defined an entrepreneur as a person who habitually creates and innovates to build something of recognized value around perceived opportunities. All these definitions embrace the profit potential characteristic, which is the likely level of return or compensation to the entrepreneur for taking on the risk of developing an idea into an actual business venture. Without profit potential, the efforts of entrepreneurs would remain only an abstract and a theoretical leisure activity (Chand, 2015). In this study, entrepreneurship is defined as the exploitation of opportunities in the marketplace resulting from the continuous evaluation of business models with an intention to generate profit to meet an organisation's objectives.

In Zimbabwe, literature on entrepreneurship has been available from as early as the decade after independence (1980-1990). Despite the nation's attainment of independence, glaring inequalities between blacks and whites and the inheritance of minority-focused policies and regulations greatly affected the economic performance such that blacks continued to seek for the redress of the existing inequalities through venturing into entrepreneurial activities (Munyoro et al, 2016). The adoption of the Economic Structural Adjustment Program (ESAP) between 1990 and 2000 had major repercussions on the country's economic performance and many people adopted entrepreneurship as a coping strategy. As stated by Saunders (1996) the working class bore the brunt of ESAP, as public expenditure on healthcare declined by 39% in 1994-95, inflation averaged over 20%, and over 55,000 Zimbabweans lost their jobs. In the period from 2000-2010, large businesses in this era continued to muscle out small businesses because of the capability to acquire cutting age technological equipment that is a necessity in the ever changing economic environment. These changes in the economy also facilitated the growth of non-governmental organisations. As noted by Murisa (2010) non-governmental organisations became prominent in the first decade after independence as they partnered government in community development programmes. Today, the country faces multiple challenges, including poverty, joblessness, homelessness, drug abuse, child abuse, divorce, and HIV and AIDS, empowerment of marginalized populations, economic decline and technological change are emerging. Consequently, the adoption of innovative and creative approaches has become imperative, given the complex social challenges that require the intervention of social work. Contemporary societal problems call for the ability to link global challenges and opportunities to local demands and opportunities while taking cognizance of the interdependence between the global and local context (Rangarirai & Muranda, 2016). To this end, entrepreneurship has evolved, in order to address some of these challenges and many forms of entrepreneurship exist.

Types of Entrepreneurship

Based on the interaction with the business environment, various types of entrepreneurs can emerge. Rockstar (2008) identifies the four types of entrepreneurs as Innovative, Imitating, Fabian and Drone.

Innovating Entrepreneurship

This type of entrepreneurship is characterized by aggressive assemblage of information and the analysis of results, which are derived from novel combination of factors of production and according to Badi (2010) entrepreneurs falling in this class are generally aggressive, in experimentation and exhibited shrewdness in putting attractive possibilities into practice. They are the entrepreneurs who have creative and innovative ideas of starting a new business (Caves, 2001). An innovating entrepreneur sees the opportunity for introducing a new technique or a new product or a new market (Howkins, 2001). Examples of past and current innovators are Steve Jobs (Apple), Bill Gates (Microsoft), Alexander Graham Bell

(A Scottish inventor and engineer, Bell was awarded the US patent for the telephone in 1876. His work on telecommunications, aeronautics, and many other areas, such as metal detector earned him a reputation as one of the great figures of the nineteenth century), Marie Curie (was the first female winner of the Nobel Prize in 1903 (she won it twice in both physics and chemistry, Curie was a pioneering physicist and chemist who is known for her breakthrough ideas in radioactivity and her discovery of two elements), Jeff Bezos (Amazon.com- the man who revolutionized e-commerce), Larry Page and Sergey Brin (Google, is one of the leading and most innovative and successful companies in the world, perhaps in history), Richard Branson (Virgin), Mark Zuckerberg and Moskovitz (Facebook).

Adoptive or Imitative Entrepreneurship

The imitative entrepreneurs copy or adopt suitable innovations made by the innovative entrepreneurs and they do not innovate the changes himself and only imitate technology innovated by others (Gans and Stern 2003). Such entrepreneurs are particularly important in developing countries because they contribute significantly to the development of such economies (Badi, 2010; Rockster, 2008). Imitative entrepreneurs are characterised by readiness to adopt successful innovations inaugurated by successful innovating entrepreneurs. Imitative entrepreneurs do not imitate the changes themselves, they only imitate techniques and technologies innovated by others. Such entrepreneurs are significant for under-developed economies because they put such economies on high rate of economic development. Entrepreneurs prefer to imitate the technology already existing somewhere in the world. However, the talent of imitative entrepreneurs should not be under-estimated. Even imitative entrepreneurs are revolutionary and agents of change. They have ability to do things which have not been done before even though, unknown to them, the problem may have been solved in the same way by others. Innovative entrepreneur is creative, while imitative entrepreneur is adoptive. Imitative entrepreneurs are also revolutionary and important. The importance of these humbler entrepreneurs who exploit possibilities as they present themselves and mostly on a small scale must not be under-estimated. In, the first place, such adaptation requires no mean ability. It often involves what has aptly been called subjective innovation that is the ability to do things which have not been done before by the particular industrialist, even though, unknown to him, the problem may have been solved in the same way by others. By western standards, an imitative entrepreneur may be a pedestrian figure, an adopter and imitator rather than a true innovator. He is more an organizer of factors of production than a creator but in a poor country attempting to industrialized, he is nevertheless a potent change producing figure. He can set in motion the chain reaction' which leads to cumulative progress. This humbler type of entrepreneur is important in under developed countries for another reason. These countries are placing great emphasis in their economic planning on small scale industries and decentralized industrial structure These entrepreneurs are most suitable for developing countries because such countries prefer to imitate the technology, knowledge and skill already available in more advanced countries. The Cochin Shipyard is a good example of the result of imitative entrepreneurship. The Shipyard has been constructed using the innovative technology provided by the Mitsubishi Heavy Industries Ltd. of Japan. Imitative entrepreneurs are most suitable for the underdeveloped nations because in these nations people prefer to imitate the technology, knowledge and skill already available in more advanced countries. In highly backward countries there is shortage of imitative entrepreneurs also. People who can imitate the technologies and products to the particular conditions prevailing in these countries are needed. Sometimes, there, is a need to adjust and adopt the new technologies to their special conditions. Imitative entrepreneurs help to transform the system with the limited resources available. However, these entrepreneurs face lesser risks and uncertainty than innovative entrepreneurs. While innovative entrepreneurs are creative, imitative entrepreneurs are

adoptive. (www.coursehero.com).

Fabian Entrepreneurship.

Entrepreneurs of this type are very cautious and sceptical while practicing any change and they neither have the will to introduce new changes nor the desire to adopt new methods innovated by the most enterprising entrepreneurs and such entrepreneurs lack initiative and proactive attitude (Burnett, 2000; Rockster, 2008). Fabian entrepreneurs are cautious and sceptical in experimenting change in their enterprises. Such entrepreneurs are shy, lazy and lethargic. They are imitative by nature but are not determined and also lack power. They imitate only when it becomes perfectly clear that failure to do so would result in a loss of the relative position of the enterprise. Fabian entrepreneurs are very cautious and sceptical, while practicing any change and they have neither the will to introduce new changes nor the desire to adopt new methods innovated by the most enterprising entrepreneurs. Such entrepreneurs are shy and lazy and their dealings are determined by custom, religion, tradition and past practices and they are not much interested in taking risk and they try to follow the footsteps of their predecessors (www.coursehero.com).

Drone Entrepreneurship.

These entrepreneurs refuse to copy or use opportunities that come on their way and they are conventional in their approach and stick to their set practices products, production methods and ideas (Rockster, 2008). Drone entrepreneurs are characterised by a refusal to adopt opportunities to make changes in production formulae even at the cost of severely reduced returns. They can suffer loss but are not ready to make changes in their existing production methods. When competition increases, they are pushed out of the market as it becomes uneconomical for them to exist and operate in a competitive market. Drone entrepreneurship is characterized by a refusal to adopt and use opportunities to make changes in production methods and such entrepreneurs may even suffer losses but they do not make changes in production methods. They are laggards as they continue to operate in their traditional way and resist changes. When their product loses marketability and their operations become uneconomical they are pushed out of the market. They are conventional in the sense that they stick to conventional products and ideas. The traditional industries of Kerala are characterized by drone entrepreneurs. The coir and bamboo industries are still in the hands of laggards who refuse to innovate (www.coursehero.com).

Social Entrepreneurship

Social entrepreneurship is commonly defined as entrepreneurial activities with an embedded social purpose (Austin et al, 2006). The term is used to describe sustainable ventures that combine business principles with a passion for social impact (Wolk, 2008). They strive to create social value as a primary organizational objective, by employing business concepts to sustain their operations in pursuit of this objective (Weerawardena & Sullivan Mort, 2001). Dees (2001) characterised social entrepreneurs as individuals, who play the role of change agents through the development of a mission to create and sustain social value, recognition and pursuit of new opportunities to serve that mission. They do this while engaging in a process of continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning and acting boldly regardless of the resource limitations that they may have. Social entrepreneurs are also characterised by the high levels of accountability that they present to the constituencies that they serve (Borzaga and Defourny, 2001; Nicholls, 2006 and Kerlin, 2009). For example, SEKEM—a name that essentially means “vitality from the sun,” this Egyptian company has certainly lived up to its promise by continuously encouraging social, personal and environmental development (Visscher, 2004; Mair and Seelos, 2004).

Since SEKEM was founded in 1977 by Dr Ibrahim Abouleish, a pharmacologist, it has: produced medicinal, herbal, gastronomical and aesthetically focused products that serve the needs of its customers, Improved the environment through biodynamic farms, built an educational establishment for children to emphasize creativity and analytical thought and instituted a healthcare center devoted to holistic medicine (Mair and Schoen, 2007; Elkington and Hartigan, 2008).

Another example of social entrepreneur is of Fifteen –which was founded by English celebrity chef Jamie Oliver in 2002 (www.theguardian.co.uk). Fifteen started out as an ambitious effort to offer disadvantaged youths (aged 18-24) a means of creating better futures for themselves through the art of good food. The restaurant initiative was named for the 15 young people who originally entered apprenticeships under this program. Since the first establishment opened, fifteen has delivered delicious Italian food to patrons and opened two other restaurants in Amsterdam and Cornwall, and has trained 220 young locals in the art of cooking and hospitality and inspired many of its graduates to pursue successful careers in the restaurant business and reinforced the value of local produce and cooking techniques (www.thebbc.co.uk). Another example of social entrepreneur is of Ladakhi Women's Travel Company. This company is known as Ladakh and is one of the most beautiful and fascinating places in northern India (www.ladakhiwomenstravel.com). The Ladakhi Women's Travel Company is a travel agency made up of female trekkers and travel guides. It was founded by accomplished Ladakhi trekking guide Chorol in 2009, defying trekking industry conventions that heavily favor Ladakhi males. Over the last few years, the Ladakhi Women's Travel Company has organized educational and ecologically friendly tours, treks and homestays for travelers and tourists (www.ladakhiwomenstravel.com). It has also inspired Ladakhi women to prove that they are equally talented in serving as tour guides in their hometown and encouraged local economic growth by allowing women to find work within Ladakh (www.ladakhiwomenstravel.com)

Intrapreneurship

Intrapreneurship is initiatives by employees in the organization to undertake something new, where an innovation is often created by subordinates without being asked, expected or even being given permission by higher management (Brezeal, 1996; Burnett, 2000). For example Google. Just like W.L.Gore, Google allows time for personal projects. Some of Google's best projects come out of their 20 percent time policy. One of these is something you probably use multiple times a day, Gmail. The original word "intrapreneur" was coined by Gifford Pinchot III in a 1978 paper written with his wife Elizabeth. It was later popularized by Steve Jobs in a 1985 Newsweek article. Jobs said, "The Macintosh team was what is commonly known as intrapreneurship... a group of people going, in essence, back to the garage, but in a large company."

Corporate Entrepreneurship

Corporate entrepreneurship can be defined as the different types of entrepreneurial behaviour in existing, large organizations which are aimed at achieving competitive advantage at all levels by promoting innovative behaviour (Burns, 2011). Zahra and Garvis (2000) define corporate entrepreneurship as the sum of a company's efforts which aim at innovation, pro-activeness and risk taking. This type of entrepreneurship can be used to enhance company performance by promoting product and process innovation, as noted by Lumpkin and Dess (1996). Various authors have argued that organizations of all sizes obviously need entrepreneurial behaviour in order to survive and perform in a competitive environment (Barringer and Bluedorn, 1999). Corporate entrepreneurship is more than just new product development, and it can include innovations in services, channels, brands and so on. Traditionally, companies have added value through

innovations that fit existing business functions and activities. After all, why would they develop opportunities that cannot easily be brought to market? Unfortunately, this approach also limits what a company is willing or even able to bring to market. Indeed, the failure to recognize that new products and services can require significantly different business models is often what leads to missed opportunities. Corporate entrepreneurship initiatives seek to overcome such constraints.

Technopreneurship

The term technopreneur is used to define individuals whose business is in the realm of high technology, who at the same time has the spirit of an entrepreneur. A technopreneur's business involves high technology or to put it more clearly a technopreneur is a technological innovator and a business man all combined in one individual (Ogundele, 2007; Burnett, 2000). Technopreneurship is a combination of "technology" and "entrepreneur". It is a "technology innovator and business man rolled into one"; or better still "an entrepreneur whose business involves technology related activities". They are indeed gifted, smart, creative, but not essentially properly educated; aggressive young men & women passionate for success; mostly assemblers and at times innovators, and they can be found in most commercial cities in the world. They include: - Software Developers - PC Manufactures among others. The Asian experience of Technopreneurship success includes India where the Indian Ministry of Science & Technology in conjunction with related agencies launched a novel programme known as "Technopreneur Promotion Programme (TePP)".

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study took the phenomenological approach because it is essentially about gathering deep information and perceptions using inductive, qualitative methods like interviews, discussions and participant observation, and representing it from the perspective or experience of the research participants (Lester, 1999; Langdridge, 2007; Finlay, 2009). In addition, Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) suggest that, it is more appropriate for the researchers in a particular study to think of the philosophy adopted as a continuum rather than opposite positions. They note that at some points the knower and the known must be interactive, while at others, one may more easily stand apart from what one is studying (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). For this study, case study approach was adopted because case study method allows a researcher to closely examine the data within a specific context, usually by selecting a small geographical area or a very limited number of individuals as the subjects of study (Zainal, 2007). According to Yin (1984) case studies, in their true essence, explore and investigate contemporary real-life phenomenon through detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions, and their relationships. One advantage of using case studies is that variations in terms of intrinsic, instrumental and collective approaches to case studies allow for both quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data (Zainal, 2007). There are a number of case studies which seek evidence from both numerical and categorical responses of individual subjects (such as Block, 1986; Hosenfeld, 1984). According to NANGO, the umbrella and co-ordinating body of NGOs in Zimbabwe, there are over 1000 NGOs in Zimbabwe. The exact number of non-governmental organisations could not be verified as some of the organisations are not officially registered. Burns and Grove (2003) define eligibility criteria as a list of characteristics that are required for the membership in the target population. Therefore, in this study, the population was limited to those organisations located in Harare, and for government respondents, the population comprised of 30 government ministries in Zimbabwe and respondents were limited to those working with and in NGOs. A sample size of ten non-governmental organisations of the study population was used for this research given the time and resources available (Munyoro, 2014). The sample was made up of 200 respondents consisting of 40 respondents from the NGO

management and 60 NGO staff members. Furthermore, 40 government officials from the ministries of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare, Health and Child Care, Home affairs, Agriculture, Mechanisation and Irrigation Development and Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development will be interviewed together with 60 beneficiaries from the 10 NGOs selected above. The study will be based in Harare for accessibility purpose as most head offices are based in the capital city. Questionnaires were used in this study because they are less costly and using less time as instruments of data collection (Borg and Gall, 1996). In addition, the focus group was used for the purpose of eliciting ideas, thoughts and perceptions about the use of entrepreneurship in resuscitating NGOs' operations. Focus group is also a cheaper and quicker way of obtaining valuable data. The data was then analysed using Qualitative Data Analysis (Munyoro, 2014) and Quantitative Data Analysis also known as analysis of data or data analytics (Judd and, McClelland, 1989).

DATAT PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Table 1: ANOVA Test Summary

	Mean	Std Dev	ANOVA p. Value
Entrepreneurship is significant to the survival of NGOs.	2.6	0.91	0.08
Income diversification through entrepreneurship ensures sustainability of NGO operations	1.9	0.87	0.26
Entrepreneurial culture exists in NGOs	2.1	0.99	0.054
Access to capital leads to an entrepreneurial culture in NGOs.	2.3	0.91	0.06
Management support does not lead to the development of entrepreneurial culture in NGOs	3.5	0.85	0.09
Knowledge and networking within NGOs encourages entrepreneurship culture	2.8	0.97	0.15

Source: Author

Using the ANOVA test this study can safely conclude entrepreneurship is significant to NGO survival as it had a mean score of 2.6 and an ANOVA value of 0.08. Entrepreneurship culture scored a mean of 2.1 and therefore exists in NGOs. Also, income diversification and engagement of entrepreneurial activities within an organisation were found to be significant in this study. However, management support had negative mean of 3.5 respectively proving that respondents did not agree that this variable did not exist in NGOs. This therefore illustrates that entrepreneurship is critical for survival of NGOs as it provides a source of diverse income which is critical for organisational sustainability.

Hypothesis Testing

Table 2

Hypothesis Test Summary				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The categories of Designation occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The categories of Entrepreneurship significant to organisational survival occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
3	The categories defined by Income diversification ensures sustainability = agree and strongly agree occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.529	Retain the null hypothesis.
4	The categories defined by Organization implementing unfunded projects = agree and strongly agree occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.036	Reject the null hypothesis.
5	The categories of Organisation has support to develop entrepreneurial activities occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
6	The categories of Access to capital affects entrepreneurial activity occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
7	The categories of Organisation support entrepreneurship through rewards occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
8	The categories of rganisation culture encourages entrepreneurial behaviour occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.001	Reject the null hypothesis.
9	The categories defined by Knowledge and networking encourages entrepreneurship = agree and strongly agree occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.036	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Source: Author

FINDINGS

The following are the major findings of the study:

Entrepreneurship is Significant to the Survival of NGOs in Zimbabwe

This study revealed that entrepreneurship is significant to the survival of NGO as 84.6% of the respondents were in agreement with this point. Those engaged in entrepreneurial activities have managed to subsidise their funds, by upto 10% through the use and adoption of various models of entrepreneurship, within their organizations as noted by Sharir and Lerner (2006) and Weerawardena et al (2010). The study also shows that, entrepreneurship is significant because, more NGOs are now engaging in commercial activities to create an income stream and enhance their financial sustainability, as suggested by Fowler (2000), Frumkin (2002) and Boschee (2001).

Social Enterprise is a Model for Sustainability among Zimbabwean NGOs

The study revealed that social enterprise is the well-liked model of entrepreneurship and being used by many Zimbabwean NGOs (Dart, 2004). The study also shows that NGOs use the social enterprise model to run nursing agencies, development trainer programmes, vocational trainings and charity shops which serve their beneficiaries and communities because this model tries to come up with a solution to social problems in a manner that benefits the entrepreneurs and the service provider (Alter, 2007). This model has also managed to address social challenges the NGO would have identified in their areas of operation at the same time sustaining the organisations financially thus ensuring sustainability of the interventions (Borzaga et al., 2008; Maze, 1998).

Management Support Leads to the Development of Entrepreneurial Culture in NGOs

92 % of the respondents were in agreement that, management support leads to the development of an entrepreneurial culture among NGOs in Zimbabwe. As noted by Barringer and Bluedorn (1999) a firm's ability to improve its entrepreneurial character is hinged on the ability of management, to support the development of an entrepreneurial culture. Management should seek to create an environment in which entrepreneurial behavior is valued and encouraged as an organization wide directive (Ireland et al, 2006) while at the same time establishing the appropriate boundaries to protect the organization's reputation, resources, and identity (Belousova et al, 2010). The support of management also helps to provide legitimacy to the venture (Belousova et al, 2010).

Knowledge and Networking within NGOs Encourages Entrepreneurship Culture

61.5 % of respondents were in agreement that building relationships is a critical success factor for entrepreneurs, and this is further supported by Burns (2008). Relationships allow entrepreneurs to create a rapport of trust and credibility through informal networks (Belousova et al, 2010) which can then be leveraged to influence others. This is echoed by Zahra et al (2009) who outline the shift from tangible resources, to knowledge based resources. An organization's conventional physical resources are prone to wear and tear, mechanical failure and breakdown. However, an organization's knowledge assets are not consumed or written off once applied, instead this asset is more likely to be enhanced through application (Curado, 2008). This therefore shows that, knowledge and networking within NGOs encourages entrepreneurship culture.

RECOMMENDATIONS

There is need to Promote Entrepreneurial Culture

It is recommended that Zimbabwean policy makers, government and the non-governmental sector should provide an enabling environment for entrepreneurship as well as to encourage the cultivation of an entrepreneurial culture as noted by Munyoro et al (2016). With regards to NGOs, there is need for further investment in promoting an entrepreneurial culture through capacitating staff with the requisite business skills and acumen necessary for the pursuit of entrepreneurial activities. NGOs should also create special entrepreneurial support tools and programs for entrepreneurs within their organisations, as well as implementing policies that encourage entrepreneurship culture (Almeida, 2010; Munyoro et al, 2016).

There is need for NGOs to Diversify their Sources of Income

There is need for NGOs to explore ways of further diversifying their sources of income (Leon, 2001). Income diversification mitigates against the effects of donor pull out in Zimbabwe, which could lead to closure of NGOs (Ali, 2012). It also cushions organisations from the increasing competition for donor funds from other NGOs, supports further growth of the organisation and ensures the NGO pursues its set priorities and not those of the donor (Bryson et al, 2001).

There is need for Enhanced Networking with Other Organizations

The study recommends that non-governmental organizations should invest more in networking with other organisations to share lessons, information and knowledge thus assisting each other in promoting a culture of entrepreneurship. In the NGO sector networks provide a base for valuable linkages that may assist in sustaining an

organization financially (Burns, 2008) because some programs come as consortiums which require different organizations to input with their expertise and there is no single organization which is good at all sectors of development. As noted by Ness et al (2003) networking provides a platform for organisations to learn and gain knowledge and best practices on how other counterparts are incorporating entrepreneurship into the mainstream activities of the organization. Furthermore, Ireland et al (2006) noted that social exchanges and networking among employees connects the entrepreneurial activities of the individual to the organization's strategy and agenda and also knowledge, ideas, and continuous improvement through networking are critical in creating sustainable organisations.

CONCLUSIONS

The study show that entrepreneurship contributes significantly to the sustainability of NGOs in Zimbabwe. The study also established that entrepreneurship allows NGOs, who are grappling with issues of sustainability as a result of increased competition within the sector for decreasing donor funds, to generate income through social enterprises, earned income and cost recovery strategies. It was also revealed from the study that access to capital, knowledge and networking, and management support promote a culture of entrepreneurship in NGOs, which was largely described as non-existent.

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