

NGO Mission Success:
The Field Office Perspective

by

Patsy Kraeger

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Approved May 2011 by the
Graduate Supervisory Committee:

N. Joseph Cayer, Chair
G. Zhiyong Lan
Carlton A. Yoshioka

ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

May 2011

ABSTRACT

This dissertation examines the factors related to the success of host country field offices established by international Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Further, this dissertation examines NGO field office mission success in the context of working with foreign host governments and clients. This dissertation is a case of the field offices of *The Nature Conservancy in South and Central America*.

The principal research aim is to identify the primary factors that are related to success of field offices. Success is identified as a multidimensional concept. A conceptual model for success is developed. The conceptual model derived causal factors from the literature and captured categories of variables such as: (1) managerial tactics and techniques dictated by the NGO and adopted by field office leaders; (2) the distance between cultural features of the host country and those of the country of origin of the field office manager and personnel; and, (3) characteristics of the host country government.

The dissertation: (1) utilizes a working definition of NGO drawn from the scholarly literature in the field; (2) describes the role of field offices (located in host countries) in the calculus of “home office” goal achievement; (3) discusses the types of “change”—delivery of goods, delivery of services, changes in behavior, changes in norms or attitudes—that field offices may have and how they differ in the challenges they create for field office managers; and, (4) develops a conceptual definition for success. This dissertation is concerned with

factors associated with success in the international NGO's field office. A model of success predictors is tested in this work.

The findings suggest that the field offices mission success may be affected by local culture but this was not an issue for the organization studied. Mission success as perceived by the field seems to be a product of organizational culture. The contribution of the research to academic literature is that this study is both an exploratory and descriptive study of how NGO mission is carried out in the field and the impacts of national and organizational culture on mission success.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my late Mother, Pat Blondell and her sister, my late Aunt and Godmother, Joan Blondell. Thank you for your steadfast love throughout my life and support of all of my academic, personal and professional endeavors. I also want to dedicate this dissertation to my late Maternal Grandfather, Austin Joseph Blondell who always encouraged me to strive for the very best. He also reminded me that life is short and that whatever you do make sure it is “first class”. I know they would have been proud of me.

May the road rise to meet you,

May the wind be always at your back.

May the sun shine warm upon your face,

The rains fall soft upon your fields.

And until we meet again,

May God hold you in the palm of his hand.

-Traditional Irish Blessing

(Retrieved from <http://www.corsinet.com/trivia/irish.html>)

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my generous Dissertation and Program of Study Committee members for their guidance throughout this process.

Dr. N. Joseph Cayer, Professor at the ASU School of Public Affairs, my committee chair for agreeing to be my committee chair for both the dissertation and program of study committees. He had no idea how many long-winded emails that he was going to receive from me throughout this process. I thank you for your guidance, mentorship and time. I have enjoyed our many thoughtful conversations about public administration theory and practice, the topic of this dissertation and a myriad of other interesting conversations. I sincerely appreciate that the doctorate degree is an individual process and that you guided me through this process through thick and thin. I thank you also for your keen editorship. Mainly, I thank you for your intellect, graciousness, kindness and your patience. I could not have asked for a better mentor and chair.

Dr. G. Zhiyong Lan, Professor at the ASU School of Public Affairs my dissertation committee member. I thank you for your internationalist approach. Thank you for your encouragement.

Dr. Ronald W. Perry, Professor Emeritus at the ASU School of Public Affairs, my program of study committee member. I thank for allowing me to conceptualize this dissertation idea with you when I was in your research methods class. I thank you for all of your assistance in developing my comprehensive questions and dissertation proposal during our Readings and Conference. I thank

you for your tremendous kindness and patience when it came to my statistical anxiety. I have so very much enjoyed our discussions that have ranged from the intellectual to murder mysteries! There is so much more that I could say here about your mentorship and guidance. I appreciate that you helped me remain focused to my topic in person and via email when I went for the garbage can approach- throw it all in and something meaningful is bound to come out. You have always been available to me and there for me even after you achieved emeritus status and retired from my committee. Thank you for this great kindness.

Dr. Carlton A. Yoshioka, Professor, ASU Lodestar Center for Philanthropy and Nonprofit Innovation, School of Community Resources and Development, thank you for being my nonprofit studies expert on this dissertation. Your constant support is sincerely appreciated.

I would also like to thank the following people for their support through this process: Chris Hyriak, Specialist Sr. of ASU SPA and Jeanne Ratliff, Academic Success Specialist of ASU SPA. Additional thanks to Dr. Robert Ashcraft, Dr. Mark Hager and Dr. Lili Wang of the ASU Lodestar Center for Philanthropy and Nonprofit Innovation, School of Community Resources and Development for your support and encouragement throughout this dissertation process. Finally, thank you Naimah Higgins for help with formatting this dissertation.

I would also like to thank The Nature Conservancy/Latin America for agreeing to be the subject of this dissertation study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	Page
1 INTRODUCTION	1
Overview.....	1
Theoretical Framework.....	3
Justification.....	7
Research Questions.....	10
Significance of the Study.....	11
Dissertation Contents.....	14
2 LITERATURE REVIEW	15
Introduction.....	15
Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs)	16
Brief History and Growth of NGO	21
The Role of the Field Office in NGO Headquarters’ Goal Achievement	23
NGOs and Change	29
Success – A Proposed Nominal Definition.....	33
Operationalizing and Defining NGO Field Office Success.....	38
NGO Managerial Tactics for the Field Office	39
Culture’s Impacts on NGO Field Office Success	39
Culture Defined.....	39
NGO Management Culture.....	46

CHAPTER	Page
Culture and its Impacts on Management	47
Management in a Cross-Cultural Context.....	47
Cross-Cultural Training	51
Theories of Cross-Cultural Training.....	52
Impacts of Cross-Cultural Training	54
Host Country and NGO Relationships.....	56
Operational Definitions for a Proposed Model of Causes	59
Chapter Two Summary	61
3 METHODOLOGY	63
Introduction.....	63
Research Questions.....	64
Measurement.....	65
Success and its Antecedents for HQ Management	66
Case Selection.....	67
The Causal Model of Field Office Success.....	70
Success and its Antecedents for HQ Personnel	77
Success and its Antecedents for F.O. Director	80
Case Study Context and Data Collection Methods.....	81
NGO Respondents	82
Data Analysis	84
Summary	86

CHAPTER	Page
4 RESULTS	88
Headquarters' View of Mission Success	89
The Field Office Perspective	97
Bivariate Predictors of Mission Success.....	116
Summary	134
5 FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION	135
Findings.....	138
Implications.....	151
Future Research	155
Summary	162
REFERENCES	163
APPENDIX	
A FIELD OFFICE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE	178
B NGO HEADQUARTER'S QUESTIONNAIRE	183
C COVER LETTER TO FIELD OFFICE DIRECTORS.....	187
D ORGANIZATIONAL COVER LETTER	190

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Field Office Countries.....	97
2. Adherence to Core Mission	98
3. Field Office Staff Training on Core Mission.....	99
4. Collection of Performance Data.....	100
5. Performance Data Related to Goal Achievement	101
6. Review of Strategic Plan.....	102
7. Promotion of Partnerships with Local Governments	103
8. Feedback from Local Governments	104
9. Partnerships with other NGOs	105
10. Tension between the NGO HQ and Field Office.....	106
11. Field Office Directors Ability to Act Independently of NGO HQ	107
12. Field Office Directors Provided with Cross-Cultural Training for Host Country	108
13. Staff Cross-Cultural Training	109
14. Communications Training to Field Office Directors	110
15. Communications Training to NGO Staff.....	111

Table	Page
16. Field Office Directors Involved in Key Decisions	112
17. Local Culture is Considered when Designing the NGO Program	112
18. Local Culture rather than Anglo-American Culture is Adopted for Business Practices in the Field.....	113
19. Sufficient Resources to Perform Work in the Field Office.....	114
20. Positive Organizational Culture	115
21. NGO HQ Supports Field Office Managerial and Strategic Initiatives.....	116
22. Field Office Scope of Work Does not Exceed Resources *Support from HQ	118
23. Field Staff Involved in Decision-Making *Support from HQ	120
24. Field Office Director Independence *Support from HQ	122
25. Tension Between the Field Office and the HQ *Support from HQ	124

Table	Page
26. Field Office Annual Review of Strategic Plan	
*Support from HQ	126
27. HQ use of Goal Data to Support Field	
*Support from HQ	128
28. HQ use of Performance Data	
*Support from HQ	130
29. Field Office adheres to NGO Mission	
*Support from HQ	132

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Data Collected from the Nature Conservancy	
South and Central America.....	66

Chapter 1

Introduction

Overview of the Study and Issue

This dissertation examines the factors related to the success of host country field offices established by international Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Further, this dissertation examines NGO field office mission success in the context of working with foreign host governments and clients. Field office success is not defined by the NGO headquarters in terms of how well or poorly it reaches self-defined goals; rather, success is a multi-dimensional concept measured relative to the host country national culture. The measurement relating to host country national culture is self reported by the field office directors.

Based on a literature review, a model of success predictors was tested and the perceived causes of success were solicited from field office directors on South and Central America. In identifying important variables that are related to success, as well as defining success itself, the unit of analysis is the field office for the case. An organizational overview is presented for The Nature Conservancy in the Chapter three thereby serving as the context and administrative structure in which the field offices operate.

Success is identified as a multidimensional concept presented in chapter two. Causal factors will be derived from the literature and capture categories of variables such as [1] managerial tactics and techniques dictated by the home

organization and adopted by field office leaders (things such as cultural training or the absence of it for operating in the host country; the extent to which the field office role and structures are set by the home NGO; discretion given to the field office manager to deal with local issues; adequacy of funding for the field office as perceived by the manager); [2] the distance between cultural features of the host country and those of the country of origin of the field office manager and personnel utilizing Hofstede's (1980) five cultural dimensions but the variable is "distance"—do the cultures match on these dimensions or not.

The informant for the unit of analysis (the field office) is the field office director. The administration of survey questions (on a summated rating scale) for the model and director perceptions was conducted via email.

The overall objective of this research is to narrow the gaps in theoretical knowledge regarding NGO field office mission success by considering distance from host country culture in assessing the actions of the field office director. There has been much research in the private sector organizational behavior literature regarding cross-cultural management (Adler, 2002, 1983; Adler & Doktor, 1986; Aimar & Stough, 2007; Chrobot-Mason, Ruderman, Weber, Ohlott & Dalton, 2007; Collard, 2007; Dickson, den Hartog, Mitchelson, 2003; Dichter, 1999; Fink, Neyer & Kolling, 2006; Gannon, 2001; Georgianna, 2007; Heuer, Cummings & Hutabarat, 1999; Hofstede, 1980, 1993, 1994; Housem, Javidan, Hanges, Dorfman, 2002; Lachman, 1997; Lee & Croker, 2006; Matviuk, 2007, McSweeney, 2002; Nahavandi, 2008; Perrow, 1967; Punnet, 2004; Sawang,

Tian & Goh, 2006; Selmer, Torbiorn & DeLeaon; 1998: Smith, 2002;Triandis, 2004, 2006; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997; Walumba, Lawler & Avolio, 1997; and, Zhu, Nel & Bat, 2006). Given the unique shared missions of NGOs at a general level, to “change the world”, a definition of success and its measures are different than measures of success in the private sector. This is a cross sector issue which will lead to new theoretical knowledge as well as have significant practical applications for NGO field office managers.

Specifically, this dissertation addresses NGO mission success from the field office perspective which will contribute and fill in gaps in the field. Ultimately, the purpose of this research is to connect theoretically and empirically the definitions of NGO field office success to national culture and distance on Hofstede’s (1980) cultural model. This dissertation will add to the emerging literature in the NGO field and specifically address cross-cultural dimensions which impact mission success. Scholars have acknowledged the importance of looking at the field office success and cultural impacts on NGO performance, however, to date, there has been little empirical work done in this area.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical foundation for this dissertation focuses on the issues of success and distance from national culture. It is grounded in the disciplines of NGO and Non-Profit Organization (NPO) Management, Social Entrepreneurship, and Program Evaluation relating to success measures; and using Hofstede’s (1980) scaled taxonomy for defining attributes of national culture in an

organizational context. From the literature review, a survey has been developed to administer to field office directors and a scale was developed to measure success based on closeness or distance to traits associated with national culture in the context of NGO organizational mission.

An important part of the dissertation objective is exploratory: the desire to add concrete data regarding issues that are largely not documented and the source of speculation in the literature. This is accomplished in two ways: first, by interviewing key informants among home office management and field office directors about the definition of success and what causes it. Second, the explanatory model derived from the literature will be fitted to data provided by field office directors using a self-administered questionnaire. Note that each of the data collection efforts involve examining the perceptions and self-reported experiences of both home office managers and field office directors. The NGO headquarters managers serve as units of analysis when they are questioned about their perceptions of success and as informants on the organization as a unit of analysis for questions that construct the history and design of the NGO. The field office directors form the unit of analysis for questions regarding their perceptions of causes of field office success.

The research focus for this dissertation is the NGO field office, as previously stated. The reason for selecting the field office rests with their critical role in carrying out the mission of the NGO. The predominant literature in the field has studied NGO mission accomplishment and therefore success from the

perspective of the NGO headquarters. The majority of the literature in this field has looked at success from an operations management perspective rooted in Anglo-American principles of management focused on organizational inputs rather than mission alignment and sustainable mission impact. The NGO field office has rarely been the subject of empirical analysis despite the vital importance of the field office to NGO mission accomplishment.

Scholars have not been able to agree on a common definition for non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The literature highlights the various classifications for different NGOs based on size, structure, mission, program delivery and geopolitical differences. This lack of a uniform definition or system of classification causes theoretical and empirical problems for researchers in the field as well as for practitioners and others working with and for NGOs. This dissertation adopts Salamon and Anheier's (1997) definitional taxonomy as its baseline definition for NGOs. Salamon and Anheier suggest that the structural-operational definition (which focuses not on the basic structure of the organization but on its purposes or sources of income identifying five critical features of nonprofit organizations (NPOs) as: formal, private, nonprofit-distributing, self governing and voluntary) is the best definition for NGOs, a subset of nonprofit organizations because the approach is economic, significant and it allows for combined richness and organizing power which "defines a set of organizations that share certain structural and operational characteristic whatever their geographic location or field of activity" (1997).

The literature review will consider three classes of variables which may have a causal relationship to the dependent variable of success (or lack thereof). The following variables will be considered: (1) managerial tactics and techniques adopted by the field office leaders or extended to the field office leaders by the NGO; (2) the impact of cultural features on the host country that may affect field office success; and (3) characteristics of the host country government and setting and its impacts of the NGO's ability to work in that country.

The dissertation through this model attempts to answer the question: What factors promote the success of field offices in achieving their goals? This section looks at the managerial tactics and techniques adopted by NGO field office directors or extended to the field office director by the NGO. Variables that have been identified include the availability of cultural training, communication training and the extent to which the field office structures are set by the NGO headquarters as opposed to giving discretion to the local field office directors. Discretion to field office directors might include the discretion that directors have to deal with local issues, scope of work including programs and office administration; the geographic scope of the field office and adequacy of funding as perceived by the field office. Culture and its impacts on NGOs will first be discussed in order to set the stage for a discussion of NGO management techniques which consider the structural constraints placed on field office directors followed by a discussion of training for expatriate managers and then finally a discussion on the host country characteristics.

A definition of culture is adopted that suggests that culture is a set of norms, customs, values, and assumptions that guides the behavior of a group of people. This behavior passes down through the generations, although it is not static and affects organizational behavior. (Kroeber and Kluckhorn, 1952).

Justification

The growth of NGOs in the past twenty years has been enormous and these organizations are working in a variety of fields, such as providing health, welfare and education services among others (Ossewarde, Nijhof & Heyse, 2008). NGOs primarily came into existence in the late nineteenth century surrounding slavery in the United States, England and Europe and continued to grow in the aftermath of both world wars with the founding of the International Committee of the Red Cross and CARE to name a few. After the Second World War there was a steady growth of NGOs on the international scene and an explosion of growth from the 1980s through today (Edwards & Hulme, 1996; Florini, 2000).

NGOs were born during the period of modernization. Isbister (2001) explains that modernization theory is largely the predominant theory of scholars based in developed nations. Developed nations are often referred to as in the NGO and civil society literature as the global north or the first world. “Modernization theorists focus on deficiencies in the poor countries – the absence of democratic institutions, of capital, of technology, of initiative – and then speculate about ways to repair these deficiencies” (Isbister, 2001, p.32). Calvert and Calvert (1996) note that we have witnessed a process of globalization in the past hundred

years or more. “Globalization is the key characteristic of the modern economic system and even, it has been argued of modernity itself” (Calvert and Calvert, 1996, p.209). Calvert and Calvert (1996) suggest that globalization and modernization infer some type of superstructure that guides actors on the international scale. They note that there is no such international authority and that states and a variety of other actors including NGOs and other international organizations like the United Nations come together for decision-making.

Florini (2000) when considering the growth of NGOs looks at the complex problems of the world and the actions or non-actions of government institutions. She suggests that NGOs form vast connections internationally and insert themselves into “a wide range of decision-making process on issues from international security to human rights to the environment” (Florini, 2000, p.3) She also suggests that NGOs are informal associations or loose coalitions”. There is a burgeoning interest in scholarship in this field because NGOs are not either informal or loose coalitions for the most part. NGOS are complex and bureaucratic organizations that often have a top-down model for management and accountability within the organization (Armstrong, 2006; Charlton & May, 1995; Clarke, 1998; and, Dichter, 1999). As the world becomes more complex and interconnected couple with the rise of failed states and the global economic crisis, NGOs are taking on roles that were initially the roles of governments (Dichter, 1999, Florini, 2000; Edwards, 1997; Edwards & Hulme, 1999; Fisher, 1998; Florini, 2000; Ossewaarde, Nijhof & Heyse; and Tandon, 1996).

Florini (2000) queries whether NGOs should be the global conscience of the world noting that NGO leaders are not elected. This study will not address issues relating to NGO accountability (Edwards & Hulme, 1999; Jordan and Van Tujil, 2006; Koenig, 2004; and, Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001). It is significant to mention the issue of accountability given the billions of dollars NGOs receive from governmental aid and private and corporate donations.

Salamon (1993) argues that an associational revolution in global social and political development is taking place with the explosion of NGOs and likens this growth to the development of the nation-state in the nineteenth century. Florini (2000) is respectfully skeptical of this conclusion and suggests that the global rise of NGOs is an important phenomenon to the well being and development of poor people, the future of NGOs themselves, and impacts on the global political economy. NGOs are portrayed as more efficient actors because these organizations are not slowed down in delivery goods and services in order for change to occur as are governments with political constituencies (Van Dick, 1985).

Mohrman (1986) when assessing the institutional framework for rural development suggests that NGOs may be more efficient than state actors; however, these organizations also have policy agendas as well. He suggests that NGOs as change makers or program implementers may be more efficient because they are closer to the people being served than government officials. They may also be more motivated to make change than government workers. NGOs as

implementers have been able to introduce innovation in program service delivery but they also often are heavily involved in advocacy to “influence factor to change development” (Mohrman, 1986, p.73). He notes that NGOs vary in size and capacity to deliver programs.

Often, one NGO may be favored in a host country over another NGO leading to tensions in host country with each other. National policies that coordinate NGOs might allow for more cooperation and collaboration but may also limit innovation. Importantly, Mohrman (1986) notes that NGOs and governments may have very differing agendas. NGOs often may be opposed to one another in terms of interests and outcomes. Finally, he suggests that allowing NGOs to step in where governments have previously acted may allow for government actors to ignore their most vulnerable population.

For all of these reasons, the study of NGOs as transnational organizations advocating and bringing about change in a globalized world is vitally important.

Research Questions

This dissertation seeks to answer three research questions seeking to understand the relationship between the achievement of organizational mission in the field; and, the impacts of national culture on that success.

First, how does the NGO headquarters define success for NGO field offices? What factors do they cite as causes of such success? Second, how do field office directors characterize success for their offices? What do they believe causes success?

Third, how effectively do the causes of success derived from the literature including but not limited to organizational discipline to mission success, operational systems, and organizational capacity at home and in the field, program outputs and more importantly sustainable program outcomes and impacts—predict success as defined in this dissertation?

To answer these research questions, analysis of The Nature Conservancy's Latin American field office director responses to a 2010-2011 survey questionnaire is utilized. The questions of interest in the survey questions focus on discretionary management to the field and cross cultural communication and training.

Significance of this Study

Contribution to Theoretical Knowledge

To date, there has been almost no empirical research in the literature looking at NGO mission success from the perspective of the field office and how success is impacted by culture. Research has looked at the tension between the NGO headquarters and the field relating to interagency management (Suzuki, 1997) not mission achievement. There has been no empirical research considering the impacts of national culture on achievement of NGO mission success in the field.

This study is a mixed methods study that will document the perceptions of field office directors regarding organizational mission success while also considering the headquarters' definition. There are nine field offices who

responded to the survey questionnaire. It is not the goal of this study to define mission success from the field for the worldwide organization. This study looks at a sample within the Latin American offices of The Nature Conservancy in South and Central America. This study does the following:

(1) The study documents the views of field office directors and a regional director on mission success.

(2) Comparisons are made between the field office and the organizations headquarters through documentary and personal interviews.

(3) Comparisons made between the perceptions of the field offices on relating to organizational mission success.

This dissertation will contribute to the theoretical knowledge regarding NGO field office mission success by considering distance from host country culture in assessing the actions of the expatriate field office director. There has been much research in the private sector regarding expatriate management training to achieve organizational success in host country. (Adler, 2002, 1983; Adler & Doktor, 1986; Aimar & Stough, 2007; Vjen Yifeng & Tjosvold, 2008; Chrobat-Mason, Ruderman, Weber, Ohlott & Dalton, 2007; Collard, 2007; Dickson, den Hartgog, Mitchelson, 2003; Dichter, 1999; Fink and Mayrhofer, 2009; Fink, Neyer & Kolling, 2006; Gannon, 2001; Georgianna, 2007; Heuer, Cummings & Hutabarat, 1999; Hill, 2008; Hofstede, 1980, 1993, 1994; House, Javidan, Hanges, Dorfman, 2002; James, 2008; Koontz, 1969; Lachman, 1997; Lee & Croker, 2006; Matviuk, 2007, McSweeney, 2002; Nahavandi, 2008;

Punnet, 2004; Sawang, Tian & Goh, 2006; Selmer, Torbiorn & DeLeaon, 1998; Smith, 2002; Triandis, 2004, 2006; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997; Walumba, Lawler & Avolio, 1997; and, Zhu, Nel & Bat, 2006).

This dissertation builds on the private sector research while tailoring the research to success for social mission outcomes rather than the corporate bottom line. Given the unique shared missions of NGOs at a general level, to “change the world”, a definition of success and its measures are different than measures of success in the private sector (Bornstein, 2007; and Coleman & Sarah, 2006). This is a cross sector issue which will lead to new theoretical knowledge as well as have significant practical applications for NGO field office managers.

Contribution to Practical Knowledge

In addition to the development of theoretical knowledge from this exploratory and descriptive study, there is valuable practical knowledge to be gained. Place may make a difference in the success of the organizational mission. This dissertation does not focus on elements relating to fiscal, programmatic or managerial elements rather the focus is on communication and interaction between the NGO headquarters and staff vis-à-vis the countries in which the organizational mission is carried out.

The study attempts to discover whether there are tensions between the organization’s accomplishing its mission successfully outside of the United States. The focus on intercultural communication and training is to drive theoretical scholarship but also to provide room for thought that mission success

may also be place based and subject to the nuances of local and non Anglo-American culture.

Dissertation Contents

This dissertation is divided into five chapters. Chapter One describes the purpose of this study, gives an overview of the study, and the explains significance of this descriptive and explanatory research. Chapter two is the literature review for the study from which the theoretical foundations are derived. Chapter three is the methodology section provides an overview of the selected NGO, The Nature Conservancy. The NGO descriptor provides context to the study. Chapter three also describes the data collection, operationalization of the variables and their attributes as well the development of the measurement scale for the study and its limitations. Chapter four presents the results from the data described in chapter three. Chapter five presents findings and conclusions from the study along with examining limitations and suggesting avenues for future research.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Introduction

This dissertation considers mission success from the view of the NGO's field office (FO) because the field office is responsible for the delivery of the NGOs mission. This topic is considered under the NGO and non-profit organization (NPO) management, social entrepreneurship, and program evaluation perspectives by reviewing the research literature on NGOs and non-profit organization management which consider issues of capacity, accountability and mission attainment. The social entrepreneurship literature considers mission success in terms of sustainable impact and outputs as well as the utilization of program evaluation by NGOs as a measure of success (Collins, 2001 & 2005; Crutchfield & McLeod Grant, 2008; Dees, 1998, 2003 and Light, 2004 & 2008).

The question that this study attempts to answer: Whether NGO field offices achieve mission success. If so, how is success defined, measured and operationalized?

This first section of the literature review focuses on defining success, setting the stage for the second section which will discuss the factors that promote the success of field offices in achieving their goals. This dissertation creates a tentative model of variables that have an impact on field office success including managerial tactics and techniques adopted by the Field Office Directors; the impact of cultural features of the host country that may affect field office success;

and, characteristics of the host country government and setting. This section attempts to answer the question, “What factors promote the success of field offices in achieving their goals?”

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs)

What is a non-governmental organization or an international non-governmental organization? NGOs are self-governing non-profit organizations which seek to promote their particular mission such as the advancement of international human rights (Salamon & Anheir, 1997 cited in Ossewarde, Nijhof & Heyse, 2008).

NGOs are taking on roles that were initially the roles of governments. The growth of international NGOs in the past twenty years has been enormous and these organizations are working in a variety of fields, such as providing health, welfare, and education services among others (Ossewarde, Nijhof & Heyse, 2008).

Scholars have not been able to agree on a common definition of NGOs. The literature highlights the various classifications for different NGOs based on size, structure, mission, program delivery, and geopolitical differences (Charlton & May, 1995; Gordenker & Weiss, 1995; Lewis, 2001; Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001; Morris, 1999; Salamon and Anheier, 1997, 1992a, 1992b; Vakil, 1997). This lack of a uniform definition or system of classification causes theoretical and empirical problems for researchers in the field as well as for practitioners and others working with and for NGOs.

Salamon and Anheier (1997) write that the problem is multifaceted. First, there is no clear definition of the third sector or nonprofit sector as opposed to the government or market sectors. Secondly, there is a conceptual problem because there is little data on the sector and the depiction of the sector boundaries are imprecise (p.9). There are also distinctions between philanthropy (grant-making organizations such as foundations) versus non-profits focused on program delivery (p. 13). Since Salamon and Anheier (1997) wrote *Defining the Nonprofit Sector: A Cross-Sector Analysis*, noting until further data has been collected, the sector boundaries continue to be murky and imprecise particularly with the growth of Social Entrepreneurship as a discipline which encompasses all three sectors (Light, 2008). Thirdly, many societies do not have a concept of the private non-profit or third sector and they argue this presents both a conceptual and empirical challenge for the sector.

Vakil (1997) suggests that the problem with classification is the plethora of terms used to describe NGOs such as BINGOs, big international nongovernmental organizations; INGOs, international nongovernmental organizations; NGDOs, nongovernmental development organizations, NNGOs, northern nongovernmental organizations; GROs, grassroots organizations and many other classifications in this alphabet soup. The lack of a common definition or framework is more than a nuisance; arguably, it has impeded the understanding of the NGO sector (Salamon and Anheier, 1992, 1997; Vakil, 1997).

Salamon and Anheier (1997) suggest a clear taxonomy towards a common definition and this study will adopt this taxonomy as its baseline definition for NGOs. Other important NGO definitions/classifications reside in the literature such as the definition fashioned by Korten (1980, 1987) who considers different types of NGOs based on the client group served. He suggests a definitional framework which considers macro-level social value, economic values which are market driven as well as looking at operations and orientation on a “four generation” model. His framework is not considered in this study (Vakil, 1987; 1990, 1997).

Lindenberg and Bryant (2001) define NGOs as organizations that: provide useful goods and service to serve a public purpose in a legal sense; do not distribute profits to persons in their individual capacity; voluntarily created and maintained and the basis of actions by the board of directors; and, exhibit a values based rationality often with an ideological component (Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001).

Korten’s (1980) definition can be considered a more inclusive definition than Lindenberg and Bryant’s (2001) definition, however, Salamon and Anheier’s (1997, 1992a) NGO definition transcends social and geopolitical boundaries. Therefore, it is the best definition for purposes of this paper as NGO field offices will be in a variety of host countries where there is a heavier emphasis on structure and operations rather than heavy emphasis on the voluntary component contrasting Korten’s (1999, 1987) and Lindenberg and Bryant’s (2001) definitions.

Salamon and Anheier (1997, 1992a) suggest that there are four ways to classify or define nonprofit organizations: legal (defining the nonprofit sector as it is defined in a country's laws); economic/financial (adopting the U.N. System of National Accounts which breaks all economic activity into five sectors for the purposes of reporting on national income); function(what are the functions or purposes of the organizations in the nonprofit sector); and structural-operational (which focuses not on the basic structure of the organization rather on its purposes or sources of income identifying five critical features of nonprofit organizations (NPOs) as: formal, private, nonprofit-distributing, self governing and voluntary) (1997, p.29-50; Vakil, 1997, p.2059).

Salamon and Anheier suggest that the structural-operational definition is the best definition for NGOs, a subset of NPOs because the approach is economic, significant and it allows for combined richness and organizing power which “defines a set or organizations that share certain structural and operational characteristic whatever their geographic location or field of activity” (1997, p.38).

Most recently, Lee (2010) descriptively outlines what he considers to be an NGO based upon consideration of recent scholarship which has considered how to define an NGO. He explains: “[t]hough there is no single definition of INGOs, scholars and practitioners have analyzed basic characteristics of INGOs, their activities, and how they affect society. Most authors classify INGOs in three dimensions: their organizational features, their aims and strategies, and their relation to other social entities.

First, INGOs are voluntary associations that form a large number of connections across national borders (Florini, 2000). Second, INGOs have one or more of the following three organizational goals: transnational social movement, transnational aid, and/or international information sharing. INGOs which tend to act on international issues, such as peace, human rights, international security, or the environment are usually called either “transnational social movement (organizations)” (Bandy and Smith 2005; Khagram et al. 2002) or “transnational advocacy networks” (Keck and Sikkink, 1998). Other INGOs aim to provide services such as humanitarian aid, development assistance, education, and disaster relief (Ottaway and Cartothers, 2001). Doctors Without Borders, Oxfam, and CARE are good examples of humanitarian aid INGOs. Finally, some INGOs are information loci for sharing ideas and information within specific fields of expertise, like the International Council for Children’s education.

Third, as the name ‘nongovernmental’ implies, INGOs include groups or organizations that are independent from governments and profit-seeking private entities. Although the boundary between profit-seeking business and INGOs can sometimes seem blurred (Dichter 1999). INGOs do not pursue profit maximization as a primary organizational aim.

In sum, INGOs are voluntary and transnational organizations that operate independently from national governments to achieve their members’ international goals through routine transactions with states (governments), private actors, and international institutions (Tarrow, 2001). In addition, as an institutional force,

INGOs deepen global civil society by reflecting lively interactions among citizens beyond traditional international actors, like national governments, corporations, and international organizations. As Wapner (1995) highlights, INGOs have politicized global civil society in the realm of “world civic politics” by changing practices of governments and corporations and by empowering local communities” (Lee, p. 395-396).

Lee (2010) has added examples to what he considers to be three classifications of international NGOs as institutional organizations. He description of NGO structures and types as organizations and institutions carry common themes from the earlier definitions developed by Lindenberg and Bryant (2001), Korten (1999), Salamon and Anheier (1997) and others. Despite disagreements over definition NGOs continue to grow and provide a variety of services from direct services to advocacy networks that affect the political status quo in host countries as well as the political status quo internationally.

Brief History and Growth of NGOs

NGOs primarily came into existence in the late nineteenth century surrounding slavery in the United States, England and Europe and continued to grow in the aftermath of both world wars with the founding of the International Committee of the Red Cross and CARE to name a few. After the Second World War there was a steady growth of NGOs on the international scene and an explosion of growth from the 1980s through today (Edwards& Hulme, 1996; Florini, 2000). Lee (2010) finds that NGOs have grown exponentially from 176

organizations in 1909 to 26,000 organizations in 2000. He suggests that the proliferation of NGOs has been in both industrialized and developing countries (Lee, 2010).

Florini (2000) suggests it is important because of impacts on the well being and development of poor people, the future of NGOs themselves, and influence on the global political economy. NGOs are taking on roles traditionally held by government and NGO and government office relations are complex and often conflictual (Turner and Hulme, 1997). Nonprofit organizations have struggled with how to manage change in the social sector (Tassie, Zohar & Murray, 1996). Ohanyan (2008) considers NGO networks and looks at NGO principal agent problems. She notes that the transformative nature of NGOs is problematic “when NGOs as agents are working through multiple principals at the same time” (Ohanyan, 2008 p.17). Accountability has been and continues to be a problem given the variety of stakeholders for social mission organizations (Covey, 1995; Edwards, 1997; Florini, 2000; and Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001).

Despite the growth of NGOs worldwide, there has been almost no scholarship associated with the impacts of national culture of the mission success of NGOs from the field (Suzuki, 1997),

The Role of the Field Office in NGO Headquarters' Goal Achievement

Globally, NGOs are stepping in and replacing government's provision of goods and services especially in developing and conflict ridden areas suggesting that a of the NGOs mission success from the field office perspective is relevant

and timely. The NGO field office executes the mission of the NGO headquarters. Goal achievement is inherently related to NGO management, management processes, program management and evaluation, output, impact and, most importantly, sustainable outcomes and impacts.

“Mission is perhaps the defining feature of a nonprofit organization. Non-profit organizations are distinguished from private-sector organizations in that their goal is ‘something other than to provide a profit for its owners,’ which is generally understood to be a social mission” (Phills, 2005, p.20). In order to be considered legitimate in the host country, NGOs must be open to learning as well as trying to serve the organization’s key mission (Edwards, 1997).

Mission should not be confused with strategy, strategic processes policies and politics which help but do not define goal achievement (Charlton & May, 1995; Clarke, 1998; Coleman & Sarah, 2006; Edwards, 1999; Etzioni, 1973; Florini, 2000; and Jaeger and Beyes, 2010). Mission success is goal achievement and achievement is more than input, it is a consideration of output and impact (Light, 2008, Crutchfield & Grant, 2008; Phills, 2005). McGill and Wooten (1975) consider management problems for NGOs which include ambiguous goals and conflicting performance standards, problems that still exist today (Lewis, 2001, p190).

Key management problems relate to goal ambiguity and conflicting performance measurement standards (Lewis, 2001). Hudson (1995) argues that common problems for NGOs include vague organizational objectives and the

problems associated with measuring performance, balancing accountability to multiple shareholders internal and external to the organization, issues surrounding the concept of voluntarism and the need to have sustainable effective impact and maintain sustained organizational value over time. NGOs have too many bottom lines (Anheier, 2000). These multiple bottom lines also termed a problem of multiple principles have impeded NGOs measuring success because the measurements have all been based on inputs as dictated by multiple external stakeholders.

Lewis (2001) notes that goal ambiguity given multiple stakeholders is still a problem for NGO internal management presumably affecting NGO goal achievement in the field. Value driven organizations lead to distinct management challenges because individuals work for NGOs for a variety of reasons including altruistic notions, ideological reasons, public status from being on an NGO board, experience and other reasons rather than financial compensation (Handy, 1998). Lewis (2001) suggests that the nature of the differing stakeholder values can lead to clashes affecting project deliverables (p.193).

Lewis (2001) compared two separate models for NGO internal management addressing goal attainment issues for NGO's headquarters and field offices. Fowler's (1997) model for internal management is very narrowly construed to NGOs working in the development field as he defines the goal of "NGOs as reducing poverty and increasing social justice" (Lewis, 2001, p.199). This management style prioritizes "humility, leverage and deflection" and focuses

on a capacities or programmatic approach which considers five key areas: 1) organizational set up (linking NGO mission, vision and role through strategic planning and turning strategy into programs; 2) leadership and human resources (focusing on authentic partnerships between Northern NGOs and Southern NGOs); 3) influence on Government (NGOs do not replicate host government programs); 4) mobilization of funds (sufficient funds to allow the NGO to pursue its work properly); and, 5) management through achievement (moves from a focus on development impact to interpret feedback from various stakeholders and incorporate their feedback for program delivery)(Lewis, 2001, p.199-202).

Fowler (1997) argues that the last factor allows NGOs to build legitimacy through achievement and accountability (Lewis, 2001, p.200). Lewis (2001) criticizes this model for goal achievement finding that it is narrow and slanted toward social change and that NGOs are characterized solely as being a part of the aid industry when there are many other types of NGOs with different goals (p. 201-202). Fowler (1997) does discuss participatory roles of various stakeholders in terms of internal management but is not focused on the role of the field office in relation to NGO headquarters which directly impacts goal attainment and mission success.

Suzuki(1997) studies NGO internal management relations separate from programmatic goals and highlights the tensions between headquarters and the field office and argues that “the headquarters office tends to be physically distant and concerned with fund-raising efforts while the local office is concerned with

relationships and local community and the implementation on poverty reduction programmes” (Lewis, 2001, p.202). Suzuki conducted this by comparing four NGOs with field offices located in the same countries through interviewing NGO field staff and the strength of this model comes through the stories told by the NGO staff.

Suzuki (1997) found three sets of tensions: 1) organizational management and project implementation (provision of reports and information to donors while balancing implementation of projects and maintaining effective relationships with beneficiaries); 2) diversity and similarity (NGO staff while working together to achieve common goals may undertake contradictory tasks); and, 3) flexibility and consistency (donors impose strict rules for performance measurement and accountability where in the field the reality may be messy and difficult to build systems around).

It is important to note that Suzuki’s (1997) research focused on tensions rather than relationships between NGO headquarters and field offices and the focus was on providing strategies to alleviate these tensions rather than looking at models of success. Importantly, Suzuki suggests that “NGOs need to be flexible and responsive enough to be able to adapt themselves to changing environments. ...yet they (NGOs) should not satisfy consistency and core values” (p.133). These tensions help to isolate variables on which to build a model of success from the field’s perspective.

Lewis (2001) finds that Suzuki (1997) “examines specific problems for international NGOs working across space and culture”. Fowler (1997) balances internal and external factors affecting NGOs directly linking it to the aid industry (p.202). Lewis (2001) also notes that very little of the discussion in the NGO literature has been focused on internal measures tied to goal achievement rather on external measures. The focus has been on organizational capacity building which sees organizational effectiveness in terms of Southern NGOs building structures allowing for sustainability and self reliance (Lewis, p.205). Capacity building is about organization strength and processes rather than impact; this translates into NGO headquarters definition of mission accomplishment versus field office definition of mission accomplishment, inputs not outputs.

Sahley (1995) saw three groups of NGO capacities: 1) human resources management allowing for conflict resolution processes and good staff/management relations; 2) management systems which have clear procedures, delineation of responsibilities, good financial management and effective decision-making; and 3) programmatic and technical capability allowing NGOs to strategically deliver effective programs (Lewis, 2001).

The current literature defining NGO goal achievement in terms of organizational capacity recognizes the conflicts of various external and internal stakeholders. As Lewis (2001) and other scholars have noted the emphasis on organizational accountability and success has been from a headquarters and external stakeholders perspective (i.e., donors and board members). Scholars

recognize the need for participatory collaboration from NGO field staff and the beneficiaries of the delivery of goods and services for legitimacy in the host country. The benefits of participatory management have not been considered and this is also an area for future theoretical and empirical work. Participatory management would give the field a voice regarding organizational operations and programmatic/project outputs considering whether projects actually made an impact and were sustainable.

Stark Biddle(1984) gathered data from more than 100 senior NGO staff on their management needs and found that most NGO staff saw themselves as “different” because they placed great value on being flexible and ideological rather than highly organized and hierarchical (Lewis, 2001). This difference is something that may be an important concept when assessing success from the field office. Suzuki (1997) recognizes the inherent tensions between headquarters and field offices in terms of multiple bottom lines in terms of organizational culture, accountability measures and program and personal achievement.

These topics have been touched on but not deeply explored in the literature. Headquarters and staff must recognize that there are tensions and communications issues based on differing ideas regarding success, they must be open to effective communication and to be committed to working together to achieve their common goals. The research on NGO goal achievement has focused on management and indicated that certain management styles and processes are more effective than others but that is not a unifying framework for determining

NGO mission success and there is a great need for further empirical work from the point of view of the field office.

NGOs and Change

NGOs exist to develop their communities or to promote social change (Fisher, 1998). Change may mean something different to a human rights focused NGO versus one that is engaged in development work. Change will be considered from the perspective of development NGOs also referred to as NGDOs.

Lindenberg and Bryant (2001) look at NGO change in terms of organizational change within the NGO family and programmatic change. Lewis (2001) considers organizational change and asks whether NGOs can manage change better. Dibella (1992) found that change was perceived very differently by headquarters than field offices overseas. Organizational change which was designed to promote regionalization was perceived by field offices as NGO headquarters trying to concentrate power in headquarters. Shared vision is hard to achieve when there is goal ambiguity and structures are unclear (Lewis, 2001).

Tassie (1996) argues that change initiatives face difficulties because of the tensions between programmatic needs and ends versus the need to satisfy external stakeholders, for example, donors.

Lindenberg and Bryant (2001) look at some of the bumps in the road facing relief and development NGOs. They consider whether NGOs adjust mission and vision to meet new challenges which can allow for field office buy in and organizational transformation. Relief and development programming has

been redefined based on the interrelated nature of relief and development work (p.49-50). Field offices have been enlarged or closed based upon need and programmatic changes. Field office staff has been asked to take a more analytic approach to looking at whether the programs are effective in terms of need and outputs.

Lindenberg and Bryant (2001) note that “value-centered” staff is conflicted when asked to assume more businesslike or analytic perspectives in assessing programmatic change. Recall that C. Stark Biddle found that NGO staff perceives themselves as different (C. Stark Biddle, 1984). Technology has been a force for change. Technology has drawn headquarters and field office staff together. Once again field office staff may perceive this change as centering power in the headquarters and depriving them of their flexibility and uniqueness while trying to bureaucratize operations. This may be particularly true in the field as field staff has to prepare reports for donors based on imposed donor metrics for effectiveness (Lewis, 2001).

Change will also be reflected when NGOs adopt national boards and global governance structures to reflect the practices of NGOs. Change has been slow and Lindenberg and Bryant (2001) argue that power often resides at the headquarters or national level. Constraints on NGOs managing transformation can be found in organizational structure especially if the structure is loose or not clearly defined, donor pressures, and unpredictable external environments as well as staff motivation and organization culture (Lindenberg and Bryant, 2001).

The literature again focuses on change in terms of NGO management and processes more than on the impact of program delivery of types of services. Arguably this is because program delivery is mission based and relief and development NGOs will offer different programs than an NGO focused on human rights or advocacy only. Change in relief and development NGOs is constrained as previously said by external and conflicting stakeholders and change is not amenable to a predictive process based on the constraints listed above (Edwards and Hulme, 1996).

The performance criteria regarding organizational inputs come from the NGO and NPO management literature and the criteria regarding outputs, impacts and sustainability come from the field of social entrepreneurship. Social entrepreneurs advance systemic change; they seek to change behaviors and patterns (Bornstein, 2007). Light (2008) argues that organizations as well as individuals can be social entrepreneurs and bring about systemic change. He suggests “that social entrepreneurship flourishes in robust organizations ... robustness describes an organization’s ability to bend, stretch, and adapt over time (Light, 2008, p.47). Borrowing from Collins (2001) and others offers a theory of discipline as a model for a great organization, in order for a third sector organization to be successful. Success must be disciplined to the dictates of mission in order to achieve sustained impact (Bornstein, 2007; Crutchfield and Grant, 2008; Dees, 2003, 1998; Light, 2008).

Collins (2005) suggests for the social sector that in order for an organization to have disciplined thought, his “hedgehog concept,” it should ask: “How can we develop a sustainable resource engine to deliver superior performance relative to our mission? (p.18). He suggests that an organization must have passion (understand core values and mission); do what the organization is best at (unique contributions to people) and to understand what drives the resource engine. A disciplined organization is focused on output and sustainable impact (Bornstein, 2007; Crutchfield and Grant, 2008; Dees, 2003, 1998; Light, 2008).

The issues surrounding change appear to relate to the constraints surrounding goal achievement/mission success as separately viewed by NGO Headquarters from NGO field offices. Organizationally some NGOs may be open to change in a more participatory environment than others where attention is paid to both good management processes internally and to the sometimes conflicting needs/wants of the external stakeholders (donors and beneficiaries).

Suzuki (1997) suggests that tensions between NGO headquarters and field office staff regarding internal systems can constrain NGO change and adaptability. Such constraints can include rigidity, failure to respond to changes in situations that impacts jobs, pay and recruitment efforts; following the money or the special attentions paid to the donor-NGO relations. These constraints can lead the NGO to abandon core mission and values in order to receive continued funding. The NGOs modus operandi, for reasons of efficiency and effectiveness,

are modeled on the headquarters' management style. These systems, once institutionalized, are self-perpetuating and may lead to homogeneity (Suzuki, 1997).

Once again further empirical work will be needed to address the gap between theory and practice or simply put the gap between administration and operations.

Success – A Proposed Nominal Definition

The proposed nominal definition of success calls for NGOs to follow disciplined adherence to mission and produce sustainable (mission related) impacts. Success is a measure of organizational inputs and outputs which recognize that resources including donor funds must be tied to the mission and not to the demands of external stakeholders.

NGOs are mission driven organizations that seek to affect some change through their work. Mission success includes good organizational and operational systems; success may be more than good internal and external management; perhaps a definition of success should also consider sustainable impact. Is success the sum of management styles or is it something else, if it is something else then what is it? Should success be considered from the perspective of the field office, which is directly responsible for carrying out the NGO mission?

Collins (2005) “that a great organization is one that delivers superior performance and makes distinctive impact over a long period of time” (p.5).

“How effectively do we (social organizations) deliver on our mission and make a distinctive impact, relative to our resources” (p.5)?

The NGO literature to date, with a few exceptions, considers success from a top-down organizational perspective based on systems established by NGO headquarters institutionalized in the field office (Edwards and Hulme, 1996; Lewis, 2001; Lindenberg and Bryant, 2001). Others have suggested that participatory models of NGO management may ease tensions and the problems associated with goal ambiguity (Suzuki, 1997).

Light (2008) discusses a process for social entrepreneurs to be successful. In particular, a discussion is had on “scaling up,” a multi-step process intended to expand impact (p.67). Social impact should match demand. LaFrance and Associates (2006), with support from the Skoll Foundation, found seven core organizational assets:

Defining and adhering to core mission: “Clearly defining and adhering to the mission provides focus for decision-making and resource deployment...”

Balancing control and flexibility: “The challenge is to balance control with flexibility for innovation and impact.”

Codifying what works: “Impact can be scaled more effectively by clearly articulating essential components of the model so that it can be more easily and faithfully replicated.”

Cultivating and perpetuating the culture: “For scaling to succeed organizations must cultivate and perpetuate...those aspects of the culture - shared values, behaviors and norms—that are critical for mission achievement.”

Collecting and using data: “The ability to gather and use data can be critical for important scaling related decisions such as establishing

needs...demonstrating the effectiveness of a model and by finding ways to connect supporters to programmatic work.”

Connecting fundraising to the mission: “[V]iewing fundraising as a way to achieve mission and by finding ways to connect supporters to programmatic work.”

Making the right decision for scaling: “Strong leadership and governance means making sure the right decisions are made to foster greater mission achievement during what is often a period of rapid organizational change” (LaFrance, 2006).

It is important to note that much of the literature in the social innovation and entrepreneurship fields relates to scaling up organizational capacity. This study does not focus on whether programs that are entrepreneurial or innovative should focus on scaling up. The above seven step model has been highlighted because each of the points relates to strict adherence to core organizational mission. The models which have been looked at in the social entrepreneurship and innovation literature are models based upon trial and error practice models which have often seen organizations that were successful scale up and then drift from organizational mission to keep afloat.

The proposed model seeks to avoid the tensions related to the problems of goal ambiguity and differing performance measures by focusing on programs that are impactful and sustainable. Success is performance relative to mission not funding resources (Collins, 2005). Therefore, it is important to consider models currently being looked at in the fields of social entrepreneurship and innovation as these models are focused on adherence to organizational mission goal attainment regardless of whether the organizations scales up or down or remains constant in

size. Scaling up too quickly may also impact organizational mission success but this issue relating to organizational growth and capacity to continue to deliver the same services for social good is not considered in this study.

Collins (2001) looked at a variety of companies to determine why some companies were just good and others great and developed a framework which was centered on discipline. Great companies were comprised of disciplined people, disciplined thought and disciplined action. Disciplined people include considerations of leadership and hiring the right people for the organization. NGOs have suffered from poor personnel decision-making (Suzuki, 1997). This poor personnel decision-making has directly influenced programs and operations in the field.

Disciplined thought includes confronting the brutal facts about your organization and realizing that regardless of the difficulties that the organization will prevail and recognizing that just because you have been doing something forever that it may not necessarily be the right way. Disciplined action is an organizational culture. “When you have disciplined people, you don’t need hierarchy. When you have disciplined thought, you don’t need bureaucracy. When you have disciplined action, you don’t need excessive controls. When you combine a culture of discipline with an ethic of entrepreneurship, you get...great performance” (Collins, 2001, p 13).

The NGO literature continues to stress the multiple bottom lines to external stakeholders often produces goal ambiguity and varying performance

measures. One of the greatest contributors to this problem is the NGO-donor issue which can lead to mission creep and even mission abandonment. Collins (2005) suggests that a great social sector organization must have the discipline to reject resources that drive the organization away from its mission (p.23). He and others argue that by adhering to the mission, money will follow, projects related to mission will be carried out by employees who share a commitment to the mission and ultimately there will be sustainable impact (Bornstein, 2007; Collins, 2005; Crutchfield and Grant, 2008; Dees, 2003, 1998; Light, 2008).

NGO field offices execute the mission of the organization. Suzuki (1997) suggests: “Ideally, NGOs do not serve themselves or donors. They are founded to promote the development of the Third World in one way or another. ... Although the kinds of development they promote vary from distributing needed goods to helping local people support themselves, all NGOs are targeted to serve people outside the organization not inside” (p.43-44).

As stated, the nominal definition of NGO success from the perspective of the field office is a measure of both organizational inputs and outputs. Success includes capacity building which ultimately will produce high performance and desired results. NGO headquarters should support field operations through a participatory relationship. NGO headquarters and field offices must be disciplined to adhere to the organizational mission and focus on sustainable projects that have impact in order to be successful.

Operationalizing and Defining NGO Field Office Success

It is a challenge to develop even a nominal definition of NGO field office success; the literature extends for decades, claims and findings often conflict and the process must be conducted with selective judgments tempered by intellectual openness. The outcome of this process is a definition that attempts to capture the meaning of the concept by highlighting the critical aspects of content. All nominal definitions are expected to be proposals and tied to the judgments of the theorist and therefore arguable in the intellectual arena.

The task of proposing an operational definition is even more challenging. Clearly any concept—once nominally defined—can be acceptably operationally defined in a variety of ways (Ritchey, 2008). Choosing among the many operational possibilities rests in matching the meaning proposed in the nominal definition such that dimensions are transparent to the reader. Ultimately, without regard to the nominal definition, the operational definition constitutes the matter studied (Kaplan, 1964). The iterative process of science—conceptualizing, measuring (operational definitions), testing, evaluating results and finally revising—reduces the burden that might lay with developing a new operational definition (Scizek, 1979, p. 197).

Operational definitions may be expected to be used to the extent the community of scholars finds them useful for theoretical and research purposes; refinements are the product of not just the scientific method, but also of replication.

NGO Managerial Tactics for the Field Office

This section looks at the managerial tactics and techniques adopted by NGO field office directors (i.e., country directors or a similarly titled position) or extended to the field office director by the NGO. Variables which might be identified in this paper include the availability of cultural training, communication training and the extent to which the field office structures are set by the NGO headquarters as opposed to giving discretion to the local field office directors. Discretion to field office directors might include the discretion that directors have to deal with local issues, scope of work including programs and office administration; the geographic scope of the field office and adequacy of funding as perceived by the field office.

Culture and its impacts on NGOs will first be discussed in order to set the stage for a discussion of NGO management techniques which consider the structural constraints placed on field office directors followed by a discussion of training for expatriate managers and then finally a discussion on the host country characteristics.

Culture's Impacts on NGO Field Office Success

Culture Defined

Culture is complex. The study of culture is necessary in order to evaluate global management practices in order for organizations to be successful. Most people grow up with one national and cultural identity and never learn how to work with people different from themselves. NGOs with global ambitions need managers who

know how to influence people across cultures and the only way to do that is by understanding and working across cultural differences.

Triandis (2006) suggests that cross-cultural interactions will only be successful if they are culturally intelligent. In order to be culturally intelligent there must be an understanding of culture and its definition. Therein lies the problem - there is not a universally accepted definition of culture. There are more than fifty-two definitions of culture (Kroeber and Kluckhorn, 1952 cited in Nahavandi, 2008).

Cross-cultural research needs to begin with a definition of culture and whether culture can be defined by geographic boundaries or a set of shared beliefs. There is no standard definition of culture nor is there a universal set of cultural dimensions (Javidan & House, 2001). Shared values are aspirational; values are what people want to have done. Culture affects values and beliefs; it is unique to each group and influences individual, group, and organization's styles (Nahavandi, 2008). Beliefs, on the other hand, are perceptions of how things are done and in a cultural context this refers to how things are done in their country (Javidan & House, 2001).

Nahavandi (2008) suggests that culture is a set of norms, customs, values, and assumptions that guides the behavior of a group of people. This behavior passes down through the generations, although it is not static and affects organizational behavior. Kroeber and Kluckhorn (1952), in an influential early study, conclude that culture stems from shared values which are transmitted through symbols which are constantly evolving within the particular cultural context. Cultural values are not static (Kroeber and Kluckhorn, 1952 cited in Adler & Doktor, 1986).

Hofstede (1980) wanted to know if management principles were universal or to see if management was affected by culture. He surveyed tens of thousands of IBM employees in 40 different countries. Hofstede was interested in finding comparative measurements for multi-society research and avoid the problems associated with language difficulties and ethnocentrism using “country” for the unit of analysis (Hofstede, 1980). He found that culture affected management based on the following five dimensions:

Small vs. Large Power Distance considers to what extent those members of organizations with less power accept that power is distributed unequally. In countries where there are small power distances people are more focused on equality and sharing. In large power distance countries, people accept authoritative or autocratic leaders.

Individualism vs. collectivism refers to where people value their individual identity and are prepared to act and/or work on their own versus the collective where people are more seen to work for the “common good” and value the contribution of the group rather than the self. The United States and Australia are seen as individualistic nations whereas Latin American and Asian countries often see the greater value in support of the group and achieving harmony.

Masculinity vs. femininity considers the importance placed on traditional male versus female roles in society. Males value competitive, ambitious, assertive behaviors whereas female values are considered to be family oriented and focused on the life’s quality.

Uncertainty avoidance is an attempt in a culture to avoid what is abstract not rule defined and, therefore, can lead people to be unsure or uncertain in decision making.

Long vs. short term orientation describes how societies look at the future and the past. Long-term societies consider the importance of the need to persist and persevere as well as the need to consider order and society's resources. Short term societies tend to focus on value based or normative understandings such as personal worth and reciprocity (Hofstede, 1980).

He uses these dimensions in order to group certain cultures and countries together. Hofstede, in choosing "country" as his unit of analysis, places the individual and the collective as polar opposites as well as his other dimensions in opposition to one another (Triandis, 2004). He suggests that ultimately each country is bound by its culture and that deference must be given that culture in order for an international organization to survive (Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede (1980) uses the country or nation as the unit of analysis whereas other scholars criticize this unit of analysis and say that culture is more than country. Suggestions include smaller groups such as regions, groups, tribes or the like (Al-Yahya, et al. 2004; Javidan & House, 2001; Lewis, 2001; Sawang et.al. 2006).

Defining culture presents a unique challenge for researchers in cross-cultural management. Lachman (1996) argues that cross cultural research has focused on statistical comparisons that were then attributed to cultural differences among the samples. This type of research can only point out differences not cultural

impacts. Cross-cultural research should do more than that. It needs to focus on the cultural connection by looking at the direct effects of culture on the practices or processes being examined (Lachman, 1997). Lachman (1997) argues that Hofstede (1980) in his IBM study did not empirically investigate the relationship between the dimensions and the attitudes and managers who participated in the study. Lachman (1997) further argues that Hofstede does not explain in his study how similarly or differently the IBM offices were structured in different countries. He argues that the field needs to move beyond the initial confines of Hofstede's work (Lachman, 1997).

Further studies have arisen from Hofstede's 1980 work including the GLOBE worldwide leadership research project which looks at culture and leadership in 61 countries and extends Hofstede's matrix from four to nine dimensions including: performance orientation, future orientation, assertiveness, power distance, human orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, uncertainty-avoidance and gender egalitarianism (Javidan & House, 2001; House, Javidan, Hanges & Dorfman, 2002).

Despite the above noted limitations as well as recognizing that the IBM study presents a self-selected sample, these cultural dimensions will be used when developing the independent variables because they are variables which are directly applicable to differences in the developing world versus the industrialized world. This is important because the NGO headquarters are places in the industrialized world and carrying out their programmatic activities in the developing world

McSweeney (2009) when considering the implications of national culture in organizations wonders how practices are changed or sustained in individual countries. In other words, “[h]ow does place affect practice” (p.22)? This question becomes increasingly important in the age of globalization and the imposition of Anglo-American models of management and communications in non-western spheres of the world. McSweeney (2009) questions whether cultural coherence can be assumed which then produce “nationally uniform practices” (p.23). This study attempts to look at whether large international American headquartered NGOs in delivery of services suffer from a presumption of cultural coherence on the part of the field office. McSweeney (2009) challenges the notion that cultural coherence may be obtained nationally, organizational or within a particular smaller community. Importantly, he also notes that culture is a conceptual construct and is more than the subject of empirical study (McSweeney, 2009). He cites to Sloman (2005) to support a statement that there is always bias when looking at culture. Culture is ambiguous; it often is illogical, is contradictory and may be a hybrid of many impacts which shape a particular culture. Culture may also be incoherent.

Researchers of culture tend to be interested in integration versus differentiation. McSweeney (2009 citing Alversson, 2002 and Sloman, 2005). He then looks to policy and determines that culture can only be changed as a result of endogenous shocks (McSweeney, 2009). These conceptual challenges are important to the study of international NGO’s service delivery to host country populations. Assumptions regarding cultural coherence in this context easily

translates into Adler's (2001, 1986) concern that Anglo-American styles of doing business often translate into organizational failure.

Lewis (2001) distinguishes between societal culture and organizational culture in third-sector management. Societal culture assumes that people have shared ideas and beliefs which impact organizational issues. Organizational culture refers to the shared practices and values among staff (Lewis, 2001). Lewis notes that culture should be studied for NGOs in both theory and practice and cultural bias should be addressed in both of these arenas. Organizations that work in culturally diverse communities need to learn rather than impose approaches and techniques. Lewis (2001), like Hofstede (1980), is interested in whether American management theories apply abroad and, in particular, in the social sector.

Lewis (1998) found that there were significant differences between the cultures of for-profit and non-profit (third sectors) which could increase the risk of conflict and misunderstanding. Therefore, it is necessary for cross-cultural management to understand the link between societal culture and organizational culture. Hofstede's dimensions provide such a link because they bridge the shared vision of a societal culture with the ever-changing world of organizational culture (Lewis, 2001).

The particular problems faced by NGOs, especially in a development context, that employ Anglo-American models of management, may contribute to cultural and organizational clash with local institutions and organizations in developing countries (Lewis, 2001). Jaeger and Kanugo (1990) suggest that western management styles

and techniques do not fit with developing country contexts. This management style often leads to failure. Hofstede's dimensions may place too much emphasis on culture and not enough emphasis on management, tasks and performances (Kiggundu, 1999).

NGO Management Culture

Traditional NGO management culture is bureaucratic and top-down rather than participatory (Lewis, 2001; Suzuki, 1997). Suzuki (1997) notes the tensions between headquarters and field offices in the field office efforts to engage in a more participatory management style. Suzuki (1997) notes that the NGO headquarter-field staff tensions were primarily surrounding: project accountability especially conflicts surrounding donor imposed project management which may not be relevant or needed in the country, personnel management especially relating to rotating expatriate field office directors and managing across cultural differences; and conflicts surrounding headquarters imposed rules and regulations for the administering of office functions, handling of funds, and issues related to language.

Lewis (2001), Suzuki (1997), and others have noted NGOs making a slow shift from the Weberian bureaucratic model to a more participatory style of management. There has been little empirical work done from the field office perspective towards management tactics and techniques as suggested by several authors (Lewis, 2001 and Fowler, 1997). Further empirical work will need to be done regarding management relations. For purposes of this study we will assume that the northern NGOs being studied will typically adopt the Weberian bureaucratic

management style as its management style in dealing with field offices. The studied NGO follows this type of organizational model.

Culture and its Impacts on Management

Management in a Cross-Cultural Context

The need to study management principles in today's global world arises from the development of management crossing borders and oceans. The study of management has developed from the study of both private and public organizations but few studies have looked across cultures.

Adler (1983) looks at the trends in cross cultural management papers published in 24 organizational behavior journals between 1971 and 1980 and found that less than five percent were related to cross-cultural management. She argues that as the corporate world is becoming more interrelated that an international perspective is relevant to managers and to organizational behavior theory (Adler, 1983).

Organizational management in a global context is more than exporting American management techniques abroad (Adler, 2002). International businesses have existed for centuries but the world according to Adler and many others has become more inter-connected requiring that organizations develop global strategies (Adler, 2002; Al-Yahya et.al., 2004; Black & Medenhall, 1990; Littrell, Salas, Hess, Paley & Riedel, 2006).

Successful organizations need to know when and how to be most sensitive to culture. Cultural sensitivity requires leaders to be culturally intelligent in cross-cultural interactions (Triandis, 2006). In order to be culturally intelligent,

organizations and leaders need to overcome ethnocentrism and modify behavior in order to increase the probability of desirable behaviors and decrease undesirable behaviors (Paige & Martin, 1996 cited in Triandis, 2006).

Adler suggests that as much as three-quarters of international joint ventures fail (Adler, 2002; Black & Medenhall, 1990). International joint ventures or global operations must recognize how cultures or people from different cultures who are working together and will continue to work together in a more condensed world therefore cultural understanding becomes important.

Adler and other scholars move beyond a definition of culture in order to look at culture, management and the effective communication of differing peoples (Adler & Doktor, 1986; House et al., 2002). These researchers have argued that cross-cultural management needs to integrate single country management research, typically American management research with comparative management research in order to understand the impacts of different cultures in organizations not just the imposition of American management on foreign cultures (Adler & Doktor, 1986).

Cross-cultural management research has attempted to do just this: inform people working in organizations whose employees or clients span more than just one culture. Cross-cultural management studies how individuals from different countries interact with one another. It looks at organizational behavior across cultures and seeks to effectively improve how people interact with one another. Domestic management is expanded into global management (Adler & Doktor, 1986). The

ability of NGO leadership to understand this principle will allow these organizations to more fully achieve mission success.

Adler and Doktor (1986) further consider how these differences operate across the East-West cultural divide. They look at whether organizational behavior varies across culture; whether observed differences can be attributed to cultural determinants, whether the variance is increasing, decreasing or remaining the same; how organizations best can manage cultures other than their own; and, how cultural diversity in one organization is managed and is this diversity seen as a resource (Adler & Doktor, 1986).

The GLOBE leadership researchers conclude that the nine dimensions afford a comprehensive way of examining the different cultural practices of countries. From the study, the GLOBE research team determined that the most important aspect of a cross-cultural manager's job is the ability to effectively communicate with people from other cultures (Javidan & House, 2001; House, Javidan, Hanges & Dorfman, 2002).

Aimar (2007) suggests different cultures value and employ differing leadership styles (den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintilla & Dorfman, 1999; Hofstede, 2001). Further research suggests that there are core differences in leadership styles between different countries (Aimar & Stough, 2007; Casimir & Waldman, 2007; Collard, 2007; Georgianna, 2007; Matviuk, 2007, Walumbwa, Lawler & Avolio, 2007).

The management discourse has therefore been rooted in the Anglo-American concept of leadership and there is a need for a theory of leadership in an intercultural context which has led to cross-cultural theory and its research paradigms in order to avoid cultural bias (Collard, 2007). Classic Western principles of management and leadership disregarded cultural differences as being pertinent. Western theories assert that management principles are equally applicable across cultures (Al-Yahya et.al. 2004).

Collard (2007) suggests that a leadership or management theory which ignores cultural settings and has measured leadership effectiveness (based on a Western model) is not enough. A more nuanced theory than Hofstede's (1980) dimensions needs to be developed acknowledging the complex interactions from players from different cultures and consider the particularities of NGOs as different from transnational private companies as well. In addition to quantitative analysis, a case-study analysis is necessary to complete a full understanding of these complex interactions (Collard, 2007; Littrell, Salas et. al., 2006). Project GLOBE has made an important addition to Hofstede's model other than adding additional dimensions. The GLOBE researchers are indigenous researchers to the examined host country and their analysis of cultural differences in leadership suggest that they are able to overcome the western bias (den Hartog et. al, 2001; House, Javidan et. al., 2002).

Again, the project GLOBE researchers and Hofstede and others looking at cross-cultural management issues have been focused on the private sector and are not

often faced with the complex challenges that NGOs face especially in the context of disaster relief in conflict or recently post-conflict nations.

Management traits, when examined under Hofstede's dimensions, demonstrate the importance for international managers to know how to interact when working in and with foreign cultures (Hofstede, 1980). People act differently around members of their own culture than with members of different cultures due to barriers related to communication (Adler & Doktor, 1986). Differing management styles and/or techniques can lead to misunderstandings in the international context based on Hofstede's dimensions (Adler & Doktor, 1986).

Cross-Cultural Training

Cross-cultural training for multinational corporations has been studied since the 1960's and 1970's and it has looked at the expatriate manager being sent abroad (Black & Medenhall, 1990; Lewis, 2002; Littrell, Salas et.al., 2006). There have been almost no comparative studies regarding cross-cultural management for NGOs operating in host countries (Al-Yahya et.al. 2004; Lewis, 2002).

In order for organizations to be successful and effective, scholars have studied the importance of cross-cultural training and its impacts (Adler, 2002; Black & Medenhall, 1990; Lee & Croker, 2006; Littrell, Salas et. al., 2006; Triandis, 2006). Triandis (2006) suggests that in order to operate successfully in a global world that actors need to be culturally intelligent. Cultural intelligence is acquired through behavior modification and behavior modification ostensibly occurs through training.

Actors need to integrate information, be unbiased and look for clues from their counterparts in order to interact in multicultural organizations.

Theories of Cross-Cultural Training

There is not a universal theory of cross-cultural training. Black and Medenhall, (1990), in an early review of cross-cultural training and effectiveness, noted increased internationalization across economic and geo-political lines called for greater cross-cultural contact. Early studies of cross-cultural management tended to focus on personality traits such as ability to adapt, technical competence, academic qualifications, and knowledge of host countries while further studies focused on personality characteristics such as extroversion, agreeableness, openness, and others (Lee & Croker, 2006). They note that previous studies focused on predictive values for studying the success or failure of the training but very little focus was placed on a conceptual framework. Black & Medenhall (1990) and other scholars also noted that at this time that international management was in a pre-paradigmatic state and sub categories such as cross-cultural training were even further behind in theoretical modeling (Adler, 1983; Kyi 1988).

Black & Medenhall (1990) suggest that the Social Learning Theory for cross-cultural training stressing observation and experiential learning is the best theory for consideration. Sixteen years later, Littrell, Salas, et al. (2006) looked at expatriate cross-cultural training research to determine whether cross-cultural training was effective. In this study, they found that the causes of expatriate failure are more numerous than the indications of that failure. Recent studies have shown

that cross-cultural training is effective in improving expatriate performance (Selmer, et. al. 1998).

The lack of a uniform framework presents significant challenges for further research in this area. There are currently four theoretical frameworks looking at cross-cultural training: (1) social learning theory as previously described; (2) the “U” curve of adjustment theory which suggests that expatriate adjustment is a function of time; (3) culture shock theory which addresses unmet expectations, and; (4) the sequential model of adjustment which suggests that training is a process and therefore cross-cultural training should correspond to the cycle of adjustment (Black & Medenhall, 1990; Caliguri et.al. 2001; Selmer, 1998). Although there are many theoretical frameworks little empirical testing has been done to test the prongs of any of the frameworks.

Littrell, Salas, et al. (2006) suggest that empirical research must be conducted to analyze whether any of these theories should be applied to cross-cultural training. They also suggest that it is necessary to adopt a framework which unifies these theories.

Researchers recognize that there is a need for a management practice-culture fit. They recognize that culture is important in third sector organizational success, that the concept of culture has yet to be adequately captured and its influence on management performance has not been thoroughly evaluated (Newman and Nollen 1996; Al-Yahya et. al., 2004 & Lewis, 2002). Tayeb (1994) also noted

that there are problems in the conceptualization, operationalization, data collection, interpretation, and study focus on the impact of culture on management.

Impacts on Cross-Cultural Training

Much of the cross-cultural work has been theoretical rather than empirical so it is hard to determine if the training is actually effective. In other words, whether there is actually a connection between cross-cultural training and performance.

Because studies have failed to quantify the effects of cross-cultural training there is again a need for further empirical studies (Littrell, Salas, et. al., 2006).

Cross-cultural training is recognized as a means of facilitating effective interactions. Few empirical studies have been conducted to evaluate the influences of expatriate characteristics, complexity of task assignment and perceived cross-cultural differences on the needs for expatriate training (Black & Medenhall, 1990; Lee & Croker, 2006; Littrell, Salas, et. al., 2006). These limited empirical studies have indicated that expatriates perceived need for training was positively and negatively related to their personal characteristics including adaptability, complexity of task assignment, competence of host country staff, and personal competency (Lee & Croker, 2006).

Researchers have looked at learning styles and learning organizations and have determined that additional data need to be collected on learning styles of expatriates because this is an important variable in the delivery of the training (Kolb, 1978; Jensen and Kolb 2000). Lee and Croker (2006) found that learning styles and cross-cultural differences could moderate the effectiveness of expatriate training.

Learning how to learn is a focus of cross-cultural training because the training cannot anticipate the needs that every expatriate manager will face in the host country (Littrell, Salas, et.al., 2006; Bennet 1986; Brislin & Bhawuk, 1999). Learning how to learn teaches the expatriate manager to learn and acquire new information about the culture which will allow him to assess new situations and respond appropriately (Bennet, 1986; Littrell, Salas, et. al., 2006).

Despite the important reasons for such training it was found that less than thirty percent of American multinational corporations were cross-culturally training their expatriate employees (Black & Medenhall, 1990). Academic studies suggest that over fifteen years later multinational corporations as well as NGOs are not engaging in this type of training (Lewis, 2001; Littrell, Salas et al., 2006). Recent studies support the effectiveness of expatriate cross-cultural management performance on foreign assignment (Selmer et al. 1998).

Black and Medenhall (1990) suggest a three-part skill taxonomy that will lead to cross-cultural success as follows: (1) training in skills that relate to self-health (i.e., feelings of self-confidence and stress reduction); (2) skills relating to the fostering of inter cultural relationships; and, (3) cognitive skills which allow for accurate perceptions of the host country and its social systems. If all three are met, the cross-cultural manager will be successful in his new environment (Black & Medenhall, 1990).

Despite the need for cross-cultural and/or inter-cultural communication training, NGOs are just beginning to recognize the need for cross-cultural training in

order to prevent mission failure (Al-Yahya et. al. 2004, Lewis, 2001). All of the literature suggests that there is a need for a uniform framework as well as continued empirical studies to positively relate cross-cultural training to effective expatriate manager performance. Studies also call for a uniform framework in which to assess these empirical studies. One study calls for both quantitative and qualitative analysis in looking at cross-cultural training effectiveness (Littrell, Salas et.al. 2006).

Host Country and NGO Relationships

Fisher (1998) notes that relationships between NGOs and governments in the third world are clearly different from those in the developed world and even when NGOs are working with cooperative governments they can still be deflected from serving their constituency in the host country. Sandberg (1994) has identified five possible patterns of host government-NGO relations as follows: (1) ad-hoc connections; (2) a single coordinating office; (3) diffused responsibility for NGO coordination through various appropriate host country ministries; (4) decentralized approach- NGO relationships are handled by local governments; or (5) “coordination through multiple stratified focus points” (p.21, 26). Fisher (1998) notes that “the latter method can accommodate diversity and preserve NGO flexibility more effectively than even friendly, fully-coordinated government policies towards NGOs” (p.46).

Fisher (1998) and Sandberg (1994) note that there has been a problem with empirical research in determining the success or failure of NGO relationships in host countries. Fisher (1998) states “whether governments cooperate on an ad hoc or

systematic basis with NGOs, they are generally unwilling or unable to take up-front research on NGOs projects to find out who is doing what where, much less evaluate the success or failure in relation to possible field collaboration” (p.46).

Anecdotal stories from the field have provided information on NGO-host country relations. For example, in *How NGOs React*, editors Silova and Steiner Khamsi (2008) look at the Soros Foundation’s relationships with several former Soviet actors- states, donors and other NGOs while pursuing the Foundation’s mission for education reform in this region. The case studies present a contextual analysis for NGO perceived legitimacy and effectiveness as well as success and failures in host countries.

For example, two chapters consider NGO close collaboration with governments in the cases of Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan. In Kyrgyzstan, the government funded a teacher training voucher system and allowed for successful NGO management of the program thereby acknowledging that the government did not have the capacity to run such a program. In Tajikistan, the Soros Foundation and the government collaborated for educational policy change by establishing a joint committee to examine issues and develop a plan for reform.

In part, *How NGOs React* examines NGO failure in Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan. The chapter on Turkmenistan details the proactive practices of the government to prohibit educational reform for political ends. Close collaboration with authoritarian governments can lead to little or selective government reforms. Reform can only occur with change of political leadership as happened in

Turkmenistan which may open the door to civil society reform. In the case of textbook regulation, detail is provided surrounding the clash between an authoritarian government and NGOs seeking civil society reform over textbook reform in the substantive civics and economics curriculum. This interesting account written under a pseudonym details the government shut-down of the Soros operation in 2004.

Fisher (1998) and other scholars have noted that there are regional differences for NGO success in host countries which vary from Europe to Asia to Africa to Latin America. Fisher (1998) suggests that it is difficult to generalize about these regional differences in NGO host country relationships and therefore considers Sandberg's (1994) model to assess and evaluate these relations. As noted further empirical work needs to be done to assess NGO-host country relations which will vary according to region, whether the host country is in the developing world, whether the developing world would be considered the third world, as well as whether the host country is in conflict.

Additionally and importantly, Sandberg (1994) notes the many different ways that host governments can act which affects NGO mission success or failure as anecdotally shown by the Soros Foundation's attempt at educational reform in post Soviet countries in the Caucasus and Mongolia.

This dissertation will not address the issue of NGO accountability. NGO accountability is central to NGO relationships with host countries. The key question that needs to be addressed is: who are NGOs accountable to? This is a topic for

another dissertation of future research as host country culture most likely would impact perceptions relating to NGO accountability.

Peruzzotti (2006) suggests that NGOs are not democratically accountable (i.e., as an elected official is to his constituents) nor are there formal measures for NGO accountability, they should focus on downward accountability and transparency. Bendell and Cox (2006) suggest that NGOs should be accountable to their constituents—those that they serve, often the voiceless living in poverty.

Jordan and Van Tuijl (2006) in their edited work, *NGO Accountability* suggests NGOs seek to influence governments through their programs need to be transparent and accountable to organizational mission. Edwards and Hulme (1996) are the leading voices on NGO accountability and note that accountability is complex and abstract and that it is more than accountability to host governments. They also note like Fisher (1998) and others that relatively little research or empirical work has been conducted in this area (Edwards and Hulme, 1996).

Operational Definitions for a Proposed Model of Causes

The preceding literature review reflects the tentative state of knowledge regarding NGO field office success. There is little concrete data collected with social scientifically sound research methods, it is largely speculative, and it draws similar concepts from many disciplines that are “tentatively” applied to the problem. Furthermore, scholars working in this area have not developed consensus on a variety of critical distinctions required for meaningful research. Two most notable distinctions are the difference between field office success and NGO success, and the

difference between cultural practices per se and the impact of cultural practices on field offices. It is particularly critical to remember that the goal of this study is to identify variables that specifically affect field office success. These variables for success measures are outlined in chapter three. Thus, concern is not with culture per se or cultural training, but with how the outcomes of these forces or experiences affect field office success. It is very tempting, when reading generalized literature, to seize upon “larger intellectual questions” in spite of the need for research to focus upon definable and measurable issues relevant to the immediate objective of better understanding some dependent variable (Lieberson, 1985).

Under these conditions, the nature of research is necessarily exploratory. Based on the literature, the researcher draws inferences about the relative importance of causes, creates hypotheses, follows logical measurement principles and begins the research process with the aspiration of adding knowledge rather than solving the problem (Bickman, and Rog, 1998, p. 5). Goldenberg (1992, p. 62) indicates that exploratory model construction enables organized testing of cataloged or likely linkages between predictors and field office success.

Chapter Two Summary

The literature review presented in chapter two outlines the areas of scholarly literature which were used to develop a model of success for NGO field offices and how culture affects mission accomplishment.

To date, no research had been conducted looking at host country or national culture impacts on NGOs successfully accomplishing their social mission in the field. By focusing on a host of success factors outside the traditional management driven outcomes relating to performance, total quality management, and accounting, this dissertation focuses on the nuances of national culture and how this may impact success. In the private sector, the impacts of culture on successful joint venture operations throughout the world have been seen as necessary in order to prevent mission failure. Private sector firms have seen business operations fail due to a lack of cultural understanding and intercultural communication for successful achievement of the corporation's bottom line.

When looking at social mission, NGOs are faced with more nuances than simply achieving a financial profit in the market. These organizations are attempting to change the world in order to preserve, protect or advocate for some type of change.

By focusing on the field office that is actually charged with carrying out the mission of the organization, this research looks to actual outputs and impacts. By further narrowing the focus to the impact of host country culture on an organization's ability to do business in a host country, this research assesses the

culture of leadership on the NGO and willingness to train field office directors in intercultural communications, relations, and customs.

This research fills an important gap in the nonprofit and organizational behavior literature by borrowing from the private sector business research and fine tuning this research to the often difficult and highly nuanced objectives outlined for organizations with a social mission. This research will lead to new strategies that include the importance of the field office perspectives on whether organizational mission is being achieved in the context of the local host country culture.

Further, this research may impact university curricula in the fields of nonprofit management to consider that an Anglo-American directive is not necessarily the only approach when looking at mission success. NGOs in some form or context attempt to change the world—change for the better—this type of change and ideas surrounding what is best are inevitably affected by national custom and culture. Practically, this dissertation research, in addition to scholarly applications, may allow for NGOs to implement this type of consideration in an applied management context.

In order to examine the extent to which national or host country culture impacts NGO mission success as perceived by the field office, this dissertation next describes the methodology to answer the research questions.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Introduction

The objective of this dissertation is to examine the issue of “success” in the management and study of international nongovernmental organizations. In particular, concern centers on perceptions of the factors that constitute success among home office management and those who direct in-country field offices. This problem is approached from two directions, one qualitative and one quantitative.

On the qualitative side, the individual definitions of success and its causes held by home office management are explored; this will include questions about the role and function of field offices as well. This information will serve as context for another quantitative examination of the factors that field office directors believe constitute success, as well as identification of factors that promote success at the field office level. Finally, the literature review in Chapter 2 forms the basis for a self-administered questionnaire that will be provided to all field office directors from The Nature Conservancy in South and Central America. This quantitative information is meant to reflect the view of success causality from the NGO literature and to supplement the qualitative perceptions of field office directors that are also collected.

This chapter is organized around four sections. The first section formally presents the research questions that will guide this study. The second section describes the studied NGO, The Nature Conservancy, giving a summary of mission, history, operations and outlook. The third section is given to defining the questions (measurements) that are used in the qualitative and quantitative

inquiries. Thus, the positions and questions asked home office managers are listed, followed by the questions asked of field office directors. The section closes with presentation of the nominal and operational definitions of each variable used in the self-administered questionnaire, accompanied by the reasons each predictor of success was chosen for inclusion in the model. The final section presents the case study context and data collection strategy with a brief discussion of data analysis techniques.

Research Questions

Considering the gap in the literature surrounding mission success from the field office perspective including cultural impacts, a two site case study was selected for field offices in South and Central America of The Nature Conservancy. The literature review revealed that no case studies have been identified in the NGO or nonprofit literature assessing this research topic. This gap in the literature further supports the study design as a methodological contribution to the field.

The Nature Conservancy seeks to “preserve the plants, animals and natural communities that represent the diversity of life on earth by protecting the lands and waters they need to survive”. As chapter two demonstrated, there is some theory, much speculation and very little concrete data to address either the definition of what constitutes NGO success or differences in perceptions of success. As an exploratory effort to generate data to begin addressing these issues, this study addresses three research questions, as follows:

1. How do home office managers define success for NGO field offices? What factors do they cite as causes of such success?
2. How do field office directors characterize success for their offices? What do they believe causes success?
3. How effectively do the causes of success derived from the literature—name them between commas—predict success as defined in this dissertation?

Measurement

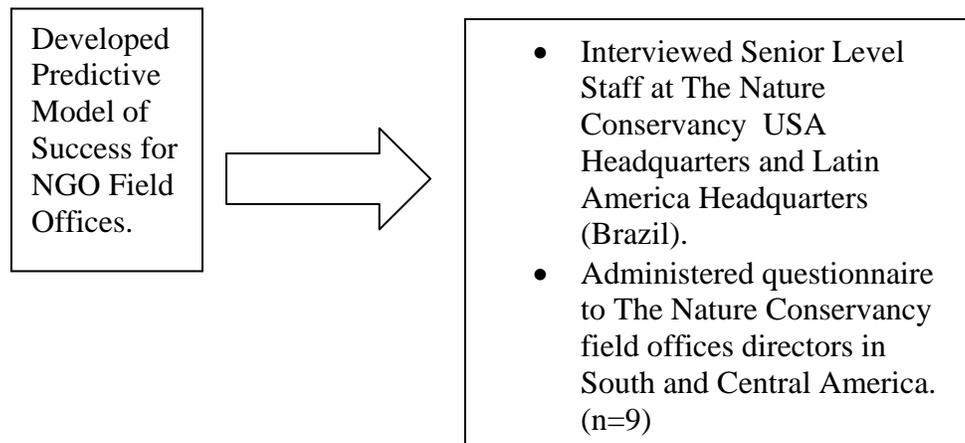
It is the case with all research that some variables to be measured are very straightforward and have research traditions of being operationally defined in particular ways. Such variables include gender, ethnicity, race, age, education and other individual traits. Little discussion is required when using operational definitions that have a long history of use in the literature. In this study, the first two questions deal with qualitative perceptions thus needing elaboration. These data require integration and interpretation like any other qualitative information. In the first two discussions below, the specific opening questions to be posed to first headquarters' managers and second, a nonrandom selection of field office directors are elaborated. In the third discussion, the nominal and operational definitions for the variables in the quantitative model are described.

Success and its Antecedents for the NGO headquarters Management

The Studied NGO: The Nature Conservancy/Latin America

The study was conducted over a six month period from October 2010 through early March 2011. Study data collection was from the South and Central American field offices of The Nature Conservancy. The study was divided into two components. Telephonic and personal interviews were held with two personnel from The Nature Conservancy Latin America headquarters in Brazil and international HQ in Virginia. Surveys were administered to field office directors in South and Central America. There was a fifty-six percent response rate. Nine out of sixteen country field offices responded.

The study was conducted in English. English and Spanish are the primary languages in which the studied sites conduct business.



Prior to this study, this researcher had no prior experience with working with The Nature Conservancy in South and Central America.

Figure 1: Data Collected from the Nature Conservancy South and Central America

Case Selection

The field office sites that responded to the survey were self identified as: Chile, Ecuador, Venezuela, Brazil, Belize, Mexico and one respondent declined to identify the field office country. The respondents were not compensated for their participation in the study. The survey was sent out to the Respondents four times with response dates for November 2010, December 2010, February 2011 and March 2011. The respondents constitute a census rather than a sample.

Case Study Sites: The Nature Conservancy - South and Central America

The Nature Conservancy is a 501(c) (3) nonprofit organization with international headquarters located in Arlington, Virginia. The Latin America offices of The Nature Conservancy are headquartered out of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. The organization operates internationally in the following regions: Africa, Asia Pacific, the Caribbean, Central America, Europe, North America including the United States and Latin America which covers South and Central America. “In Latin America, The Nature Conservancy works to protect lands and waters for people and for nature across Latin America and the Caribbean, including Mexico, Central America and South America”(The Nature Conservancy (2011). Retrieved from <http://www.nature.org/wherewework/southamerica/misc/art26125.html>).

In South America, The Nature Conservancy works in the following countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Honduras and Nicaragua (these two countries are a single area), Paraguay, Peru, and Venezuela. In Central America, The Nature Conservancy works in the following countries: Belize, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama.

The Nature Conservancy in South and Central America headquartered in Brazil was established in 1980 as a sub office of the United States nonprofit

organization and operates in sixteen (16) countries. The individual sites fall under the organizational structure of The Nature Conservancy in the United States as nonprofit organizations. The Nature Conservancy in South and Central America is located in 16 countries with a staff of administrative, managerial and scientific personnel. The Latin American headquarters in Brazil has a managerial staff of 17 and the U.S. headquarters has a staff of 393.

The Nature Conservancy, Latin American Region has an operating budget for the current fiscal year (July 2010-June 2011) is US\$38 Million. Internationally, the organization manages has protected more than 119 million acres of land.

The mission of the South and Central American offices of The Nature Conservancy is the same organizational mission of the United States headquarters. The U.S. Headquarters board is the sole board with decision making authority. However, Brazil and Chile have advisory boards made up of local community and business leaders similar to what the TNC state chapters have in the United States. There is an advisory board for Argentina made up of U.S. trustees looking to help us establish connections with local leaders in Patagonia. The TNC Latin America is looking at a similar initiative for Mexico.

This study did not consider offices in the Caribbean; and, therefore is looking at the operations of the South and Central American Offices of which there are 16. Eight of which are being used for this study including Chile, Ecuador, Venezuela, Brazil, Belize, Mexico and one anonymous country from the region, as previously mentioned.

“In Latin America”, The Nature Conservancy is “collaborating across borders, bringing together seemingly unlikely partners that are nonetheless

committed to a single vision: a sustainable planet with enough natural resources to meet everyone's needs, enough nature to soothe everyone's souls, and enough market-based solutions to keep Earth's delicate balance in check.

Fueled by the desire to make the world a better place and to speak to an increasingly aware public that values ecological sustainability and corporate responsibility, leaders across Latin America are collaborating with the Conservancy in new and innovative ways." The Nature Conservancy has "partnered with some of the world's largest companies who have decided to make a commitment to conservation in Latin America.

- In Bogotá, Colombia," The Nature Conservancy "joined hands with private companies and local governments to establish a trust fund that will finance \$60 million in watershed conservation over the next ten years.
- To slow the creep of agriculture into Brazil's Amazon rainforest, the Conservancy and a multi-national grain-trader have joined forces to ensure soybeans exported from the region come from "forest-friendly" plantations.
- By helping an oil company incorporate biodiversity considerations in offshore drilling projects in Venezuela's Caribbean waters, the Conservancy and partners are helping minimize the impact these industries have on the environment.
- The Conservancy, the Bolivian government and private companies are protecting the country's forests and reducing greenhouse gas emissions through the world's first and only independently, third-party verified carbon project. The project has already removed/avoided the release of more than 1 million tons of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere.
- After Hurricane Stan wreaked havoc in Guatemala, the Conservancy teamed up with an international power company and local partners to reforest the area to

build natural hurricane resistance and strengthen long-term economic development in the region.

- Through the Great Rivers Partnership, the Conservancy collaborates with a corporate sponsor to preserve and protect Brazil's Paraguay-Paraná River System..." (The Nature Conservancy (2011). Retrieved from <http://www.nature.org/wherewework/southamerica/misc/art26125.html>).

This study does not focus on the activities of The Nature Conservancy rather it focuses on the perceptions of the field office directors in Latin America on the success of the mission success as previously outlined. These activities from the region have been included simply to give a taste of the scope of the conservation work that the organization is involved with in Latin America for purposes of general background information.

The Causal Model of Field Office Success

To actually understand levels of success of NGO field offices, a case approach to research is appropriate. Case study methods allow the researcher to entertain multiple perspectives or aspects of the same variable (Yin, 2009). For the present case, perspective on field office success is important. It is appropriate to document at least three views of what constitutes success: (1) the perceptions of home office management and executives, (2) the perspective of field office directors, and (3) the perspective represented in the scholarly literature.

Each of these perspectives should be expected to at least overlap (that is, include the same or similar variables) but the extent of overlap is an empirical question. Thus, each approach should be addressed separately.

In general, each of the first two perspectives can be documented using key informants who would offer qualitative answers to the open-ended question “what does field office success mean?” This would be asked of at least two audiences: field office directors and headquarters managers. The latter group will frame success in global terms, probably taking into account notions of output and other dimensions that relate the performance of field offices to the home organization. This point of view needs to be implemented since it will be managerially imposed upon and used by field directors as they decide what constitutes success. When turning to field office directors with this same qualitative question, one discovers their personal beliefs about success—what it looks like “on the ground” and what they believe they need to make it look like to the headquarters.

The third perspective on success can be measured by creating an operational definition for the concept as it has been nominally defined here. This strategy, like all measurement, demands that the researcher review the literature to see how theorists and previous researchers have dealt with the topic; now a dependent variable.

The reviewer—not the director or the NGO headquarters—scrutinizes the studies, speculation and theory to extract critical dimensions for meaning. Of course this involves imposing the reviewer’s logic, biases, and perspective on the problem of choosing meaning, but measurement requires that it be done. Scientific method demands that assumptions and perspective be made as clear as

possible for critics to judge the adequacy of the process and outcomes of selecting dimensions.

The goal in developing an operational definition of NGO field office success is not to determine simple outputs that might be part of any “effort” evaluation design such as number of people served, attitudes changed, pounds of product distributed, or similar counting measures (Rossi, Freeman and Lipsey, 1999, p. 269). Concern centers on first capturing the theoretically meaningful dimensions of success from the nominal definition and literature review and second proposing a measurement mechanism. Also, the dimensions selected must each represent features of management or control of the field office that are under the control of the director. Success cannot be conceptualized by features outside the control of the person whose success is being measured. Success of a field office can be seen as hinging upon a series of theoretically meaningful dimensions:

1. Director adherence to core mission as defined by home office.
2. Staff training related to adherence to core mission as defined by home office.
3. Director driven development of data collection on program performance.
4. Codification of “what works”: Director led review of operational initiatives and strategies to critique effectiveness.
5. Possession of a regularly updated, field office generated strategic plan.

6. Presence of partnerships related to field office mission accomplishment with local government.
7. Director-sought feedback on field office performance from local government.
8. Partnership with other local NGO field offices on common interests.
9. Tension level between headquarters and field offices on accountability issues.
10. Field officer director-perceived level of empowerment.

There are certainly other dimensions that one might include. Notably absent here are measures of simple output, accounting systems, or donations garnered. Most of these types of features are either significantly influenced by or completely controlled by the management of the home or headquarters office. To the extent that these issues are of interest, data can be captured in organizational records and importance can be judged by examining the answers of field office directors and home office managers to open-ended success questions. Furthermore, the goal of conceptualization and measurement here is not to be exhaustive. Based upon careful examination of the literature, and weighting more heavily empirical claims rather than solely theoretical or speculative claims, a total of ten variables can be identified as predictors of NGO field office success:

1. Presence of initial and refresher cultural training for field office directors.
2. Presence of initial and refresher cultural training for field office Staff.

3. Presence of initial and refresher communications training for field office directors.
4. Presence of initial and refresher communications training for field office staff.
5. Practice of participative management by field office directors (routine involvement of staff in critical field office decisions).
6. Presence of sensitivity to local culture practices in achieving field office objectives.
7. Absence of ethnocentrism among director and staff.
8. Adequacy of resources supplied to the field office by the home office for achieving field office mission/assignments.
9. Presence of a field office esprit-de-corps that promotes team work and group problem solving.
10. Perception that the home office is fully supportive of field office director managerial and strategic initiatives.

These variables constitute predictors for one model of NGO field office success within the context of its nominal definition and operational definition. They are by no means the only predictors possible and certainly do not exhaust the majority of potential predictors. Neither of these goals would, in any rate, be reasonable aspirations for the type of exploratory study appropriate when the empirical record is in the process of construction (Homans, 1967). The objective is to test and eliminate hypotheses selected on the basis of the firmest available theoretical and empirical work, not to engage a “shotgun” approach to research.

Each of the predictor variables is conceptually uni-dimensional and can be measured using a single question. To remain consistent with the measure of field office success, a basic Likert or summated rating scale item construction is used. The same seven-point response format used in the field office success scale (strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, agree, strongly agree) will be employed for each of the predictors.

The ten operational definitions are:

1. Field Office Directors are given EFFECTIVE cultural training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service.
2. Field Office Staff are given EFFECTIVE cultural training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service.
3. Field Office Directors are given EFFECTIVE communications training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service.
4. Field Office Staff are given EFFECTIVE communications training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service.
5. As Director, I consistently involve key staff in critical decisions about field office policy and practice.
6. When designing field office programs and initiatives, it is absolutely critical to take into account local culture and customs.
7. The field office must operate in the context of local culture which does not appropriately share American values of efficiency, effectiveness, and hard work.

8. The scope of responsibility and work for the field office greatly exceed the resources made available to the field office.
9. The organizational culture of this field office strongly emphasizes staff team work and collective problem solving.
10. As Director, I believe that the home office management is fully supportive of my managerial and strategic initiatives for the field office.

As worded above, each variable (statement) is expected to be positively related to field office success except items 7 (ethnocentricity) and 8 (resource adequacy), which should be negatively related. This model can be appropriately tested through the measure of association, the statistic Gamma produced through a chi square test.

The goal is to identify dimensions that reflect themes in the literature—expressed by multiple theorists and researchers. Finally, perhaps the most well known and long replicated finding related to questionnaire based studies is that the length of the questionnaire is directly related to the probability of completion (Judd, Smith and Kidd, 1991. Short scales therefore enhance completions and—constructed in terms of accepted scale principles—afford levels of reliability similar to or greater than longer scales (Spector, 1992).

The ten dimensions listed above can be operationalized as a series of statements, designed with Likert-type response formats. One variant on the Likert scale commonly used in the past decade, that will be adopted here, is the

supplementation of the classic five point response continuum to an eight point continuum as below:

Strongly Agree, Agree, Slightly Agree, Neither Agree Nor Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree, Disagree

Success and its Antecedents for Headquarters Personnel

As noted earlier, little discussion is required when using operational definitions that have a long history of use in the literature. In part of this study, the first two questions deal with qualitative perceptions, thus they need elaboration. These are the perceptions of the NGOs headquarter personnel and there will be no analysis categorizing answers with the individual traits of the respondents. These data require integration and interpretation like any other qualitative information. In the first two discussions below, the specific opening questions to be posed to first to the NGO headquarter managers and second, a nonrandom selection of field office directors are elaborated. The questions below were posed to the NGO headquarter managers to elicit the headquarters' perspective on organizational mission success. These questions are similar yet different from the scaled questionnaire submitted to the field office directors for response.

This research designed was driven by the purpose of the research and the questions that were developed from the literature in the relevant fields of study. The questions below were developed from the international business management

literature as well as some of the nonprofit/NGO literature regarding the role of cross cultural training to organizational success.

1. What is your definition of success for the field offices?
2. Are field office directors/managers are given cultural training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service? Can you describe the training, duration and materials used? Who facilitates the training? What is the background of that person?
3. Is field office staff given cultural training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service? Can you describe the refresher training, duration and materials used? Who facilitates the training? What is the background of that person?
4. Does The Nature Conservancy HQ consistently involve key staff in critical decisions about field office policy and practice? Please describe how you do this? What are your policies?
5. Can you describe how The Nature Conservancy when designing field office programs and initiatives takes into account local culture and customs?
6. Does the field office must operate in the context of local culture? What are your policies for handling such situations? Can you give examples of situations where this may have hampered organizational mission success? What did you do in this situation? What could you have done differently? Have you found success to be defined in the field differently from the HQ perception? How so or how not? How has this changed and/or shaped your organization over the years.
7. Does the scope of responsibility and work for the field office greatly

- exceed the resources made available to the field office?
8. What resources are made available to the field specifically relating to training and technical assistance as it relates to mission?
 9. How do you hire your field office directors? Are they first country nationals? Are they expatriates from the US operations? Are they a combination of both?
 10. What do you look for in your field office director to be a successful manager of the organizational mission?
 11. What is your primary funding source?
 12. What is your organizational rubric for mission success?
 13. Do you have annual meetings or any other types of meetings that field office directors attend?
 14. How do field office directors come to the HQ? (and vice versa).
 15. Does the organizational culture of this field office strongly emphasize staff team work and collective problem solving? Does organizational culture shift in differing cultures from the Anglo-American culture? How so?
 16. What features of a field office do you personally believe constitute success? What features of the HQ do you personally believe constitute success?
 17. Does the organization measure success for programs? What are the metrics for doing so? Is the evaluation done in-house or is it outsourced?
 18. How does the local culture affect mission success in your country?

Success and its Antecedents for Field Office Directors

The statements in the causal model then are transformed into a summated rating or Likert scale measuring field office success as the sum of these dimensions. The proposed scale statements are:

1. As Director, I scrupulously adhere to the core mission of my agency as defined by headquarters.
2. My field office conducts initial training for new staff and refresher training for all staff that emphasizes the importance of the core mission of my agency as defined by headquarters.
3. My field office collects explicit data on office and program mission-related performance.
4. My field office formally reviews data on performance as a basis for improving our levels of goal achievement.
5. My field office generates and regularly reviews (for change and improvement) an annual strategic plan.
6. As Director I promote creation of partnerships with local government designed to improve our goal achievement.
7. As Director, I actively seek feedback from local government officials on our performance and ways to enhance our in-country effectiveness.
8. As Director, I promote creation of partnerships with other NGOs operating locally to increase the probability of achieving my field office goals.

9. I feel that there is no tension about mission and operational accountability between my field office and the home office.

10. I can define field office strategy and tactics, even sometimes make mistakes while trying to be creative, without worrying about consequences or interference by the home office.

Case Study Context and Data Collection Methods

The research undertaken here is best conceptualized as a case study.

Robert Yin (2009) points out that case studies represent studies that specify multiple research questions and use multiple data sources or data production methods for answering those questions. Two principal advantages of case studies that make the technique appropriate for this dissertation are that they are the only research design that permits a researcher to deal with multiple units of analysis and with multiple data collection methods in the same design. Furthermore, case studies permit the assembly of both detail and context regarding the issue under study and are particularly useful for exploratory research. These benefits succinctly capture the needs of the current study of NGO field office success. The first two research questions deal with the NGO headquarters' managers, reporting on the case (The Nature Conservancy) as the unit of analysis. The third research question addresses the field office directors as the unit of analysis and fits the model proposed above using a basic regression analysis.

The techniques used to collect and analyze the data were based on a careful review of the sample size and the response rate from the respondents. This

is a mixed methods study. Maxwell (1998) when looking at qualitative studies or qualitative aspects of mixed method studies notes that there are several factors which may impact or influence a study design. These factors are as follows: (1) available resources, (2) data, (3) ethical standards, (4) preliminary findings as well as (5) perceived problems. Taking these considerations in hand, it was determined that the case study method would be the most appropriate study for this exploratory and descriptive work in the study of NGO mission success as perceived from the field.

NGO Respondents

The researcher recruited The Nature Conservancy's South and Central American field office to participate in the study. There are sixteen (16) countries in the South and Central American network of The Nature Conservancy. A survey was sent to the sixteen (16) offices a total of nine (9) people responded to the survey. The Nature Conservancy Latin American headquarters in Brazil directly contacted the sixteen field office in South and Central America via email with a link to the scaled questionnaire via a Survey Monkey® link.

The researcher developed a sampling list from the countries that had field office directors. The nine offices were self selected respondents from the email that was sent out to all sixteen countries.

The researcher first sent the email to a manager at The Nature Conservancy headquarters in Brazil. The first request was sent out in October of 2010 with a November response date. The original contact was in the field for

several months and a new contact at the headquarters sent out two subsequent emails to the field office directors with response dates subsequently in January and February 2011. A final email request was sent out to the field office on February 28, 2011 to the non-responsive offices with a request to respond by March 4, 2011.

The responses to the open ended qualitative questionnaire sought information from both the U.S. and Latin American headquarters was returned via email on March 20, 2011. These responses were compiled from the questions being posed to The Nature Conservancy's senior Headquarters' staff. There were no telephonic follow up requests to the non-responsive field directors. The researcher did not have access to telephone numbers to the field office directors in order to follow up with potential respondents. The researcher did have telephonic conversations with members from the Latin American headquarters.

The invitation to join the research provided information about the study and its purpose as well as participation requirements and confidentiality protections afforded to the respondents should they decides to voluntarily engage in the survey. Contact information for the researcher and her dissertation committee chair was also provided in the letter to the organization and the respondents regarding any questions or concerns about the legitimacy of the study. Respondents were asked to respond to a survey monkey link. The only identifier in the link was for the Respondent to identify the host country site for

the field offices. Seven respondents self identified, one respondent declined to identify his or her host country site.

The screening process was guided by the locations of the field offices as situated under the umbrella of The Nature Conservancy Latin America, specifically its sub regions in South and Central America. The initial email invitation in October of 2010 did not yield a large enough number of respondents for the survey. The three follow up emails which were sent out in January, February and March provided the researcher with a fifty –six (56) percent response rate.

Descriptive information about The Nature Conservancy field offices in South and Central America was obtained from the organization's separate website and from interviews with headquarters' personnel. All field office conservation activities can be identified from the websites for South and Central America which include reports, videos and pod casts except for the one unidentified site. At each site only one person responded to the survey and that respondent was the highest level personnel attached to the field office host site. The respondents were able to provide comparative perspectives relating to mission success as viewed from the field office.

Data Analysis

Data management and analysis were conducted by using the statistical software package, SPSS. A case study method is used to facilitate analysis of the self reported data. The study's quality was enhanced by using a summated or

Likert type of scale for the purposes of this analysis. Specific results and the data will be discussed in chapter four. The data consisted of both raw and data that has been processed and analyzed in the SPSS statistical software package from the responses to the survey questionnaire.

Secondary data sources including websites and other documents such as the IRS Form 990, Department of the Treasury Internal Revenue Service Return of Organization Exempt from Income Tax Under section 501(c) and other reports related to organizational activities were reviewed to supplement the respondents' answers to the survey questionnaire.

Once the preliminary survey results were received by the researcher, she then conducted the telephonic and personal interviews with the NGO headquarter personnel.

Participating field office directors have not been identified by name in any written documents related to this study. The only identifying characteristic was if the field office identified the host country site. Seven of the eight respondents identified the host country site. Any quotations that will be reproduced in the results and analysis chapter for this study will not identify the individual who is the source of the quotation by host country or headquarter designee. All electronic data have been stored on the researcher's home computer. All field notes and any other paperwork have been stored in a secured filing cabinet in the researcher's home office.

Summary of Chapter Three

The researcher conducted a univariate analysis to look at field office responses as well as bivariate chi square analysis also considering the produced Gamma statistic for measures of significance and association. The causal model for success looks at issues relating to training, management and program outcomes and impacts in the field not prescribed by the headquarters. The developed causal model does not look at traditional programmatic, fiscal and input or output performance measures which are the traditional model for performance management and evaluating success within the nonprofit and nongovernmental organization communities.

A case study method using a two-site design (Yin, 2009) afford for maximizing the study's internal validity. Secondary sources were also used with the data collection to provide for some richness in detailing the two sites studied – South and Central America locations.

This study looks at NGO field office success based on closeness or distance to elements of host country culture. It should be noted for the purposes of this study that the work is not a study of the particular elements associated with host country culture as described by Hofstede (1980); rather, the host country culture of the responding field offices has been captured in the survey questionnaire.

This is a case study relating to organizational management and successes in the field not a study of the impacts of anthropological culture and particular

environmental influences on the NGO. This study will allow for further work to be developed in this regard as will be shown in chapter four's discussion of data analysis and results.

Chapter 4

Results

Chapter four presents the results from the study methodology outlined in chapter three. The Nature Conservancy Latin America is located in sixteen countries in South and Central America. Nine country field office directors responded to the survey. The respondents self identified from the following countries: Belize, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Mexico, Honduras and Nicaragua, Venezuela, anonymous field office director and one Regional Latin America employee.

Each section will present the findings from the survey by the respondents to the questions posed in support of the research question. Open ended questions answered by The Nature Conservancy's Latin American Regional Operations Manager in consultation with the headquarters in Virginia will be presented regarding what constitutes success for the field office.

The research questions that this dissertation seeks to answer are listed below and repeated from chapter one.

First, how does the NGO headquarters define success for NGO field offices? What factors do they cite as causes of such success?

Second, how do field office directors characterize success for their offices? What do they believe causes success?

Third, how effectively do the causes of success derived from the literature including but not limited to organizational discipline to mission success,

operational systems, and organizational capacity at home and in the field, program outputs and more importantly sustainable program outcomes and impacts—predict success as defined in this dissertation?

The results begin with the answer to research question one relating to The Nature Conservancy's headquarters' definition of success. Analysis of the headquarters' definition of success was based on a documentary review of *Conservation by Design: A Framework for Mission Success* (2004) and open ended questions addressed to the Latin American Regional Operations Manager in consultation with The Nature Conservancy's headquarters in Virginia.

Headquarters' View of Mission Success

The Nature Conservancy in 2004 outlines its framework for mission success in a document titled, *Conservation by Design: A Framework for Mission Success*. This framework seeks to articulate the broad mission of the organization into a clearly articulate common purpose and roadmap for achieving success. The framework includes six points as follows: (1) articulating a clear vision; (2) setting a goal for 2015 that is ambitious in scope; (3) having an integrated approach for mission success; (4) outlining performance and program measures for monitoring and evaluation; and, (5) describing the values that define The Nature Conservancy.

The goal of this framework is to provide a shared understanding of what constitutes organizational success. The 2015 goal is that the organization will

conserve ten percent of every major habitat on earth. The framework notes that this goal is a provisional goal.

There are four components to the framework's key for achieving the 2015 goal. The components are as follows: (1) setting priorities through planning and assessment of ecological habitats; (2) developing strategies at differing scales to address priorities and global environmental threats; (3) taking direct action, and, (4) measuring success. The success measure listed in the framework is "[t]he monitoring process for assessing progress in abating threats and improving the biodiversity health of a conservation area" (*Conservation by Design*, 2004, p.4).

The success framework also addresses measures of organizational performance in addition to success measures for the impacts of the organization's conservation efforts. The framework states that "[t]hese organization-wide measures reflect our progress in implementing key strategies and programmatic initiatives, as well as gauging the Conservancy's ability to generate the resources to achieve overall success. There are five organizational measures listed for success, as follows: (1) number of locations in which the organization is directly engaged; (2) other areas where the organization is working towards conservation; (3) organizational members; (4) growth of private fundraising; and, (5) securing public funds for conservation.

The organization's values describe the success measure for organizational longevity and impact. Three of these values broadly encompass what this study seeks to consider in looking at mission success from the field. The seven

organizational values are as follows: (1) integrity beyond reproach, (2) continuity of purpose, (3) commitment to people, (4) effective partnerships, (5) innovation and excellence, (6) one conservancy, and (7) commitment to the future.

Values two through four address how the Conservancy seeks to work in a “cooperative, non-confrontational manner, emphasizing collaborative efforts and drawing on the best conservation science” (*Conservation by Design*, 2004, p.9). By being committed to the people, the Conservancy states that it will “respect the need of the local communities by developing ways to conserve biological diversity while at the same time enabling humans to live productively and sustainably. We know that lasting conservation success requires the active involvement of individuals from diverse backgrounds and beliefs, and we value the unique contributions that each person can make to our cause” (*Conservation by Design*, 2004, p.9). The third organizational value that impacts this research is the desire to forge effective local partnerships to further the mission.

Conservation by Design (2004) presents the big picture of the organization’s framework for success. This study specifically looks at a smaller sample of the Latin American Region of the Nature Conservancy. During the data collection process, this researcher asked for what the organization’s headquarters considered to be successful.

What is your definition of success for the field offices? “The Nature Conservancy strives to establish real and quantitative measures of Conservation

Success. Currently we calculate acres that have come under conservation due to TNC's collaborative work". (TNC HQ respondent)

Conservation by Design: A Framework for Success (2004) states that the organization is desirous of working in local communities cooperatively as partners. This study is particularly interested in whether a large organization based in the global north is attuned to local culture and hires first country nationals, employs expatriates or a combination of both. The study is also interested in whether the organization engages in any cross cultural training and communications guidance.

The Nature Conservancy's HQ respondent reported that the organization hired a mixture of expatriates and first country national's for the field staff noting that the majority of the field office hires are first country nationals. The organization looks for several key attributes for its field office director's to be successful. The respondent was asked: What do you look for in your field office director to be a successful manager of the organizational mission? "There are nine competencies that TNC expects its senior managers to possess or work towards strengthening: Collaboration and Teamwork; Courage and Decisiveness; Develops Strategic Partnerships; Influences for Results; Accountability for Outcomes; Builds Organizational Capacity; Focused Innovation; Strategic Initiative; and Visionary Leadership."

Training is made available to the field office directors. The headquarters' respondent stated the following when asked about access to training: "Each

operating unit is recommended but not required to budget 3% of an employee's annual salary for professional development. This could be in the form of internal or external courses and workshops, job shadowing with other employees, or other creative experiences as designed by the employee and supervisor". (TNC HQ Respondent).

This study is interested in whether place affects mission. Place will encompass the attributes of local culture and communities and the interaction with the international NGO in carrying out its core mission. It is noted in Conservation by Design (2004) that the organization seeks cooperative relationships with its partners. The study seeks to discover whether the organization would provide cross-cultural training to its field office directors in support of the collaborative community framework.

Are field office directors are given cultural training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service? Please describe the training, duration and materials used. Who facilitates the training? What is the background of that person?

"No - as most of the senior staff in each country are locals of that country, they don't receive a cultural training specific to that country. However, all employees go through an onboarding process to introduce them to the TNC organizational culture. The supervisor is responsible for coordinating (or delegating) the training/onboarding, and functional areas such as Finance, Operations and Legal offer specific trainings on internal processes. In the case of

newly hired senior staff in country, the person who was in the acting role before the person was hired would be responsible for coordinating specific conservation training and orientation to the projects occurring in-country”. (TNC HQ Respondent).

When designing field office programs and initiatives, it is absolutely critical to take into account local culture and customs. Please describe how you do this.

“One of TNC’s five (5) values is Respect for People, Communities and Cultures: Enduring conservation success depends on the active involvement of people and partners whose lives and livelihoods are linked to the natural systems we seek to conserve. We respect the needs, values and traditions of local communities and cultures, and we forge relationships based on mutual benefit and trust.

- Demonstrate respect by committing to local, on the ground involvement with people, communities and cultures, and with awareness and sensitivity to their economic realities.
- Treat our partners and colleagues with fairness and honesty.
- Work collaboratively with all sectors of society, including indigenous people, to develop practical conservation solutions”.

(TNC HQ Respondent).

The field office must operate in the context of local culture which does not appropriately share American values of efficiency, effectiveness, and hard work.

What are your policies for handling such situations? Can you give examples of situations where this may have hampered organizational mission success? What did you do in this situation? What could you have done differently? Have you found success to be defined in the field differently from the HQ perception? How so or how not? Please explain. How has this changed and/or shaped your organization over the years.

“The Conservancy strives to be a global organization and emphasizes our organizational culture over any one country’s cultural particularities. We are united by one mission and 5 core values, one of which is One Conservancy: Our strength and vitality lie in being one organization working together in local places and across borders to achieve our global mission. We value the collective and collaborative efforts that are so essential to our success.

- Work across all of our operations to implement and support the right strategies, at the right scales, and at the right places always with the greater good of our mission in mind.
- Act with continuity of purpose in everything we do, from the focus of our conservation efforts to the allocation of our resources.
- Celebrate individual, team and project success as the success of all who work for TNC”. (TNC HQ Respondent)

This study is also interested in learning whether the organization headquarters involved the field in setting goals and decision-making relating to

carrying out organizational mission which may or may not impact success in the field.

Does The Nature Conservancy HQ consistently involve key staff in critical decisions about field office policy and practice? Please describe how you do this? What are your policies?

“Critical conservation policy and procedure decisions that affect the entire organization are made at the HQ level with input from the Senior Manager level of the region. The input to the HQ does not come from field level staff, but rather from the Latin America Regional Director. He in turn may seek to consult with other Senior Managers that directly report to him such as the Latin America Director of Finance or the Latin America Director of Conservation”. (TNC HQ Respondent).

The Headquarters’ responses align with what *Conservation by Design: A Framework for Success* (2004) calls for in its success model. This framework in its organizational goal and attached values seeks to incorporate seven principles in which local communities are respected and view point incorporated through partnerships, other collaborations and the hiring of first country nationals for many of the country offices. Traditional measures of success including programmatic/conservation, fiscal and fundraising goals are also part of the organization’s mission success plan.

The Field Office Perspective

In this study, the research attempts to move beyond the goal statement of the NGOs headquarters. This study considers whether the organizational mission is carried out and attained from the perspective of the field office director from the sampled countries.

Table 1
Field Office Countries

N=9

Country

Brazil

Belize

Chile

Ecuador

Honduras and Nicaragua

Mexico

Venezuela

Latin American regional office

Not identified

The findings are presented in first in terms of univariate responses to the posed survey questions. Second, the findings are presented in terms of dimensions of comparison between the different field offices and the variation between responses. Finally, if appropriate, cross tabs with a chi square analysis have been run to see if there is any statistical significance within this sample of this case study of The Nature Conservancy, Latin America. The focus of this chapter is to present the results from the data. Chapter five will interpret the results and discuss avenues for future research in the field from this case study.

In this section, the results are grouped together to attempt to answer the second research question. How do field office directors characterize success for their offices? What do they believe causes success? Field officers did not reply in narrative form to what they believe was the cause of the field office success. The directors were provided a list of questions which they were to answer on a seven (7) point summated rated scale. There was an opportunity to answer an open ended question relating to field office success. None of the respondents provided a narrative answer to the open-ended question.

Variable: Adherence to Core Mission

Table 2 shows the prevalence of field office directors who adhere to the core mission of the studied NGO. The sample consisted of 9 respondents. Table 2 shows the frequencies and percentages for those directors who state that they scrupulously adhere to core mission. Approximately 55.6% of respondents strongly agree that they adhere to core mission while 44.4% of respondents state that they agree that they adhere to core mission. (sd = .527). See Table 2 below.

Table 2
Adherence to Core Mission

Question 1: As Director, I scrupulously adhere to the core mission of my agency as defined by headquarters.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	4	44.4%
Agree	5	55.6%

Variable: New Staff Training/Refresher Staff Training for Current Staff

Table 3 shows the prevalence of field office directors who adhere to the core mission of the studied NGO. The sample consisted of 9 respondents. Table 2 shows the frequencies and percentages for those directors who state that the organization provide new or refresher staff training in the field emphasizing the importance of the NGOs core mission as defined by headquarters. Eleven percent (11.1%) strongly disagreed that this training occurred, 11.1% slightly disagreed, 44.4% slightly agreed while 22.2% agreed that they received new or refresher training or the NGOs core mission. There is more variation in the percentages of responses regarding whether training occurs on core mission as defined by NGO headquarters. However, 66.6% agree or slightly agree that there is mission related training. (sd =2.179). See Table 3 below.

Table 3
Field Office Staff Training on Core Mission

Question 2: My field office conducts initial training for new staff and refresher training for all staff that emphasizes the importance of the core mission of my agency as defined by headquarters.

	Frequency	Percent
Slightly Agree	4	44.4%
Agree	2	22.2%
Slightly Disagree	1	11.1%
Strongly Disagree	1	11.1%
No Response	1	11.1%

Variable: Performance Data Related Programmatic Mission Success

This variable shows field office directors' responses to consider whether the NGO collects explicit data on performance related to programmatic mission success. Eleven percent (11.1%) strongly agree that this type of data is collected. Equally 11.1% disagree that this type of data is collected. Twenty –two percent (22.2%) neither agreed nor disagreed while 11.1% declined to answer. Twenty – two percent (22.2%) agreed that this type of data was collected and 22.2% slightly agreed. These statistics describe that of the 9 field office directors, 55.5% perceive that the NGO collects data related to programmatic mission success. (sd = 2.179). See Table 4 below.

Table 4
Collection of Performance Data

Question 3: My field office collects explicit data on office and program mission-related performance.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	1	11.1%
Slightly Agree	2	22.2%
Agree	2	22.2%
Neither A or D	2	22.2%
Disagree	1	11.1%
No Response	1	11.1%

Variable: Review of Performance Data for Goal Achievement

Table 5 considers whether the field office formally reviews performance data as a basis for improving levels of goal achievement. Eleven percent (11.1%) strongly agreed, 22.2% slightly agreed and 22.2% agreed that the field office reviewed performance data to change or improve goals. Eleven percent (11.1%) neither agreed nor disagreed while 11.1% of respondents declined to answer. Overall, 55.5% more than slightly agreed that performance data is used to change or improve organization goals. (sd=1.773). See Table 5 below.

Table 5
Performance Data Related Goal Achievement

Question 4: My field office formally reviews data on performance as a basis for improving our levels of goal achievement.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	1	11.1%
Slightly Agree	2	22.2%
Agree	2	22.2%
Neither A or D	1	11.1%
Disagree	1	11.1%
No Response	1	11.1%

Variable: Field Office Review of Annual Strategic Plan

Table 6 considers the question of whether the field office reviewed the annual strategic plan for change and improvement. Thirty-three and one-third percent (33.3%) of respondents strongly agreed with this statement and 22.2% agreed that the field office was engaged in this type of review. Eleven percent (11.1%) neither agreed nor disagreed while 22.2% of respondents disagreed. Overall, 55.5% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that the field office was engaged in review of the annual strategic plan. (sd =2.167). See Table 6 below.

Table 6
Review of Strategic Plan

Question 5: My field office generates and regularly reviews (for change and improvement) an annual strategic plan.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	3	33.3%
Agree	2	22.2%
Neither A or D	1	11.1%
Disagree	2	22.2%

Variable: NGO promotes creation of partnership with local government

Table 7 considers whether field office directors promote the creation of partnerships with local government to allow for goal achievement. Thirty –three and one-third percent (33.3%) strongly agreed and 55.5% agreed that the

organization promoted the creation of local government partnerships, 11.1% of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed. (sd =.928). See Table 7 below.

Table 7
Promotion of Partnerships with Local Governments

Question 6: As Director I promote creation of partnerships with local government designed to improve our goal achievement.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	3	33.3%
Agree	5	55.6%
Neither A or D	1	11.1%

Variable: Feedback Sought from Local Government Officials for In-Country Effectiveness

This variable considers whether the NGO seeks feedback from the local governments in the host country in which it works in order to promote effectiveness in carrying out mission. Eleven percent (11.1%) of respondents strongly agrees while 11.1% agree and 22.2% slightly agree. Twenty-two percent (22.2%) of respondents neither agree nor disagree while 11.1% slightly disagree and 22.2 disagree. Overall, 44.4% of Respondents at least slightly agreed or more while 33.3% of respondents slightly disagree that the NGO seeks feedback from local government, 22.2% had no opinion. (sd=1.716). See Table 8 below.

Table 8
Feedback from Local Governments

Question 7: As a Director, I actively seek feedback from local government officials on our performance and ways to enhance our in-country effectiveness.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	1	11.1%
Slightly Agree	2	22.2%
Agree	1	11.1%
Neither A or D	2	22.2%
Slightly Disagree	1	11.1%
Disagree	2	22.2%

Variable: Studied NGO Partners with other NGO to Promote Goal Achievement

This variable considers whether the studied NGO partners with other NGOs in order to achieve goal. Forty-four percent (44.4%) of respondents strongly agreed that this occurs, 11.1% agree and 11.1% slightly agree. 22.2% of respondents neither agree nor disagree that partnerships are formed and 11.1% disagree that partnerships are formed to further goal achievement. (sd= 1.810). See Table 9 below.

Table 9
Partnerships with other NGOs

Question 8: As Director, I promote creation of partnerships with other INGOs operating locally to increase the probability of achieving my field office goals.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	4	44.4%
Agree	1	11.1%
Slightly Agree	1	11.1%
Neither A or D	2	22.2%
Disagree	1	11.1%

Variable: Tension between Mission and Operational Accountability between HQ and the Field Office

This variable considers whether the NGO headquarters and the field office director experience tensions between mission and organizational accountability in performing the work of the NGO. 11.1% of respondents answered each in the following categories, strongly agree, slightly agree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly disagree, disagree or strongly disagree to the issue of tension. Thirty-three and one-third percent (33.3%) of respondents feel that there is no tension between the field and the Headquarters between mission and operational accountability. (sd= 2.068). See Table 10 below.

Table 10
Tension between the NGO Headquarters and Field Office

Question 9: I feel that there is no tension about mission and operational accountability between my field office and the home office.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	1	11.1%
Slightly Agree	1	11.1%
Agree	3	33.3%
Neither A or D	1	11.1%
Slightly Disagree	1	11.1%
Disagree	1	11.1%

Variable: Field Office Director Independence in Work

This variable looks at the independence of the Field Office Director in terms of defining strategy and tactics while allowing for mistakes to be made without worrying about consequences from the NGO headquarters. Thirty-three and one-third (33.3%) strongly agreed that this is the case and 22.2% slightly agreed. Eleven percent (11.1%) neither agreed nor disagreed. Eleven percent (11.1%) slightly disagreed and 22.2% disagreed that this is the case. (sd = 2.062). See Table 11 below.

Table 11
Field Office Directors Ability to Act Independently of NGO HQ

Question 10: I can define field office strategy and tactics, even sometimes make mistakes while trying to be creative, without worrying about consequences or interference by the home office.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	3	33.3%
Slightly Agree	2	22.2%
Neither A or D	1	11.1%
Slightly Disagree	1	11.1%
Disagree	2	22.2%

Variable: Field Office Directors receive Cross Cultural Training for Host Country

This variable looks at whether Field Office Directors receive training from the NGO in the host country culture. There were seven respondents to this question. Twenty-two percent (22.2%) of respondents did not answer the question. Eleven percent (11.1%) agreed that there was training. Twenty-two percent (22.2%) neither agreed nor disagreed. Thirty-three and one-third percent (33.3%) disagreed that this type of training was provided while 11.1% slightly disagreed with this variable. (sd = 1.732). See Table 12 below.

Table 12

Variable: Field Office Directors Provided with Cross-Cultural Training for Host Country

Question 11: Field Office Directors are given EFFECTIVE cultural training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service.

	Frequency	Percent
Agree	1	11.1%
Neither A or D	2	22.2%
Disagree	3	33.3%
Strongly Disagree	1	11.1%
No Response	2	22.2%

Variable: Staff is Provided with Cross-Cultural Training for Host Country

This variable looks at whether NGO staff receives cross-cultural training from the NGO in the host country culture. Twenty-two percent (22.2%) of respondents declined to answer this question, 22.2% neither agreed nor disagreed. Thirty-three percent (33.3%) of respondents disagreed that staff received cross-cultural training about the host country culture while 11.1% strongly disagreed. (sd = 1.464). See Table 13 below.

Table 13
Staff Cross-Cultural Training

Question 12: Field Office Staff are given EFFECTIVE cultural training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	1	11.1%
Disagree	3	33.3%
Neither A or D	2	22.2%
No Response	2	22.2%

Variable: Field Office Directors are given Communication Training for Host Country

This variable asks whether Field Office Directors are given effective communications training or refresher courses relating to communicating with others in the host country. Eleven percent (11.1%) of directors agreed, 11.1% of directors slightly agreed while 11.1% neither agreed nor disagreed, 33.3% of directors disagreed that they received this training compared to 11.1% who strongly disagreed. (sd = 1.464). See Table 14 below.

Table 14
Communications Training to Field Office Directors

Question 13: Field Office Directors are given EFFECTIVE communications training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service.

	Frequency	Percent
Agree	1	11.1%
Slightly Agree	1	11.1%
Neither A or D	1	11.1%
Disagree	3	33.3%
Strongly Disagree	1	11.1%

Variable: NGO Staff are given Communication Training for Host Country

This variable considers whether the staff of the NGO field office receives effective communications training for the host country. Twenty-two percent (22.2%) of respondents did not answer this question. Eleven percent (11.1%) slightly agreed that staff received communications training while 22.2% neither agreed nor disagreed. 11.1% disagreed and 11.1% of respondents strongly disagreed that NGO staff in the field office received this training. (sd=1.864). See Table 15 below.

Table 15
Communications Training to NGO Staff

Question 14: Field Office Staff are given EFFECTIVE communications training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service.

	Frequency	Percent
Slightly Agree	1	11.1%
Neither A or D	1	11.1%
Disagree	3	33.3%
Strongly Disagree	1	11.1%
No Response	2	22.2%

Variable: Field Office Director Involves Key Staff in Decision Making

This variable considers whether the field office director is involved in critical decision making surrounding the field office’s policy and practices. Twenty –two and a quarter (22.25%) percent of respondents strongly agreed while 33.3% agreed that they were involved in decision-making practices. Twenty two percent (22.2%) disagreed stating that they were not involved in critical decision-making in the field office. (sd = 1.704). See Table 16 below.

Table 16
Field Office Directors Involved in Key Decisions

Question 15: As Director, I consistently involve key staff in critical decisions about field office policy and practice.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	2	22.2%
Agree	3	33.3%
Disagree	2	22.2%

Variable: Field Office Operates in the Context of the Local Culture When Designing Programs

This variable considers whether the NGO accounts for local culture and customs designing field office programs and initiatives. Seventy-eight percent (77.8%) of respondents strongly agreed with this statement while 22.2% agreed. (sd = .441). See Table 17 below.

Table 17
Local Culture is considered when Designing the NGO Program

Question 16: When designing field office programs and initiatives, it is absolutely critical to take into account local culture and customs.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	7	77.8%
Agree	2	22.2%

Variable: Field Office Operates in the Context of the Local Culture When Performing Field Office Business

This variable asks whether the NGO operates within the local culture paradigm versus an Anglo-American perspective when conducting the business of the organization. Eleven percent (11.1%)of respondents strongly agree, 11.1% of respondents agree and 11.15 of respondents slightly agree that business is conducted within the paradigm of the local culture. Twenty-two percent (22.2%) neither agree nor disagree. Eleven percent (11.1%) of respondents disagrees and 11.1% of respondents slightly disagree that the NGO operates in the context of the local culture while doing business. (sd =2.116). See Table 18 below.

Table 18
Local Culture rather than Anglo-American Culture is Adopted for Business Practices in the Field

Question 17: The field office must operate in the context of local culture which does not appropriately share American values of efficiency, effectiveness and hard work.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	1	11.1%
Agree	1	11.1%
Slightly Agree	1	11.1%
Neither A or D	2	22.2%
Disagree	1	11.1%
Strongly Disagree	1	11.1%

Variable: Sufficiency of Resources Does Not Exceed Scope of Work

This variable looks at whether the field office has sufficient resources to carry out the work of the organization. In other words, the question asks whether the scope of work exceeds the resources given to the NGO. Thirty three and one-third percent (33.3%) of respondents strongly agree that the scope of work exceeds the resources. Fifty-five and one-half percent (55.5%) agree that the scope of work exceeds the resources while 11.1% neither agrees nor disagrees with this statement. (sd =.928). See Table 19 below.

Table 19
Sufficient Resources to Perform Work in the Field Office

Question 18: The scope of responsibility and work for the field office greatly exceeds the resources made available to the field office.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	3	33.3%
Agree	5	55.5%
Neither A or D	1	11.1%

Variable: Organizational Culture embraces collaboration and teamwork

This variable looks to the organizational environment in which the field office operates. Twenty-two percent (22.2%) strongly agree and 44.4% agree that the field office embraces collaboration and team work. Eleven percent (11.1%) slightly disagree while 11.1% strongly disagree and 11.1% did not agree or disagree with this statement. (sd = 1.871). See Table 20 below.

Table 20
Positive Organizational Culture

Question 19: The organizational culture of this field office strongly emphasizes staff team work and collective problem solving.

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	2	22.2%
Agree	4	44.4%
Neither A or D	1	11.1%
Slightly Disagree	1	11.1%
Strongly Disagree	1	11.1%

Variable: Headquarters' Supports Field Office

This variable considers whether the NGO headquarters supports the field office director in his or her managerial and strategic initiatives for the field office. Eleven percent (11.1%) strongly agree, 33.3% agree and 11.1% slightly agree that they receive this type of support from the NGO headquarters. Twenty-two percent (22.2%) of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed while 11.1% slightly disagreed and 11.11% strongly disagreed that they were fully supported in their managerial and strategic initiatives for the field office. (sd = 1.871). See Table 21 below.

Table 21
NGO HQ Supports Field Office Managerial and Strategic initiatives.

Question 20: As Director, I believe that the home office management is fully supportive of my managerial and strategic initiatives for the field office.		
	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	1	11.1%
Agree	3	33.3%
Slightly Agree	1	11.1%
Neither A or D	2	22.2%
Slightly Disagree	1	11.1%
Strong Disagree	1	11.1%

Bivariate Predictors of Mission Success

Several chi square tests were run comparing one variable to the other in support of the second research question to determine if one variable would make a statistically significant impact on the other.

Table 22 hypothesizes that NGO headquarters (“HQ”) support would predict perception of sufficient resources to support the scope of work. A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between the perception that the scope of work exceeded resources and perceived support from the NGO’s HQ. The relation between these variables is not significant, $\chi^2(2, N =$

9) = 9.4, $p > 0.05$. In this study there is no evidence that perception of support from the NGO HQ had an impact on whether resources extended the scope of work and amount of work performed in the field.

The Gamma value of -1.0 indicates a negative relationship between perception of HQ support and the belief that the scope of field office work exceeds the resources available. That is, the higher the perception of support, the lower the belief that scope exceeds resources. The high magnitude of the statistic tells us that knowing perception of HQ office support allows us to perfectly predict the field office director perception that scope of work exceeds resources. See Table 22 below.

Table 22
Field Office Scope of Work Does not Exceed Resources* Support from HQ
N=9

			HQ Supports Field Office Director with Resources to Support Scope of Work					
			Str. Disagree	Sl Disagree	Not A nor D	Sl. Agree	Agree	Str. Agree
Scope exceeds resources	Neither A nor D	Count	0	0	1	0	0	0
		% of HQ that support	.0%	.0%	50%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Agree	Count	0	1	1	0	2	1
		% of HQ that supports me	.0%	100%	50%	0%	66.7%	100%
Str. Agree	Count	1	0	0	1	1	0	
	% of HQ that supports me	100.0%	.0%	.0%	100%	33.3%	.0%	

Table 23 hypothesizes that the field office would feel supported by the NGO HQ when there was support for the field office staff to be involved in decision-making. A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between the perception that the scope of work exceeded resources and perceived support from the NGOs HQ. The relation between these variables is not

significant, $\chi^2(2, N = 9) = 6.8, p > .05$. In this study there is no evidence that perception of support from the NGO HQ had an impact on whether the field office allowed staff to be involved in decision-making.

The Gamma value of 1.0 indicates a positive relationship between perception of HQ support and the belief that the scope of field office work exceeds the resources available. That is, the higher the perception of support, the higher the belief that it is important for field office staff to be involved in decision-making. The high magnitude of the statistic tells us that knowing perception of HQ office support allows us to perfectly predict the field office director perception that allowing field staff to be involved in decision-making is desired. See Table 23 below.

Table 23
Field Staff Involved in Decision Making*Support from HQ
N=9

			Field staff involved in decision-making supported by HQ					
			Str. Disagree	Slg. Disagree	Not A or D	Sl. Agree	Agree	Str. Agree
Involve staff in decisions	Dis.	Count	1	0	1	0	0	0
		% of HQ support	100%	.0%	50.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Agree	Count	0	1	1	0	1	0
		% of HQ support	.0%	100%	50%	.0%	33.3%	.0%
	Str. Agree	Count	0	0	0	1	2	1
		% of HQ support	.0%	.0%	.0%	100%	66.7%	100%

Table 24 hypothesizes that the field office would feel supported by the NGO HQ when there was support for the field office director to be independent and allowed to be creative, make mistakes without retribution and generally be allowed to work in the field to extend the mission of the NGO. A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between the perception that the scope of work exceeded resources and perceived support from the NGOs HQ. The relation between these variables is not significant, $X^2(2, N = 9) = 22.0 p > .05$. In this study there is no evidence that perception of support from the NGO HQ had an impact on whether the field office director's independence in management is supported by the NGO HQ.

The Gamma value of 1.0 indicates a positive relationship between perception of HQ support and the belief that the scope of field office work exceeds the resources available. That is, the higher the perception of support, the higher the belief that it is the field office director is allowed to make independent decisions and mistakes in the field while extending the NGOs mission. The high magnitude of the statistic tells us that knowing perception of HQ office support allows us to perfectly predict the field office director's who are allowed to exercise independent judgment in critical areas in the field perceive that they are supported by the HQ. See Table 24 below.

Table 24
Field Office Director Independence*Support from HQ
N=9

			Field Director independence supported by HQ					
			Str. Disagree	Slg. Disagree	Not A or D	Sl. Agree	Agree	Str. Agree
Involve staff in decisions	Dis.	Count	1	1	0	0	0	0
		% of HQ support	100%	100%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Sl. Disagree	Count	0	0	1	0	0	0
		% of HQ support	.0%	.0%	50%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Not A Or D	Count	0	0	1	0	0	0
		% of HQ support	.0%	.0%	50%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Sl. Agree	Count	0	0	0	1	0	2
		% of HQ support	.0%	.0%	.0%	33.3%	.0%	22.2%
	Str. Agree	Count	0	0	0	0	2	1
		% of HQ support	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	66.7%	100%

Table 25 hypothesizes that the field office would feel supported by the NGO HQ when there was not a lot of perceived tension between the field office and the HQ in terms of carrying out the mission of the NGO. A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between the perception that the scope of work exceeded resources and perceived support from the NGOs HQ. The relation between these variables is not significant, $\chi^2 (2, N = 9) = 37.0$ $p > 0.05$. In this study there is no evidence that perception of support from the NGO HQ had anything to do with perceived tensions when the field was managing itself.

The Gamma value of 0.73 indicates a positive relationship between perception of HQ support and the belief that the field making management and performance decisions would decrease tensions with HQ and be perceived as support from the NGO HQ.

That is, the higher the perception of support, the higher the belief that it is the field office director is to develop goals based on the performance of the field. The high magnitude of the statistic tells us that knowing perception of HQ office support allows us to predict the field office director management styles and tensions with the NGO HQ 73% of the time. See Table 25 below.

Table 25

Tension between the Field Office and the HQ * Support from HQ

N=9

			Home Field Tension*HQ Supports Field					
N=9			Str. Disagre e	Slg. Disagre e	Not A or D	Sl. Agre e	Agree	Str. Agre e
Tension between HQ and Field	Str. Dis.	Count % of HQ suppor t	1 100%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
	Disagre e	Count % of HQ suppor t	0 .0%	0 .0%	1 50 %	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
	Sl. Disagre e	Count % of HQ suppor t	0 .0%	0 .0%	1 50 %	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%
	Not A Or D	Count % of HQ suppor t	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	1 100%	0 .0%	0 .0%
	Sl. Agree	Count % of HQ suppor t	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	0 .0%	1 33.3 %	0 .0%

Agree	Count	0	1	0	0	2	0
	% of HQ support	.0%	100%	.0%	.0%	66.7%	.0%
Str. Agree	Count	0	0	0	0	0	1
	% of HQ support	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	100%

Table 26 hypothesizes that the field office would feel supported by the NGO HQ when the field office was allow to critically review the strategic plan and provide feedback for change and/or implementation strategies. A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between the perception that the scope of work exceeded resources and perceived support from the NGOs HQ. The relation between these variables is not significant, $X^2(2, N = 8) = 20.6 p > .05$.

In this study there is no evidence that perception of support from the NGO HQ when the field office had a say in the implementation and or change related strategies to the strategic plan in the field.

The Gamma value of 0.63 indicates a positive relationship between perception of HQ support and the belief that the field office is involved in the critical review and feedback for change and/or implementation of the strategic

plan. That is, the higher the perception of support, the higher the belief that it is the field office director is allowed to make independent decisions and mistakes in the field while extending the NGOs mission. The high magnitude of the statistic tells us that knowing perception of HQ office support allows us to predict the field office director perception that allowing field staff to be involved the critical review of the strategic plan and provide feedback regarding change and adjustment is supported by the HQ, 63% of the time. See Table 26 below.

Table 26
Field Office Annual Review of Strategic Plan*Support from HQ
N=8

		Field office review strategic plan						
			Str. Disagree	Slg. Disagree	Not A or D	Sl. Agree	Agree	Str. Agree
Field Office Reviews Strategic Plan	Dis.	Count	1	0	0	0	1	0
		% of HQ support	100%	.0%	.0%	.0%	50%	.0%
	Neither Agree or Disagree	Count	0	1	0	0	0	0
		% of HQ support	.0%	100%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Agree	Count	0	2	0	1	1	1
		% of HQ support	.0%	100%	.0%	100%	50%	100%

Str. Agree	Count	0	0	0	1	0	0
	% of HQ support	.0%	.0%	.0%	100%	.0%	.0%

Table 27 hypothesizes that the field office would feel supported by the NGO HQ when the field office formerly reviews data on levels of performance as a basis for improving levels of goal achievement and the NGO HQ would incorporate this data. A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between the perception that the scope of work exceeded resources and perceived support from the NGOs HQ. The relation between these variables is not significant, $X^2(2, N = 8) = 26.6 p > .05$.

In this study there is no evidence that perception of support from the NGO HQ had an interest in using performance as a basis for goal achievement. The Gamma value of 0.74 indicates a positive relationship between perception of HQ support and the belief that the field office use of performance data to develop benchmarks for goal achievement is supported by the NGO HQ. That is, the higher the perception of support, the higher the belief that it is the field office director is allowed to develop goals based on performance in the field as supported by the NGO HQ. The high magnitude of the statistic tells us that knowing perception of HQ office support allows us to predict the field office director perception that allowing field to develop goals based on performance is supported by the HQ, 74% of the time. See Table 27 below.

Table 27
 HQ use of Goal Data to Support Field *Support from HQ
 N=8

			Field office use of goal data					
			Str. Disagree	Slg. Disagree	Not A or D	Sl. Agree	Agree	Str. Agree
Field office use of goal data supported by HQ	Dis.	Count	1	0	0	0	0	0
		% of HQ support	100%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Neither Agree or Disagree	Count	0	1	0	0	0	0
		% of HQ support	.0%	100%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Sl. Agree	Count	0	0	0	0	1	0
		% of HQ support	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	50%	.0%
	Agree	Count	0	0	2	0	0	0
		% of HQ support	.0%	.0%	100%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Str. Agree	Count	0	0	0	1	1	1
		% of HQ support	.0%	.0%	.0%	100%	50%	100%

Table 28 hypothesizes that the field office would feel supported by the NGO HQ when the field office formerly reviews data on levels of performance and the NGO HQ would incorporate this data. A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between the perception that the scope of work exceeded resources and perceived support from the NGOs HQ. The relation between these variables is not significant, $X^2(2, N = 8) = 33.3 p > .05$. In this study there is no evidence that perception of support from the NGO HQ had an impact on whether the field office to use performance data for goal achievement has the support of the NGO HQ.

The Gamma value of 0.24 indicates a positive relationship between perception of HQ support and the belief that the field office use of performance feedback is supported by the NGO HQ. That is, the higher the perception of support, the higher the belief that it the field office by seeking feedback on performance data for goal achievement.

The high magnitude of the statistic tells us that knowing perception of HQ office support allows us to predict the field office director perception that allowing field to manage field office performance including feedback is supported by the HQ, 24 % of the time. See Table 28 below.

Table 28

HQ use of Performance Data*Support from HQ

N=8

Field office use of performance data supported by HQ

N=8			Str. Disagree	Slg. Disagree	Not A or D	Sl. Agree	Agree	Str. Agree
Field Office Use of Performance Data	0	Count % of HQ support	0	0	0	0	0	1
			.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	100%
	Disagree	Count % of HQ support	1	0	0	0	0	0
			100%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Neither Agree or Disagree	Count % of HQ support	0	0	0	0	1	0
			.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	33%	.0%
	Sl. Agree	Count % of HQ support	0	0	2	0	0	0
			.0%	.0%	100%	.0%	.0%	.0%
	Agree	Count % of HQ support	0	0	0	1	1	0
			.0%	.0%	.0%	100%	33%	.0%
	Str. Agree	Count % of HQ support	0	0	0	0	1	0
			.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	33%	.0%

Table 29 hypothesizes that the field office would feel supported by the NGO HQ when the field office scrupulously adheres to the NGO core mission. A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between the perception that the scope of work exceeded resources and perceived support from the NGOs HQ. The relation between these variables is not significant, $X^2 (2, N = 8) = 6.9 p > .05$. In this study there is no evidence that perception of support from the NGO HQ had an impact on whether the field office seeks feedback from other constituencies for performance has the support of the NGO HQ.

The Gamma value of 0.90 indicates a positive relationship between perception of HQ support and when the field office scrupulously adheres to the NGO core mission. That is, the higher the perception of support, the higher the belief that it the field office by adhering to core mission is supported by the NGO HQ. The high magnitude of the statistic tells us that knowing perception of HQ office support allows us to predict when the field office adheres to the NGO core mission that they are perceived as supported by the HQ, 90% of the time. See Table 29 below.

Table29
Field Adheres to NGO Mission* Support from HQ
N=9

			Field adheres to core mission supported by HQ					
N=8			Str. Disagree	Slg. Disagree	Not A or D	Sl. Agree	Agree	Str. Agree
Field Adheres Core Mission	Agree	Count	1	1	1	1	0	0
		% of HQ support	100%	100%	50%	100%	.0%	.0%
	Str. Agree	Count	0	0	1	0	3	1
		% of HQ support	.0%	.0%	50%	.0%	100%	100%

There was no statistically significant relationship between HQ use of field office adherence to core mission and feeling supported by the HQ. (chi squared = 26.6., df =20, p>.05).

It is further noted that when we examine the expected and observed frequencies that we are dealing with a small sample size in this case study of The Nature Conservancy/Latin America. Caution is urged when interpreting relationships found in any statistical analysis. We often desire to "explain" or conclude "causality" from analyses and data not designed or that do not have the power to support such conclusions. These above described findings may be totally independent factors that have no other relationship to overall mission success in

the field office other than to describe what is perceived by these field office directors as an event which occurs in their field office allowing for them to successfully carry out organizational mission.

Summary of Chapter Four

Chapter four summarizes the results of the research design outlined in chapter three, methodology. This chapter first looks at the overall guide for mission success for The Nature conservancy through its publication titled. *Conservation by Design: A Framework for Success* (2004). This document sets for the conservation and the organizational goals that The Nature Conservancy has set for itself to and through 2015.

Next this chapter summarizes the narrative from the open ended questions posed to senior staff members from The Nature Conservancy at the US Headquarters as well as the Latin American Headquarters.

In the context of mission success as perceived by the headquarters through documentary and narrative answers, field office directors are then surveyed through a series of questions on a summated rating scale. There were nine respondents to this survey from the total of sixteen organizational offices in Latin America. In review of the bivariate analysis, often only eight (8) rather than nine (9) respondents answered. There is not much variance in the responses nor do the chi square tests reveal statistical significance. However, with this being said and noting that this research is a case study, chapter five will presents findings and conclusions to the posed research questions. Chapter five will also present options for future research this field.

Chapter 5 Findings and Conclusion

This dissertation examined the factors related to the success of the field offices for the Latin American Region of The Nature Conservancy, headquartered in Arlington, Virginia with regional Latin American headquarters in Brazil. This exploratory research sought to document the perceptions of nine (9) Field Office Directors in the Latin American region surrounding mission success of the NGO in the field.

For purposes of this study, field office success was not defined by a matrix set forth by the NGO headquarters in terms of how well or poorly it reached self-defined goals. The measure of success developed for this study is a multi-dimensional concept measured relative to host country culture which considered cross-cultural training, inter-cultural communication, managerial style, responsiveness to local culture, and participation and openness to working with local host country governments and other NGOs in the area to achieve organizational mission success. The success measurement relating to host country culture is documented through field office director's self reporting.

The success measurement was developed from the literature relating to cross cultural management, organizational behavior, program evaluation, nonprofit management, social entrepreneurship, and comparative public administration (Adler, 2002, 1986, 1983; Aimar & Stough, 2007; Anheier, 2000; Appe, 2010; Bartlett, Lawler, Bae, Chen & Wan, 2002; Bennet, 1986; Bhawuk, 1998; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Brislin & Bhawuk, 1999; Casimir & Waldman,

2007; Collard, 2007; Collins, 2005, 2001; Covey, 2005; Dees, 2003, 1998; den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz Quintanilla, 1999; Dickson, denHartog & Mitchelson, 2003; Dichter, 1999; Edwards, 1999, 1997, 1996; Edwards & Hulme, 1996; Etzioni, 1973; Fink & Maryhofer, 2009; Fink, Neyer & Kolling, 2006; Florini, 2000; Fowler, 1997; Gannon, 2001; Gudykunst & Kim, 2003; Hammer, Gudykunst & Wiseman, 1978; Hofstede, 1980, 1994, 1993, 1980; Hofstede & McCrae, 2004; Jaeger & Beyes, 2010; Lee & Croker, 2006; Lee, 2010; Lewis, 2001; Light, 2004; Matviuk, 2007; McSweeney, 2002; Mukasa, 1999; Nahavandi, 2008; Phillips, 2005; Punnet; 2004, Sawang, Tian & Goh, 2006; Smith, 2002; Suzuki, 1997; Triandis, 2006, 2004; Trompenaars, 2006; Tsui, Sishil, Nifadkar & Ou, 2007; Walumba, Lawler & Avolio, 2007; and, Zhu, Nel, & Bhat, 2006).

Fisher (1998) states “whether governments cooperate on an ad hoc or systematic basis with NGOs, they are generally unwilling or unable to take up-front research on NGO projects to find out who is doing what where, much less evaluate the success or failure in relation to possible field collaboration” (p.46).

The literature explains that NGOs, unlike private management, have multiple stakeholders (i.e., multiple principles) thus causing there to be confusion in terms of evaluation and accountability (Anheier, 2000; Charlton & May, 1995; Cousins & Earl, 1992; Edwards, 1999; Edwards & Hulme, 1996; Fowler, 1997; Jager & Beyes, 2010; Jordan & Van Tuijil, 2006; Lewis, 2005, 2001; Lindenberg

& Bryant, 2001; Ossewarde, Nijhof & Heyse, 2008; Phills, 2005; Salamon & Anheier, 1997; Salm, 1999; and, Tandon, 1997, 1996).

The goal of this study is theoretical although there may be practical implications for practitioners who work for and with international non-governmental organizations. The chapter will close with a discussion of what these key findings may mean for future research in the area. The literature in this field has stated that there is a need for cross-cultural research in the study of NGOs. Most of the literature has been theoretical rather than empirical without developing an empirical model for measuring success (Al-Yahya et al. 2004; Fisher, 1998; Jaeger & Kanugo, 1990; Kiggundu, 1999; Lewis, 2001; and, Sandberg, 1994).

This exploratory study has sought to develop such a model for future research in the area given the size and scope of the work being conducted by international NGOs from issues surrounding conservation, other environmental concerns such as clean water, HIV and AIDS reduction, and other catastrophic health concerns, disaster relief, infrastructure needs, poverty reduction, democracy building, protection of girls and women, and a myriad of other problems facing our world today.

The chapter will close with a discussion of what these key findings may mean for future research in the area. The literature in this field has stated that there is a need for cross-cultural research in the study of international NGOs.

Findings

Research Question 1: The NGO headquarters definition of success for NGO field offices.

In order to look at mission success from the perspective of the field office it is important to first look at what the NGO considers to be its measurement for mission success. The answers to these questions came from responses from senior staff employed with The Nature Conservancy at its United States headquarters in Virginia and its Latin American headquarters in Brazil. Additionally, the NGO's success model is also outlined in the publication titled: *Conservation by Design: A Framework for Success* (2004).

Key Finding 1: Standards set by "Conservation by Design".

This document lists both conservation and organizational objectives for The Nature Conservancy for mission success. For the purpose of this study, the focus is not on conservation success goals; rather, on organizational success goals. The framework lists out seven values as indispensable to unify the mission and vision for The Nature Conservancy. The goals are listed as follows: (1) integrity beyond reproach, (2) continuity of purposes, (3) commitment to people, (4) effective partnerships, (5) innovation and excellence, (6) one conservancy, and, (7) commitment to the future (McCormick, 2004, p.9).

For purpose of this study four of these values are important. Value statement one, integrity beyond reproach suggests that trust and responsibility is a key component for organizational success. Value statement two suggests that The

Nature Conservancy seeks to “work in a cooperative, non-confrontational manner, emphasizing collaborative efforts...” (McCormick, 2004, p.9). These two values are important to this study as trust and responsible actions in foreign host countries may be paramount for the organization’s mission success. Hostile governments or lack of trust may halt an NGO in completing its social mission in the host country (Edwards & Hulme, 1998; Florini, 2000; Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001; and, Silova & Steimer-Khamsi, 2008).

Value statement three, commitment to people, suggests that the NGO will respect the needs of local people and recognizes that in order for conservation to be successful that there will be diverse actors involved. Finally, value statement four, effective partners, suggests that the NGO is committed to forging public and private partnerships. This value statement does not reference local communities as in value statement three. The survey questionnaire administered to the field office directors asked them to evaluate how the NGO promotes and creates relationships with local governments in the host country and other NGOs with similar goals to foster the mission of The Nature Conservancy in Latin America.

Importantly, *Conservation by Design: A Framework for Success* (2004) sets the tone for how the NGO seeks to carry out its mission internationally with integrity, respect, cooperation, and collaboration. Given that the western models for effectiveness and efficiency often collide with host country cultures in carrying out the purpose of the organizational ventures, lofty missions may often collide with reality (Adler, 2002, 1996, 1083; Adler & Doktor, 1996). The

leadership of The Nature Conservancy does see it is important to work cooperatively in support of its mission as outlined in this framework.

Key Finding Two: NGO Senior Staff Findings: Organizational Culture First.

Senior Staff from the NGO responded to an open ended questionnaire about measures of success for the field. Field Office directors are a mixture of expatriates and first country nationals. Key factors in hiring field office directors are considered to be the person's ability to be collaborative and work in a team and to be able to develop strategic partnerships.

On the managerial side, field office directors are expected to be able to be decisive, accountable for outcomes, and build organizational capacity. Interesting yet undefined were these attributes which the organization looked for in people as leaders in the field office: (1) courage, (2) strengthen influences for results; (3) focus innovation, and (4) be visionary leaders. It is easy to conjure meanings for these attributes but this study will not seek to speculate on what courage or visionary leadership, or the other two mentioned attributes for field office director leadership could possibly mean within the context of mission success for the NGO.

This study is interested in whether place and culture affect mission; therefore, the senior staff were asked about cross cultural and communication training relative to the host country where that director was posted. The response was that most field office directors were first country nationals so cross cultural training relevant to the specific host country was not provided to a specific

country. It was previously noted that the field office directors were a mixture of expatriates and first country nationals. *Conservation by Design: A Framework for Success* (2004) suggests that the NGO will work collaboratively and within the context of local communities in values three and four. Although the organization may hire first country nationals, it does not appear to provide cross cultural management or communication training for its expatriate staff or managers. The senior staff response notes that there is extensive organization culture training for staff relating to operations, finance, legal and other specific training on internal processes.

Senior staff emphasized in their responses that one of the principal values when operating in foreign host countries is respect for local culture. “One of TNC’s 5 values is Respect for People, Communities and Cultures: Enduring conservation success depends on the active involvement of people and partners whose lives and livelihoods are linked to the natural systems we seek to conserve. We respect the needs, values and traditions of local communities and cultures, and we forge relationships based on mutual benefit and trust” *Conservation by Design: A Framework for Success* (2004).

We “[d]emonstrate respect by committing to local, on the ground involvement with people, communities and cultures, and with awareness and sensitivity to their economic realities.” We “[t]reat our partners and colleagues with fairness and honesty.” We [w]ork collaboratively with all sectors of society, including indigenous people, to develop practical conservation solutions ... The

conservancy strives to be a global organization and *emphasizes our organizational culture over any one country's cultural particularities*" (TNC HQ Respondent) (emphasis added). A key finding here is that emphasis may be placed on the organizational culture and/or the larger economic situation in the host country as opposed to other environmental factors such as national culture particularities which may or may not affect mission success.

Key Finding Three: Top-Down Policy and Procedures.

When asked about the involvement of field office directors in decision-making surrounding field office policies and procedures it was stated that these procedures were made at the NGO's American headquarters "with input from the Senior Management level of the region. The input to the HQ does not come from the field level staff, but rather the Latin American Regional Director. He in turn may seek to consult with other Senior Managers that directly report to him such as the Latin American Director of Finance or the Latin American Director of Conservation"(TNC HQ Respondent).

The headquarters' perspective on mission success is outlined in its framework written in 2004 which outlines goals and objectives to and through 2015 in terms of its scientific conservation goals as well as its organizational goals, objectives, and values. The framework's values state that the organization will work cooperatively and collaboratively with local communities respecting diversity and in partnerships with public and private entities. Responses from the NGO senior staff indicate that organizational culture is paramount to attributes or

the particularities of the local culture in the host country where conservation efforts are taking place.

The Nature Conservancy is a global operation made up of many regions in addition to the Latin American Region. The sample or census used for this case study is a small sample so that the researcher cannot make broad statements regarding how place and host country culture affects mission. Aspirational statements are made in *Conservation by Design* (2004) that local culture, people, and communities are in place while senior staff acknowledges that organizational culture is first and that management techniques are top-down. By no means do these last two observations suggest that mission has been affected by lack of cross-cultural management training or awareness to how national cultural and other cultural environmental factors affect mission. A larger more in-depth study would be needed here to see if organizational culture first impacted mission success in the various host countries and national cultures where the NGO conducts its conservation efforts and does business.

With the headquarters' framework for success in mind, we will now turn to the field office to look at this perspective for mission success. Mission success for the field was clustered around summated rating survey questions which asked about cross cultural and intercultural communication for directors and staff; field office directors perception of support in terms of field management independence, input on the strategic plan, perception of working closely with local governments and other NGOs, ability to suggest management or

organizational change based on office performance and data collected as well as perceived support when the field adhered to the core organizational mission.

Research Question Two: Field Office Perceptions of Success.

The second question deals with the issue relating to key perceptions of field officers relating to how mission success is actually carried out in the field aside from organizational aspirational goals. Nine self selected field officers from a pool of sixteen countries answered a twenty question summated rating questionnaire. There were open- ended questions which would allow a field office director to write a narrative surrounding his or her opinion on NGO mission success in the field. None of the respondents answered the open-ended questions which called for their personal observations in narrative form surrounding success.

One respondent answered anonymously and several respondents did not answer all of the posed questions. There was a consistent outlier in the responses to the survey questions posed.

Key Finding One: Adherence to Core Mission- 100%

The directors were asked if they adhered to the core mission of the NGO as defined by the headquarters. One hundred percent of field office directors agreed that they adhered to the core mission with 55.6 percent strongly agreeing that they scrupulously adhered to mission. In the written framework, the NGO headquarters states that it seeks to use its organizational mission, vision, and

values to unify the organization. It appears that there is consensus from the field and the headquarters on this variable in the sample studied.

In a bivariate analysis, this study considers whether field office directors will perceive that they are supported by the NGO's headquarters if they scrupulously adhere to the core mission of the organization. While the result did not produce a statistically significant relation between these perceptions it is noted that one hundred percent of respondents self define that they agree or strongly agree that they adhere to the core mission of the agency. The lack of statistical significance can be related to the sample size as the chi square test for statistical significance is tied to the sample size.

Key Finding Two: Field Office Training: Organizational Culture rather than National Culture is the Focus Area for Training.

There were several questions relating to organizational training, host country cultural training, and communications training for field office directors. Sixty-six percent of the field office directors responded that there was organizational training relating to the core mission of the agency. Twenty two percent disagreed and there was one non-response.

Sixty six-percent of field office directors disagreed that there was cultural training for the field office directors relative to the host country. Twenty-two percent were neutral while eleven percent agreed. Forty-four percent of field offices disagree that there is this type of training for staff, twenty-two percent were neutral, and twenty-two percent did not respond.

Thirty-three percent disagreed and eleven percent strongly disagreed that the field office was given effective initial communications and/or refresher training for their respective country of service with eleven percent strongly disagreeing. Eleven percent were neutral while twenty-two percent agreed or slightly disagreed.

Thirty-three percent disagreed and eleven percent disagreed that field office staff was given effective communications training for their country of service. Twenty-two percent did not respond to this question, eleven percent were neutral while eleven percent slightly agreed that staff received this type of training.

The findings from the field suggest that the field office directors recognize that organizational culture is the focus of the training rather than cross cultural or intercultural training relative to the host country of service.

Key Finding Three: Local Community Partnerships are Embraced while Anglo-American Management Styles Remain Intact apart from Host Country Culture's Customs.

Several questions were asked of the field office directors regarding the field working within the context of local culture, with local governments, and with other local NGOs in support of the organizational mission.

One hundred percent of respondents agreed that they took into account the local culture when working on programs and initiatives. Only Thirty-three percent of respondents agreed that they worked within the context of the local culture

which did not share American managerial values of efficiency, effectiveness, and hard work. Twenty-two percent disagreed while twenty-two percent were neutral.

Key Finding Four: Top-Down Organizational Structure still allows for Field Office Director Management Flexibility.

Several questions were posed to the field office direction concerning their perception of support from the headquarters in carrying out the mission in the field. These questions relate to the ability to be creative in management and allowed to make mistakes without fear of retribution, input on the annual strategic plan, use of performance data change or implement the plan, and use of performance data in describing field office goal attainment.

The results chapter looked at univariate measures relating to field office directors flexibility and input to make a difference and adjust management and strategies while being charged with carrying out the organizational mission. First, we will look at the univariate results in these key areas and look to see if there is any statistical significance with the bivariate analyses of managerial independence, creativity, and performance data as being supported by the headquarters.

Thirty-Three percent of respondents a strongly agreed and 22.2 % agreed that they reviewed the NGO's strategic plan for change and implementation on an annual basis. Twenty-two percent disagreed while eleven percent disagreed.

Thirty-three strongly agreed and 22.2% agreed that they (field office directors)

felt that they were supported in defining the strategy and activities for the success of the field office, Thirty-three percent disagreed and eleven percent were neutral.

Fifty-five percent of field office directors agreed and 33.3% strongly agreed that their field office valued collaboration and teamwork while twenty-two percent disagreed and eleven percent neutral. It is important to note that in the above categories surrounding collaboration and teamwork as well as the NGO's headquarters' support of management in the field by the director that one field office director strongly disagreed that he or she was supported and that the agency works in a collaborative atmosphere.

With these responses in place, it is important to get a sense of whether the field office director perceives that there is a tension between mission and operational accountability in the field in relation to the NGOs headquarters. In looking at perceived tensions between the headquarters and the field, 11.1% of respondents answered each in the following categories, strongly agree, slightly agree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly disagree, disagree or strongly disagree to the issue of tension. 33.3% of respondents feel that there is no tension between the field and the Headquarters between mission and operational accountability

While a univariate analysis provides us with a perception of separate field office director's perceptions on support from the headquarters', bivariate analysis will provide some further exploration into the answers for the purposes of this study and future studies.

Key Finding Five: Field Office Director Independence is supported by the HQ.

When performing the chi square analysis, the statistical data reflected that there was no statistical significance to the perception that support from the headquarters reduced tension in the field. However, a gamma value of 0.73 produced in table twenty-five evidence that the higher perception of support from headquarters, the higher the perception that office director is able to act with some managerial independence in the field. There is a positive relationship between the two.

Key Finding Six: There is a positive relationship between HQ Support and Field Office Director Perception that they have input on implementing the Strategic Plan.

Table twenty-six shows us that there is no statistical significance in looking at whether the field office director has critical input on implementing elements of the strategic plan in the field. However, a gamma value is produced in this table that the higher the perception of support from the headquarters, the higher the perception by the field office directors that they are supported in being involved in the critical review of the strategic plan for implementation and suggestions for change and adjustment as the work pertains to their particular office.

Key Finding Seven: Field Office Performance Data Matters for Managerial Objectives and Organizational Goal Achievement.

Two separate bivariate tests were run relative to performance data. One test related to field office management and the other related to using performance

data to further goal achievement. What is important for this key finding is that field office performance data matters for mission success in the field office. On either test, the relationship between the variables was not found to be significant.

The Gamma values suggest that there are positive relationships between the use of performance data for use in field office and the field office director perceiving that he or she is supported by the NGO headquarters'. There is a positive relationship between the field office using performance data supporting goal achievement and perceived support from the NGO's headquarters.

Key Finding Eight: Scope of Work exceeds Resources

In the univariate analysis performed, the study shows that fifty-five percent of respondents strongly agreed and thirty-three percent agreed that the scope of the work exceeded resources for the work to be performed. Eleven percent were neutral on this question. In the bivariate analysis, this study was interested in whether the allocation of resources to the field was perceived as support from the headquarters.

Although the statistical test provided no evidence that that the perception of support from the headquarters had an impact on whether the resources exceeded the scope and amount of work in the field; the gamma value produced showed a negative relationship. In other words, the gamma value's high magnitude within the sample size allows us to perfectly predict the field office director perception that the scope of work exceeds resources.

Implications

A case study is of value in exploratory research that seeks to describe certain phenomena in the social sciences rather than explain the causes for why such events occur (Yin, 2009). This type of research is focused on the “what and how” questions- the study is interested in how mission success is achieved in the field and what are the impacts of national culture on mission success.

The study did not necessarily show that national culture or place had an impact on mission success. We can speculate that based on the key findings that organizational culture is paramount to national culture that this may be the reason why. However, it is important to remember that we cannot claim causality through this study; rather, we are describing the phenomena in this case study of a sample of the respondents from the Latin American Region of the Nature Conservancy.

The data show that NGOs can and do consider national culture in aspirational statements whether they provide host country cultural or communication training. The methodology outlined in chapter three and the results produced in chapter five are a starting point to consider how culture impacts mission success for a non-governmental agency. What types of trainings are provided for field offices? What are the perceived tensions between the field office and the headquarters? Are these tensions related to national culture or organizational culture?

This study, through the literature review and the empirical inquiry, has shown that international non-governmental organizations are complex with a plethora of stakeholders. Defining mission success is more than a defined mission statement and adherence to a matrix of goals imposed upon an organization by itself, public and private donors, and the clients that are served. The field office is charged with carrying out the organizational mission of the organization. Scholars have noted that in the private management literature, lack of attention to host country culture where business is being conducted has often led to failure (Adler, 2002, 1996, 1982; Hofstede, 1980).

Several approaches were applied to this study from both the qualitative and quantitative perspectives. While we may not have found the key to mission success from the field office perspective and how culture impacts mission in foreign host governments, we have opened the door for future research.

Large international NGOs are not transparent and openly accountable organizations as has been documented in the literature given the many stakeholders that they must satisfy while carrying out organizational mission (Edwards & Hulme, 1998; Florini, 2000; and Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001). Social mission is harder to assess than private managerial mission because the private sector looks only to maximize shareholder revenue. International NGOs are stepping in the place of traditional government activities from conservation to health care to solving poverty.

The survey research alone may not unlock the key to what field office directors believe constitutes mission success. A richer picture is needed to be developed vis-à-vis the headquarters premise for mission success and the environment including the cultural environment of the host country to grasp keys to mission success in the field. Survey research does provide the necessary context for the larger picture in terms of the methodology and employed instruments (Ferris, 2008; Goldenberg, 1992; Homans, 1967).

It is also important to keep in mind the principles of program evaluation when generally considering the success of a nonprofit or an internal NGO's program (Rossi, Freeman and Lipsey, 1999). It is important to note again that for the purposes of this study we are not looking at the program outcomes to evaluate rather the organizational outcomes relating to field office performance towards mission success vis-à-vis attributes of national culture and the perceived flexibility afforded field office directors. Cousins and Earl (1992) have made the case for participatory evaluation and this type of evaluation is important when looking at obtaining responses from a field office of a large international NGO.

The survey results and related comments of the headquarters respondents provide a starting place and a context for further empirical research in these types of social mission organizations or for others who are interested in this topic. The case study method is appropriate in order to provide the rich context needed for such type of study (Yin, 2009).

The issues considered in this study contribute to filling gaps in theoretical knowledge regarding NGO field office mission success by considering distance from host country culture in assessing the actions of the expatriate field office director. As previously stated, there has been much research in the private sector regarding expatriate management training to achieve organizational success in host countries. Given the unique shared missions of NGOs at a general level, to “change the world”, a definition of success and its measures are different from measures of success in the private sector. Organizations that seek to “change the world” require rich studies that are best achieved through the case study method.

Culture matters. This study given its sample size was unable to uncover how national culture impacted the ability of the field office to carry out its mission. This does not mean to say that other and larger studies will not uncover what was not discovered in this study. Given that previous scholars in the field have recognized the need for empirical work in this area, it is essential that future empirical research is conducted to see how national culture impacts NGO mission success in the field given the reality and complexities of the world in which these organizations exist and the type of problems that they seek to solve. This study will form a baseline for future studies by scholars who are interested in this work and can build on this work.

Although the sample size was small this is not unusual for a case study (Yin, 2009). The key findings in this study allow us to see positive associations between measures relating to field office management and the use of performance

data to achieve goals and management change. Case studies are not broadly generalizable, more field directors for a multivariate analysis would have been statistically desirable, but probably would not have affected the content of these data.

Flexibility of the field office director is also seen as something that was associated with positive ability to predict lack of tension between headquarters and the field office. Finally, this study did not obtain much key data relating to cross cultural or communication training for directors or staff relative to host countries served as this is not an organizational management training process that occurs.

Future Research

The unanswered questions in this study relate to how attributes of national culture impact the execution of mission in the field. The studied NGO does not provide cross cultural management or intercultural communication training. Field office respondents did not respond to open ended questions asking about the impacts of national culture on field operations.

In terms of practical knowledge, while this study does not address donor logic, mission and targeted countries for aid, conditions for of aid, and, examining external assistance on existing practices and structure of an NGO all relating to performance and accountability— it addresses the very core of the NGO- the field office.

The field office is charged with carrying out the mission of the NGO. Lessons can be learned from the responses of the field office directors regarding the use of performance data to support management and goal achievement objectives, assessing the scope of work versus actual and available resources, field office director's ability to be flexible in decision-making in the field as well as perceived tensions between the headquarters when it comes to mission.

Importantly, field offices operate in foreign host countries and the role of national culture may impact how the mission is carried out and whether the target population is being served and serviced in a culturally appropriate manner.

The areas that this researcher was interested in but was not able to glean much information in order to generate findings for this dissertation would suggest that future research might focus on. Littrell, Salas, Hess, Paley and Riedel (2006) and Selmer, Torbiorn and deLeon (1998) have found that cross-cultural training makes a difference and improves expatriate performance while on foreign assignments.

The research suggests that expatriate managers may be more adaptable if they have been trained in the foreign culture (Selmer, Torbiorn and deLeon, 1998). The studied organization has a mixture of first country nationals and expatriates for managers because there is no cross-cultural training this study was unable to analyze whether cross-cultural training had any impacts for field office director's flexibility in doing their job.

Future research would be able to look at the linkages between cross-cultural training and managerial performance ultimately leading to mission success to expatriates and even first country nationals who are field office directors. Many first country nationals may have been educated and/or work outside of their country of origin and cross-cultural training for re-entry could be beneficial and should be studied.

Both researchers and practitioners should consider the timing of the training- pre-departure, post-arrival or a combination on both (Bennet et al, 2000; Black& Mendenhall, 1990; Selmer, 2001). The literature has demonstrated that it is not clear whether pre-departure or post-arrival training makes a difference in preparing expatriate managers (Black& Mendenhall, 1990; Selmer, 2001). Job – level attributes including adjustment facilitation, cultural ambiguity is also an important area for future research (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Research could also focus on family and spouse adjustment to the foreign posting which might also impact the success of an NGO field office director in his or her work (Black& Mendenhall, 1990).

This study looked at organizational frameworks but was unable to answer questions relating to cross-cultural training because there is no training for field directors or staff. The study was able to touch on the fact that organizational culture might supersede national culture but was unable to look at whether cultural differences could inhibit or impede or perhaps even aid mission success as a result (Black& Mendenhall, 1990).

The study was able to consider some of the individual attributes that the NGO headquarters' was interested for in a field office director. Field office directors' could have chosen to answer an open-ended questions with attributes that made them successful in a foreign setting. There were no narrative responses from the field. Therefore, future research could look at whether field office directors had the following individual attributes: cognitive flexibility, adaptability, tolerance for ambiguity, nonethnocentrism, positive self image and extroversion” (Bhagat and Prien, 1996; Black, 1998; Hannigan,1990; Harris and Kumra, 2000; Katz and Seifer, 1996, Lieven, Harris, Van Keer and Bisqueret, 2003 and Mendenhall and Oudou, 1986 cited in Littrell, Salas, Hess, Paley and Riedel, 2006).

Additionally, future research would focus on the rigor of the training surrounding substance and method. The rigor would focus on history of the assigned country and its culture; history of the country business practices, intercultural communication including body language and hand gestures, language training, role playing situations which may occur in host country including how dispute resolution is handled (Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992). The rigor of the substance and context for the training will allow future researchers to determine if the training methods have been successful in allowing for managers to adapt and lead in a foreign culture while pursuing the organizational mission of the NGO. In this context of the training, it is important

to look at what has been termed “cultural toughness” – that some cultures are harder to adapt to than others (Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992).

Future research could also look at the environmental characteristic of the assignment in the foreign host country. These characteristics might include whether the country is in conflict, if it is post-conflict, then for how long, the type of political structure and other governance structures in the host country which might affect the NGOs mission success.

It might be important to know whether NGOs are welcome in the host country and if they need to be registered. If not welcome, are they considered suspect because they are there “to do good” and perhaps seen as imposing an Anglo-American model. Certain environmental perceptions such as local governmental attitudes toward an NGO might not directly appear to be related to how culture impacts mission. It is important that this is part of the cultural construct in the host country and rigorous training might also need to address how to build partnerships with local governments and training.

There has been almost no empirical work in this field which considers the impact of cross-cultural training on organizational mission success. Twenty-five years of literature studied to and through the 1990s in the private sector looked at why cross-cultural training is important to organizational performance in the foreign host country (Littrell, Salas, Hess, Paley and Riedel, 2006).

It is also important that future research look beyond cross-cultural training for managers. Future research also needs to consider whether the field office

directors and staff implement the cultural training that they receive. How is the training implemented in the field? Is there a need for refresher work? Also, how is this knowledge institutionalized within the NGO to prevent culture to impede their work rather than aid and extend the organizational mission in the host country? In short, future research will need to determine if the training has been effective (Selmer, et. al., 1998).

The research should have both qualitative and quantitative components. The qualitative results are important to assess whether the training worked for a particular manager in a particular country and what the longer term effects were on achieving mission success. It should be noted that there are many variables which can fluctuate on an individual basis from director to director, field office to field office depending on size and country.

It has been noted by scholars in the private management context that empirical research is still needed after more than twenty-five years of research in the field surrounding cross cultural training and its impacts on an expatriate manager being successful in a foreign host country (Littrell, Salas, Hess, Paley and Riedel, 2006).

There has been a dearth of empirical research in the NGO /nonprofit literature area. Researchers can borrow from the private management and organizational behavior literature. This literature while more substantial is somewhat limited given the complexity of the social missions of NGOs rather than the shareholder's bottom line. Future research could also allow for

comparison groups of a single NGO in different regions or comparisons across NGOs in the same social mission area. Larger comparisons from different organizations might allow for future learning as well but it will be important to realize that the mission of one NGO might be more culturally sensitive than another in a particular host country.

The impact of culture should be focused on management performance of an expatriate or first country national manager and incorporate local biases towards directors who are working with a large international NGO. Ultimately, it is more than field office director performance that the research should consider but the relationships built and sustained in the foreign host country where the NGO operates.

Chapter Five Summary

This chapter summarized the key findings from the data analysis in chapter four. The key findings were classified in response to the posed research questions of this dissertation. Chapter five concludes that a case study method is appropriate for this type of descriptive and exploratory research in how national culture affects NGO mission success in the field.

Suggestions are made for future research based on what was found or not found from this research with an emphasis for future research to continue to conduct a quasi-experimental design including both qualitative and quantitative research while noting biases associated with the qualitative research. Future research may compare a larger international NGO by various regions and draw analysis there or perhaps compare similar mission based organizations with each other. The substance and methods used for cross cultural training are important to look at the success of the field office director in his or her performance as a manager. It is also important to look at situations where the NGO's mission itself may conflict with the local culture, the government and the native people.

This dissertation research opens the door for future empirical work in considering how national culture does impact the success of the NGO in carrying out its mission in the field.

References

- Adler, N. J. (2002). *From boston to beijing: managing with a world view* (1st ed.). Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western.
- Adler, N.J. (2002). *International dimensions of organizational behavior*. (4th ed.). Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western.
- Adler, N. J. (1983). Cross-cultural management: The ostrich and the trend. *The Academy of Management Review*, 8(2), 226-232.
- Adler, N.J. & Doktor, R. (1986). From the atlantic to the pacific century: Cross-cultural management reviewed. *Journal of Management*, 12(2), 295-318.
- Adler, N.J. (2002). Global companies, global society. There is a better way. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 11(3), 255-260.
- Aimar, C., & Stough, S. (2007). Leadership: Does culture matter? Comparative practices between Argentina and United States of America. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, 11(3), 9-44.
- Al-Yahya, K. & Vengroff, R. (2004) Human capital utilization, empowerment, and organizational effectiveness: Saudi Arabia in a comparative perspective. *Journal of Global Development Studies*, (3)4, 251-295.
- Anheier, H. K. (2000). *Managing nonprofit organizations: Towards a new approach*, Civil Society Working Paper 1, Center for Civil Society, London School of Economics.
- Appel, S. (2010). Toward culturally democratic citizens: Nongovernmental organizations and the state. *Voluntas*, (21), 3-21.
- Armstrong, P. (2006). The limits and risks of regulation: The case of the world-bank supported draft handbook on good practices for laws relating to

- NGOs. Jordan, L. and Van Tuijl, (Eds.) (2006) in *NGO accountability: Politics, principles and innovations*. London: Earthscan.
- Bandy, J., & Smith, J. (2005). *Coalitions across borders: Transnational protest and the neoliberal order*. Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.
- Bartlett, K.R., Lawler, J.L., Bae, J, Chen S.J. & Wan S. (2002) Differences in international human resource development among indigenous firms and multinational affiliates in East and Southeast Asia. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 13(4), 383-405.
- Bendell, J.& Cox, P. (2006) The Donor Accountability Agenda. In Jordan, L. & Van Tuijl, (Eds.) (2006) in *NGO Accountability NGO accountability: Politics, principles and innovations*. London: Earthscan.
- Bennet, J.M. (1986) Modes of cross-cultural training: conceptualizing cross-cultural training as education. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 10, 117-134.
- Bennet, R., Aston, A., & Colquhoun, T. (2000). Cross-cultural training: A critical step in ensuring the success of international assignments. *Human Resource Management*, 39, 239-250.
- Bhawuk, D.P.S. (1998). The role of culture theory in cross-cultural training: A mutli-method study of culture specific, culture general and culture theory based assimilators. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 29, 630-655.
- Bickman, L. & Rog, D. (1998). "Applied Research Design: A practical approach" pp 5-38 in Bickman, Leonard & Rog, Debra (Eds), *Handbook of Applied Research Methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Black, J. S., Gregersen, H. B., & Mendenhall, M. E. (1992). *Global assignments: Successfully expatriating and repatriating international managers*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Black, J.S. & Medenhall, M. (1990) Cross-cultural training effectiveness: a review and theoretical framework for future research. *The Academy of Management Review*, 15(1) 113-136.

- Brislin, R.W. & Bhawuk, D.P.S. (1999). Cross-cultural training: Research and innovations. in J.Adamopoulos & Y. Kashima (Eds.), *Social Psychology and Cultural Context* (205-216). Thousand Oaks, CA; Sage.
- Bornstein, D. (2007). *How to change the world*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Burke, C. S., Hess, K., Salas, E., Priest, H., Paley, M., & Riedel, S. (in press). Preparing leaders for operation in complex environments: The leadership of multicultural teams. In R. Hoffman (Ed.), *Expertise out of context*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Casimir, G. & Waldman, D.A. (2007). A cross cultural comparison of the importance of leadership traits for effective low-level high-level leaders, *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 7(1) 47-60.
- Charlton, R. & May, R. (1995). NGOs, politics, projects and probity: A policy implementation perspective. *Third World Quarterly*, 16(2), 237-255.
- Chen Yifeng, N. & Tjosvold, D. (2008). Goal interdependence and leader-member for cross-cultural leadership in foreign ventures in China. *Leadership & Organization Development*, 29(2), 144.
- Chrobat-Mason, D., Ruderman, M., Weber, T., Ohlott, P. J., & Dalton, M. A. (2007). Illumination a cross-cultural leadership challenge: when identity groups collide. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18(11), 2011.
- Clarke, G. (1998). Nongovernmental organizations and politics in the developing world. *Political Studies*, 46, 36-52.
- Coleman, W.D. & Sarah, W.(2006). The origins of global civil society and nonterritorial governance: Some empirical reflections. *Global Governance*, 12, 241-261.
- Collard, J. (2007). Constructing theory for leadership in intercultural contexts. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 45(6), 740.

- Collins, J. (2001). *Good to great*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Collins, J. (2005). *Good to great and the social sectors*. Boulder: Jim Collins.
- Cousins, J.B. & Earl, L.M. (1992). The case for participatory evaluation. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 14(4), 397-418.
- Covey, J. (1995). Accountability and effectiveness in NGO policy alliances. *Journal of International Development*, 7(6), 857-867.
- Crutchfield, L. & McLeod Grant, H. (2008). *Forces for good: The six practices of high impact nonprofits*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Dees, J. G. (1998). Enterprising nonprofits. *Harvard Business Review*, 76, 55-67.
- Dees, J. G. (2003). Social entrepreneurship is about innovation and impact, not income. Message posted to www.fuqua.duke.edu/centers/case/articles/1004/corrner.htm
- den Hartog, D.N., House, R.J., Hanges, P.J., Ruiz Quintanilla, A.S. & Dorfman, P.W. (1999). Culture specific and cross-culturally generalizable implicit leadership theories: Are attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership universally endorsed. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10, 210-238.
- Dibella, A. (1992). Planned change in an organized anarchy: Support for a postmodernist perspective. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 5(3), 55-65.
- Dickson, M., den Hartog, D. & Mitchelson, J. (2003). Research on leadership in a cross-cultural context: Making progress and raising new questions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14, 729-768.

- Dichter, T.W. (1999). Globalization and its effects on NGOs: Efflorescence or a blurring of the roles and relevance? *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 28(4), 38-58.
- Eaton, L.& Louw, J. (2000). Culture and self in south africa: Individualism collectivism predictions. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 140, 210-217.
- Edwards, M. (1999). NGO performance: What breeds success? *World Development*, 27(2), 361-374.
- Edwards, M. (1997). Organizational learning in non-governmental organizations: What have we learned? *Public Administration and Development*, 17, 235-250.
- Edwards, M. (1996). *International development NGOs: Legitimacy, accountability, regulation and roles*. London: Earthscan.
- Edwards, M. & Hulme, D. (Ed.). (1996). *Beyond the magic bullet*. West Hartford, CT: Kumarian Press, Inc.
- Etzioni, A. (1973). The third sector and domestic missions. *Public Administration Review*, 33(4), 314-323.
- Fink, G. & Mayrhofer, W. (2009). Cross cultural competence and management – setting the stage. *European Journal of Cross-Cultural Competence and Management*, 42-65.
- Fink, G., Neyer, A.K, & Kolling, M. (2006). Understanding cross-cultural management interaction. *International Studies of Management and Organization*, 36(4), 38-60.
- Fisher, J. (1998). *Non governments: NGOS and the political development of the third world*. Hartford, CT: Kumarian Press, Inc.

- Florini, A.M. (Eds.) (2000). *The third force: The rise of transnational civil society*. Washington, DC: The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.
- Fowler, A. Capacity building in NGOs: a case of strengthening ladles for the global soup kitchen? *Institutional Development (Innovations in Civil Society)*, 1(1), 18-24.
- Fowler, A. (1997). *Striking a balance: A guide to enhancing the effectiveness of NGOs in international development*. London: Earthscan.
- Gannon, M.J. (2001). *Understanding global cultures* (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage Publications/
- Georgianna, S. (2007). Self-leadership: a cross-cultural perspective. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(6), 569.
- Goldenberg, S. (1992). *Thinking Methodologically*. New York: Harper Collins Publishing.
- Gordenker, L. & Weiss, T.G. (1995). Pluralising global governance: Analytical approaches and dimensions. *Third World Quarterly*, 16(3), 358-387.
- Gudykunst, W.B. & Kim, Y.Y. (2003). *Communicating with strangers: An approach to intercultural communication* (4th ed). Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Hammer, M.R., Gudykunst, W.B. & Wiseman, R.L. (1978). Dimensions of intercultural effectiveness: an exploratory study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations* 2, 382-393.
- Handy, C. (1988). *Managing voluntary organizations*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Hannigan, T. P. (1990). Traits, attitudes, and skills that are related to intercultural effectiveness and their implications for cross-cultural training: A review of the literature. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14, 89-111.

- Harris, H., & Kumra, S. (2000). International manager development: Cross-cultural training in highly diverse environments. *Journal of Management Development, 19*, 602-614.
- Harrison, J. K. (1992). Individual and combined effects of behavior modeling and the cultural assimilator in cross-cultural management training. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*, 952-962.
- Heuer, M., Cummings, J. & Hutabarat, W. (1999). Cultural stability or change among managers in Indonesia? *Journal of International Business, 30*(3), 599-610.
- Hill, L. A. (2008). Where will we find tomorrow's leaders? *Harvard Business Review, 86*(1), 123-129.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: international differences in work-related values* (1st ed.). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hofstede, G. & McCrae, R.E. (2004). Personality and culture revisited: Linking traits and dimensions of culture. *Cross-Cultural Research 38*(1), 52-88.
- Hofstede, G. (1994). *Uncommon sense about organizations* (1st ed.). Thousands Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Hofstede, G. (1993). Cultural constraints in management theories. *Academy of Management Review, 18*(4), 855-875.
- Hofstede, G. & Bond M.H. (1988). The confucius connection: from cultural roots to economic growth. *Organizational Dynamics, 16*(4), 4-21.
- Homans, George C. 1967. *The Nature of Social Science*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.
- House, R., Javidan M., Hanges, P., & Dorfman, P. (2002). Understanding cultures and implicit leadership theories across the globe: an introduction to project GLOBE. *Journal of World Business, 37*, 3-10.
- Hudson, M. (1995). *Managing without profit: The art of managing non-profit organizations*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.

- Isbister, K. (2004). Building bridges through the unspoken: Embodied agents to facilitate intercultural communication. In S. Payr and R. Trappl, (Eds). *Agent culture: Human-agent interaction in a multicultural world*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: London.
- Jaeger, U. & Beyes, T. (2010). Strategizing in npos: A Case study on the practice of organizational change between social mission and economic rationale. *Voluntas*, (21), 82-100.
- James, R. (2008) From the field: Leadership development inside – out in Africa. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, (18) 3, 359-375.
- Jordan, L. & van Tuijl, P. (Ed.). (2006). *NGO accountability: Politics, principles and innovations*. London: Earthscan.
- Judd, C., Smith, E. & Kidder, L.(1991). *Research Methods in Social Relations*, (6th ed.). New York: Harcourt, Brace and Janovitch.
- Khagram, S., et al. (2002). *Restructuring world politics: Transnational social movements, networks, and norms*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Kanugi, R.N. & Jaeger, A.M. (1990). Introduction: The need for indigenous management in developing countries in Jaeger, A.M and Kanugi, R.N. (eds). *Management in Developing Countries*. London: Routledge.
- Kaplan, A. (1964). *The Conduct of Inquiry*. San Francisco, Chandler Press.
- Katz, J. P., & Seifer, D. M. (1996). It's a different world out there: Planning for expatriate success through selection, pre-departure training, and on-site socialization. *Human Resource Planning*, 19, 32-47.
- Koenig, B. (2004). *Going global for the greater good*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Koontz, H. (1969). A model for analyzing the universality and transferability of management. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 12(4), 415-429.

- Korten, D. C. (1980). Community organization and rural development: A learning process approach. *Public Administration Review*, 40, 480-511.
- Korten, D. C. (Ed.), *Community management: Asian experience and Perspectives*. West Hartford, CT: Kumarian Press, 1987.
- Lachman, R. (1997). Taking another look at the elephant: Are we still (half) blind. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18(4), 317-321.
- LaFrance, S.F. (2006). *Scaling capacities; Supports for growing Impact*. San Francisco: La France & Associates.
- Lee, L.Y. & Croker, R. A. (2006) A contingency model to promote the effectiveness of expatriate training. *Industrial Management & Data*, 106(8), 1187-1205.
(Review 5(3), 355-388.
- Lee, T. (2010). The rise of international nongovernmental organizations: A top-down or bottom up explanation? *Voluntas* (21), 393-416.
- Lewis, D. (2001). *The management of non-governmental development organizations*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Lewis, D. (2005). The management of non-governmental development organizations (NGOs): Towards a composite approach. *Journal of Management and Social Sciences*, 1(2), 149-166.
- Liebersohn, S. (1985). *Making it count: the improvement of social research and theory*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Lievens, F., Harris, M. M., Van Keer, E., & Bisqueret, C. (2003). Predicting cross-cultural training performance: The validity of personality, cognitive ability, and dimensions measured by an assessment center and a behavior description interview. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 476-489.
- Light, P. (2004). *Sustaining nonprofit performance*. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution Press.

- Light, P. (2008). *The search for social entrepreneurship*. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution Press.
- Lindenberg, M. & Bryant, C. (2001). *Going global: Transforming relief and development*. Bloomfield, CT: Kumarian Press, Inc.
- Littrell, L. N. and Salas, E. (2005) 'review of cross-cultural training: Best practices, guidelines, and research needs. *Human Resource Development Review*, 4(3), .305–34.
- Matviuk, S. (2007). Cross-cultural leadership behavior expectations: A comparison between United States managers and Mexican managers. *Journal of American Academy of Business*, 11(1), 253-261.
- McGill, M.E. & Wooten, L.M. (1975). Management in the third sector. *Public Administration Review*, 35(5), 444-455.
- McSweeney, B. (2002). Hofstede's model of national cultural differences and their consequences: a triumph of faith – a failure of analysis? *Human Relations*, 55(1), 89-118.
- McCormick, S.J. (2004). *Conservation by design: A framework for success*. Arlington, Va: The Nature Conservancy. Retrieved November 12, 2010, from <http://www.nature.org/ourscience/conservationbydesign/index.htm>
- Morris, S. (1999). *Defining the nonprofit sector: Some lessons from history*, Centre for Civil Society International. Working Paper 3, London School of Economics.
- Mukasa, S. (1999). Are expatriate staff necessary in international development NGOs? A case study of an NGO in uganda. Centre for Civil Society International Working Paper 4, London School of Economics.
- Nahavandi, A. (2008). *The art and science of leadership* (5th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

- Neghandi, A. (1975). Comparative management and organization theory: A marriage needed. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 18(2), 334-344.
- Newman, K.L. & Nollen, S.D. (1996). The fit between management practices and national culture. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 27(4), 753-779.
- Ohanyan, A. (2008). *NGOs, ingos, and the network mechanisms of post-conflict global governance in microfinance*. NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Ossewaarde, R., Nijhof, A. & Heyse, L. (2008). Dynamics of NGO legitimacy: How organizing betrays core missions of NGOs. *Public Administration and Development*, 28, 42-53.
- Ottaway, M., & Cartothers, T. (2001). *Funding virtue: Civil society aid and democracy promotion*. Washington, DC: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.
- Paige, R. M.. & Martin , J. N. (1983). Ethical issues and ethics in cross-cultural training. In D. Landis & R. W. Brislin (Eds.), *Handbook of intercultural training; Volume. I: issues in theory and design*. New York: Pergamon
- Perrow, C. (1967). A framework for the comparative analysis of organizations. *American Sociological Review*, 32(2), 194-208.
- Peruzzotti, E. (2006) Civil society, representation and accountability: Restating current debates on the representativeness and accountability of civic associations in Jordan, L. and Van Tuijl, (Eds.)(2006) *NGO Accountability NGO accountability: Politics, principles and innovations*. London: Earthscan.
- Phills, J. (2005). *Integrating mission and strategy for nonprofit organizations*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Punnett, B.J. (2004). *International perspectives on organizational behavior and human resource management*. New York and England: M. E. Sharpe.
- Ritchey, Ferris J. (2008) *The Statistical Imagination*, (2nd ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

- Rodwell, S. (1998). Internalisation or indigenisation of educational management development? Some issues of cross-cultural transfer. *Comparative Education*, 34(1), 41-54.
- Rossi, P., Freeman, H & Lipsey, M. (1999). Evaluation, 6th edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Sahley, C. (1995). *Strengthening the capacity of NGOs: Cases of small enterprise development agencies in africa* No. 4. Oxford: INTRAC.
- Salamon, L. & Anheier, H.K. (1992a). *In search of the nonprofit sector I: The question of definitions* Working Paper No. 2 of the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University.
- Salamon, L. & Anheier H. K. (1992). In search of the nonprofit sector II: The problem of classification. *Voluntas*, 3(3), 267-309.
- Salamon, L. & Anheier, H. K. (1997). *Defining the nonprofit sector: A cross-sector analysis*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Salm, J.(1999). Coping with globalization: A profile of the northern NGO sector. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 28 (4), 87-103.
- Sandberg, E. (Ed). (1994). *The changing politics of non-governmental organizations and the african state*. Westport, Ct: Praeger.
- Sawang, S., Tian, P.S.O., & Goh, Y.W. (2006). Are country and culture values interchangeable? A case example using occupational stress and coping. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 6(2), 205-219.

- Schaubroeck, J., Lam, S. & Xie, J.L. (2000) Collective efficacy versus self-efficacy in coping responses to stressors and control: a cross-cultural study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 85, 512-525.
- Selmer, J., Torbiorn, I. & de Leon, C.T. (1998). Sequential cross-cultural training for expatriate business managers: Pre-departure and post-arrival. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 9, 831-840.
- Sievers, B. (2010). *Civil society, philanthropy and the fate of the commons*. Medford, Mass: Tufts University Press.
- Silova, I. & Steiner-Khamsi, G. (Eds.) (2008). *How ngos react: Globalization and education reform in the caucasus, central asia and Mongolia*. Bloomfield, CT: Kumarian.
- Smith, P. (2002). Culture's consequences: Something old and new. *Human Relations*, 55(1), 119-135.
- Snizek, William, 1979, Toward a clarification of the interrelationship between theory and research, pp 197- 210 in Snizek, William, Fuhrman, Ellsworth and Miller, Michael, (Editors). *Contemporary Issues in Theory and Research*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Spector, Paul, 1992. *Summated Rating Scale Construction*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Suzuki, N. (1997). *Inside NGOs: Learning to manage conflicts between headquarters and field offices*. London: Intermediate Technology Publications.
- Tandon, R.(1996). Board games: Governance and accountability in NGOs, pp. 53-63 in Edwards, M. & Hulme, D. (Ed.), *Beyond the magic bullet: NGO performance and accountability in the post cold war world* (1996). London: Earthscan.

- Tandon, R. (1997). Organizational development and NGOs: An overview. *Institutional Development*, 1, 3-19.
- Tarrow, S. (2001). Transnational politics: Contention and international politics. *Annual Review of Political Science*, 4, 1–20.
- Tassie, B., Zohar, A. & Murray, V. (1996). The management of change, in S. P. Osborne (Ed.), *Managing in the Voluntary Sector*, London: Thomson.
- Triandis, H.C. (1973). Subjective culture and economic development. *International Journal of Psychology*, 8, 163-182.
- Triandis, H. (2004). The many dimensions of culture. *Academy of Management Executive*, 18(1), 88-93.
- Triandis, H. (2006). Cultural intelligence in organizations. *Group & Organization Management*, 31(1), 20-26.
- Trompenaars, F. & Hampden-Turner, C. (1997). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding cultural diversity in business* (2nd ed.). London: McGraw-Hill.
- Tsui, A., Sushil, S. Nifadkar, S. & Ou, A.Y. (2007). Cross national, cross-cultural organizational behavior research: Advances, gaps and recommendations. *Journal of Management*, 33(3), 426-478.
- Vakil, A. (1997). Confronting the classification problem: Toward taxonomy of NGOs. *World Development*, 25(12), 2057-2071.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Lawler, J. L., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). Leadership, individual differences, and work-related attitudes: A cross-culture investigation. *Applied Psychology*, 56(2), 212.
- Wapner, P. (1995). Politics beyond the state: Environmental activism and world civic politics. *World Politics*, 47(3), 311–340.
- Yin, Robert K., 2009. *Case Study Research Design and Methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Zhu, Y., Nel, P. & Bhat, R. (2006). A cross cultural study of communication strategies for building business relationships. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*. 6(3) 319-341.

APPENDIX A
FIELD OFFICE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

<NGO MISSION SUCCESS SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE>

In the Survey Monkey link, please click on the answer that best represents your attitude and experience relative to each of the 20 statements.

1. As Director, I scrupulously adhere to the core mission of my agency as defined by headquarters.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree, Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

2. My field office conducts initial training for new staff and refresher training for all staff that emphasizes the importance of the core mission of my agency as defined by headquarters.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree, Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

3. My field office collects explicit data on office and program mission-related performance.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree, Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

4. My field office formally reviews data on performance as a basis for improving our levels of goal achievement.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree, Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

5. My field office generates and regularly reviews (for change and improvement) an annual strategic plan.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree, Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

6. As Director I promote creation of partnerships with local government designed to improve our goal achievement.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,
Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

7. As Director, I actively seek feedback from local government officials on our performance and ways to enhance our in-country effectiveness.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,
Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

8. As Director, I promote creation of partnerships with other INGOs operating locally to increase the probability of achieving my field office goals.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,
Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

9. I feel that there is no tension about mission and operational accountability between my field office and the home office.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,
Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

10. I can define field office strategy and tactics, even sometimes make mistakes while trying to be creative, without worrying about consequences or interference by the home office.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,
Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

11. Field Office Directors are given EFFECTIVE cultural training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,
Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

12. Field Office Staff are given EFFECTIVE cultural training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,
Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

13. Field Office Directors are given EFFECTIVE communications training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,

Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

14. Field Office Staff are given EFFECTIVE communications training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,
Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

15. As Director, I consistently involve key staff in critical decisions about field office policy and practice.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,
Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

16. When designing field office programs and initiatives, it is absolutely critical to take into account local culture and customs.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,
Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

17. The field office must operate in the context of local culture which does not appropriately share American values of efficiency, effectiveness and hard work.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,
Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

18. The scope of responsibility and work for the field office greatly exceed the resources made available to the field office.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,
Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

19. The organizational culture of this field office strongly emphasizes staff team work and collective problem solving.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,
Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

20. As Director, I believe that the home office management is fully supportive of my managerial and strategic initiatives for the field office.

Strongly Agree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree,

Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Disagree

For the last two questions, please briefly share your personal assessments.

21. What features of a field office do you personally believe constitute success?
22. How does the local culture affect mission success in your country?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP!

Please return this questionnaire to me by clicking onto the Survey Monkey® link.

APPENDIX B
NGO HEADQUARTERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

<NGO HEADQUARTERS' QUESTIONNAIRE>

1. What is your definition of organizational success for this organization?
Is this different than your general ideas surrounding successful organizations? Please explain both.
2. Are field Office Directors are given cultural training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service. Please describe the training, duration and materials used. Who facilitates the training? What is the background of that person?
3. Are field Office Staff are given cultural training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service. Please describe the refresher training. Please describe the training, duration and materials used. Who facilitates the training? What is the background of that person?
4. Are field Office Directors are given communications training (with refresher training) tied specifically to the country of service. Please describe the refresher training.
5. Does the NGO HQ consistently involve key staff in critical decisions about field office policy and practice? Please describe how you do this? What are your policies?
6. When designing field office programs and initiatives, it is absolutely critical to take into account local culture and customs. Please describe how you do this.

7. The field office must operate in the context of local culture which does not appropriately share American values of efficiency, effectiveness and hard work. What are your policies for handling such situations? Can you give examples of situations where this may have hampered organizational mission success? What did you do in this situation? What could you have done differently? Have you found success to be defined in the field differently from the HQ perception? How so or how not? Please explain. How has this changed and/or shaped your organization over the years.
8. Does the scope of responsibility and work for the field office greatly exceed the resources made available to the field office? Please explain.
9. What resources are made available to the field specifically relating to training and technical assistance as it relates to mission?
10. How do you hire your field office directors? Are they first country nationals? Are they expatriates from the US operations? Are they a combination of both?
11. What do you look for in your field office director to be a successful manager of the organizational mission?
12. What is the primary source of funding?
13. What is your organizational rubric for mission success? Please describe?

14. Do you have annual meetings or any other types of meetings that field office directors attend?
15. How do field office directors come to the HQ? (and vice versa).
16. Does the organizational culture of this field office strongly emphasize staff team work and collective problem solving? Does organizational culture shift in differing cultures from the Anglo-American culture? How so? Please explain.
17. What features of a field office do you personally believe constitute success? What features of the HQ do you personally believe constitute success?
18. Does the organization measure success for programs? What are the metrics for doing so? Is the evaluation done in-house or is it outsourced?
19. How does the local culture affect mission success in your country?

THANK YOU.

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTER TO FIELD OFFICE DIRECTORS

COVER LETTER

NGO Mission Success: The Field Office Perspective

Dear Participant:

I am a graduate student under the direction of Professor N. Joseph Cayer in the School of Public Affairs at Arizona State University.

I am conducting a research study for my PhD dissertation to examine whether international NGOs are successful in achieving their mission in the field. I am inviting your participation, which will involve answering a survey questionnaire as well as in-person interviews. The purpose of my dissertation is to learn more about relationships between “home offices” and “field offices;” specifically in how these relationships can facilitate field office work. The academic literature has mentioned the important role of such relationships for years, but as yet, researchers have not explicitly asked home office personnel and field office directors about such relationships. I believe that documenting the experiences of working professionals who are immersed in these relationships is the right path to understanding. Your responses to my short questionnaire may lead to important future work by academics who would like to consider what professionals in the field think about mission success

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You can skip questions if you wish. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty should you choose not to participate. There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts to your participation.

Your participation will be treated as confidential. No one will know how you responded to the survey questions. The questionnaire will not ask for your name and responses will be coded. Your responses will be confidential. The results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, or publications but your name will not be known.

By completing the survey, you are agreeing to participate and are acknowledging that your participation is entirely voluntary. You may decide at any point not to respond to a question or to withdraw altogether from the study. There is no foreseeable risk associated with participation in this study. Please read the following statements about your rights as a participant in this study:

- I am at least 18 years of age.
- I understand that voluntary participation in this study involves completion of four measures and a demographic questionnaire in the form of an electronic survey.

- I understand that by completing the survey, I give my consent to participate in this study.
- I understand that I have the right to withdraw or decline from participating at any point during this research.
- I understand that my responses will be seen and used only by the investigator and faculty sponsor of the study and will be kept confidential in a database from all other persons, to the extent feasible using the Internet.
- I understand that any form of communication via the Internet carries a minimal risk of loss of confidentiality, but all the information gathered in this study will be stored in a password protected environment and that password is only known to the principal investigator.

I have read the description of the study provided above and thus have been informed of any risks and benefits of participation. Return of the questionnaire will be considered your consent to participate.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please contact the research team as follows: Principal Investigator, Dr. N. Joseph Cayer at 602.496.0451 or joe.cayer@asu.edu; Co- Investigator, Patsy Kraeger: 602-705-9398 or patsy.kraeger@asu.edu . If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board, through the ASU Office of Research Integrity and Assurance, at (480) 965-6788.

Sincerely,

Patsy Kraeger

APPENDIX D
ORGANIZATIONAL COVER LETTER

Date:

Dear Participant:

I am a graduate student under the direction of Professor N. Joseph Cayer in the School of Public Affairs at Arizona State University.

I am conducting a research study for my PhD dissertation to examine whether international NGOs are successful in achieving their mission in the field. I am inviting your participation, which will involve answering a survey questionnaire as well as in-person interviews. The purpose of my dissertation is to learn more about relationships between “home offices” and “field offices;” specifically in how these relationships can facilitate field office work. The academic literature has mentioned the important role of such relationships for years, but as yet, researchers have not explicitly asked home office personnel and field office directors about such relationships. I believe that documenting the experiences of working professionals who are immersed in these relationships is the right path to understanding NGO mission success.

I will ask a series of questions during the interview. You have the right not to answer any question, and to stop the interview at any time. Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts to your participation.

Your participation will be treated as confidential. No one will know how you responded to the survey questions. Your responses will be coded and your name will not be linked to the code. The results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, or publications but your name will not be known. I would like to audiotape this interview. The interview will not be recorded without your permission. Please let me know if you do not want the interview to be taped; you also can change your mind after the interview starts, just let me know. The interview tapes will be kept through May of 2011 until I defend my dissertation. The tapes may or may not be transcribed. If the interviews are transcribed all identifiers will be removed. The tapes will then be destroyed.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please contact the research team as follows: Principal Investigator, Dr. N. Joseph Cayer at 602.496.0451 or joe.cayer@asu.edu; Co- Investigator, Patsy Kraeger: 602-705-9398 or patsy.kraeger@asu.edu . If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board, through the ASU Office of Research Integrity and Assurance, at (480) 965-6788.

Sincerely,
Patsy Kraeger