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## ABBREVIATIONS

A Level	Advanced level
ABFT	Amy Biehl Foundation Trust
AIDS	Acquired Immunity Deficiency Syndrome
CAPS	Central African Pharmaceutical Suppliers
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
EVPA	European Venture Philanthropy Association
GCE 'A	General Certificate of Education Advanced Level
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
NASH	National Association of Secondary Heads
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NVCA	National Venture Capital Association
O Level	Ordinary Level
Philanthropy SA	Philanthropy South Africa
ROC	Return On Community
ROH	Return On Humanity
SDC	School Development Committee
SOIR	Swedish International Organisation for Individual Relief
SPOS	Social Purpose Organisations
SWRI	Social Welfare Research Institute
TG	Transformational Giving
TPI	The Philanthropic Initiative
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
VC	Venture Capital
VC/PE	Venture Capital/ Private Equity
VP	Venture Philanthropy
WBCSD	World Business Council for Sustainable Development
ZANU (PF)	Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains a discussion of the following: the background to the study; the statement of the problem and the aim of the study; the research method and research ethics, key terms; and the significance, limitations, delimitations, and organisation of the study.

One way of attaining sustainable social development in Zimbabwe is for more businesses, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and individuals to develop a culture of giving financial and material support to underprivileged public schools. In this regard, Hamann, Woolman and Sprague (2009:2) state that “sustainable development cannot be achieved through government action alone and the private sector has an important role to play”. Also there are “increasingly prominent demands and expectations that business contributes more comprehensively to broader social objectives than they used to”. This is because of “the failure of governments to fulfill their traditional functions”.

In Zimbabwe, the government pays an annual per capita grant to schools. But, as observed by Zvobgo (1999:151), “[t]his [grant] is not adequate to cover the cost of basic textbooks ... basic infrastructure such as classrooms and teachers’ houses”. Given the limited financial resources of the government and the high number of AIDS orphans in Zimbabwe it is important to step up the role played by corporates, the nonprofit sector and individual philanthropists in supporting public schools in need.

The aim of this study is to evaluate the impact of philanthropic activities on the public high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe. Philanthropy in education results in higher enrolment and retention rates and lower dropout rates in schools. The assistance needed by schools and pupils can be offered by businesses, NGOs and individuals.

Currently, visible philanthropy in education in Zimbabwe seems to come largely from foreign organisations - so much so that in Zimbabwe the term 'donor' is synonymous with assistance from foreign-based organisations. Some organisations involved in giving financial and material aid to schools in Zimbabwe are Plan International, World Vision and the Swedish International Organisation for Individual Relief (SOIR). This study tries to evaluate the role played by NGOs, local businesses and individuals in philanthropic activities in public high schools.

According to Michael Green (2011), "[p]hilanthropy is rapidly emerging as the new vocation of the rich around the world" so much so that there is "a global boom in philanthropy". ([www.icttr.ie/M.Green](http://www.icttr.ie/M.Green)). This study aims to evaluate the position of Zimbabwe as far as this global phenomenon is concerned. Johnson, Johnson and Kingman (2005:25) note that "[o]ne of the principal hurdles to the growth of philanthropy ... is that [there is] surprisingly little research ... conducted" on the matter. This study tries to make a contribution to research on philanthropy in the public high schools of Zimbabwe, where philanthropy could greatly contribute to improving access to education by children from poor backgrounds.

## 1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Philanthropy has become a global phenomenon. As stated by Schearer (1995), commerce and trade-led economic growth alone cannot “raise income levels sufficiently to substantially reduce poverty” Also, “[i]n most regions where poverty has become entrenched, governments have been unable to reverse this phenomenon”. Philanthropy can therefore play a significant role in reducing poverty by complementing the efforts of governments and the private sector.

The important role played by private funding from philanthropic organisations and individuals in realising the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) is aptly reflected in the theme of the Special Dialogue of the Development Cooperation Forum (United Nations 2013), namely “The role of philanthropic organizations in the post-2015 development agenda setting”. Philanthropy has a major role to play in reducing poverty and inequalities and improving the standard of living.

Some of the world’s most significant philanthropists are Warren Buffett who made an initial pledge of \$31 billion to the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation ([www.gatesfoundation.org](http://www.gatesfoundation.org) 2010); Chuck Feeney, who gave \$9 billion to Atlantic Philanthropies; and Ted Turner, who donated \$1 billion to the United Nations.

The late Michael Jackson, listed in the *Guinness Book of Records* for the “Most charities supported by a pop star”, gave \$350 million to good causes and supported 39 charities ([en.wikipedia.org/wiki/philanthropy](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/philanthropy)), and the Oprah Winfrey Foundation Charity funded the Oprah Winfrey Leadership Academy for Girls in South Africa, in 2000 ([www.owla.org](http://www.owla.org) 2014).

Philanthropy is well-established in developed countries of the north, with most of the donations going to “education, health, social services, cultural affairs and recreational activities” (Schearer 1995).

In the United States of America (USA), philanthropy was given impetus by the Giving Pledge initiative, “a major philanthropy campaign launched by Warren Buffet and Bill Gates” (*Sunday Times 08/08/2010*). These wealthy people persuaded other rich people to give part of their wealth to improve education and other services in poor communities. It should however be pointed out that philanthropy is not limited to the very wealthy only: corporates and individuals in developing countries can also play a role in this respect, relative to their means.

According to Crane (2008:167), social responsibility in business appears to have a low priority in Africa, “but one with considerable potential for contributing to social and economic development”. It was also observed in the *Sunday Times (08/08/2010)* that although some developing countries in Africa have produced “a new generation of fat cats whose ostentatious display of wealth is obvious ... [their] record as role models for philanthropy is less so”. This position, however, seems to be changing as more and more prominent Africans make significant donations to various social causes, as shown below.

Of late, some impressive philanthropic contributions have been made by Africans on the African continent. In 2014, Nsehe namely investigated the philanthropy of Africa’s richest 40 people for *Forbes* magazine and found the following:

In 2013, “one of the continent’s most recognizable givers”, Theophilus Danjuma, a former Nigerian minister of defence, “bestowed a \$100 million endowment on his TY Danjuma Foundation”, making it “the largest [endowment] in Nigerian philanthropic history”. This foundation gives grants to NGOs that provide free healthcare and education and alleviate poverty. (Nsehe 2014 in [www.forbes.com](http://www.forbes.com))

According to Nsehe (2014), the richest man in Africa, namely Aliko Dangote of Nigeria, is also one of the most generous philanthropists on the continent. In 2013 he donated over \$25 million to various causes for improving the lives of people on the continent. In October 2014, Mr. Dangote also pledged \$50 million to fight the Ebola disease in Liberia (*Mail & Guardian Online 29/10/2011*).

Another African philanthropist of note is Nicky Oppenheimer of South Africa, who “gives away millions of dollars annually to South African college students, providing bursaries and scholarships from undergraduate to postgraduate level” (Nsehe 2014).

Raymond Ackerman is yet another South African philanthropist who gives to society through the “Ackerman Family Educational Trust, which provides scholarships and bursaries for about 60 South Africans students every year.... The Trust also helps the mentally and physically disabled” (Nsehe 2014).

Then there is also South Africa’s richest black businessman, Patrice Motsepe, who in 2014 donated \$1 million to help fight the Ebola virus (Nsehe 2014).

As shown above, Africa’s prominent people are setting the pace in responding to the social needs of the continent through philanthropic action.

In a study by Maphosa (1998), it was found that less than 16% of the companies listed on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange included social issues such as education in their company reports and strategic plans. Still, Zimbabwe has some philanthropists of note such as Strive Masiyiwa, the founder of Zimbabwe's largest cellular telecommunications network, Econet Wireless, who features among the *Forbes* top 40 richest Africans. Masiyiwa has arguably contributed the most to improving the lives of the disadvantaged in his country, so much so that Nsehe (2014) states the following:

In 1996 Strive and his wife, Tsitsi Masiyiwa founded the Capernaum Trust, a Zimbabwe-registered Christian charity that supports over 28 000 orphaned Zimbabwean children. The organisation provides bursary awards, scholarships, food packs and medical assistance to the children. The charity also funds the construction of libraries and other resource centres where beneficiaries can access educational materials.

Another Zimbabwean philanthropist of note is Vuli Mkandla, the founder and director of the Zimbabwean Educational Trust "which helped over 1000 young Zimbabwean nationals to travel to the UK and access higher education over a seventeen year period". Mkandla is said to have "spent his entire life championing education in Zimbabwe and the UK [and] tirelessly [working] to improve the lives of disadvantaged children". (New Zimbabwe.com 14/11/14)

It appears that there is a growing trend among the rich in Africa to give back to the community. From the above it can be noted that philanthropy is also growing in terms

of dollar value in the developing countries, and that it is no longer a preserve of the developed countries.

Philanthropy is also practised by the business sector. It is namely recommended by the Commission for Africa (2009) that “businesses must sign up leading codes of good social ... conduct ... and focus their efforts on co-ordinated action to tackle poverty”. Similarly, the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) is said to be in the forefront in arguing that business can also make a significant contribution to sustainable development, including the achievement of MDGs such as the eradication of illiteracy and extreme poverty (United Nations 2013)

In Zimbabwe, local businesses can significantly help achieve these goals by funding the education of needy students and improving the quality of schools.

According to Crane and Matten (2008:11) corporates [businesses] are citizens and “powerful actors in society, so they have arguably duties to respect” and as such can help advance the rights of other citizens, such as “the right to education ... in developing countries ... providing schools ... even providing financial support for ... schools”.

In Zimbabwe, there is a need to investigate the role played by local businesses in funding schools in need of financial and material support and to evaluate the impact of their donations.

Charitable giving by business is referred to as 'corporate philanthropy' and is a concept read in the broader context of 'corporate social responsibility' ('CSR'). The concept involves a wide range of good business deeds including caring for the environment.

According to Werther Jr and Chandler (2006:7), 'CSR' is also known as

- corporate philanthropy
- corporate business responsibility
- corporate citizenship
- corporate community engagement
- community relations, and simply
- social responsibility

Crane (2008:56) also states that there are many definitions of CSR without there being any consensus on one of them, and as such "CSR is a cluster concept which overlaps such concepts as business ethics, corporate philanthropy, corporate citizenship, sustainability". For the purposes of this study it suffices to say that 'CSR' refers to any form of charitable giving by business.

Carol (2008:64) states that "philanthropy encompasses those corporate actions that are a response to society's expectations that good business [should] be good social citizens" and goes on to say that "philanthropy is more discretionary or voluntary on the part of business even though there [are] always societal expectations that businesses provide it", In simple terms, philanthropy is the giving of money, material support, training in certain skills and other resources that can improve the livelihood of the recipients. There are several concepts related to giving, as shown below.

The giving of resources targeting a particular need of a community is referred to as 'strategic giving', which, according to [www.cfbv \(19/07/2011\)](http://www.cfbv.com), is "helping meet a specific community need and wants to make a meaningful gift". Hence we can say that a donation to improve education is an example of strategic giving.

Philanthropy is practised by NGOs, individuals and businesses and is recognised as playing an important role in improving the lives of people. The aim of this study is to evaluate the impact of philanthropy from various sources on the public high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe.

### **1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

In Zimbabwe, like in the rest of the world, there are philanthropists and there are philanthropic activities. Yet the impact of these activities on the high schools in the Mutasa district has never been evaluated. That now constitutes the problem of this study.

#### **1.3.1 Research question**

What are the impacts of philanthropic activities at the public high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe?

#### **1.3.2 Sub-problems**

(1) What types of philanthropic activity take place in the public high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe?

(2) What impact do these philanthropic activities have on those high schools?

(3) What is the impact of philanthropic activities on the students attending those high schools?

**1.4 AIM OF THE STUDY** The aim of this study is to evaluate the impact of philanthropic activities on the public high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe from an educational management perspective.

### **1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

According to McMillan (2012:5), research is a “systematic process of gathering and analysing information [and] educational research is systematic, disciplined inquiry applied to educational problems and questions”. Atkins and Wallace (2012:20) explain that research is systematic because it is carefully planned and carried out. According to both McMillan (2012:5) and Atkins and Wallace (2012:20), some of the characteristics of research are as follows: it is objective as far as data collection and the reporting of results are concerned; it is free from personal bias, prejudice, beliefs and attitudes of the researcher and is based on sound principles; and it is honest, genuine and based on sound ethics. Research is verifiable, which means that the results can be checked through replication - that is, if this study were to be replicated by another researcher, the same results for evaluating the impact of philanthropy on the high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe would be obtained.

Educational research is conducted for a number of reasons: it can stem from a research problem or question such as the high-school dropout rate in a school district; it can be conducted to explore issues in education such as school funding, school discipline or management; and can also be conducted to shape and improve educational policy and to improve educational outcomes (Atkins & Wallace 2012; McMillan 2012; Newby 2010).



In this study quantitative data was collected by questionnaire (see appendix G) from 30 high school principals. The questionnaire was more applicable to collect data from 30 schools spread across the entire district with relative ease given that the researcher was based in South Africa. Interviewing all the school principals could take a long time. The questionnaire enabled the study to quantify the philanthropic activities in the schools studied.

Qualitative data was collected by interview (see appendices J, M & O) from three representatives of philanthropic organisations with donor programmes in the high schools studied. Interviews were suitable to complement and collaborate data collected by questionnaire.

Further qualitative data was collected by analysing documents made available by NGOs supporting the schools.

### **1.5.1 Research approach**

This research used both quantitative and qualitative methods. Wiersma and Jurs (2009:306/7) posit that mixed methods research include both quantitative and qualitative methods in one study. The advantage of the mixed methods research approach is that it has the complementary strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods. (Johnson and Christensen 2012: 51). The mixed methods allows the researcher to view a phenomenon from a variety of perspectives for a more comprehensive understanding. (Wiersma and Jurs 2009: 309).

Quantitative research has a number of research methods, namely experimental, quasi experimental and non-experimental designs. This research chose the non-experimental quantitative method as the suitable method as there was no manipulation of variables related to philanthropic activities and impact in the schools studied. Quantitative research relies “heavily on numerical data and statistical analysis”, (Gall, Gall & Borg 2005:13). The study involved quantitative data analysis and quantitative or numerical description of philanthropic activities in the population studied.

Qualitative research methods include phenomenology, ethnography, grounded theory and case study research. The qualitative case study research was selected as the suitable approach for the study. Qualitative research relies “heavily on verbal data and subjective analysis” of phenomenon under study. (Gall, Gall & Borg 2005:13).

The qualitative case-study method was also suitable for this study, since the research was not experimental in nature and aimed at evaluating the impact of philanthropic interventions. Qualitative research is non-experimental and as such noninterventionist, in nature. It is also descriptive and interpretive in nature - that is, it describes what something is like and evaluates how well something works. (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011) and Hart (2005:317.) As such it suited this study, which aims to evaluate the impact of philanthropic activities on the high schools in the Mutasa district.

Trumbull in Taylor (2005:101) explains that qualitative research studies “things in their natural settings attempting to make sense of, or interpret ... phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring”. Qualitative research describes phenomena as they are

and tries to answer the questions of “what is happening?” and “why is it happening?” It is narrative and interpretive in nature. This study tries to provide answers to, or a narrative of, “what is happening” as far as philanthropy in the public schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe is concerned – thus, what is the status of the phenomenon. It also tries to explain “why it [i.e. philanthropy] is happening”, which is interpretative in nature.

A case-study approach was used for collecting interview data from non-governmental organisations working with the high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe in order to evaluate the impact of philanthropic activities on those schools. An evaluation is conducted “to judge the merits and worth of...programmes” (Stephens 2009:48).

The high schools in the district constituted the case.

### **1.5.2 Population**

A population is the larger group “or entire set of individuals or other entities to which study findings are to be generalized” (Check & Schutt 2012:92) or “a larger group to whom results can be generalized” (McMillan 2012:97). A more precise definition appropriate for this study is that a population is “the total group that you are interested in learning more about” (Johnson & Christensen 2012:218),

The population used for this study consisted of 30 high schools (secondary schools) in the Mutasa district of the Manicaland province in Zimbabwe.

### **1.5.3 Sampling**

The population was small enough to be manageable and readily accessible by questionnaire and thus the researcher aimed at gathering data from all the 30 high schools. In this regard the study took a census rather than a sample as the entire population was included. (Wiersma and Jurs 2009: 194). Census sampling is a nonrandom sampling technique that is used when the population is not too large. (Lodico, Spaulding and Voegtle, 2010: 217)

### **1.5.4 Instrumentation and data-collection techniques**

Questionnaires, personal interviews and documentary sources constituted the principal methods of gathering data.

Questionnaires were sent to 30 high school principals. Documents provided by an NGO working with schools in the Mutasa district were analysed for additional data. Representatives of NGOs working in the Mutasa district were interviewed for an in-depth understanding of their philanthropic operations.

## **1.6 RESEARCH ETHICS**

This study was conducted in full compliance with the ethical requirements as specified by the Unisa Research Ethics Committee, and an ethics clearance certificate was issued. (See appendix A.)

According to Johnson and Christensen (2012:100), 'research ethics' constitute "a guiding set of principles that are to assist researchers in conducting ethical studies", and according to McMillan (2012:17), these ethics "are concerned with what is right or

wrong, good or bad, proper or improper ... within the context of gathering data from subjects or using data in which subjects are identified”.

Atkins and Wallace (2012) are of the opinion that research should seek informed consent, protect the privacy and confidentiality of the participants and not cause harm to the participants and Check and Schutt (2012:50) point out that ethical issues in research are covered by the following five guidelines: subjects must not be caused any harm, participation must be voluntary and subjects must give their informed consent, researchers must disclose their identity, researchers must maintain the anonymity and confidentiality of participants, and the benefits from a research project must outweigh any foreseeable risks.

The following requirements were adhered to in conducting this study:

Prior to the collection of data in schools for this study, permission was sought from the secretary of education at the head office of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education in Harare to conduct research in schools. (See appendix D) Seeking such permission is a standard procedure in Zimbabwe.

Informed consent was sought from NGOs to carry out a study of their activities in secondary schools. (See appendices I, K and L)

All the research respondents were informed of the nature of the research through letters requesting informed consent. These letters informed the respondents that their participation was voluntary and that the data collected were to be confidential and would be used for research purposes only. The data were not to be used in any way that would be harmful to the schools, organisations and individuals involved. The

anonymity of the respondents would be respected. Honesty would prevail throughout the study to maintain a level of trust and credibility.

## **1.7 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS**

### *Philanthropy*

'Philanthropy' has, inter alia, been defined as follows: "[G]iving in order to make a difference so that the recipient will not rely on charity in future" (Rubenstein 2004); "[a]ny acts of benevolence and goodwill, such as making gifts to charities, volunteering to charities for community projects, and taking action to benefit others" (Thorne, Ferrell & Ferrell 2008:290); and "[a]ltruist concern for human welfare and advancement, usually manifested by donations of property, or work to needy persons, by endowment of institutions of learning and hospitals, and by generosity to other socially useful purposes" (www.dictionary).

For the purposes of this study, 'philanthropy' refers to the giving of financial and material assistance to schools and students for improving the quality of education and the lives of individuals, institutions and communities.

### *Philanthropists*

Philanthropists can be businesses, NGOs or individual donors who engage in acts of philanthropy or giving, as defined above.

### *Impact of philanthropy*

The term 'impact of philanthropy' describes the positive change that takes place as a result of a giving intervention. If a programme eliminates undesirable socioeconomic

circumstances such as poverty and illiteracy, there is a positive change, and hence an impact. Funding the education of an orphan, for example, is an impact of philanthropy. The people who can best evaluate the impact of a philanthropic programme are the recipients of an intervention: so if the recipients say that the intervention was a success, there was a positive impact.

### *Corporate social responsibility (CSR)*

According to Werther Jr and Chandler (2006:7), 'CSR' is also known as 'corporate philanthropy', 'corporate citizenship', 'corporate community engagement and community relations' while Booyesen and King (2007) view 'CSR' as "[t]he contribution that businesses make to community development" and Crane et al (2008:5) observe that "CSR is a cluster concept which overlaps such concepts as business ethics, corporate philanthropy, corporate citizenship [and] sustainability".

For the purposes of this study, the term 'CSR' refers to the giving of financial and material assistance by businesses to improve the lives of individuals, communities and institutions, and can also refer to corporate philanthropy.

### *Strategic giving*

Berri as cited in Frumkin (2006), defines 'strategic giving' as treating grants as social investments; investing in people. Frumkin (2006) views it as giving with a strategic plan and [www.cfbv](http://www.cfbv) as "helping meet a specific community need and want(s)".

For the purposes of this study, 'strategic giving' refers to the planned giving of resources to meet a particular need of a community.

### *Transformational giving (TG)*

According to and Grace and Wendroff (2001:xv) 'TG' is when philanthropy changes lives, institutions and communities for the better while Burkhardt (2007) states that 'TG' means engaging with society in addressing its problems; and [www.philanthropySA](http://www.philanthropySA) defines it as giving to make the beneficiary self-sufficient so that he/she will not rely on charity any more.

For the purposes of this study, 'TG' is the giving of resources to make a difference or positive change in the lives of the beneficiaries.

### *Tycoon*

According to [www.philanthropySA](http://www.philanthropySA), a 'tycoon' is a "businessman/woman of exceptional wealth and power; a magnate".

For the purposes of this study, any wealthy man or woman as defined by the local community is a tycoon: the term tends to be a relative one, depending on social settings because of differences in wealth among countries.

### *Tycoon philanthropy*

'Tycoon philanthropy' is the giving to worthy causes by very wealthy individuals (Philips 2008).

### *School principal*

A 'school principal' is the headmaster or headmistress of a school. In Zimbabwe, a 'school principal' is usually called a 'headmaster', 'headmistress', 'head' or 'school

head', whereas the term 'principal' is usually used for referring to the head of a boarding mission school. The above terms are used interchangeably throughout this study.

### *High school*

For the purposes of this study, a 'high school' is any secondary school that offers classes up to either Form 4 or Form 6. Some people in Zimbabwe usually say that a high school is a secondary school that offers classes up to Form 6.

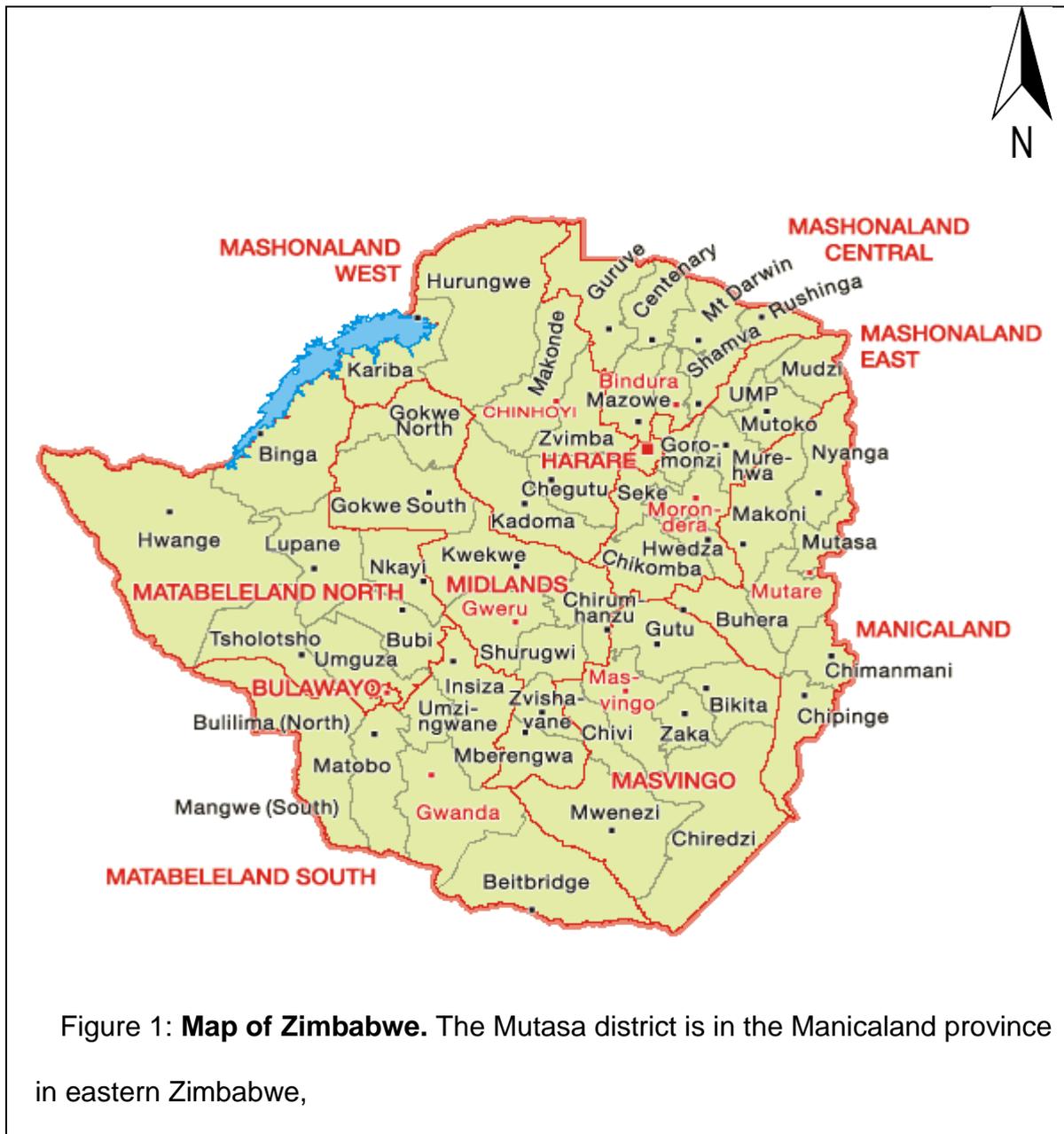
### *Zimbabwe*

Zimbabwe is a developing country in sub-Saharan Africa. It is a former British colony that gained independence in 1980. The country is divided into 10 administrative provinces, each run by an appointed provincial administrator who is a civil servant. The two cities of Harare and Bulawayo have provincial status.

Each province is divided into administrative districts. A district is run by a district administrator, a civil servant appointed by the government. The Mutasa district is one of the seven districts in the Manicaland province. See the map of Zimbabwe in figure 1 below.

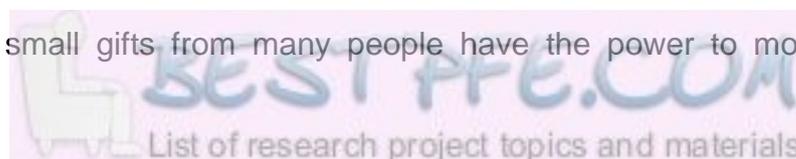
## **1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

This study is important because it for the first time evaluates the impact of philanthropic activities on the public high schools in the Mutasa district. The findings of this study help us understand the type of change brought about by philanthropy in the high schools so that education managers, including school heads and education policy makers, may harness philanthropy to raise funds for developing their schools.



It is hoped that this study will encourage the formation of local philanthropic associations and institutions.

This study should encourage local giving, instead of relying only on foreign donors (called the 'donor syndrome'). Giving is not a preserve of the rich. According to Schearer (1995), small gifts from many people have the power to mobilise very



significant resources for development, and according to *The Economist*, as cited by Kathleen Newlands (2010), recent research suggests that the poor are more likely to give than the wealthy. ([www.migrationpolicy.org](http://www.migrationpolicy.org)). This can be referred to as non-elite philanthropy or citizen philanthropy. It is hoped that this study will encourage a culture of giving in a developing country such as Zimbabwe.

In their report on “The role of philanthropic organizations in the post-2015 development agenda setting”, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) (United Nations 2013) state that philanthropic organisations have a role to play in achieving the MDGs, which include the eradication of extreme poverty through programmes such as the provision of education. Education, especially in the developing countries, cannot be funded by governments alone.

## **1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

This study had the following limitations:

- (1) The population studied was not in close proximity to the researcher, who resides in Pretoria and had to collect data in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe.
  
- (2) Because of promotions and transfers, school heads may not stay at a school for very long, which may lead to the data gathered from the schools being compromised. Some information on infrastructure donations, for example, can be lost if not continuously updated by successive heads.

(3) This study did not try to quantify the value of philanthropic contributions to schools in monetary terms because of the hyperinflation that wiped out the value of the Zimbabwean dollar by 2008, when the inflation rate is said to have reached over 79 billion per cent ([www.garynorth](http://www.garynorth)). In 2009, Zimbabwe adopted a multicurrency regime with the US dollar being the main currency in use ([www.internationalreporters](http://www.internationalreporters)). Giving values would present a much distorted picture and would be almost incomprehensible.

### **1.10 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

This study made the following delimitations:

(1) The data were collected only from registered schools, and not from “satellite schools”. (Satellite schools are newly established schools operating at a primary school and do not have premises of their own.) The 10 satellite schools in the Mutasa district, did not form part of the population.

(2) The findings of this study apply only to the district studied and may not be generalised to other districts. The evaluation of the impact of philanthropy also relates only to the high schools in the Mutasa district.

### **1.11 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY**

Chapter 1 serves as an introduction to the study. Chapter 2 contains a literature review of the concepts regarding philanthropy. Chapter 3 contains a review of literature on research methods. Chapter 4 focuses on the research methodology and design relevant to this study. Chapter 5 contains analyses and discusses data from the study

and chapter 6 contains a summary of findings, together with conclusions and recommendations.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW OF THE CONCEPT 'PHILANTHROPY'**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses the concept 'philanthropy', theories of change, and models of philanthropy. The extent of philanthropy in the United States of America (USA), motives for giving, reasons why corporates give, methods of giving and some criticisms levelled against philanthropy will also be discussed.

The literature review done for this study provided valuable knowledge and understanding of and insight into the concept and the theories of philanthropy. It served to identify gaps in the knowledge and also showed that the concept and practice of philanthropy is far advanced in developed countries, and especially in the USA and countries in Western Europe, where there are philanthropic institutions and the concept can be studied at university.

From the literature review it was learnt that philanthropy plays an important role in addressing problems caused by both public and market failure (Anheier & Simmons 2005).

The problem with public-sector provisioning, especially in developing countries, is that governments cannot provide adequate public services such as education to meet the needs of society, resulting in the perpetuation of adverse social conditions such as poverty. The market system cannot provide social services such as education at a

price that the larger society can afford because it is profit-oriented. Private schools, for example, are not accessible to the lower end of the market and so cannot be appropriate vehicles for expanded education programmes desired by governments of developing countries for achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

This literature review discusses the concept 'philanthropy', outlines theories of philanthropy, compares models of philanthropy, analyses motivations for giving and discusses some criticisms leveled against philanthropy.

## **2.2 'PHILANTHROPY', AS OPPOSED TO 'CHARITY'**

Although the terms 'charity' and 'philanthropy' are often used interchangeably, they have different meanings, which will be clarified here. Nagai, Lerner and Rothman (1994:2) observe the following:

Americans sometimes use the words charity and philanthropy interchangeably, but they are not the same thing. Charity means helping the poor. Foundations do not directly help the poor because they do not disburse dollars to the needy but go through an intermediary non-profit organization to accomplish this end. Moreover, many foundations award grants to groups that have little to do with aiding the poor.

This includes support for museums, research, universities, the arts and other institutions that are far from poor.

According to Frumkin (2006:5), charity is "the uncomplicated and unconditional transfer of money or assistance to those in need with the intent of helping". It may include volunteering or gifts of money.

Frumkin (2006:5) also states the following:

[Charity is] ... deeply intertwined with many of the world's religions. Within Christianity, faith and charity have long gone hand in hand. In other faiths, charity has also been a principle, a way of demonstrating caring and commitment. Charity is based on the presumption that no human being should live in misery and suffering and that those with the ability to help have an obligation to do so.

Charity provides relief from the effects of conditions such as poverty, while philanthropy tries to empower people and communities so that they are self-sustaining and not depend on charity – it is the goal of philanthropy to develop independent individuals and communities. Philanthropy is transformative.

According to Paula Johnson (2001), although charity and philanthropy have similar roots, charity provides immediate relief from suffering but does not deal with the root causes of the suffering and “fails to challenge the status quo that produces suffering, but may indeed reinforce it by applying ‘band-aids’ to gaping societal wounds”. In other words, charity can provide temporary relief but does not address the situation that causes societal ills. Philanthropy, by comparison, emphasizes “the transformative potential [and] transformative intent of giving” and is likened to social investment.

Johnson (2001) says that The Philanthropic Initiative (TPI) “defines social investment as the strategic and systematic investment of private philanthropic resources to address complex, inter-connected manifestations of chronic underdevelopment”. It can be concluded that charity does not provide a lasting solution to societal problems. It is valuable because it lessens suffering, but it is not long-lasting. Philanthropy, on the other hand, tries to deal with societal problems in a sustainable way by eliminating

the causes of social problems by equipping people with skills or eradicating disease, for example.

In summary, charity provides relief from problems while philanthropy works towards permanent change in the lives of the poor.

### 2.3 'PHILANTHROPIC FOUNDATION'

Nagai et al (1994:2) define a **philanthropic foundation** as follows:

... one kind of non-profit organization. It is a private organization with a large endowment and achieves its goals by making grants. The grants must go to an individual or private organisation that serves some public purpose ... in such areas as health care, social services, culture, education, and religion.

In other words, a foundation is the source of funds used by non-governmental organisations (NGOs) for financing their philanthropic initiatives. The NGOs provide project proposals to foundations for funding.

Freund (1996:1) defines a **foundation** as follows:

[A] non-profit organization having a principal fund of its own, managed by its own trustees or directors, established to maintain or assist educational, social, charitable, artistic, scientific or other activities that serve the common welfare.

A foundation gives funds to nonprofit organisations that in turn assist various public causes.

The following are the **categories of philanthropic foundation**, with some examples:

- (1) **Private independent foundations** [e.g. the Ford, Rockefeller, and Melton and Johnson foundations; the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation; and the Motsepe Family Foundation] are generally derived from a single source, such as a family. (Freund 1996:2-3.)
- (2) **Company sponsored foundations** whose funds derive from profit-making business. Their giving tends to be in the fields related to corporate activities or in communities where the sponsoring corporations operate. (Freund 1996:3)
- An example here is the WK Kellogg Foundation (WKKF), which is among the largest philanthropic foundations in the United States. Guided by the belief that all children should have an equal opportunity to thrive, WKKF works with communities to create conditions for vulnerable children so they can realize their full potential in school, work and life. (Freund 1996:3)
- (3) **Community foundations** [are] publicly sponsored, [and their] assets are made up of contributions received from many donors. Grant decisions are made by a board of directors and generally limited to local charitable organizations. (Freund 1996:3.)

Foundations are growing in prominence in American society because they are increasing in number and available assets and because of predictable impact on segments of the population and the country's institutions. What is not predictable ... is whether foundations will mount effective programs to deal with a country's critical problems ... poverty and the growing gap between rich and poor, ... declining educational standards and the degeneration of the urban public school systems. (Freund 1996:5.)

Foundations such as the above raise private funds for financing a variety of causes that meet their priorities. An NGO or an institution such as a high school that requires assistance with its projects will apply to the foundations for consideration for funding.

## **2.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

The role and purpose of theory in research is to provide a framework by serving as a point of departure in pursuance of the research problem. Theory helps to provide a systematic view of the factors under study. Theory attaches meaning to facts and places them in their proper perspective. Theory also helps the researcher in what to look for in a study. Another function of theory is to help explain results of research findings. (Wiersma and Jurs 2009:19-20). This study was guided by the theories of change in order to answer the research sub-problems. The theories are discussed below.

### **2.4.1 Theories of change**

The goal of philanthropy is to initiate, manage and facilitate change from the present perceived undesirable condition of individuals and communities to a better state. Theories of change are philanthropic approaches designed to bring about the desired change.

Frumkin (2006) explains the five theories of change as follows:

(1) Donors can adopt “an approach to philanthropy that focuses on training **individuals** for leadership in a field [e.g. education] with the assumption that change occurs one person at a time”. (Frumkin 2006:179.)

“[U]nderlying the individual-level theory of change [is] an assumption that society is substantially influenced by individuals, even in the face of ever larger and more imposing social structures and institutions” (Frumkin 2006:181). In other words, Frumkin (2006) argues that the logic of the theory is that to change society you need to empower individuals, and schools are the best places for achieving individual capacity-building.

“Many funders concerned with maximizing effectiveness focus on training and developing individuals for leadership in fields in which change is needed [and this] ... requires a long term perspective.” (Frumkin 2006:180.)

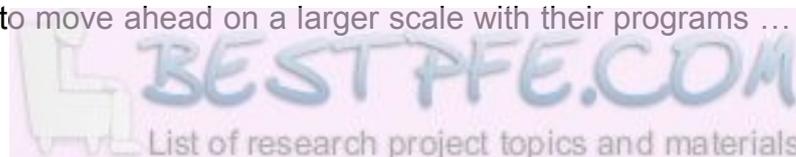
By starting with individuals within a large and complex system, funders are making a conscious strategic choice, one that is built on the belief that change starts at the level of the individual and then percolates up through the organization level. (Frumkin 2006:180.)

The “... approach demands patience and a strong attraction to the idea of working from the grass roots up” (Frumkin 2006:180). In fact, organisations and institutions are actually made up of a collection of individuals and to develop effective entities there is a need to develop competent and effective individuals.

(2) Donors can look at “ways of building stronger **organizations** with the goal of creating greater and more sustainable capacity.” (Frumkin 2006:179.)

Stronger organisations can be built through

...technical assistance, planning and capacity-building advice so as to position non-profits to move ahead on a larger scale with their programs ... working to



support stronger organizations can be seen as a critical ingredient in broader efforts to change a field. (Frumkin 2006:182.)

Thus philanthropic change can be achieved through assisting organisations such as schools or school districts to become more effective.

(3) Frumkin (2006) argues that donors can achieve change through “support collaborations and the creation of strong **networks** among organizations. These networks can support the sharing of best practice, the pooling of resources, and the mobilization of advocacy efforts.” Networking “resolve[s] ... the shortcomings in the non-profit sector [such as] ... the duplication of effort and the inability to learn from others what works.” By networking, “philanthropy is ultimately able to create the building blocks for broad movements and to overcome the isolation that many non-profit organizations experience.” (Frumkin 2006:183.)

(4) Frumkin (2006) maintains that donors can attempt to achieve change “by entering the political arena and exerting pressure on the political process”. He considers the different approaches in attempting to achieve change by influencing the **political** process that can be used by philanthropy to be as follows:

- (a) Supporting “projects that stimulate civic engagement by exposing citizens to politics and mobilizing them to take action [translating into] ... organizing at the grassroots level around interests and causes”. (Frumkin 2006:185.)
- (b) To influence the political process, “... donors often turn to non-profits and ask them to play an important role in informing and educating the public and policymakers. Donors also support policy research that has the potential to shape public priorities.” (Frumkin 2006:185.)

(c) Donors make grants to non-profits that engage in direct lobbying around specific legislative issues ... it focuses on specific bills of legislation, support of non-profit lobbying is a way to translate philanthropic dollars into direct political action.” (Frumkin 2006:185.)

The problem with seeking change by influencing the political system is a likely clash of interests between those wanting change and the political establishment in a country that may want to maintain the status quo: some governments may feel threatened by the work of not-for-profit organisations. In Zimbabwe it can be argued that such organisations have not been completely free from government’s intense and sustained scrutiny of their activities.

(5) Philanthropic change can be achieved by introducing new **ideas**:

Donors can engage with problems at even higher levels of abstraction. They can support the production of new ideas and paradigms that can reorient entire fields and lead to important breakthroughs in basic knowledge; breakthroughs that can lead to new ways of understanding problems and of seeing the world. Donors supporting the production of new concepts can generate significant change, whether by disrupting dominant assumptions or by catalysing the reorganization of work to conform to a new understanding of the problem at hand [or by] funding the production of transformative ideas. (Frumkin 2006:186.)

As far as education is concerned, donors can fund the development of new teaching approaches: in the early 1980s, for example, donors working in Zimbabwe successfully funded the teaching of science in newly established rural secondary schools that had no laboratories under a project called the Zimbabwe Science Project (Zim-sci). These donors helped develop appropriate low-cost laboratory equipment

that can be used in schools without a science laboratory. The Zim-sci programme was hailed as a success by the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education.

In summarising the theories of change, Frumkin (2006) says the following:

The five levels at which change is pursued in philanthropy appear to be neatly nestled, starting at the micro-level of the individual, moving up to the meso-level of organizations and networks and finally culminating in the macro-level of politics and ideas.”

Thus change takes place at the following levels: the individual; organisations and networks; and politics and ideas.

Frumkin’s theories of philanthropic change adopt a bottom-up approach (Frumkin 2006:190):

Some donors believe that change is ultimately achieved from the bottom up ... starting with the training of leaders, moving on to building stronger organizations, connecting these organizations into strong networks and collaborations, mobilizing these actors to lobby the political system and finally producing new ideas and policies. This is generally a progressive vision of change that seeks to empower individuals to be free and solve problems.

Other donors have adopted an opposite approach and sought to bring change from the top down. Of this approach, Frumkin (2006:190) says the following:

This means starting with the production of new ideas on the national scene, attempting to introduce these ideas into politics, building new networks of

dissemination, assessing organizations with the implementation of new programs, and then training individual leaders to bring change at the local level.

The top-down approach was successfully adopted with the introduction of rural secondary schools in Zimbabwe at the beginning of independence in 1980. Change in the provision of education began with the elaboration of the political goals in the party manifesto of ZANU (PF)<sup>1</sup>. Local communities were given the mandate to build their own secondary schools with government assistance.

Frumkin (2006) says that “[t]heories of change do not operate in a vacuum. Other social, economic, and political forces contribute to shaping the ultimate outcome of an intervention.” Thus the political structure in a country, for example, will affect the approach to change adopted by donor organisations. In Zimbabwe, for instance, donor organisations can intervene in the education sector only to support government programmes, and nothing else.

“A good theory of change is developed over time through the interaction of the donors’ planning and philanthropy experience.” (Frumkin 2006:190.)

## **2.5 MODELS OF PHILANTHROPY**

This section reviews models of philanthropy. A model is a way of explaining how change may be brought about. It is an approach to effecting change.

The *Stanford Social Innovation Review* (2014) suggests that a model is “a brand” of philanthropy. Each model has specific main attributes. The *Review’s* leadership model

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<sup>1</sup> Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front

of philanthropy, for example, has three pillars, namely focus, flexibility and fortitude. ([www.ssireview.com](http://www.ssireview.com)). Other models have their own characteristics.

When comparing models of philanthropy, it becomes clear that each model tries to offer the most appropriate approach or solution to social problems such as poverty or a poor school system.

Philanthropic models help us understand how change can be achieved in a given situation. In this study, models were used for analysing how philanthropists were trying to achieve change in the public high schools concerned. The models helped to evaluate the impact of the philanthropic intervention.

The following sections reviews high-impact philanthropy, outcome-oriented philanthropy, transformational philanthropy, strategic philanthropy, tactical philanthropy, venture philanthropy, family philanthropy and social-change philanthropy.

## **2.5.1 High-impact philanthropy**

### *2.5.1.1 Introduction*

High-impact philanthropy aims to make a positive and lasting change in communities.

Grace and Wendroff (2001:2) say the following:

The catalyst for high impact philanthropy is transformational giving. High impact philanthropy is about transformational gifts. Transformational gifts have a remarkable impact on the ability of an organization to meet its constituencies,

and each gift represents an investment in the future. Transformational gifts are often given to leverage other gifts, serving as a model or challenge to other donor-investors. As such, they are not kept quiet, even when they are anonymous.

Transformational gifts can be likened to capital goods and services in that they are supposed to yield a social return. Computers donated to a school are an example of transformational gifts.

Grace and Wendroff also say that “[t]ransformational gifts are not limited to educational institutions, although they have been the focus of many such gifts” (2001:2), and that “transformational gifts are gauged by their impact on an organization” (2001:3).

#### *2.5.1.2 Roles of stakeholders in high-impact philanthropy*

High-impact philanthropy, just like venture philanthropy, involves communities, nonprofits and donor-investors. Each of these stakeholders has a role to play in making the impact, as shown below:

- Communities provide the vision, needs assessments and trend analysis that allow non-profits to address both the urgent and important issues.
- Non-profits provide vision, staffing, expertise, networks, and client services. [Non-profits are intermediaries between donor-investors and communities]
- Donor-investors provide the financial resources and strategic involvement to ensure delivery of programs that will meet community needs. (Grace & Wendroff 2001:11)

[If] the partnership can function effectively and consistently ... all partners must fulfill their roles as follows:

- Communities need to identify their needs in a more cohesive and consistent way, and convey those needs as opportunities for partnership with non-profits and investors.
- Non-profit organizations had to change the way they view, approach, solicit, and steward major gifts. Non-profits must shift from institutional focus to an issues constituency, and donor-investor focus.
- Donor–investors need to be informed about the opportunities for investment that exist in communities and educated in the ways of philanthropy so they make discerning choices among the organizations that address the issues, ideas, and problems about which donor-investors are concerned. (Grace & Wendroff 2001:11-12.)

High-impact philanthropy will succeed if all stakeholders fulfill their roles and all work together.

### *2.5.1.3 Transformational gifts as opposed to transactional gifts*

Grace and Wendroff (2001:14) make a distinction between transactional and transformational giving: “In traditional major giving, the emphasis was on the transaction. It was an internally driven process with the donor as the outside part of the equation.” In other words, the giving is an end in itself and does not go beyond solving the current problem.

Transactional gifts can be likened to charity. They solve the symptoms and effects of a major underlying problem such as hunger and poverty. Transactional giving does not go beyond the action of giving: it provides temporary relief.

Transformational giving, however, tries to provide a lasting solution to current problems such as educating people so that they will not rely on charity in the future:

In transformational giving, the focus is on the impact of the gift and the renewing of relationship, not just on the transaction. Although the transaction should be geared to the needs, style, and wishes of the donor within the scope and mission of the organization, the focus must be on the transforming nature of the gift. (Grace & Wendroff 2001:15)

The gift should have far-reaching effects of changing the future of the recipients rather than solving the current needs.

Grace and Wendroff (2001:15) also say the following:

Transformational gifts are valued contributions from individuals, foundations, or corporations to non-profit organizations the size of which initiate and often sustain significant transformation or change in the organizations [and the] community.

Classrooms, donations of school fees and textbooks fall into the category of transformational gifts:

These contributions may be categorized as 'big' or 'major' gifts, but their unique capacity to alter the programs, perceptions and future of the organization distinguish them from other big or major gifts, ... they are true investments in

the future of an organization and the community. Transformational giving goes beyond the donor's usual ... transactional gift. Transactional gifts are an inclusive investment of the donor's values made in the organization whose values the donor shares. (Grace & Wendroff 2001:15.)

Other aspects of major transformational gifts, as explained by Grace and Wendroff (2001:16-17), are as follows:

- Transformational gifts have an impact on the organization, its constituency, the donor, and the community.
- Transformational gifts are investments.
- Gifts are motivated by shared values between the investor and the organization.
- Donor-investors expect a solid return from two bottom lines: the return on values, and the management of their investment.
- An organization does not have to be large, as long as the mission or issue is big in the eyes [or heart] of the donor.

According to Grace and Wendroff (2001:64),

[Donor-investors] ... invest in organizations to achieve the following:

- To engage in issues that matter deeply to them and to their communities.
- To seed, encourage, or complete change.
- To leapfrog tiresome processes or bureaucracies (usually governmental) and get faster results.

- To give back to the community when their own assets grow.
- To ensure that others have what they have come to value and perhaps did not have earlier in life.
- To better communities, through development or enhancement of resources.
- To guarantee the continuation of ideas and institutions they value.
- To attain lifelong (and beyond) recognition through the establishment of endowments or the funding of capital projects.
- To affiliate with others having like values and interests.
- To be perceived as individuals and organizations who are making a difference and to enjoy the resulting esteem.

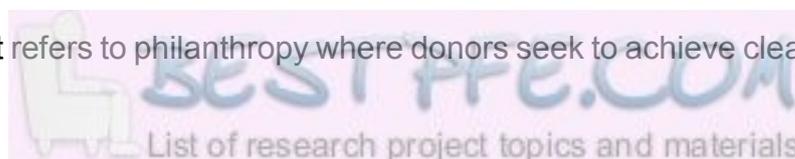
Transactional gifts have a lasting impact on the recipients. Hence these gifts are referred to as 'investments', in that the 'investors' expect a return in the form of positive change in recipient communities.

High-impact philanthropy is similar to both transformational philanthropy and venture philanthropy, both reviewed in the subsections below.

### **2.5.2 Outcome-oriented philanthropy**

Paul Brest, a one-time president of the Hewlett Foundation, in his article (2012) explains the following:

'[O]utcome-oriented' is synonymous with 'result-oriented', 'strategic', and 'effective'. It refers to philanthropy where donors seek to achieve clearly defined



goals; where they and their grantees pursue evidence-based strategies for achieving those goals; and where both parties monitor progress toward outcomes and assess their success in achieving them in order to make appropriate course corrections.

Brest (2012) continues as follows:

[O]utcome-oriented philanthropy has two major focal points: supporting organizations and problem solving philanthropy. Examples of supporting organisations range from grants to after school programs for underserved children and gifts to universities to create, teach and disseminate knowledge, to investments in for-profit entities ... (Brest 2012.)

Outcome-oriented philanthropy buyers look for the best service in their areas of interest for the lowest cost, and make gifts and grants to help pay the operating costs of non-profits providing those services...

Philanthropic investors provide risk capital to social entrepreneurs and nascent organizations, or growth capital to enable relatively mature groups to expand the scope, efficiency, and quality of their work...

Impact investors seek the double or triple bottom line objectives of achieving social or environmental impact as well as financial returns, their investments may buy services or provide risk or growth capital with the aims of, say, improving the lives of the poor through micro-finance ... . (Brest 2012)

The above informs us that nonprofits can, and do in fact, make a profit, but that this profit does not go towards paying dividends to investors (as in a for-profit business), but towards expanding work on improving the livelihoods of disadvantaged groups.

Above, the first major focal point of outcome-oriented philanthropy, namely supporting organisations, was discussed. Now follows a discussion of the second major type of outcome-oriented philanthropy, namely problem-solving philanthropy.

Whereas philanthropists often buy services and support organisations in order to solve problems, problem solving philanthropists put the problem rather than the organisation at the centre, and actively engage with their grantees in designing and implementing strategies. (Brest 2012.)

Brest (2012) shows that the focus of outcome-oriented philanthropy is on attaining tangible goals, solving social and other problems, being efficient in delivering the philanthropic services and providing evidence that targets have been met. Brest, however, makes an observation that “despite the increasing belief that the work of the sector should rest on goal-oriented, evidence-based strategies very few donors actually follow these principles”.

The next subsection reviews work on transformational philanthropy.

### **2.5.3 Transformational philanthropy**

Gary (2008) makes a comparison between traditional philanthropy and transformational philanthropy. According to the Gary (2008:5), traditional philanthropy is charity: it is giving that responds to

... acute, immediate needs; [it is] ... very good at social maintenance giving: supporting the established institutions, educational, etc. that maintain and improve society. Traditional philanthropy is based on responding to, treating, and managing the consequences of life in the existing social order as it is.

Newland et al (2010) concur and say that “[c]haritable giving may contribute to the relief of immediate suffering, but ... it does not address the causes of the suffering”.

Transformational philanthropy on the other hand, analyses and responds more to causes than effects, seeking out answers to questions such as: What are the conditions that exacerbate or alleviate poverty around the world? Transformational philanthropy supports what is called societal change, that is, actions that seek to address the root causes of disadvantage or the practices that threaten values such as equitable living for all. (Gary 2008:6.)

This aspect makes transformational philanthropy similar to high-impact philanthropy reviewed above.

Transformational philanthropy strives to fund solutions that are proactive rather than reactive, work that speaks to the underlying causes of people’s distress. Its investment lies in challenging the assumptions that economic and social inequities are somehow unavoidable as the price of ‘progress’ or ‘prosperity’. (Gary 2008:6.)

Collins and Rogers with Garner (2000), cited in Gary (2008:6), compare the characteristics of charity and change philanthropy and argue that whereas charity provides short-term fixes for problems, change philanthropy works for long-term solutions. Charity provides social services, whereas change philanthropy works towards finding lasting social change. Charity is reactive, whereas change philanthropy is proactive, and charity works with dependent communities, whereas change philanthropy works to empower and develop independent communities.

Charity focuses on addressing individual needs, such as providing one high-school student with a scholarship to attend college. Change philanthropy, however, focuses on developing institutions and policies such as funding a student association and organising to ensure that higher education is affordable for everyone. (Gary 2008:8.)

Collins and Rodgers with Gainer (2000), cited in Gary (2008:8), however argue that “[c]harity is not a bad thing. But social change can ultimately eradicate the need for most charity.”

According to Gary (2008:98-99), transformational philanthropy results from moving through the following four levels of philanthropic intervention:

**Level 1 is needs philanthropy**, which “addresses immediate and recurring needs ... such as ... disasters, hunger and wars”. Its merits are that it “alleviates urgent and critical needs. [It] responds quickly to unforeseen events [and] takes care of vulnerable populations.” However, its limitation is that it focuses on symptoms or effects rather than on the causes of undesirable circumstances. In this respect, it is like traditional charity. (Gary 2008:98.)

**Level 2 is empowerment philanthropy**, which “empowers individuals to take care of themselves”. Empowerment philanthropy focuses on education and job training, skills development, personal growth and spirituality and includes the provision of books, computers and infrastructure such as classrooms, teachers’ accommodation and libraries.

Gary (2008:98) says that the strengths of empowerment philanthropy are that it “encourages self-responsibility rather than dependency. It has more lasting effects.” In this respect, it is like high-impact philanthropy.

**Level 3 is capacity-building philanthropy**, which “expands a group’s ability to serve the commons”. Capacity-building philanthropy involves “[l]eadership and management training ... developing systems for IT, building alliances and creating needed organizations”. (Gary 2008:98.)

The weakness of this approach is that philanthropic dollars can be used for administrative costs. There is also the challenge of “finding organizations ready and willing to learn to be more effective”. (Gary 2008:98.)

**Level 4 is systematic philanthropy**, which “develops systematic solutions to collective problems”. This type of philanthropy focuses on, inter alia, “[r]esearch think tanks [and] policy or legal reforms”. (Gary 2008:99.)

The advantage of this level of engagement is that it “deals with the root cause of problems. [It] targets most effective change strategies [and will have] more lasting and comprehensive impact if successful.” However, the approach is limited because it is “hard to identify and implement comprehensive solutions [and it] takes time to create visible impact”. (Gary 2008:99.)

The National Network of Grant Makers cited in Gary (2008:279), observe that “only about 5 percent of American foundation funding was addressing social change. Most was still focused on alleviating the symptoms of problems and not the source of the problems themselves.”

Two of the above sections show that ‘high-impact philanthropy’ (sect 2.5.1) and ‘transformational philanthropy’ (sect 2.5.3) are similar concepts in that they both seek lasting solutions to social problems. The above section (sect 2.5.3) also shows that there is a convergence of views on the meaning of ‘charity’ and ‘philanthropy’.

The next section discusses social-change philanthropy.

#### **2.5.4 Social-change philanthropy**

Hunter, cited in Rabinowitz (1990: xi), says that “[t]he idea of philanthropy is a strong component of the American ethos. Charity is seen as something that should be espoused by everybody.” He observes that “[a]lmost all Americans, rich and poor, are philanthropists, giving their money and their time to a bewildering variety of causes and institutions”. Hunter distinguishes between social-change philanthropy and ‘traditional’ philanthropy. Social-change philanthropy “aims explicitly to facilitate the changing of societal institutions so that they do not produce the very problems that charity tries to alleviate”. It is noted that Hunter (unlike Frumkin 2006; Gary 2008; and Grace & Wendroff 2001, as shown above) uses the terms ‘charity’ and ‘philanthropy’ without distinction.

Rabinowitz (1990:4) argues as follows:

[T]he empowerment of low-income and minority people and their grassroots organizations is a matter of concern.... Progressive social change philanthropy is an unwieldy name to describe the activities of funders who want to use their money to help create a fairer, cleaner, safer, more democratic, poverty-free world, but it is the only name that seems to be in common use by its practitioners.

Goldberg and Pittleman (2006) say that philanthropy for social justice and equality provides funds for issues such as women’s rights and racial justice.

The next subsection reviews Frumkin's strategic philanthropy. Frumkin (2006) argues that current philanthropy is not effective, because it lacks strategy. He developed the theory of strategic philanthropy discussed below.

## **2.5.5 Frumkin's model of strategic philanthropy**

### *2.5.5.1 Introduction*

Frumkin, who developed the concept 'strategic philanthropy', (2006:126 says that philanthropy lacks strategy

... donors have little theory they can call on to guide their work and few frameworks for clarifying the fundamental challenge of philanthropy ... . Although the amount of money given away each year continues to rise, there [are] lingering doubts about what the billions of dollars backed by good intentions have ultimately produced. [There is a] ... strategic deficit [in the current practice of giving]. When donors give, they may have to measure the exact impact of their gifts. However, the very fact that it is hard to know how well one is doing in philanthropy makes it critical that donors focus on logic, process, and decision making.

Brest (2012) calls strategic approaches "problem-solving philanthropy",

Frumkin (2006) says that there are five critical elements of strategic giving, namely

- the underlying value to be produced
- the logic model to be applied
- the philanthropic vehicle or structure that is selected
- the style or level of engagement of the donor

- the time of giving.

According to Frumkin (2006:126) the above “elements lie at the core of the idea of philanthropic strategy”.

#### 2.5.5.2 A model of philanthropic strategy

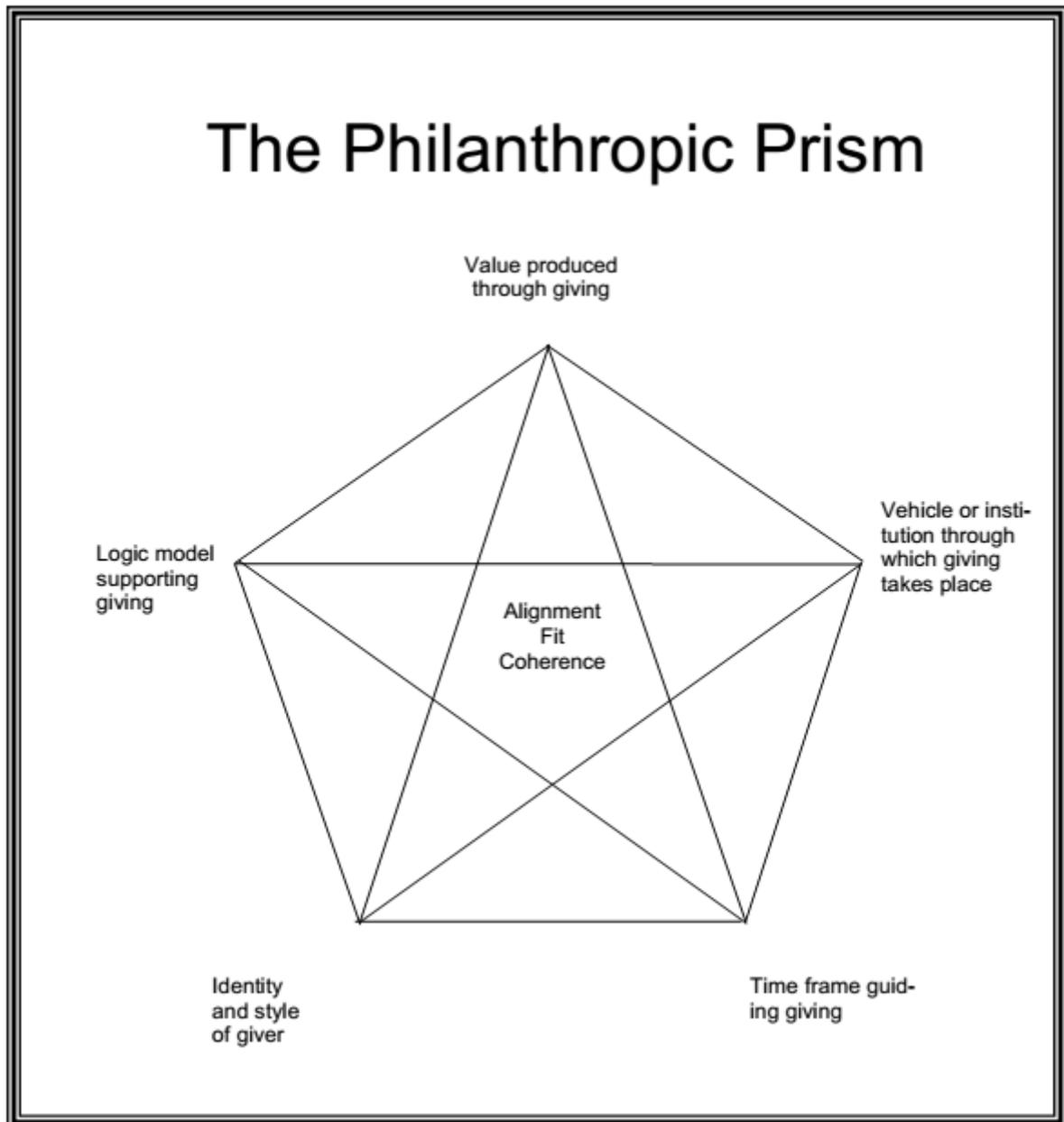
Frumkin (2006:136-137) says that a model of philanthropic strategy is the

framework for both analysing and informing philanthropic choices. Because philanthropy allows individuals to enact their private visions of the public good, developing a content strategy for giving is a difficult challenge. It is a process that can and does become controversial as the boundaries between the donors’ interests and the needs of the community come into contact.

Frumkin’s framework for strategic giving points to five essential questions that donors need to confront as they begin to make their giving plans:

- First donors must declare for themselves the value to be produced through their giving. This means answering the question: what is the value to my community and me [the donor]? Strategic philanthropy must start with the definite value proposition that maximizes both public benefits of giving and personal satisfaction of the donor.
- Secondly donors need to define the type and scope of the program that will be supported, they must answer the question: what kinds of non-profit activity will work best?

- Thirdly, donors have to select a vehicle or structure through which they will conduct their giving. They must answer the following question: what vehicle can best be used to accomplish my goal?
- Fourthly, donors must find a giving style and profile level that is satisfying and productive. They should reflect on the question: what level of engagement and visibility do I want for my giving?
- Fifthly ... donors have to settle on a time frame that will guide their giving. When should my giving take place? (Frumkin 2006:137.) (See the model of the philanthropic prism below)



**Figure 2:** The philanthropic prism (Source: Frumkin 2006:139.)

Frumkin (2006:) explains that

Strategic giving can be defined as the clear alignment of the five important philanthropic dimensions [outlined above, and] ... constructing a coherent strategy in philanthropy involves checking and rechecking the alignment and fit

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of all elements in an effort to find a consistent supporting model of giving in which each element supports the others. When answers to all five questions are in complete alignment, the possibilities for social impact and donor satisfaction are high. Moving toward alignment is the central task of the strategic donor. (Frumkin 2006:138.)

According to Frumkin (2006:138), the philanthropic prism can be used as follows:

- Firstly, "... it is ... a planning tool that guides the direction of a donor's philanthropic work. It can serve as a checklist and diagnostic device that donors can hold up to their philanthropy."
- Secondly, the framework can be used by recipient organisations to understand "how donors think about their objectives". This understanding will "strengthen [their] philanthropic appeals [and] can improve the quality and sophistication of grant appeals at a time when competition for philanthropic funds has become intense." Grant seekers can use the prism "... to make arguments for decisions that might ultimately benefit them".
- "Finally, researchers can use the prism as a tool to assess the strengths and weaknesses of philanthropic initiatives and agendas. Understanding the constitutive elements of philanthropic strategy will allow observers of the field to begin to compare, contrast, and explicate better the vast range of choice that donors confront."

Frumkin (2006:140) proposes the following:

Donors must take steps to clarify the underlying logic model that will animate their giving. This means making a decision about a theory of change that will determine the kind of programs to be funded and the expected results of these

activities. Strategic giving requires that contextually appropriate decision be made about when to pursue top-down strategies aimed at changing the intellectual grounding of a field of practice and when to seek a bottom up or grassroots solution aimed at working through local groups...

Donors may want to think through of how their giving will achieve [a] meaningful scale... While it is likely that grants will fail to produce each and every one of their intended efforts, having a clear and compelling logic model will at least give the donor the opportunity to diagnose where a given philanthropic intervention went right and where it went wrong. In this sense, a logic model that includes a theory of change, leverage and scale can be a potent tool for both planning and learning...

The art of philanthropy allows donors to express private values and convictions, while the science of philanthropy pushes the field toward greater levels of instrumental effectiveness. The long term advancement of the field rests on both the art and science of philanthropy being affirmed simultaneously.  
(Frumkin 2006:140)

This aspect distinguishes between 'expressive' forms of giving and 'instrumental' forms of giving, as discussed under "motivations for giving" (see sect 2.7 below).

Frumkin (2006:142) argues that there is "disjointed, emotive, and personalized giving that operates with no concern about effectiveness or strategy, as well as ... narrow and unimaginative giving that simply responds to an urgent need". Hence, the focus of Frumkin's strategic philanthropy is on making giving effective and on developing a framework for assessing how specific philanthropic efforts have achieved the goals set.

### 2.5.5.3 *Criticism of Frumkin's strategic philanthropy*

Stannard-Stockton (2012) however criticises strategic philanthropy as being

prone to ineffectiveness due to difficulties ... that arise from philanthropists trying to design and implement solutions to social problems rather than focusing on investing in non-profits 'providing risk and growth capital' – so that the non-profit can design and implement solutions. ([www.tacticalphilanthropy.com/blog](http://www.tacticalphilanthropy.com/blog))

Instead, Stannard-Stockton (2012) comes up with 'tactical philanthropy' as a more effective approach.

Kim (2013) ([eekim.com/blog](http://eekim.com/blog)) compares tactical philanthropy with strategic philanthropy and says that "strategic philanthropy is about trying to solve social problems", while "tactical philanthropy is about investing in organizations trying to solve social problems".

The next section reviews the main characteristics of Stannard-Stockton's tactical philanthropy.

### **2.5.6 Tactical philanthropy**

Tactical philanthropy is a model developed by Stannard-Stockton about which Kim (2013) says the following:

[T]actical philanthropy is about investing in organisations trying to solve social problems [whereas] strategic philanthropy is about trying to solve problems ... [and] strategic philanthropists ... believe they can solve world problems.

Stannard-Stockton (2012) argues that “tactical philanthropists are investors, not problem solvers”. Tactical philanthropists try to run not-for-profit organisations along business lines and expect to make a social impact relative to the investment made. According to Stannard-Stockton (2011) this “means that you make a grant if, and only if, you believe that the social impact generated by the nonprofit enterprise will be attractive relative to the grant that you’ve made...The investment approach to philanthropy is wholly different from the problem solving approach to philanthropy.”

Tactical philanthropy is similar to venture philanthropy in that both aim to make a social return on their investment. The next section reviews venture philanthropy.

### **2.5.7 Venture philanthropy**

The concept ‘venture philanthropy’ (VP) applies similar principles to those used by venture capital (VC) in the business sector for solving social problems. Somerville (2008:74) compares VC with VP and observes that in the latter “philanthropists seek a SROI [social return on investment], [or] ROH [return on humanity], or ROC [return on community]. In the venture capital model, investors desire one thing only: profit, the more the better.” Social return can be in the form of educated and skilled individuals who benefit from the social investment of philanthropists, and also empowered independent communities. The European Venture Philanthropy Association (EVPA) lists the four main characteristics of VP as follows:

1. A highly-engaged partnership between the charity and VP organization to achieve agreed outcomes.

2. Using a variety of financing tools [not only grants], depending on which are more appropriate to the charity's needs.
3. Building the capacity of the charity.
4. Maximizing donors' social return on investment. ([www.evpa.eu.com/knowledge](http://www.evpa.eu.com/knowledge).)

[www.wikipedia](http://www.wikipedia) states the following:

Venture philanthropy takes concepts and techniques from venture capital finance and business management and applies them to achieving philanthropic goals.

Venture philanthropy is characterized by [inter alia]

- Willingness to experiment and 'try new approaches'.
- Focus on measurable results. Donors and grantees assess progress based on mutually determined benchmarks.
- Readiness to shift funds between organizations and goals based on tracking those measurable results.
- Giving financial, intellectual, and human capital [ie giving money, knowledge and skills].
- Focus on capacity building, instead of programs or general operating expenses.

EVPA also says the following: "Venture philanthropy works to build stronger social purpose organisations (spos) by providing them with both financial support in order to

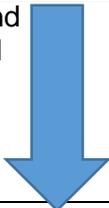
increase their social impact.” Key characteristics of VP are as follows: “high engagement, tailored financing, multiyear support, non-financial support, involvement of networks, organisational capacity building and performance management”. ([www.evpa.eu.com/knowledge](http://www.evpa.eu.com/knowledge).)

EVPA (European Venture Philanthropy Association) explains that venture philanthropists make profit for use in furthering their activities:

Venture philanthropy is one tool in the social investment and philanthropy toolkit. It ... [is] ... a high engagement approach to social investment and grant making across a range of organizations with a social purpose (spos) from charities and non-profit organizations through to socially driven businesses. Social investment refers to funding that may generate a financial return, but where the social impact comes first; so called Impact First strategies. Grant funding, on the other hand, is the provision of non-repayable donations to the social purpose organization supported, an impact only strategy. ([www.evpa.eu.com/knowledge](http://www.evpa.eu.com/knowledge))

EVPA clarifies the concept ‘impact investment’ as follows:

Finance-first strategies, where the financial return is maximized and the societal impact is secondary, are not included in the European Venture Philanthropy Association’s (EVPA) definition of VP. Figure 3 below illustrates the interrelationships of the stakeholders in venture philanthropy:

<b>Donors/investors</b>		Donor/investors are mainly foundations, high-net-worth individuals (many from the VC/PE <sup>2</sup> sector or business entrepreneurs) and corporations (that provide finance). They expect mainly a social return on their investment. Example: Barclays Prime Equity.
Financing 		Mainly social return
<b>Venture-philanthropy organisations</b>		VP organisations provide tailored and nonfinancial support to target organisations (investees) and expect a social return on their investment. Any financial return is usually recycled into new investments. VP organisations are mostly set up as foundations, funds or a structure that incorporates both. Examples: Bon Venture, Impetus Trust.
Financial and nonfinancial support 		Societal return/ financial return
<b>Investees</b>		Nonprofit organisations and social enterprises at a critical stage in their development. Example: Built Africa,

**Figure 3:** The key stakeholders in venture philanthropy

(Adapted from [www.evpa.eu.com/knowledge](http://www.evpa.eu.com/knowledge).)

<sup>2</sup> venture capital/private equity

The relatively newer term 'impact investment' includes both impact-first and finance-first strategies. ([www.evpa.eu.com/knowledge](http://www.evpa.eu.com/knowledge))

There are three stakeholders in the VP model, with each one having a role to play in making the social impact that VP aims for.

Firstly, there are donors [called 'investors' in VP terminology] that provide VP organisations with a flow of financial and nonfinancial support and expect a social return on their [social] investment.

Secondly, there are VP organisations that invest in nonprofit and social-enterprise organisations referred to as the 'investees' in VP terminology. Social impact must be realised at this third level. The investment in the social enterprises must yield social returns and financial returns that will be reinvested.

The National Venture Capital Association (NVCA) says the following:

[T]he same principles that have guided the venture capital industry for decades are being applied to social entrepreneurial initiatives. These principles include: significant investment in the early stages of an organization in order to build a strong foundation, active broad investment, growth strategies based on clear milestones, and risk taking. ([www.nvca.org](http://www.nvca.org))

Organisations apply "these principles in order to enhance their social impact". ([www.nvca.org](http://www.nvca.org))

Impetus Trust, an organisation in the United Kingdom, said to be a pioneer in VP, outlines its goal as follows: "The aim of Impetus is to have even greater impact on the

lives of disadvantaged people, especially children and the young people.”

([www.impetus.org](http://www.impetus.org))

Impetus Trust works to break the cycle of poverty by investing in ambitious charities and social enterprise that fight economic disadvantage. [They] use [their] highly effective VP [venture capital] model to accelerate the growth of carefully selected charities and social enterprises so they can help many more people living in poverty...

VP is an active approach to philanthropy, which involves giving skills as well as money. It uses the principles of VC, with the investee organization receiving management support, specialist expertise and financial resources. The emphasis is on social rather than financial return...

Most VP organizations work closely with the charities of social enterprises they invest in for a defined period of time. Clear targets will be set and most commonly the impact of charity will be measured. The ultimate aim is for the charity or social enterprise to greatly increase its social impact. ([www.impetus.org](http://www.impetus.org))

VP is similar to transformational philanthropy in that it intends to make lasting change in the lives of consumers of philanthropy. VP differs from traditional charity in that it tries to make communities sustainable, rather than deal only with symptoms of social problems. VP is not a once-off transaction of dealing with an emergency or other temporary relief.

The next section discusses the concept ‘family philanthropy’.

### 2.5.8 Family philanthropy

This subsection discusses a significant source of philanthropic dollars rather than a method of achieving social change. According to Goldberg and Pittleman (2006:7)

[f]amily philanthropy means families giving together in all forms ... this family philanthropy is an exclusive institution in the US that's made up of foundations, donor advised funds, and charitable trusts.

“Access to the institution of family philanthropy is restricted to those with significant wealth.” [It is expensive to set up such an institution in that the legal and accounting expenses are high.] So “[f]amily philanthropy organizations and events are, by and large, limited to participants granting their thousands of dollars a year.” (Goldberg & Pittleman 2006:7.)

Goldberg and Pittleman (2006:16) therefore say that family philanthropy is exclusionary in nature:

[P]eople of colour rarely lead family philanthropy ... due in a large part to the racial wealth divide ... between [black] and white families. Currently only 2.2% of family foundation trustees are of people of colour. Almost every one of the family philanthropy decision making table is wealthy and white.

Family-philanthropy foundations came into existence during the industrial revolution in the early 1800s, and at the end of the century wealthy families started using these foundations “as mechanisms to shelter their assets [and] ... by creating foundations wealthy families receive more than tax relief”. (Goldberg & Pittleman 2006:8.)



Family foundations were used to reimage or recast the role of powerful businessmen “from profiteers to benefactors”. Wealthy families, such as the families of JD Rockefeller and A Carnegie, “sponsored spectacular public works, making a show of supporting the common good. Yet the social conditions that their charity addressed were often caused directly by their own business practices.” (Goldberg & Pittleman 2006:8.)

According to Goldberg and Pittleman, in 2006 there were over 33 000 family foundations, thousands of philanthropic trusts and donor-advised funds: “the impact of family fund giving is highly visible everywhere, from libraries to universities, to hospitals” (Goldberg & Pittleman 2006:8.)

Family philanthropy giving tends to concentrate in three areas: education (in particular colleges and universities), arts and culture, and human services. There is also a pattern to what family philanthropy doesn't fund. Only a marginal amount of money goes to communities that experience inequality and discrimination. (Goldberg & Pittleman 2006:15.)

According to Goldberg and Pittleman (2006:15), in the USA,

[a]n incredibly small percentage of family philanthropic resources and foundation resources, overall, are supporting low-income people; people of colour, indigenous people, immigrants and refugees ... and women and girls, e.g. in 2004 only 7.6% of all large foundation grant dollars went to communities

of colour, only 5.2% went to women and girls organizations. Immigrants and refugees received only 0.9%.

The reason for for the above is that family foundations are restricted to population with wealth: “the majority of grant makers come from privileged families and don’t experience significant economic hardships.” (Goldberg & Pittleman 2006:15-16.)

[In family foundations,] funding priorities derive primarily from donor’s personal interests and networks. Philanthropists often focus on organisations that touched their lives .... They also tend to find groups that people in their networks are involved with and currently supporting. Many donors look to personal connections to confer legitimacy. (Goldberg & Pittleman 2006:16.)

When privileged experiences and networks shape where money goes, the bulk of the money is directed to the wealthy, white communities and concerns ... no matter how charitable the intentions, wealthy families have vested interest in maintaining the status quo. As a result, supporting communities that experience inequality and discrimination is a low priority in the field. Grant making choices continue to be characterized by family networks and connections. (Goldberg & Pittleman 2006:16.)

Philanthropy is not necessarily about helping the poor, but about pursuing self-interests, maintaining social networks and status on the part of the donor. The actions of family philanthropists are influenced by privileged backgrounds, special interests such as the arts, and other personal considerations. In the section on African-

American philanthropy in this study it is stated that the development of black American philanthropy was motivated by the exclusion from the white philanthropic organisations and the broader need for self-emancipation.

The following section discusses the features of social-change philanthropy.

### **2.5.9 Social-change philanthropy**

Rabinowitz (1990:14) states the following:

[S]ocial change philanthropy, compared to traditional philanthropy is more directed to:-

- Helping to redress grievances, aptly to reduce the level of protest.
- Helping to empower citizens to become more active and effective in pursuit of an approved set of policies. The more progressive social changes want such empowerment to help citizen-based organizations to become more autonomous, more democratic, and more stable.
- Creating an environment leading to appropriate changes in legislation.
- Increasing the flow of funds available for the support of social change organizations.

Rabinowitz (1990) explains that in the late 1970s the Bay Area Committee for Responsible Philanthropy in the USA defined 'social-change-philanthropy activities' as follows:

1. Working for a fairer distribution of income or wealth; or
2. Working for increased social or political empowerment of oppressed people especially among racial minorities, the elderly, the handicapped, youth, working class or poor people; or
3. Working to meet the immediate survival needs of oppressed people.  
(Rabinowitz 1990:14.)

Rabinowitz (1990:14-15) adds the following:

4. The goals can be accompanied by:-
  - a. Creating institutional change to eliminate causes of oppressions; or
  - b. Providing services which empower people by meeting needs of society...;or
  - c. Creating alternative institutions; or
  - d. Researching and monitoring institutional responsiveness.

According to Frumkin (2006:11), philanthropy uses “private funds to create social and political change”. Change may mean “community empowerment”.

To appreciate the importance of philanthropy the next section looks at the extent of the sector in the USA.

## **2.6 EXTENT OF PHILANTHROPY IN THE USA**

### **2.6.1 Introduction**

According to *Giving USA 2006* the annual yearbook on American philanthropy, “donations of nongovernmental funds to non-profit organizations totaled ... \$295.02 billion in 2006 (Gary 2008:22). As shown by the bar graph below, that figure rose to \$316.23 billion in 2012 (*Giving USA Foundation 2013*) According to Frumkin (2006:3),

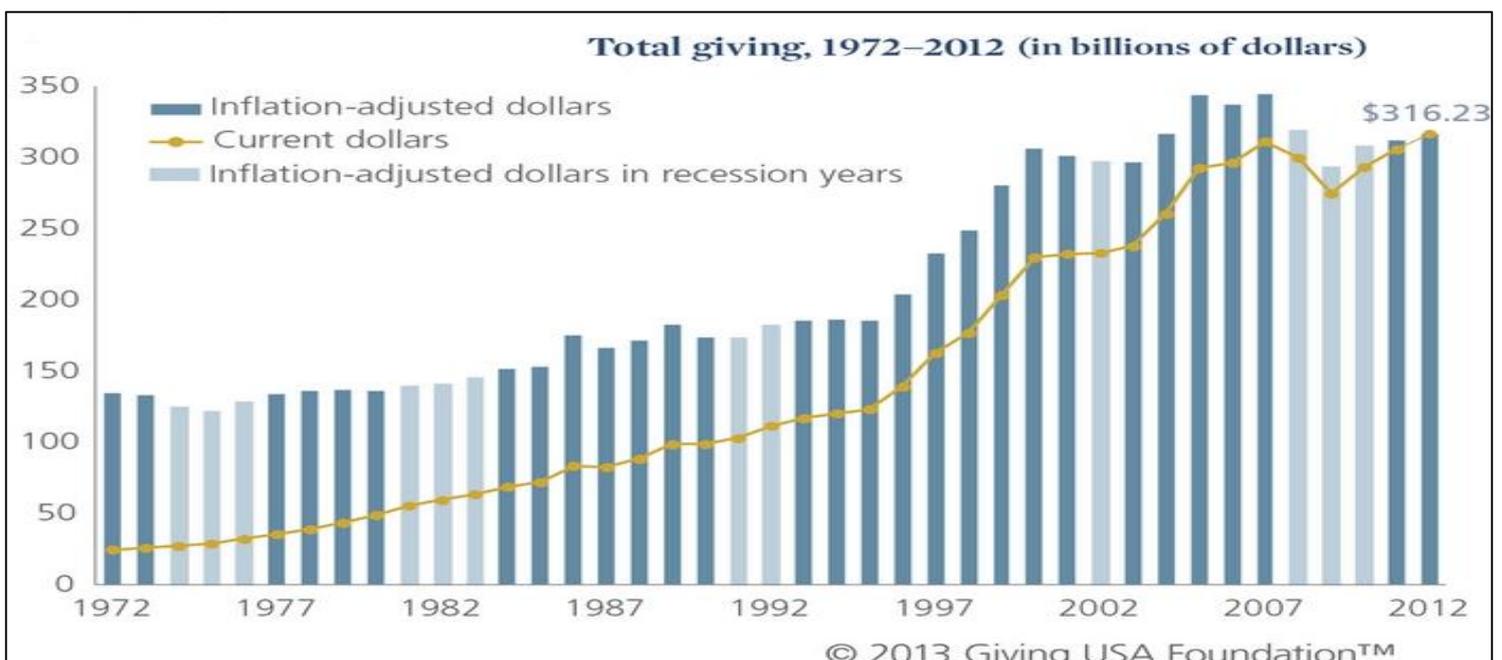
“the scale of giving in the United States ... now surpasses [by] far ... [that of] any other nation ...”

Grace and Wendroff (2001:1) say the following:

The Boston College Social Welfare Research Institute (SWRI) which measures wealth transfer ... [estimates that] philanthropy will quadruple in the next 50 years. SWRI ... pegs the transfer of wealth in the US from 1998 to 2052 at a minimum of \$41 trillion and as high as \$136 trillion.

According to Gary (2008:22), Americans have a highly-developed culture of giving: “More than 91 percent of Americans give to charities during their lifetime” (*Giving USA 2006* cited in Gary 2008).

As shown in **figure 4** below [Total giving, 1972-2012] in 2006 American philanthropy, comprising “donations of non-governmental funds to non-profit organizations totaled \$295 billion” and “more than 75 percent of the money that was given away ... came from individual donors and another 8 percent came from individuals in the form of bequests distributed after their death]. Corporations contributed only 4.2 percent of the total and foundations only 12.4 percent.” (Gary 2008:23.)



<b>Giving in the USA by Source of Contributions in 2006</b>		
Individuals	\$222.89 Billion	75.6%
Foundations	\$36.50 Billion	12.4%
Bequests	\$22.91 Billion	7.8%
Corporations	\$12.72 Billion	4.3%
Total	\$295.02 Billion	100%

**Table 1;** Giving in the USA by source of contributions in 2006

(Source: *Giving USA Foundation 2013; Giving USA 2006*, cited in Gary 2008:23.)

Porter and Kramer (2008:432) posit the following:

During the past two decades the number of charitable foundations in the US has doubled, while the value of their assets has increased more than 100 %. Foundations now hold over \$330 billion in assets and contribute over \$100 billion annually to educational, humanitarian, and cultural organizations of all kinds. No other country in the world can claim such a substantial and widespread commitment to philanthropy and volunteerism.

Gary (2008) observes that while the wealthier in society make impressive donations (e.g. "... in 1997 Ted Turner's \$1 billion pledge to the United Nations, followed in 1999 by Bill Gates' \$24 billion endowment to the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation and in 2006 by Warren Buffett's pledge of \$31 billion to the Gates Foundation, have all set an enormously generous and even surreal standard of giving by the wealthiest Americans" (Gary 2008) giving is not restricted to the wealthy. "Oseida McCarthy spent a lifetime washing and ironing other people's clothes. In 1995, when she was 87, she gave \$150,000 she had saved from her life's earnings to the University of Southern

Mississippi for a scholarship fund to benefit African-American students” Gary (2008:24).

That giving is not for the wealthy only is supported by Newland et al (2010), who argue that “philanthropy is not limited to the wealthy. Many middle-income and even relatively poor individuals make meaningful donations to charitable causes as well.”

Dr Bhekinkosi Moyo, the (then) programme director at Trust Africa, has the same view and says the following:

Philanthropy is not the preserve of only a few rich individuals who can make huge donations. It cuts across all classes and finds its expression in forms that include mutual aid, rotating savings clubs, stokvels, co-operatives, burial societies, foundations, trusts, corporate social investments, voluntarism, individual and religious giving, among others. (*Mail & Guardian Online.*)

Scheerer (1995) says that many small gifts from poor people can “mobilize very significant amounts of resources for development. The many small gifts together add up to a large sum, which can then be multiplied through matching gifts from organized philanthropy.” The not-so-well-up people can also make a significant difference through their contributions by pooling their resources.

Philanthropy is a large sector that has spread world-wide. Mr. Bill Clinton (2007:4), a former president of the USA notes that “there is an explosion of citizen service” and that Russia in 2007 had more than 400 000 NGOs, from none in 1993. China had

“almost 280 000”, and “perhaps twice that number unregistered”. There were “more than 500 000 working NGOs in India”. The USA had “more than one million charitable organizations, twice as many as in 2000. They employ 10.2 million people, 7 percent of our workforce” (Clinton 2007:9).

Clinton (2007) also states the following:

The “explosion of citizen service” can, first, be attributed to the end of the cold war: “for the first time in history a majority of people are living under elected governments, which creates more opportunities for democratic societies and citizen activism to develop” (Clinton 2007:9).

Secondly,

[T]he information technology revolution and globalization of commerce have produced vast fortunes. There are more millionaires and billionaires than ever, and, fortunately, many of them want to reinvest a sizeable portion of their wealth in solving problems and giving people in their own countries or people half a world away the chance to break the chains of poverty, disease, lack of education, or group hatred so that they too can live productive, peaceful, fulfilling lives. (Clinton 2007:10.)

The third reason for the “explosion of private citizens doing public good” is that “charitable giving has been democratized as never before primarily through the

internet, enabling citizens of modest means who share a common concern to amass huge sums of money” (Clinton 2007:10).

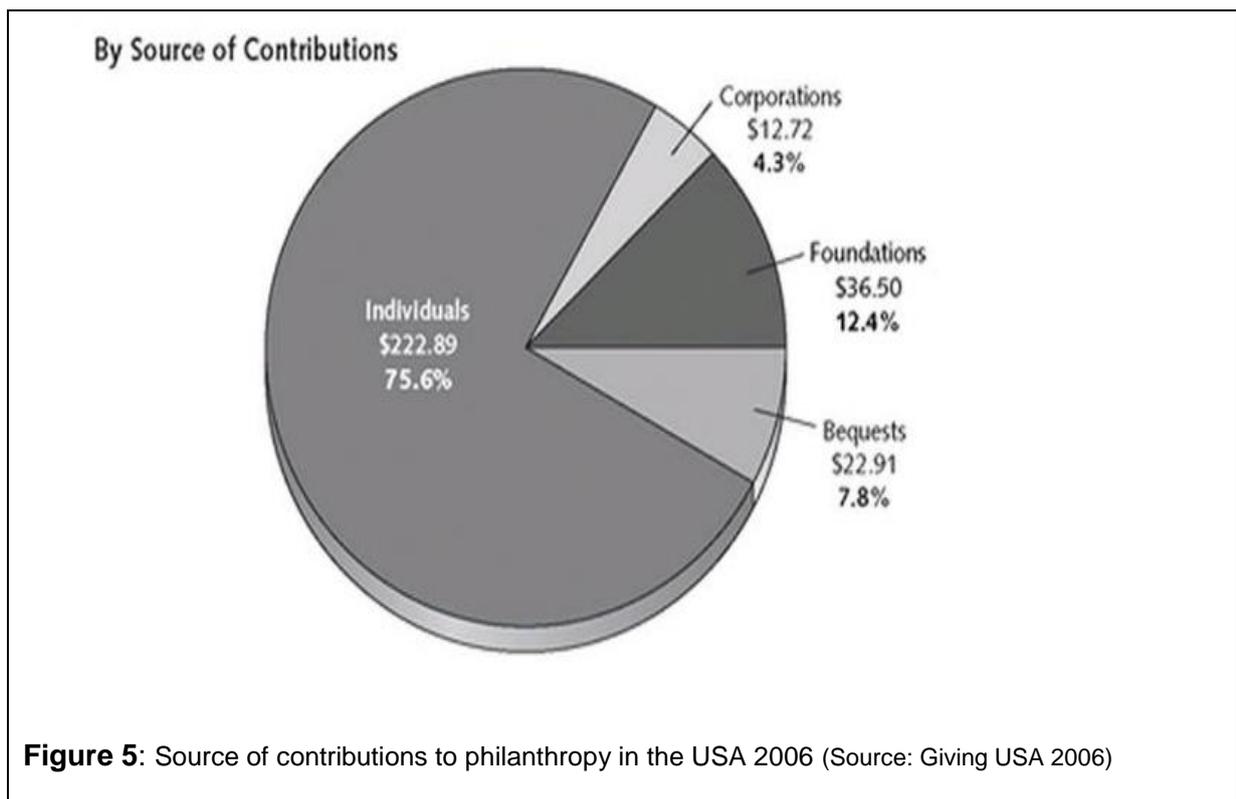
Individual contributions can be appreciated by looking at some of the donations of prominent individuals below:

### 2.6.2 Some Large Individual Bequests

- \$31 billion (initial value of the gift) from Warren Buffett to the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation
- \$9 billion from Chuck Feeney to Atlantic Philanthropies
- \$2 billion from Azim Premji to the Azim Premji Foundation (2010)
- \$1 billion from Ted Turner to the United Nations
- \$500 million from T Boone Pickens to the Oklahoma State University
- \$500 million from Walter Annenberg to public-school reform in the USA
- \$350 million (\$7 billion in modern terms) from Andrew Carnegie, \$who distributed most of his wealth to good causes, including the building of the Carnegie Hall in New York City (1901)
- \$424 million from managers of the *Reader's Digest* fortune to the Metropolitan Museum of Art
- \$350 million from Michael Jackson, who distributed most of his wealth to good causes and who supported over 39 charity organisations; Jackson was listed in the *Guinness Book of Records* for the "Most charities supported by a pop star"
- \$350 million from Yank Barry and his Global Village Champions in food, education and medical supplies to the needy around the world (1990 to the present)

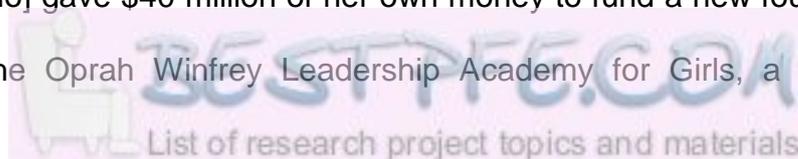
- \$225 million from Raymond and Ruth Perelman, parents of Ronald O Perelman, to the University of Pennsylvania School of Medicine (2011)
- \$200 million from Joan B Kroc to National Public Radio (2003)
- \$100 million from John D Rockefeller to the Rockefeller Foundation (1913-1914)
- \$100 million from Henry and Betty Rowan to the Glassboro State College (Source: [www.wikipedia](http://www.wikipedia).)

In the USA, over 75% of the money donated towards philanthropic causes comes from individuals, and not from foundations or corporations, as illustrated by the following pie chart, figure 5.



Clinton (2007) chronicles another prominent donation by

Winfrey [who] gave \$40 million of her own money to fund a new foundation to establish the Oprah Winfrey Leadership Academy for Girls, a school for



disadvantaged girls in South Africa. The academy will change the lives of many young women and further increase the confidence of modest donors that Oprah's foundation will spend their money well.

In 2007, Oprah introduced a new kind of reality TV show called *The Big Give* in which “[t]en contestants will be given money and an assignment ... to film their efforts to raise money and spend it on others. The winner will be the one who's the biggest giver.” (Clinton 2007:19.)

The nonprofit sector is very large in dollar terms and continues to grow at a phenomenal rate. However, the people in the greatest need do not necessarily benefit from the proceeds of this apparently lucrative sector because of, inter alia, the vested interests of those who fund foundations and sit on their boards. The nonprofit sector is not necessarily established to give to the poor, but to give to institutions and causes that share their values.

The next section reviews the factors influencing the giving of so much wealth in the philanthropic sector.

## **2.7 MOTIVATIONS FOR GIVING**

There are diverse reasons for why people give. This section discusses some of those reasons. Phillips (2008) cited in Crowther, D. and Capaldi, (2008) labels giving by the wealthy '**tycoon philanthropy**' and discusses some theories of giving in explaining the motivations of wealthy donors.

One of the motivations is to gain power and honour. “The giver acquires the power of giving” (Phillips 2008:252), gains prestige, glory and power, and “paradoxically [giving]

becomes a means of acquisition” (Phillips 2008:253). In other words, some wealthy philanthropists are motivated to make donations more as a way of elevating their social standing: they expect a return on their donation in the form of status and prestige. This can explain why some donors arrange media coverage for when they make donations.

Another theory of tycoon giving by Maus and Battaille, cited by Phillips (2008) in Crowther, D. and Capaldi, (2008:256), is that one of the reasons for giving is “the desire to be seen giving to outdo each other’s gifts [as] designed to confer rank and status on the giver”. In this case, giving is a way of competing with other wealthy people and is not initially motivated by the desire to improve the quality of life of the recipient.

Baudrillard, cited by Phillips (2008) in Crowther, D. and Capaldi,(2008:256), views giving as “another form of consumption that signifies status and prestige.” Whereas Co Braille, cited in Phillips (2008:256), argues that “luxurious consumption and excessive giving retains something of the original function of potlatch”. Potlatch is when a rich man proves his superior nobility, honour and rank to another rich man by the “ceremonial destruction or giving away of possessions” ([www.answers.com](http://www.answers.com) 2001/07/19). Thus the theory suggests that giving is another form of displaying wealth by the rich. This is supported by Androeni and Petrie (2004), who argue that people generally prefer others to be aware of their donations.

The tycoon theory of giving discussed above seems to suggest that the rich give primarily to gain something (such as prestige and recognition), and to facilitate their ascendancy up the social-status ladder.

However, the above may not be true in all cases. Improving the lives of the recipients is also a strong motivator. Charitable giving is beneficial to both the giver and the recipient. This conclusion that giving is also rewarding for the giver can be an important selling point for organisations soliciting donations from potential donors.

Besides the theories of tycoon philanthropy there are also theories of corporate social responsibility that will be explored in the next section

Muehleman et al (1976), cited in > Androeni and Petrie (2004:29), are of the view that “people who give to charitable causes are held in high regard by their peers [and] ... receive recognition and approval from others. This is more so when donations are made public and when they are directly seen.” Social standing can be said to be one of the main motivators of giving.

Bill Gates, replying to a question about why they “decided to give their money and time to reducing the world’s inequalities in health, education and development” in his Harvard commencement speech on 2 June 2007 said the following:

If you believe that every life has equal value, it’s revolting to learn that some lives are seen as worth saving and others are not. We said to ourselves, ‘This can’t be true. But if it is true, it deserves to be the priority of our giving.’

So we began our work in the same way anyone here would begin it. We asked: ‘How could the world let these children die?’ The answer is simple and harsh. The market did not reward saving the lives of these children, and governments did not subsidize it. So the children died because their mothers and their fathers

had no power in the market and no voice in the system. We make market forces work better for the poor if we can develop a more creative capitalism, if we can stretch the reach of market forces so that people can make a profit, or at best make a living, serving people who are suffering from the worst inequalities. We also can press governments around the world to spend tax payers' money in ways that better reflect the values of the people who pay the taxes.

If we can find approaches that meet the needs of the poor in ways that generate profits for business and votes for politicians, we will have found a sustainable way to reduce inequality in the world. (Gates, cited in Clinton 2007:15.)

Clinton raises a pertinent point – namely that one of the causes of poverty is that the market system does not ensure the provision of basic needs to every citizen because it is profit-driven, while some governments do not have the financial ability to deliver public goods and services. Philanthropy steps in to cover the deficit in the allocation of resources caused by market and public-sector failure.

The wealthy also give to make a difference in the lives of the less fortunate: “Warren Buffett America’s second wealthiest man ... decided to give the bulk of his fortune, some \$30 billion to the Gates Foundation” (Clinton 2007:15). When questioned by Clinton about “why he decided to give away almost all his money Buffett said,

[M]y gift is nothing; I can have everything I need with less than one percent of my wealth... I’m just giving back surplus claims that have no value to me but can do a lot for others. The people I really admire are the small donors who give up a movie or a restaurant meal to help needier people.

Clinton then comments that “[i]f we all thought and acted like Buffett, we’d live in a very different world.” (Clinton 2007: 16.)

Rabinowitz (1990:13) is of the opinion that Americans’ gifts of money and time are ordinarily targeted [at] one or more of the following ‘traditional’ objectives:

- Making others more effective, by providing for better education and living conditions.
- Supporting research that can be translated into better socio-economic policies or better health.
- Providing facilities and general support for organizations whose activities we approve.

Rabinowitz (1990:13) further observes that “the policies of those who want social change go a little further into the world of politics, both left or right of the aisle”, suggesting that some giving can be motivated by specific political interests. Robert Johnson, cited in Rabinowitz (1990:13), cautions that “[o]utsiders with a strong political inclination sometimes look to community organization[s] for grassroots confirmation of their own conviction”. For example:

A social change philanthropist on the right might contribute funds to help educate citizens about the virtues of prayer in the schools or on the consequences of abortion, just as one to the left of centre might sponsor an educational campaign in support of pollution control.

The above illustrates that social-change philanthropists are not apolitical or neutral: they have vested interests that they hope to achieve through philanthropic action.

Frumkin (2006:12) says that philanthropy tries to answer the question of “what is the donor trying to accomplish through philanthropy” and identifies four purposes of giving.

The first purpose (Frumkin 2006:12) is

the use [of] private funds, [which] allows philanthropy to pursue a change agenda without having to spend a large amount of time mobilizing other sources of support. Donors can even use their wealth to declare a particular issue or cause worth pursuing with or without achieving consensus among those affected.

The second purpose of philanthropy, according to Frumkin (2006:15), is

to locate and support important social innovations. The idea of philanthropy is really about producing innovation ... to addressing enduring social problems. Philanthropy appears well positioned to be a potent force for innovation in that the freedom donors enjoy opens endless opportunities.

Frumkin (2006:15) also says the following:

Philanthropy does indeed have a strong track record ... in funding innovative research. Many important medical breakthroughs have been achieved in research laboratories underwritten with private philanthropic funds.

According to Frumkin (2006:17),

[a] third purpose of philanthropy is ... equity or redistributive giving. By giving money non-profit organizations ... try to accomplish small scale distribution of resources.

And then according to Frumkin (2006:17),

[a] fourth rationale for philanthropy is the pure and unapologetic affirmation of pluralism as a civic value. Giving allows a multiplicity of ideas and programs to exist in the public domain, rather than a limited number of preferred solutions.

The four **public** functions of philanthropy outlined above are change, innovation, redistribution and pluralism.

The **private**, consumptive and expressive function of philanthropy is directed at meeting the psychic and social needs of donors. It constitutes a complex multipart function of giving: "... giving very much often benefits the giver." Frumkin (2006:17)

Fagan (2013) also states that more often donors get nontangible benefits. An economist, Andreoni (1990), for example, "found that people experienced a 'warm glow' after helping someone or donating to a cause they believe in."

Frumkin (2006:18) says that philanthropy "can and should also be about presenting the giver with a chance to enjoy the fruit of philanthropy in the form of psychic satisfaction, [it] ... allows individuals to find meaning and purpose in their lives". The satisfaction of the donor is "philanthropy's fifth core function [which] is to support the self-actualization of donors by helping givers translate their values into action".

Fagan (2013) adds that there are "a number of physical and mental health benefits ranging from reduced stress and depression, better immune system functioning, a greater sense of life satisfaction". These are private benefits that motivate giving.

Benefits accruing in society as a result of philanthropy are a cause of satisfaction to the donor. Donors are motivated by the changes that they observe in society.

Philanthropy can be satisfying to donors in a number of ways:

Philanthropy brings the wealthy into contact with one another, either through board service, through special gala events, or through joint efforts of fundraising campaigns. Being part of the philanthropic elite is not only a way of signaling power and influence, but also a critical way to make important social connections that can be useful in business and even in politics. The use of philanthropy as a tool of social status building is one that is confined largely to the major metropolitan areas where philanthropic leadership is a sign of civic power. (Frumkin 2008:20.)

Similarly, Fagan (2013) says the following: “Individuals that donate large amounts can receive recognition [i.e., social prestige] in terms of plaques, statues, or having new research, arts, or educational centers named after them.”

Political aspirants can use philanthropy as a vehicle to get closer to their goal. Frumkin (2008:20) argues that “[c]haritable giving also advances a donor’s political career”. A former mayor of New York, Michael Bloomberg, namely

increased his charitable giving from \$26.6 million in 1988 to over \$100 million in 2000, the year he decided to run for office ... the use of philanthropic funds surely allowed the candidate to make new connections and friends. Giving has thus been seen as a form of consumption by the donor that is oriented just as much toward the fulfilment of the donor’s private interests as to the public needs. (Frumkin 2008:20.)

Frumkin adds the following:

“Giving can also improve public relations and burnish the image of the donor. Giving is a great cleanser of the character and donors have used philanthropy either to enhance or to repair their public personas.” (Frumkin 2006:20.)

And:

“Philanthropy translates the private expressive desires of donors into public action aimed at meeting needs. It has both public and private functions, enabling communities to solve problems and allowing individuals to express and enact their values.” (Frumkin 2006:21.)

According to Frumkin (2006:21), philanthropic action can be a result “of difficult life experiences.” The author then narrates how the Amy Biehl Foundation Trust, (ABFT), founded by Amy Biehl’s parents, came about. Amy Biehl was

completing her Fulbright Scholarship project on the role of women in South Africa and helping to support the democratic transition in SA, [and] was killed by four SA youths during a political rally in the township she had spent many months gaining the trust and friendship of the local community.

The ABFT is an example of the “[t]ranslation of personal feelings into philanthropic action.” (Frumkin 2006:22.)

The following section briefly looks at Prince and File’s (2001) motivators of philanthropic action:

According to Prince and File (2001), there are seven types of givers, whom they refer to as ‘The Seven Faces of Philanthropy’, namely:

1. The Communitarian: [believes the following] Doing good makes sense.
2. The Devout: Doing good is God's will. [This is a religious persuasion as far as giving is concerned that is also discussed in Frumkin 2006.]
3. The Investor: [sees an opportunity in philanthropy and to him/her the following rings true] Doing good is good business.
4. The Socialite: Doing good is fun.
5. The Altruist: Doing good feels right.
6. The Repayer: Doing good in return.

[Frumkin (2006:259) says that this is a prominent form of socialised giving, which he (Frumkin) labels 'exchange philanthropy', whereby

individuals give to a cause at the request of an associate to contribute to their own cause ... in such cases it is not the needs or demands of beneficiaries that motivate philanthropy but rather the web of social ties that shape the individual charitable behaviour and the desire of individuals to be seen as contributing their fair share. (Also) the propensity to give increases as the social status increases]

7. The Dynast: [gives because] Doing good is family tradition. [Wilhelm (2008) refers to the passing on of philanthropic behaviour to children as 'Intergenerational Transmission of Generosity' and explains that there is a "correlation between the generosity of parents and the generosity of their adult children".]



The next section looks at the motivations for giving as from another angle, namely the one of Bekkers and Wiepking (2007), who identify and explain the following eight mechanisms that determine philanthropic behaviour - that is, that answer the question, "Why do people give?" The mechanisms are:

(1) Awareness of need

According to Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:20-21),

people have to become aware of a need for support. Awareness of need may also be increased by solicitors for charitable contributions informing potential donors about the needs of victims. Awareness of need is facilitated by the [mass] media.

Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:22), citing Furnham (1995) and Fong (2007), say the following:

When victims are perceived as causes of their own misfortune, potential donors may deny their responsibility for relieving the needs of the victims, e.g. people are less prepared to sponsor welfare recipients when they know the recipients are unwilling to engage in paid work.

Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:22), citing Bennett and Kottasz (2000), say that "refusals to give to poverty relief in developing countries ... is often explained in these terms". Donors have the perception that problems in some developing countries are caused by the people in those countries.

"Denial of responsibility is less likely to occur when the fate of victims is perceived as beyond people's control" (Bekkers & Wiepking 2007:22, citing Simmons et al 1966).

Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:22), citing Eschholz and Van Slyke (2002), Polonsky et al (2002), and Radley and Kennedy (1992), also say that “[s]urvey data reveal that awareness of need is not associated with giving when potential donors attribute responsibility to government”.

Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:22), citing Aatten and Joulfaian (1996) and Joulfaian (2004), state the following: “Parents give more to charities when their own children are economically better off. They reduce giving to charities and increase bequests when their children’s income is lower.”

According to Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:22), Kogut and Ritov (2005a and 2005b) found the following:

Framing the need for contributions by identifying a specific victim is more likely to result in willingness to contribute [and] information about single victims is more vivid and more emotionally distressing than information about multiple unidentified victims.

The case of a single victim can become iconic and used to highlight a problem affecting a whole community. The case of Malala, the girl shot and injured by the Taliban in Pakistan, is a typical example here:

... Malala Yousafzai the 14-year-old girl activist from Pakistan ... was shot by the Taliban ... for standing up for the right to be educated. The Taliban targeted her for “propagating” Western culture and promoting education [for girls] ... ([www.biography.com/people/malala-yousafzai](http://www.biography.com/people/malala-yousafzai))

The above put the spotlight at the highest level on the plight of Pakistani girls and women regarding access to education and will likely have a very strong philanthropic appeal.

According to Bekkers and Wiepking 2007:22 (citing Slone 2007; Warren & Walker 1991), donors may not give when “the need is perceived as impossible to solve [or] (citing Isen & Noonberg 1979) when a picture displaying needy recipients depresses the potential helper ...” With the former case one may conclude that the potential donors can be overwhelmed by the scale of need and do not attempt to assist. However, in the latter case, one may argue that images of people in desperation may induce sympathy and motivate giving in some people.

The perception of a need varies from individual to individual and from group to group; - what can be perceived as a need by one person may not be perceived as a need by another. Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:22) citing Will and Cochran (1995) and Skitka et al (2002) say that “[p]ersons from different religious backgrounds and with different political preferences may evaluate the same objective situation differently.” Their perception is influenced by their religious beliefs and political persuasions.

Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:22), citing Polonsky et al (2002) who believe that the perception of need can be shaped by marketing say “those with the best marketers receive the highest contributions”.

## 2) Solicitation

Most donations are given in response to solicitation. Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:23), cite Bryant et al (2003), who “find that 85% of the donation acts [follow] ... a solicitation

for a contribution”, and citing Bekkers (2005b), who “finds that 86% of the donation acts [follow] a solicitation”.

However, Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:23), citing Van Diepen et al (2006), caution that “donor fatigue” resulting from “increasing the number of solicitations...may lower average contribution”. If individuals are not approached, they may not donate, the bystander effect may set in and potential donors may not feel obliged to make a contribution. On the other hand, too much solicitation has a negative effect and will discourage contributions.

### (3) Costs and benefits

Bekkers and Wiepking (2007) say that when the costs of giving are lowered, giving increases.

According to the above-mentioned authors (2007:24) who cite Anderson and Miller (2002) and Bekkers (2004), “requests for larger donations are less likely to be honoured”. Yet tax benefits constitute an important motive for company philanthropy.

In nonmonetary terms, fewer people “who perceive fewer obstacles to give are more likely to give” and also “people are likely to donate money to charity when weather conditions are better” (Bekkers and Wiepking 2007:2 citing Smith & McSweeney2007)

Donors are likely to give more when there are incentives or fringe benefits for giving such as winning prize money or other prize from buying fundraising raffle tickets. “Lotteries contribute another type of material benefits for donations, which increases the number of donors in fundraising campaigns.” (Ibid: 2007: 25.)

Other benefits used by fundraisers for inducing giving include the following: “including a gift in a direct mail package, offering access to exclusive services [e.g.] ... access to exclusive diners, meetings or special concerts.” (Bekkers & Wiepking 2007:26.)

Fringe benefits for donations have been criticised because of “... the danger in offering material benefits for charitable contributions when people receive material benefits for helpfulness, tend to undermine self-attributions of helpfulness which reduces the effect of pro-social self-attributions on future helpfulness.” (Bekkers & Wiepking 2007:27, citing Zuckerman et al 1979.)

#### (4) Altruism

“An obvious reason why individuals may contribute money to charities is because they care about the organization’s output” [e.g. services rendered to recipients]. (Bekkers & Wiepking 2007:27). In such a case, people give because they believe in the cause pursued by the nonprofit organisation.

By extension it can be argued that the philanthropists donate to the rural high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe because they believe it to be the best way of achieving social change in the district: they believe in that form of intervention.

#### (5) Reputation

Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:29) say that “reputation refers to one’s social standing” and that “it is a strong motivator of giving behaviour”. Hence a prominent person such as a business personality in the local community may for example donate to a school in the neighbourhood to enhance his/her status.

Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:29), citing CAF (2005), Home (2003), and Muehleman et al (1976), say that “[g]iving is viewed as a positive thing to do”, adding, citing Brickment Bryan (1975), “especially when giving reduces inequality” and, citing Home (2003), “when giving is less costly, recipients are not to blame, and [it] is more effective”.

Andreoni and Petrie (2004:19) state that “... people generally prefer their donations to be known by others”, and Bekkers and Wiepking 2007:29, citing Grace and Griffin 2006 and West 2004, that where individuals gain a “reputation for donations and get exposure in one way or another e.g. by wearing wrist bands has been conceptualized as “conspicuous compassion”. Giving to gain a reputation is motivated by social pressure. However, it is noted that some individuals who are motivated to philanthropy prefer anonymity.

#### (6) Psychological benefits

Giving also yields psychological benefits. “Giving is, in many cases, an almost automatic emotional response, producing a positive mood, alleviating feelings of guilt, reducing aversive arousal, satisfying the desire to show gratitude, or to be a morally just person.” (Bekkers & Wiepking 2007:31.)

According to Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:31 citing Boston and Show (1991), “... helping others produces positive psychological consequences for the helper, sometimes labeled ‘emphatic joy’ which produces a ‘warm glow’ or ‘joy of giving’ [Andreoni 1990] Donating a library to a high school, for example, can bring psychological satisfaction to the giver for many years.

Giving is said to enhance self-image. Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:31), citing Sabwartz (1970), state that “[w]hen giving entails positive psychological benefits, people are said to have ‘positive personal norms’” and, citing Carlsmith and Gross (1969), state that “personal norms strengthen the effect of social norms. When the social norm is giving, then giving would entail feelings of guilt, blame, or dissonance with one’s self-image ... assisting others may be an effective way of repairing one’s self-image after one has harmed another.”

#### (7) Values

Donors give to nonprofit organisations because of “personal values” and believe that “the works of non-profit organizations may make the world a better place”. (Bekkers & Wiepking 2007:34.)

Not only do some social values promote donations in general but also do specific social values promote donations to particular charities. Philanthropy is a means to reach a desired state of affairs that is closer to one’s ideal world. What that ideal world looks like depends on one’s value system. Through giving, donors may wish to make the distribution of wealth and health more equal; they may wish to reduce poverty, empower women, safeguard human rights ....” (Bekkers & Wiepking 2007:35.)

An example of value-driven philanthropy in Zimbabwe is the Girl Child Network founded by Betty Makoni to protect young girls from various culturally-rooted forms of abuse.

## (8) Efficacy

“Efficacy refers to the perception of donors that their contribution makes a difference to the cause they are supporting ... when people perceive that their contribution does not make a difference, they are likely not to give.” (Bekkers & Wiepking 2007:35, citing Arumi et al 2005; Diamond & Kashyap 1997; Radley & Kennedy 1992; Smith & McSweeney 2007.)

In the above section, Bekkers and Wiepking (2007) discussed a range of motivations for giving. The next section discusses the motives for and ethics of philanthropic behaviour as presented by Frumkin (2006).

According to Frumkin (2006:255-256),

[there are] three broad factors that appear to be important in the determination of whether people will act in a charitable way ... these factors relate to:

- 1- The individual's personal values and inclinations usually conceived as being altruistic and embedded in complex psychological frameworks that draw individuals towards helping behaviour.
- 2- The presence of broad social norms and expectations that together constitute the environment within which individuals operate [influence giving behaviour] and
- 3- The more direct economic considerations that drive and result from philanthropic activity ... the more these factors increase the probability that giving will occur.”

Frumkin (2006:256) also says the following:

Psychological determinants of charitable giving [include] ... three core characteristics that lead to the helping behaviour of individuals.

Firstly [there] is empathy, which involves recognizing and opening oneself to others' needs.

The second is obligation, which stems from a commitment to moral rules that often result in a feeling of wanting to help other people.

The most important characteristic [motivator of helping behaviour] is ... pro-social value orientation, which simply refers to feeling positively about being part of a community, group or collectivity [meaning] ... seeing oneself not as an isolated being, but [as] one who is connected to others and who derives meaning from these attachments ... having lots of social capital or personal ties to others thus turns out to be critical to feeling inclined to give.

Altruism also explains how and why people give: “[F]or the altruist, giving can be a form of expression that is activated by the individual’s values and concerns about people well-being.” (Ibid 2006:256.)

Frumkin (2006:256-257) further says that other schools of researchers argue that “individuals are, for the most part, self-centered and self-interested ... and care for [the] welfare [of others] only to the degree that it affects their own wellbeing”. In other words, “individuals are capable of caring for the welfare of others only because it [makes them] feel good about themselves.”

According to Frumkin (2006), psychological reasons for self-interested forms of helping behaviour include the following:

'[A]versive-arousal reduction' in which the individual finds that helping others in distress relieves their own distress; punishment avoidance in which the individual is moved to help in order to avoid the feeling of guilt or embarrassment and 'reward seeking' [helping] in which helping leads to personal gratification; ... none of these conditions requires that givers care for anyone other than themselves. Recipients of philanthropy become means to the donors' own self-serving ends.

This "social egoism' claim that helping a person in need is a means to the ultimate end of donor gratification". (Frumkin 2006:257.)

"The argument for altruism posits that the intention of givers cannot be questioned merely because they may reap some benefits as a result of seeking to help others" (Frumkin 2006:257). This is "why some donors may keep a distance between themselves and those they support, and why some donors choose to operate in complete anonymity, not wanting any recognition or attention for their acts of generosity" (Frumkin 2006:257). It can be argued that donors who wish to stay away from publicity are not motivated by recognition or status, but by a genuine desire to help those in need.

Some donors may be pressurised by the "desire to fit in and find acceptance, all of which reflects the normative influences of friends, family, and other significant associates who are themselves likely to be givers". (Frumkin 2006:258.)



Gary (2008:2) calls this 'obligatory giving'. For such donors, not giving may induce feelings of embarrassment among their peers and to avoid this unpleasant feeling they are obliged to give. A donation to a school by a member of the community can make headline news in the local press, putting pressure on other members of the community to make donations as well. In another approach, a school can appeal to members of the public to build a library, for example, and make cumulative weekly updates of the names of contributors from the local community, thus obliging other members of the community to give.

Obligatory giving can also be achieved by inviting members of the community to buy tickets or book a table for a fundraising function at a local hotel. There is some form of social cohesion in these 'must-be-seen-at events'. This knowledge can assist schools in organising their fundraising activities.

Normative altruism ... is controlled by social rewards and punishments. Potential givers may want to or be aligned to help, in order to conform to social norms, or to fit into the reference group. Helping may also provide an opportunity to expand one's social networks and to access new social opportunities. (Frumkin 2006:257.)

"By giving, donors can buy entrée into social groups and communities that have social prestige, political power, or business ties" (Frumkin 2006:258). Failure to give under these circumstances equates to failure to measure up to one's class.

The decision to give and the amount given may be shaped by seeing other people engage in charity ... , In many situations the failure to give does not carry a significant and negative discrimination, the burden of norm violation and the need for justification of not having maintained a minimum obligation that people

expect of one member. Moreover, the decision of how much to give can also be shaped by the norms for the social groups within which donors find themselves. (Frumkin 2006:258.)

In the elite circles, “the amount that is given often serves as a norm of ‘social reproduction’, a way of reinforcing one’s class position and maintaining one’s social power” (Frumkin 2006:258). If one does not give, it would reflect negatively on one’s social standing under these circumstances.

Religion affects behaviour not only through the teaching of values that promote helping behaviour. Membership and participation in religious organizations provide people with information about who the needy are and how to help them ... (Frumkin 2006:260-261.)

All religions teach that charitable behaviour is virtuous, and that makes people willing to give and fulfill their religious obligations. Failure to give is very likely to induce feelings of being guilty of committing a sin. A regular part of the proceedings in most Christian churches on a Sunday is the collection of monetary and other gifts “to further the work of the church”. The following words of Mother Teresa, as cited in Gary (2008), serve as an inspiration to give: “We have to share with our people. Suffering today is because people are hoarding, not giving, not sharing.” This means that it is possible for schools to appeal for funding of their projects along a religious theme such as that if you give you also receive in abundance in return.

Economics also affects giving behaviour. “According to this view, people act charitably for the same reason they buy insurance or equities: giving brings the benefit of a potential return even if not clearly specified at the time the initial gift is given,” (Frumkin 2006:261.) In other words people are motivated to give by the prospect of a return.

Frumkin (2006:261) further says that the return that donors realise can be the following:

[Recognition] in the form of a name plaque or building, making of business contacts...receipt of favourable publicity. It can also be viewed as the acceptance of a reward for making a donation, and a form of consumption.

Thus wealthy persons can be asked to donate a school building that can be named after them, and they may find this worthwhile.

Governments encourage private philanthropy by special provisions of the tax system. "Charitable donations are tax deductible and thus encourage giving." (Ibid: 261) This should be more relevant in the case of corporate philanthropy, where companies make donations to reduce their taxable income and in the process gain favourable publicity. "[E]mpirical studies have found that giving is income inelastic but somewhat price elastic" (Frumkin 2006:262). In other words, "income ... has no real effect on the decision to give, but has significant effect on the size of the donation once the decision to give has been made." Giving behaviour does not necessarily correlate with the income at one's disposal, but a person with a predisposition to give will make larger donations if there is an increase in income.

Fagan (2013) says the following:

Social psychologists have long been interested in what they call 'helping behavior', i.e., those actions people take to help others. [There are] ... a complex, and largely unconscious, set of factors that] control our willingness and motivation to help others. ... non-profits and charity organizations want to

understand these motivating factors, [and] ... helping individuals could also benefit by better understanding this important aspect of ourselves.

According to Fagan (2013), social psychologists have two theories about why we help others namely “public benefit” (altruism) and “private benefit” (the giver gets something out of the giving):

1. We help because we perceive the benefit of our actions as accruing to others. They called this “public benefit” because the public, or some section of it, benefits (e.g., the homeless population). However, we don’t perceive ourselves as gaining any benefit from helping others; we have altruistic, as opposed to personal, motives for helping.
2. We help others because we see ourselves as benefiting in some way. Social psychologists call this “private benefit”. Fagan (2013) argues that “private benefit” better explains the high level of giving in the USA. People wish to get something out of giving, such as recognition, associations or intrinsic satisfaction, or giving makes them feel good. [It can be said that to feel good (or the ‘warm glow’ discussed in this chapter) is the private benefit that philanthropists gain when giving.]

Fagan (2013) adds the following:

It might seem like “public benefit” better accounts for why we give, but it turns out that “private benefit” better accounts for the high level of giving we see, at least in the United States. In 2009, over 90% of the average households in the

U.S. donated over \$1600 to non-profit and charity organizations, a year that saw the country in one of its deepest post-WWII recessions.

Fagan (2013) also says that according to social researchers and economists, “private benefit” serves an important function in maintaining the high level of giving that we see: that is, if we perceive only those that we help to benefit from that help, we have a tendency to “opt out” of giving and let others help instead. Experiments have shown that a lack of personal motive reduces the tendency to give or help. The lesson that schools seeking donations for their projects can learn is that they should not hesitate to ask for help - it makes people feel good to be useful.

Frumkin (2006:165) argues as follows:

[L]arge segments of philanthropy retain a strong emotive side. The trigger to giving is often the private passions and convictions of individuals. Drawn to philanthropy by a desire to do something significant that will give greater meaning to life, donors want their giving to reflect their values and identity. For younger donors, philanthropy can be a potent way to construct a public identity and to attach oneself to an issue or cause; a way to discover and manifest latent interests or engage problems that otherwise appear too large or complex to tackle. For others, giving is a way to link private values and personal faith with real world problems. Many small and large donors make a statement through philanthropy, either to the public or to themselves about what they believe in and what their priorities are.

“[R]eligious giving constitutes the largest share of all giving in the United States. It is animated and encouraged by faiths as diverse as Catholicism, Judaism, and Islam”

(Frumkin 2006:165). “Other donors use their giving ... to honour other things that have meaning in their lives. Many donors have explicitly connected their giving to their passions and interests” (Ibid:165) for example, contemporary art, the conservation of certain species of plants and animals, and music.

“Some donors give because their memories are strong and philanthropy is a way to leave a visible imprint on society that is more lasting and universal than a personal recollection of a private feeling.” (Frumkin 2006:168.)

Stannard-Stockton (2008) says the following:

[E]conomics tells us that the dominant motivation is the internal satisfaction that individuals derive from the act of giving itself. Individuals derive utility from giving much in the same way they obtain satisfaction from buying a new car or eating at a restaurant; especially when the number of donors is large, the social context of other people’s giving is overshadowed by the satisfaction of one’s own giving when considering how much to give.

Somerville (2008:21) outlines the following reasons for philanthropic action:

- (1) Emotion. A personal experience such as terminal illness in the family or a deprived childhood can motivate one to give to people in similar circumstances.
- (2) A philanthropic opportunity may “sound good”, motivating giving. People may be motivated by “speaker[s], public relations professionals, or by direct mail solicitation that [their] money will be well spent” (Somerville 2008:21). The media play an important role in persuading people to act generously.

- (3) Recommendation. People give in response to recommendations by others whom they trust.
- (4) Prestige. “Public recognition of a donor’s generosity motivates both the direction and size of a gift.” (Somerville 2008:21.)
- (5) Coercion. “Mild and heavy-handed encouragements to give often reap results” (Somerville 2008:21), Coercion can be effected subtly by church leaders or your boss at work who set giving targets for their congregations and subordinates respectively.
- (6) Default. One may give to groups that one has always supported out of habit.

The above section shows that there is convergence among various scholars on the reasons for generous behaviour by individuals. Most philanthropic giving comes from private funds. Motivations for giving can be categorised broadly into private benefits and public benefits. The next section discusses the steps of giving.

## **2.8 STEPS OF GIVING**

Philanthropy is not a new concept, as revealed by the following discussion. Maimonides, a 12th-century Jewish scholar, invented a “ladder of giving” with eight rungs or steps, each one representing “a higher degree of virtue” ([www.charitywatch](http://www.charitywatch)).

The steps suggest a hierarchy in giving, beginning with a lower order and ascending to a higher order of giving.

Rubenstein (2004:6) explains Maimonides's "steps on the ladder of charity" or giving as follows:

The first step is giving grudgingly and "making the recipient feel disgraced and embarrassed" ([www.charitywatch](http://www.charitywatch)). It can be argued that this type of giving dehumanises the receiver and makes him/her feel indebted to the giver. It is likely to result in low self-esteem on the part of the receiver. Thus, it is less virtuous in nature.

The second step is giving less than one's capacity, but cheerfully. Rubenstein (2004) calls this 'reaction giving'. Some rich people may fall into this category. The *Sunday Times*, citing *The Economist*, observes that "new research has confirmed that generosity does not come easily to the rich [and that] there is a direct correlation between wealth and selfishness". However, research may produce different results in other social settings.

The third step is giving directly when asked. Here the donor gives adequately and cheerfully. Rubenstein (2004) calls this 'reactive giving' and observes that most people do not give unless asked to do so. The beneficiary must take the initiative to request a donation. Giving does not come naturally to most people: they have to be persuaded to make a donation. Bekkers and Wiepking (2007:23) also observe that 85% of donations are in response to some form of solicitation.

The fourth step is giving without being asked. Rubenstein (2004) calls this "the active mode of giving." The donor takes the initiative to identify potential beneficiaries and their needs and then distributes the necessary resources. In such a case, giving is intrinsically motivated, and not externally induced.

The fifth step of giving is “when you do not know who is the individual benefiting, but the recipient knows your identity” ([www.charitywatch](http://www.charitywatch)). This is an indirect way of giving and can occur when a donor gives money, say, to a school and does not get to know the actual learners who will benefit from such a donation.

The sixth step of giving is also an indirect way of giving. However, in this case the giver knows the identity of the individuals benefiting from his/her donation but the recipients do not know the giver. This is the case when the giver does not wish his/her identity to be known to the beneficiaries for personal and other reasons.

Giving anonymously is the seventh step of giving. It is when neither the donor nor the recipient knows the other's identity. This occurs when individuals make donations to charitable organisations that are at liberty to allocate the funds or materials as they see fit.

Rubenstein (2004) argues that the eighth step is the highest level of giving, where the giving is aimed at making the recipient self-sufficient. The organisation Philanthropy SA (2010) calls giving to facilitate self-sufficiency ‘transformational giving’.

Rubenstein (2004) posits that step eight differentiates between charity and philanthropy: charity being the act of making a gift, and philanthropy being the act of making a difference. The aim of philanthropy is to make the recipient self-reliant so that he/she will not require charity any more. The mayor of New York, Mr. Michael Bloomberg, in making his pledge to the Giving Pledge, said, “Making a difference in people's lives and seeing it with your own eyes is perhaps the most satisfying thing you will ever do” (*The Sunday Times 08/08/2010*).

If poor communities are assisted by funding their education, they will be independent and will not depend on charity any more. Education has a liberating effect in that beneficiaries will acquire marketable skills and will provide for their own needs. Social problems such as poverty and crime will then be reduced in the long run.

In developing countries, there is much potential for making a difference through giving for educational purposes, because of the high levels of illiteracy and poverty. However, Rubenstein (2004:23) observes that not much corporate giving is taking place and suggests that this is because it “is not something that features prominently in the curriculum of most business schools. It is not taught.” Rubenstein also suggests that small businesses may think that giving is not for them. However, giving to improve lives is catching on in Africa, as discussed in chapter 1 of this study. Prominent Africans are giving to worthy causes, including education.

There are various reasons why businesses give to philanthropic causes. A few of those reasons will be discussed below.

## **2.9 WHY CORPORATIONS GIVE**

### **2.9.1 Introduction**

The corporate world gives significantly and conspicuously to philanthropic causes in what is sometimes referred to as ‘corporate philanthropy’. This section reviews what motivates their giving.



According to Bertsch (1982:21), corporate contributions to philanthropy are motivated by a variety of considerations: “self-interest, not altruism, is the appropriate rationale for giving and [has] much less to do with philanthropos, or ‘loving mankind’”.

### **2.9.2 Corporate philanthropy for skills development**

Some companies give to the community in ways that are related to their products or in ways that will also benefit the business in the long run.

Bertsch (1982) says that “public interest and corporate interest can converge, e.g. Exxon’s 5 year \$15 million program to ease the shortage of engineering teachers”. Stephen Stamas, the then vice-president of Exxon, cited in Bertsch (1982:20), said that “if engineering education suffers Exxon will suffer, sooner or later”.

Exxon’s giving is an example of corporate philanthropy to a specific labour pool that is related to the company’s line of business. Many businesses give scholarships related to their operations: for example, Central African Pharmaceutical Suppliers (CAPS), a Zimbabwean company, awards bursaries to undergraduates studying pharmacy, banks give bursaries to Bachelor of Commerce students, mining companies award bursaries to mining-engineering students, and accounting firms fund accountancy students. This type of philanthropy ensures a steady supply of skills critical to the operations of the companies. It can be observed that such bursaries are highly exclusive and that only the best students qualify for them.

Only a few bursaries are annually available in Zimbabwe, and the amount of money committed to philanthropy should be relatively less. Useem and Kutner (1986) in

Guthrie et al (2007) on the subject of the corporate philanthropic commitments in the USA, point out that “the amount of money coming out from the corporate sector would not be all that significant ... funding from the corporate sector is a relatively small percentage of the total revenues for the non-profit sector.” However, the part played by the corporations to develop skills is important especially in developing countries such as Zimbabwe.

Another example of corporate funding towards skills development aligned to company activities is Cisco Systems who invested in an educational program, the Cisco Network Academy, “to train computer network administrators, thus alleviating a potential constraint on its growth while providing attractive job opportunities to high school graduates”. The program focused on “social needs that affect its corporate content.” (Porter & Kramer 2008:452.)

Porter and Kramer (2008:456) explain that “[c]ompanies do not function in isolation from the society around them. The more a social improvement relates to a company’s business the more it leads to economic benefits as well.” Cisco focused on “a particular kind of education that made the most difference to Cisco’s competitive context. Cisco’s philanthropy targeted schools in the empowerment zones that are among the most economically challenged communities in the US.” (Porter and Kramer 2008:456)

As stated by Porter and Kramer (2008:456) at the time,

[Cisco’s program] operates in 9 900 academies in secondary schools, community colleges, and community based organizations in all 50 states and

147 countries ... more than 115 000 students have already graduated from the two year program ...263 000 students are currently enrolled; half of them outside the US. 50-100 academies are opening every week.

The above has shown that corporate philanthropy that goes towards skills development is mutually beneficial to the companies involved and the recipient communities.

### **2.9.3 Corporate philanthropy as a marketing strategy**

Corporate giving can be motivated by peer pressure from other companies. Companies may give to enhance their public image. "Image advertising sells the corporate personality", says Bertsch (1982:21), and continues to say that "[m]any cultural and art programs as well as educational institutions provide opportunities for high visibility grants" (Bertsch 1982:23). Philanthropy can form part of the corporations' non-price competition, where the corporations would rather than cut prices use other methods for maximising their exposure to the public.

Irwin Miller, cited in Bertsch (1982:21), believes that "corporate giving is an essential part of corporate survival", and William Andres, the then chairman of Dayton-Hudson, cited in Bertsch (1982:21), adds the following: "For business to ignore public pressure to solve social problems is perilous to the future of all."

Product promotion is a strong motivator of corporate giving:

A controversial area where product promotion and philanthropy overlap is in business sponsored primary and secondary education programs. A number of corporations prepare materials that support the use of their product. For example Kellogg's nutrition education books that promote a good breakfast featuring cereal. (Bertsch 1982:23.)

In Zimbabwe, a company that manufactured laboratory equipment and materials was partially involved in the funding of the construction of secondary school laboratories.

Porter and Kramer (2008:451) note the following:

Increasingly, philanthropy is used as a form of public relations or advertising promoting company image or brand through cause-related marketing or other high profile sponsorships. Although it still represents only a small proportion of overall corporate charitable expenditures, US corporate spending on cause-related marketing jumped from \$125m in 1990 to an estimated \$828m in 2002.

Campaigns provide "much needed support to worthy causes, they are intended as much to increase company visibility and improve employee morale as to create social impact" (Porter & Kramer 2008:451-452). "Tobacco giant, Philip Morris, for example, spent \$75m on its charitable contributions in 1999 and then launched a \$100m advertising campaign to publicize them" (Porter & Kramer 2008:452).

Companies engage in cause-related marketing whereby "a company concentrates its giving on a single cause or admired organization" (Porter & Kramer 2008:452) such

as support of an orphanage or a special-needs school. According to Porter and Kramer (2008), this is the earliest practice of strategic philanthropy.

More sophisticated strategic philanthropy is where “cause-related marketing can improve the reputation of a company by linking its identity with the admired qualities of a chosen non-profit partner or a popular cause”, for example sponsoring the Olympic Games. In such a case, philanthropy is used as a marketing strategy. Corporate giving is a way of generating goodwill among the local community. (Porter & Kramer 2008:452.) Goodwill can translate into increased sales and profits.

According to Corporate Giving Strategies (1995:11), corporate philanthropy in the USA is no longer “a largely anonymous, charitable process aimed at broad community improvement; [rather] today corporate giving by the most proactive donors has become much more sophisticated, calculated, and focused. Currently company managers aim to insure accountability by the groups they help [and] make sure there is a ‘return’ to the company.” In other words, businesses not only give and remain unknown, but also give and wish their actions to be known and to get exposure as a return on their generosity. Businesses give not only to benefit the receiver, but also to benefit themselves. Under these circumstances, corporate philanthropy is supposed to be mutually beneficial. Businesses also expect the recipients to account for the donations that they receive.

Companies are “increasingly converting their contributions programs into ‘social investments’ rather than outright donations. Such investments aim to add value for the company as well as the recipient.” (Corporate Giving Strategies 1995:11). Expecting

a social return on investment is a model of philanthropy called 'venture philanthropy' discussed in this study.

Companies "make sure that the corporate name is publicly associated with the project" that they contribute towards. (Corporate Giving Strategies 1995:11). This approach is described by the research report as a holistic or integrated process and requires input from many corporate departments, such as marketing and community relations.

"Surveyed companies report three main benefits resulting from changes in corporate giving programs: enhanced corporate image, increased employee involvement and improved customer ties." (Corporate Giving Strategies 1995:9)

According to 463 companies surveyed in the USA in 1995, the main goal of corporate giving is "to create a positive image for the company" (Corporate Giving Strategies 1995:17). In Zimbabwe, for example, the Coca Cola company sponsors high-school soccer from a provincial to a national level and in so doing gets maximum exposure, as the annual tournament is called the National Association of Secondary Heads (NASH) Coca Cola Tournament.

According to the research report, strategies linked to charitable giving were public-relations campaigns, consisting of more press releases, a focused media campaign or a foundation report" (Corporate Giving Strategies 1995:17). Also, the most preferred methods of promoting charitable giving were in-house newsletters, local and national press releases, company annual reports, special social reports and foundation reports (Corporate Giving Strategies 1995:18).

The ultimate objective of all the philanthropy related marketing strategies employed by corporations is making a profit as discussed in the next section.

#### **2.9.4 The profit motive**

Fagan (2013) reports the following:

[R]esearch into the motivations of businesses and corporations suggest that profit maximization (a form of 'private benefit') is the primary motive driving contributions. Corporations see increased profit through positive advertising and enhanced corporate image (e.g., think of Intel's support of the MacNeil-Lehrer News Hour). In some cases businesses can even calculate the indirect benefit on the bottom line of improved social conditions (e.g., reduced crime in cities, decreased welfare dependency, etc.)

In fact, Peter Navarro, a business professor at the University of California-Irvine, argues that profit maximisation is such a strong factor that tax policy should be altered to allow corporations to treat contributions as critical business expenses; this, he thinks, could increase charitable giving above the 20% of all donations in any given year coming from businesses. (Fagan 2013.)

#### **2.9.5 Counteracting bad publicity**

Corporate philanthropy can serve the purpose of counteracting bad publicity. Frumkin (2006:21) observes that "[c]orporations are particularly attracted to [the] rehabilitative function of philanthropy and use contribution programs to rebuild their public image following bad news".

The cigarette manufacturer Philip Morris, for example,

spends hundreds of millions of dollars promoting its philanthropy through advertisements. The use of philanthropy for such narrow and self-interested purposes is troublesome ... because the donor appears to have gone too far at too great a cost to ensure that giving is followed by taking. (Frumkin 2006:21)

The tobacco company British and American Tobacco used to sponsor the major football tournaments in Zimbabwe ensuring that it positioned itself prominently in the media and one can conclude that this counteracts bad publicity related to the dangers of cigarette smoking.

#### **2.9.6 Tax incentive**

Corporations are also motivated by tax incentives since philanthropic contributions are tax deductible. Somerville (2008:21) says that businesses donate because of tax recommendations and “get substantial tax deductions for their giving and the fact figures prominently in the advice given by their financial counsellors”.

The above, however, is a source of criticism. Bertsch (1982:28) reports that critics of corporate philanthropy are of the opinion that “it diverts otherwise public money to corporate control, since half the contributions come out of taxes that would have been paid to government.” Directors of corporate business have the discretion to disburse otherwise public funds as they see fit. Excessive corporate power is the main problem raised by critics.

### **2.9.7 Instrumental forms of giving**

Frumkin (2006) identifies instrumental forms of giving where corporations give because they have identified a problem or purpose and their giving is not rooted in emotion. An instrumental form of giving is distinguished from an expressive form of giving, where “the trigger to giving is often the private passions and convictions of individuals”.

Frumkin (2006:160) says the following:

Sometimes giving has a purposeful or instrumental rationale. Donors may give simply because they spot a problem or need for which philanthropic resources represent a solution ...For such donors achieving an outcome, not enacting their private value or beliefs, is particularly attractive. The instrumental side of giving is often accentuated by the fact that many wealthy donors do not have a strong passion about any particular issue, and are more interested in being useful than anything else ... [without being] enmeshed in their personal family lives. Instrumentalism [is] ... often values neutral giving practiced by major institutional donors.

Instrumental forms of giving can be likened to providing for a need or solving an identified problem.

There are corporate-social-responsibility (CSR) theories that also try to explain the motivations behind corporate philanthropy, and these are discussed in the next section.

### 2.9.8 Corporate-Social-Responsibility (CSR) theories

Garriga and Mele in Crane et al (2008:78) classify corporate-responsibility theories into the following groups:

- instrumental theories
- political theories
- integrative theories
- ethical theories

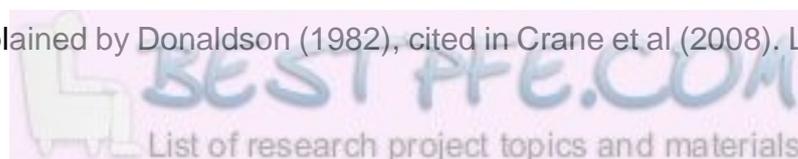
Gariga & Mele in Crane et al (2008:78) say the following:

Instrumental theories of CSR assume that the corporation is an instrument for the creation of wealth and that is their only social responsibility [and] its social activities are only a means to achieve economic results.

In other words, the instrumental theories suggest that business has no obligation to give to society; it exists only to make profit for the shareholder. When a business gives to society it is only motivated by earning a profit through philanthropic action.

When offering scholarships to undergraduate students, a Zimbabwean company aptly said that it not only wished to make a better product for the community, but also aimed to make a better community for their product. Improved livelihood achieved by philanthropy translates into clients with more disposable income to spend on corporate products.

Political theories of CSR emphasise and recognise the political power of corporations and the fact that corporations accept social duties and responsibilities from that perspective. An example of a political theory of CSR is the Integrative Social Contract Theory (ISCT) explained by Donaldson (1982), cited in Crane et al (2008). Locke cited



in Crane et al (2008:84) assumed “that a social contract between business and society exists”. This social contract implies some indirect obligation of business towards society.

It can be argued that business acquires skilled workers - for example; workers whose training is funded privately by families and thus are morally indebted to society.

The integrative theories of CSR explore “how business integrates social demands [because] business depends on society for its existence, continuity and growth” (Ibid) These theories seem to attach an obligation on business to give to society and suggest that there is interdependence between business and society where business obtains human resources and profit from society and in turn makes philanthropic donations to that society.

The ethical theories of CSR are based on the principles that express “the necessity to build a good society or how to do the right things” (Garriga & Mele 2008:90). The ethical theories include the concept of sustainable development and that businesses should consider “the social dimension as being inseparable from development” (Garriga & Mele 2008:92). The World Business Council (WBC), cited in Garriga and Mele (2008:92), explains that sustainable development “requires the integration of social, environmental and economic considerations to make balanced judgments for the long term”, Furthermore, the World Business Council for Sustainable Development says that CSR is “the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the ... local community and society at large”. The ethical-theories group also includes the

common-good approach that maintains that business “has to contribute to the common good” (Garriga & Mele 2008:93).

The ethical theories of CSR seem to raise two issues. The first issue is about values: that it is good for business to give to worthy causes in the community. The second issue is that while business contributes to economic development, it should also contribute to social progress to contain social ills that may result in an impoverished society.

Of the four CSR theories discussed above, three share the view that business is expected to extend charity to society.

### **2.9.9 Criticisms of corporate philanthropy**

Earlier schools of thought argued that the focus of corporations should be on making profits. According to Bertsch (1982:12), critics of corporate philanthropy argue as follows:

Traditional economic theory held that the capitalistic economic engine should be fuelled by the pursuit of profits, not the desire to do good deeds. And under common law corporation managers were not allowed to expend corporate funds for charity unless the company benefited.

According to Friedman, cited in Bertsch (1982), “[t]here is one and only social responsibility of business [that is] ... to use its resources and engage in activities designed to increase its profits ...” Henry Ford II, cited in Bertsch (1982:12), argued that “the corporation is not an all-purpose mechanism; it is not well equipped to serve social needs unrelated to its business operations”.

Critics of corporate philanthropy argue that if corporations engage in social efforts they become less efficient. Also, according to Bertsch (1982:13), “if corporations make contributions they prevent the individual shareholder from deciding how to dispose of his funds”. Friedman, cited in Bertsch (1982:13) concludes that “the acceptance of corporate officials of a social responsibility other than to make as much money for their shareholders as possible ... is a fundamentally subversive doctrine”. However, currently corporate social responsibility seems to have become a norm of good ‘corporate citizenship’ and society actually expects business to give. It appears that the thinking in business is that it is actually profitable to do good deeds by getting favourable exposure.

This section looked at the various reasons for corporate giving. Businesses give because they gain in the process through positive publicity and corporate image and tax incentives, and in developing skills essential in their production processes. Some giving by business is simply to solve a social problem identified. Some criticisms of corporate giving have also been reviewed.

The following section discusses some methods of giving.

## **2.10 METHODS OF GIVING**

Proceeds from philanthropic organisations can be used in a number of ways for benefiting recipients. The following section discusses how philanthropic funds are used in the education sector.

Huntley (c1995) identified the following aspects of education that can be improved through donor support.

- Technology projects such as the provision of computers to needy rural schools to facilitate the teaching of computer education and to improve management of the schools.
- Capital improvement: for example, the building of libraries, classrooms and laboratories for disadvantaged schools, especially in rural areas.
- Scholarships can assist students who have completed the General Certificate of Education Advanced Level (GCE 'A' Level) to study at tertiary institutions, for example.
  - Training: donor support can be in the form of providing funds to school leavers for skills training.

In addition to the above, Rubenstein (2004) lists awards and grants to students as aspects that can also benefit from philanthropic action and Hess et al in Crane et al (2008:271) state that "other examples [of corporate community involvement] include the transfer of knowledge and direct support for education". There are many other ways in which philanthropists can support public schools in Zimbabwe besides those mentioned in this section.

Similarly the organisation called Education Charity (International) (2009) says that their “[c]harities run a large variety of education programs in the developing world”.

Some of the programmes that they sponsor include the following:

- **School building:** Charities build classrooms or buildings for government-run schools, and build and run schools themselves.
- **Scholarships:** Charities sponsor individual students and fund schools so that students do not have to pay the school fees that are common in the developing world.
- **Teacher training:** Charities train new teachers and upgrade the skills of established teachers.
- **Pre-primary schools:** Charities run schools for children ages 3-6 to prepare them for primary school.
- **Textbooks and supplies:** Charities provide everything from pencils to chalkboards to uniforms and shoes.
- **Computers:** Charities fund computers in classrooms in schools and provide out-of-school computer training classes.
- **Libraries:** Charities build school- and community-based libraries.

Philanthropists can develop skills in chosen communities. Clinton (2007) chronicles one of the innovative philanthropic actions called “Chess-in-the Schools” initiated in 1986 by

a couple of fellow chess enthusiasts ... believing the game’s complex rules and power of imagination could stimulate intellectual growth in students in low-performing schools. When the Chess-in-the Schools kids were tested on

national standardized exams, they showed significant gains in reading, outperforming not only the average scores in their school districts but the national average as well. Playing chess helps students develop thinking and analysing skills, concentration, greater self-control, and self-confidence. Today [2007], Chess-in-the Schools involves about 27 000 elementary and junior high school students in 109 schools in New York City neighbourhoods with low incomes. The program costs \$100 per student per year. (Clinton 2007:35.)

Clinton (2007:57) introduces another form of giving: giving things. He relates his experience of unknown “heroes of giving”. Sheri Sattzberg and Mark Gordon of New York, retirees from public-health administration and teaching respectively, visited several Zimbabwean schools while on holiday and “were appalled to see that there were no textbooks, empty libraries, no science equipment [and] no basic school supplies”. Back in the USA they “founded their own NGO - the US-Africa Children’s Fellowship”, which partnered “with the Zimbabwe Organization for Rural Associations for Progress [whose goal was] to help improve the economy and education in individual communities” (Clinton 2007:58).

Over the next two years, they located thirty five US schools to partner with thirty five schools in Zimbabwe and they have shipped forty four full containers to the schools, with more than 150 000 books, school supplies, toys, games, sports equipment, bicycles, clothing, sewing machines, agricultural tools, and other items. (Clinton 2007:58.)

The organisation also raises funds to buy school uniforms and locally printed books, and for scholarships. This form of spontaneous giving is motivated by a personal experience, sympathy and a conviction that one can make a difference.

Clinton (2007) says that “in the US partner schools, Mark and Sheri try to give students an appreciation for what life is like for their counterparts in Zimbabwe”. The American children learn about the hardships faced by their Zimbabwean counterparts and “are empowered to take action – collecting donations and writing letters to the Zimbabwean students” (Clinton 2007:58). Mark and Sheri reported that their book donations resulted in improved examination results both at the Grade 7 and at the advanced level. (Clinton 2007:59.)

Clinton comments as follows: “The program has proven so successful, there’s now a waiting list of three hundred schools.” When asked why they were involved in the philanthropic programme, Marks, cited in Clinton (2007:59), says the following: “I believe that each of us has an obligation to level the playing field of life. Schools have no books ... we all have a capacity to make a difference somewhere.”

According to Clinton (2007:60), another lesser-known giver to educational causes is John Wood, a former Microsoft executive who came across a shortage of books and other school materials while on holiday in Nepal. Wood founded Room to Read

with the goal of providing educational access to ten million children in the developing world. In 2000, he began working with rural communities to build schools and establish libraries with English and local language books. Room to Read has built 287 schools, established more than 3 600 libraries, [and] donated almost 1.5 million English books .... It has also set up 117 computer and language labs and funded more than 2 300 scholarships for girls in places where they otherwise would not go to school. Room to Read has expanded into several other Asian nations, [and] began work in South Africa in 2006. (Clinton 2007:60.)

Clinton (2007:60) informs us that “John Wood has written a book: Leaving Microsoft to Change the World, in which he tells his story about ‘an entrepreneur’s odyssey to educate the world’s children’”. Entrepreneurs can develop a lifelong passion for engaging in philanthropy to change the lives of the underprivileged through education. The motivation in this case can be viewed as entirely altruistic, rather than to gain business mileage.

According to Clinton (2007:70), “[o]ne of the greatest gifts anyone can give is a useful skill. Transferring ... knowledge and the ability to use it can empower others in amazing ways.” And in the USA, “every week thousands of Americans tutor young people and immigrants who want to learn English”.

Prominent sports figures have foundations that support young people through educational and scholarship programs. The most innovative ones I’ve seen in terms of skills development are the Andre Agassi Preparatory Academy and the Tiger Woods Learning Centre. (Clinton 2007:75.)

“Most of Agassi Prep’s students are minority, most from low income families” (Clinton 2007:74). André Agassi, cited in Clinton (2007:75), says the following: “Changing a child’s life is what I always wanted to do.”

The above discussion shows us that the main methods of giving can be summarised as donations of financial support, materials, infrastructure, equipment and skills development.

The next section looks at the development of African-American philanthropy.

## 2.11 AFRICAN-AMERICAN PHILANTHROPY

### 2.11.1 Introduction

African-American philanthropic organisations have been established in the USA with the aim of aiding African-American causes underserved or ignored by “traditional” or white organisations. Ingram, Mottino, Miller, and Burrell (2003), citing Hall-Russell and Kasberg (1997) posit the following:

African American giving is derived from a notion of family as an inclusive and permeable institution where giving and serving family, neighbours and needy strangers are seen as general obligations. This sense of obligation to family and community is foundational for what we now understand to be African American philanthropy.

Ingram et al (2003) observe that two terms that have been used to describe African-American philanthropy are self-help and benevolence: “In the case of blacks, both self-help philanthropy and benevolent philanthropy were rooted in the experience of oppression and resulted in racial uplift.” Ingram et al (1997) distinguish between self-help philanthropy and benevolent philanthropy:

Self-help philanthropy focuses on the cooperative giving of time and/or money in response to the needs of the individual, family, and immediate community. This type of philanthropy takes place within a peer group where there is reciprocal giving and receiving. Benevolent philanthropy focuses on monetary donations from elite, wealthy individuals that aid institution building and respond to the condition of the wider African American community.

African-American philanthropy focuses on racial uplift outside white-run institutions. Regarding the history of African-American philanthropy, Ingram et al (1997:3), citing Hall-Russel and Kasberg (1997:19), observe the following:

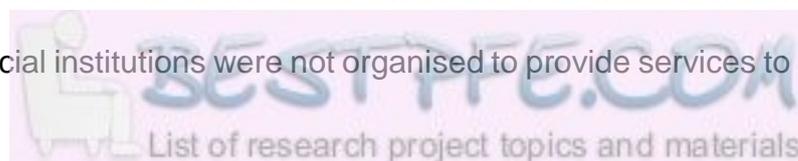
African American philanthropy has been rooted in a highly developed sense of family, created through the historical isolation from the structures and resources of white society. African Americans have conceptualized the individual, family, and community as a fluid continuum .... Therefore kinship giving as well as neighbourhood giving has a feature of African American philanthropy.

It needs to be mentioned that the term “family members” here also refers to people who are not family members in a conventional sense - that is to members of the extended family.

According to Ingram et al (1997:3), citing Davis (1975), Palmer (1999), and Pollard (1978), early African-American philanthropy was motivated by many reasons, including the following:

[R]acial upliftment has long been the overarching motivation for giving. Low socio-economic status and exclusion from white institutions compelled blacks to develop systems and institutions meant to alleviate their depressed conditions. As a result they created means of empowerment by fundraising for, volunteering at, and donating to institutions where African Americans set their own terms rather than accept terms set by white controlled institutions.

It can be said that historically African-American philanthropy was inspired by the need for self-emancipation of blacks in the face of exclusion from white social institutions in the USA. White social institutions were not organised to provide services to the blacks.



Ingram et al (1997:3) then say the following:

Historically, African Americans have created various groups and associations to deal with the problems of local and larger black communities. Some of these included churches, schools and literary clubs, mutual aid societies, fraternal organizations, and nationalist groups. Because of complex obstacles hindering African American social, economic, and political advancement, these philanthropic institutions have served multiple - and often overlapping - purposes.

Below, Ingram et al (1997) trace the institutions and issues central to the development of African-American philanthropy.

### **2.11.2 The black church**

According to Ingram et al (1997:4), the church was the most significant institution in African-American communities.

Churches were the primary political, social, and philanthropic centres in African American communities during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The earliest forms of formal giving to local organizations can be traced to African American churches at the end of the eighteenth century. Black churches also provided social services for their congregants since 'pre-emancipation America' provided little services to blacks" (Ingram et al 1997:4, citing Carson 1990a, 1990b, & 1991; Hall-Russell & Kasberg 1997; Joseph 1995; Winters 1999).

Carson (1990b:234), cited in Ingram et al (1997:4), adds the following to what was stated above:

From slavery to the present, the black church has been an extremely versatile institution through which blacks could channel their philanthropic resources to respond to changing social and economic conditions that threatened the survival of the black community. There are at least two interrelated reasons why ... the black church has been at the centre of philanthropic activity within the black community: the indigenous control that blacks have had over the ... church and the ... church's appeal to different socioeconomic strata within the black community.

Ingram et al (2003:4) then says,

The church provided a place where blacks could speak freely on matters affecting their community. Pastors could encourage charity besides spreading the gospel. The church was a place of collective spiritual and moral support among the African Americans. It encouraged the black community to shape their own destiny and prove to themselves and others that they were authors and architects of their own destiny. The church was a sanctuary and a social support structure. It appears the black church transcended the fulfillment of spiritual needs role to that of providing for social needs as well", [thus addressing] "particular problems plaguing African Americans locally and/or internationally".

### **2.11.3 Antislavery societies**

Ingram et al (2003:5) observe that because of the scourge of slavery in the American society of the 19th century, "the majority - if not all - of African American philanthropic activities were concerned in some way with eradicating slavery" and the "creation of an egalitarian society" (Yee 1992, cited in Ingram et al 1997:5).

McCarthy (2003), cited in Ingram et al (2003:5), is of the view that “African American leaders believed that in order to be fully integrated and accepted into larger [white] society, blacks needed to cultivate their intellect and act piously” and states that “African Americans behaved philanthropically by establishing various types of groups [such as voluntary associations, the black church, and abolitionist societies] to promote racial elevation”.

One can say that African-American philanthropy was a natural response to the challenges that faced blacks in the 19th-century USA. Philanthropic activities can be viewed as part of a broader struggle for self-emancipation.

#### **2.11.4 Educational efforts**

Early African-American philanthropic activities were necessitated with a need to provide social services to the black community largely excluded from the resources and structures of the white establishment. According to Ingram et al (2003:5) “[t]he educational efforts of African Americans prior to the Civil War served ideological, strategic, and philanthropic purposes. Education was a central part of the racial elevation and upliftment strategy”.

Palmer (1999) and Porter (1936) cited in Ingram et al (2003:5), state the following:

There were few public educational provisions (depending on the location) for blacks for most of the nineteenth century. Therefore they organised and provided education for themselves. As early as 1830, African-Americans established library societies in places such [as] New York City, Philadelphia, Boston, and Pittsburgh [and many others] with the purpose of providing libraries and reading rooms as well as encouraging reading and spreading knowledge.

Ingram et al (2003:6) explain that “the majority of African Americans, both child and adult, were unable to read and did not possess basic skills in writing and arithmetic. This reality made primary schools a more pressing need in most black communities.”

As a result, much philanthropic effort by the black church was directed at establishing more educational facilities for African-Americans. Ingram et al (2003:6), citing Bell (1996), say that there were obstacles because “white opposition to black institutions of higher education made it difficult to find locations where schools could be established” but despite the challenges, “Lincoln University in Pennsylvania and Wilberforce University in Ohio were both founded during the 1850s.” Many elementary and secondary schools (referred to as colleges) for black communities were established and,

[P]rominent African Americans such as Booker T. Washington raised funds for black colleges in more traditional ways, seeking large cash donations from wealthy blacks and whites, [nevertheless] the work of poor blacks in communities all over the South was indispensable in ensuring the survival of these schools. (Jones and Richardson 1990 cited in Ingram et al 2003:6)

Although “[l]ocal people provided money when they could [they lived in the] horrific poverty of post-emancipation [South]”. (Jones and Richardson 1990 cited in Ingram et al 2003:6) So mostly they gave food to students, labour to construct dormitories and offered accommodation to white teachers “who were shunned by local whites as ‘outside agitators’.” (Ibid 2003:6)

It is apparent that philanthropic activities of the church and other civic groups played a major role in laying the foundations for black education in the USA.

Ingram et al (1997:6) say the following:

The proliferation of colleges after the Civil War is another testament to both the philanthropic spirit of those African Americans and the fact that a more inclusive definition highlights many institutions and activities not always associated with philanthropy.

#### **2.11.5 Africare - an example of an African-American philanthropic organisation**

Africare is an example of an African-American philanthropic organisation aimed at raising funds in the USA for assisting those in need “back home” in Africa.

Campbell (2011) traces the history of this organisation from its inception and highlights some of its achievements:

According to Campbell (2011), Africare began in the village of Maine Soroa in the department of Diffa in Niger in the 1960s. Its “founders were passionate visionaries whose eyes were opened to the need in Africa by service in the Peace Corps and by the desire to perpetuate the Peace Corps humanitarian aspirations” (Campbell 2011:1, 2).

[Africare evolved] into the only African American development organization in the United States planning life–sustaining projects in many nations of Sub-Saharan Africa ... it was intended to be a movement to bring Americans of all races together in a noble cause to save Africa. (Campbell 2011:2.)

The organisation later involved millions who “hoped that their contribution toward African development would end poverty and disease on the continent” (Campbell 2011:2).

Campbell (2011) then states the following:

Africare was recognized officially as a non-profit charitable foundation in Honolulu on September 11, 1970, for the purpose of easing "...pain and suffering by providing medical services and health care to the people of Africa beginning in the Department of Diffa in the country of Niger". (Campbell 2011:4.)

According to Campbell, the founder of Africare, Pane Lucas, visited New York City in 1971 from the first official headquarters at the Niger embassy and learnt that "bid foundations were uninterested in overseas development work, and in particular, in an African-American start-up with the goal of improving the health of Africans" (Campbell 2011:14).

"The goal of Africare from its conception was to be an organization financed primarily by gifts from African Americans" (Campbell 2011:17).

Lucas, the founder of Africare, argued that it is "important that we black folks carry a major share of the load ... Admittedly we don't have as much money as whites, but even a lot of poor people can come up with \$5 a year" (Lucas, cited in Campbell, 2011:17). The idea of the importance of small donations was expressed earlier by Kathleen (2010:7) by saying "Philanthropy is not limited to the wealthy. Many middle-income and even relatively poor individuals make meaningful donations to charitable causes as well."

Lucas believed “that membership [of philanthropic organisations] gave a psychological boost to African Americans by enabling them to help racially related people in Africa and to ‘concretize’ their concern about Africa” (Campbell 2011:17). However, “basing chapters in black communities and relying on contributions from black Americans ... had a disadvantage of making Africare dependent on a segment of society with modest means” (Campbell 2011:25).

A 1978 evaluation by USAID, which gave Africare grants for development programmes, observed the following:

[T]he constituency of black Americans was not organized in a way to facilitate fund raising. The evaluators warned Africare that, as admirable as it was that it had not become an exclusively black organization in its staffing or constituency appeal, its credibility as having a special relationship between Africans and America’s black community was threatened by the increasing proportion of donors and donations from white constituencies. They urged Africare leaders to adopt a new major strategy of fund raising that would target black individuals, black organizations, and in particular, black churches (Campbell 2011:26.)

According to Campbell, “[o]ne means of getting national recognition and hence funding is to have celebrity sponsors”. Thus, “Africare, from the beginning, sought the advantage of its contacts with prominent Americans” such as Sammy Davis Jr, who was requested in October 1970 to “become the national chairman of Africare, with the primary function of raising funds”. (Campbell 2011:28.)

Other black celebrities associated with Africare include Muhammad Ali, Don King, and Roberta Flank, who gave cash donations and helped to raise funds and enhance the image of the organisation.

According to Campbell (2011:28-29), Lilian Carter, the mother of former President Jimmy Carter, “gave credibility and publicity to Africare”. Ms. Carter was “invited by the Gambian President, Sir Dawda Jawara”, and “promised to spread the word in the United States of Africa’s need”,

Africare was not only about African assistance, but it considered its mission to educate Americans about Africa. It wanted them to see Africa beyond the images they may have received from movies as a continent of animals, jungles, and bare-breasted women. (Campbell 2011.)

Africare relief projects involve health, building wells, buying books for school children, drought relief in the Sahel region, irrigation pumps, dams, education about AIDS, and poultry projects.

Other prominent African-American philanthropic organisations are The Black Philanthropy Initiative, the Black Men & Boys Series, the Black Benefactors and Black Gives Back.

The next section discusses some criticisms levelled against the practice of philanthropy.

## 2.12 CRITICISMS LEVELLED AGAINST CHARITY AND PHILANTHROPY

According to Frumkin (2006:5), critics of charity say the following:

[It] debases and humiliates the poor. By offering money to others, givers place the poor in the unfortunate position of taking money they have not earned in order to survive. Giving and the resulting taking may undermine the self-esteem of the poor and make them feel helpless and powerless. The receipt of funds, especially when it is transparent and administered through agencies, reinforces hierarchy and renders the poor mere wards of the wealthy.

However, charitable giving solves an identified problem such as hunger, even though it can be only temporary relief. The literature review for this study informs us that there is a shift in favour of philanthropy, which aims to develop independent communities by removing the causes of human misery through empowering people.

Another concern regarding charity is that it “focuses on the temporary alleviation of the symptoms felt by the poor, rather than toward the construction of lasting solutions to the problems and obstacles that made the poor needy in the first place”. Frumkin (2006:5). Charity is like giving alms to beggars on the street without tackling the reasons why they come to be on the street in the first place. Giving such as this will go on indefinitely.

Charity has also been criticised as being “superficial and not adequately curative ... it leaves the social order unchanged ... and does not break through to address reasons behind poverty and suffering” (Frumkin 2006:5). In other words, charity does not break the cycle of poverty.

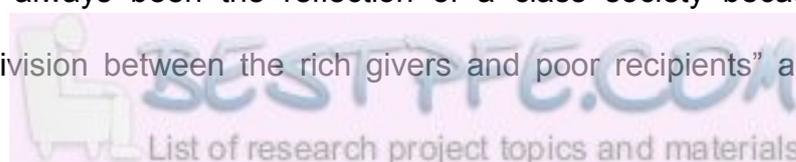
Frumkin (2006:13) thinks that “[g]iving is a way of diverting the poor from the central issue of inequality by rendering some assistance, but not by making structural changes in the way the economy, society, and polity are organized”.

Frumkin (2006:13) quotes the 1950 *Soviet concise dictionary of foreign words* that defines ‘philanthropy’ as a “means the bourgeoisie uses to deceive workers and disguise the parasitism and its exploiters face by rendering hypocritical aid to the poor in order to distract the latter from class struggle”. Also in the 1950s, the fifth volume of the second edition of the *Great Soviet encyclopaedia* defines charity as “[a]id hypocritically rendered by representatives of the ruling class in an exploiter society to a part of the poor population in order to deceive workers and divert them from class struggle”.

The Soviet idea was that by giving aid to the poor you pacify them and discourage rebellion. The poor would not question the status quo and why they were poor in the first place.

According to Frumkin (2006:13), in the 1980s Robert Arno, a critic of philanthropy argued that private philanthropy foundations had a ‘corrosive influence on democratic society’ because they serve as cooling-out agencies, delaying and preventing more radical, structural change, [and] help maintain an economic and political order, international in scope, which benefits the ruling class interests of philanthropists.

Another critic of philanthropy, Aileen Roos, cited in Frumkin (2006:14), says that “philanthropy has always been the reflection of a class society because it has depended on a division between the rich givers and poor recipients” and that by



alleviating a small part of poverty, the wealthy “have secured their own positions against those who might displace them and have thus avoided revolt”.

Alternatively, the criticism is that philanthropy emphasises the haves (those who give) and the have-nots (those who always receive). It can however be argued that philanthropy as a process of change tries to empower and transform the lives of people so that the ‘giver/given’ relationship is not perpetuated to future generations.

Brody cited in Frankel et al (1987:80, 81) questions the role of private philanthropy in a democratic society. He argues as follows:

[C]ontemporary democratic states provide a far more extensive set of services than were provided by earlier states [and] ... education is primarily funded by tax dollars, and not by fees or by private philanthropic gifts. This is certainly true at the primary and secondary levels there is no doubt that this public funding has been central to ... the rise of education as a good provided to all rather than to a privileged few.

Brody cited in Frankel et al (1987) suggests that it is the role of the state, and not of philanthropists, to fund the provision of social services. However, in developing countries such as Zimbabwe governments do not have adequate resources to provide basic needs such as education and health services and philanthropists have an important role to play. Brody cited in Frankel et al (1987:80), arguing from a conceptual angle, makes the following two assumptions:

- (1) That many essential goods and services cannot be efficiently provided by the market partly because some individuals who receive them may not be capable of paying for them. [T]he provision of these goods and services

would, however, increase the general welfare because the benefits of their provision outweigh the costs of providing them. States have as one of their main functions the promoting of general welfare. Therefore, free and democratic states should and do provide these goods to their citizens.

(2) That “[t]he provision of these goods requires substantial funds, funds that can only be raised by taxation”.

Regarding assumption 1, Brody (1987) argues that if the state is doing its job (of promoting general welfare) properly, “[W]hy should the state rely upon private philanthropy to do the state’s job for it”?

The gap in the provision of services such as education by the state may be due to “an unwillingness to raise the tax funds required” (Brody 1987:83).

Public failure is a result of a scarcity of funds in developing countries such as Zimbabwe. The resultant gap in public-sector provisioning is “filled by private philanthropy” (Brody 1987:83). This explains why governments give tax incentives to philanthropists. Such tax incentives give rise to “state encouraged private philanthropy” (Brody 1987:82).

According to Brody (1987:87), libertarian-oriented thinkers are “opposed to the state provision of [public] goods ... because they do not see this as the function of the state”. These thinkers are of the view that the provision of public goods “results in the taxpayers being illegitimately coerced to support the provision of these goods, and is a violation of their individual rights”.

The provision of public goods would increase the general welfare of society but, according to libertarians,

[i]t would be inappropriate ... for the state to provide those goods and fund that provision with tax dollars ... because the recipients of these goods would violate the rights of the taxpayers. The only legitimate way that will work for society to provide these goods is the encouragement of private philanthropy [because] private philanthropy provides public goods without infringing upon the rights of taxpayers. So society has every right to encourage such private philanthropy. (Frankel et al 1987:87 citing Brody)

Libertarian-oriented thinkers argue that private philanthropy is not about supplementing the state's provision of public goods, but "is central to a properly structured society, for it's the vehicle for social promotion of the general welfare, leaving just the protection of rights to the state" (Brody in Frankel et al 1987:88).

Another concern regarding charity is that it "focuses on the temporary alleviation of the symptoms felt by the poor, rather than toward the construction of lasting solutions to the problems and obstacles that made the poor needy in the first place" (Frumkin 2006:5).

Charity has been criticised as being "superficial and not adequately curative ... it leaves the social order unchanged ... and does not break through to address reasons behind poverty and suffering" (Frumkin 2006:5).

A third criticism levelled against charity "is that [it] lacks professionalism" (Frumkin 2006:6).

Charity is also criticised for letting "government off the hook by carrying its load and doing work that government itself should do. Philanthropy aspires to do something more lasting" (Frumkin 2006:6).

“Today ... charity is considered somewhat passé, a practice that has come and gone. Within some circles, charity has come to symbolize backwardness, lack of imagination, ineffectiveness” (Frumkin 2006:11). Here it is important to note that this criticism is levelled against charity as opposed to philanthropy, which tries to make a lasting impact on the disadvantaged.

Corporations are also criticised for wishing to impress opinion leaders while selling controversial products (e.g. Philip Morris Tobacco Company), and Nestle was criticised for marketing infant formula in third-world countries. (Bertsch 1982:31.)

Bertsch (1982:31) says that critics of corporate philanthropy accuse corporations of “influencing social priorities” by allocating funds to “help the middle class and upper middle class [e.g. boy scouts and elite universities, symphony orchestras and art museums] more than the poor and working classes, and that is the distortion of social priorities”.

Sommer, cited in Bertsch (1982:31), states that “business gifts more often support causes favoured by the elite sectors of society than those benefiting the poor sectors”.

Another criticism levelled against corporate philanthropy is that “corporations are likely to give to sectors of the non-profit world that are closely associated with corporate needs”. This is called ‘specialized giving.’ (Bertsch 1982:31.) Such giving does not necessarily help the poor and marginalised groups and one can argue that it can actually benefit the already privileged groups.

Despite the criticisms levelled against charity and philanthropy, the literature review has shown that it is a rapidly growing sector. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) actually acknowledges and incorporates the work of the nonprofit sector in its plans to realise the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (UNDP 2013).

## **2.13 CONCLUSION**

Chapter 2 contained a literature review regarding the concept 'philanthropy', discussed theories of change relating to philanthropy, and compared various models of philanthropy. The importance of the nonprofit sector was appreciated by reviewing the extent of the philanthropy sector in the USA. The motivations for personal and corporate giving were discussed in a fairly detailed manner. The literature review also traced the roots and growth of African-American philanthropy. Finally, some of the criticisms levelled against the practice of philanthropy were also discussed.

Chapter 3 contains a literature review of research methods.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW: RESEARCH METHODS**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses mixed methods research which combines quantitative and qualitative methods. The purpose of this review was to guide the study by gaining a deeper understanding of the quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods research approaches. The focus is on the definitions and objectives of the research paradigms. The research methods are discussed, followed by advantages and limitations of each method. This is followed by methods of data collection in quantitative and qualitative research. Then conclusions are drawn.

#### **3.2 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH**

Quantitative research is a scientific approach that uses objective measurements and statistical analysis of numeric data to understand phenomena. Quantitative research can be classified into experimental and non-experimental research. The latter approach used for this study does not involve the manipulation of variables. (Arys, Cheser Jacobs and Razavieh 2002:24).

One of the main forms of non-experimental research is survey research that uses questionnaires and interviews to gather data. A survey that collects data from the entire population as was the case with this study is called a census survey. In this research questionnaires were used to collect data from principals of high schools.

A survey can measure tangible or intangible variables. Tangibles are concrete variables such as the number of computers donated to schools. Intangibles are

psychological and sociological constructs such as attitudes, opinions, values, or other constructs. (Arys, Cheser Jacobs and Razavieh 2002:24). This research was a census survey of tangibles that collected numerical data of donations of materials to schools.

Quantitative research has a number of strengths. Data collection using questionnaires is relatively quick as many participants can respond at the same time. It is therefore suitable to collect data from large numbers of people. The method provides precise, quantitative, numerical data. The research results are independent of the researcher. Quantitative research may have credibility with people in power such as school principals. (Johnson and Christensen 2012:528)

### **3.3 DATA COLLECTION IN QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH**

#### **3.3.1 Questionnaires**

##### *3.3.1.1 Introduction*

Newby (2010:284) says that questionnaires are “structured formats that generate a response by asking individuals specific questions and with the researcher not involved”.

Johnson and Christensen (2011:170) define a questionnaire as “... a self-report data collection instrument that each research participant fills out as part of a research study” and state that it measures many different kinds of characteristics, such as “... thoughts, attitudes, beliefs, values, perceptions, personality, and behavioural intentions of research participants” (Johnson & Christensen 2011:178). The questionnaire can collect data from many respondents simultaneously. In the case of this study data was collected from 30 heads of secondary schools concurrently.

### 3.3.1.2 Types of question

Questionnaires can consist of closed and/or open-ended questions.

#### **a. Closed questions**

Oppenheim (1992:115), cited in Cohen et al (2011:382), says the following:

Closed questions prescribe the range of responses from which the respondent may choose. Highly structured closed questions are useful in that they can generate frequencies of response amenable to statistical treatment and analysis. They enable comparisons to be made across groups in the sample.

According to Bailey (1994:118), cited in Cohen et al (2011), closed questions have the advantage of being “quicker to code up and analyse than word-based data, and often they are deliberately more focused than open-ended questions”.

There are a variety of closed questions, which are briefly discussed below:

*Dichotomous questions*, such as those requiring a “yes” or “no” or a “male” or “female” response, are useful because they compel the “... respondents to ‘come off the fence’ on an issue” and provide “a clear, unequivocal response”. Such questions can be coded [e.g. “1” for “yes” and “2” for “no”] for easy analysis. Dichotomous questions however sometimes lead to “guessing”. (Cohen et al 2011:381.)

*Multiple-choice questions*, another type of closed question, increase the complexity of closed questions by giving multiple elements of a variable. Some multiple choices are

exclusive, where it is not possible to have any doubt as to which response to check - such as the school one attended or the age category one belongs to.

Some types of multiple-choice question however present a problem in that "... different respondents interpret the same words differently". (Cohen et al 2011:381.) It is important to try to reduce ambiguity when constructing multiple-choice questions. Piloting the questionnaire eliminates some ambiguities and improves clarity.

*Rank-order questions*, another type of closed question, are similar to multiple-choice questions, but ask the respondents "... to identify priorities [enabling] a relative degree of preference, priority, intensity, etc. to be charted" Cohen et al (2011:381). The respondents may be asked to rank variables that can improve discipline at a school. The variables to be ranked are not on a continuum.

*Rating scales or Likert scales* are closed items that require the respondents to indicate the level of intensity towards a variable. The common Likert-type questions require the respondents to choose from "strongly agree", "agree", "neither agree nor disagree", "disagree" and "strongly disagree". The responses are on a continuum.

Cohen et al (2011:381) advise that, as a rule of thumb for easy data processing, "... the larger the sample, the more structured, closed and numerical the questionnaire may have to be, and the smaller the size of the sample, the less structured, more open and word-based the questionnaire may be".

### ***b. Open-ended questions***

Open-ended questions are used

... to obtain a richer picture of some aspect under investigation ... to be sure that the structured questions ... have not omitted a significant response ... [and] ... to use the direct quotes from respondents that they give in open questions to reveal insights and to give personality to a written report [that] provide[s] an authentic voice [and] adds emotion and passion and enables us to convey in a powerful way issues and perspectives that are important to the interpretation and explanation. (Newby 2010:299.)

According to Cohen et al (2011:381) open-ended questions "... enable respondents to answer as much as they wish ... [and] are particularly suitable for investigating complex issues, to which simple answers cannot be provided". These authors also state that "open-ended questions enable participants to write a free account in their own terms, to explain and qualify their responses and to avoid the limitations of pre-set categories of responses". These questions can however "...lead to irrelevant and redundant information ..." which will be time-consuming to go through in search of useful information. (Cohen et al 2011:382.)

According to Newby, closed or structured questionnaires are "... effective in obtaining a large data harvest ... collation of the responses is straight forward ... the data can be entered readily into a spread sheet for subsequent processing and analysis". Open-ended or unstructured questions, on the other hand, "... have no response framework imposed on them; respondents ... can answer the questions in their own words ...



[they] are valuable in giving a sense of the respondents' open voice." (Newby 2010:298.)

To be able to capture richer data, it is best to use both closed and open-ended questions.

### *3.3.1.3 Piloting a questionnaire*

Johnson and Christensen (2008:189) say "a pilot test is a preliminary test of your questionnaire" and emphasize that "[i]t is a cardinal rule in research that you must 'try out', or pilot test, your questionnaire to find out whether it operates properly before using it in a research study".

Cohen et al (2011:402) argue that "the wording of questionnaires is of paramount importance and that the pre-testing is crucial to their success [and that some of the several functions of a pilot test are] principally to increase the reliability, validity and practicability of the questionnaire".

Piloting also has the following functions:

- To check the clarity of the questionnaire items, instructions and layout;
- To eliminate ambiguities or difficulties in wording;
- To check the readability levels for the target audience;
- To gain feedback on the type of question and its format [e.g. rating scales and multiple-choice, open-ended, and closed questions]
- To gain feedback on response categories for closed questions and multiple-choice items, and on the appropriateness of specific questions or stems of questions;

- To identify omissions, redundant and irrelevant items.

(Cohen et al 2011:402, citing Morrison 1993; Oppenheim 1992; Wilson & McLean 1994:47.)

A questionnaire should be piloted with people whose characteristics closely resemble the sample on which it will be administered. Johnson and Christensen (2008) recommend a test group of between five and ten people.

#### *3.3.1.4 Administering a questionnaire*

Cohen et al (2011:404) and Arthur, Waring, Coe and Hedges (2012:235) explain that questionnaire data can be collected in four major ways, each with its strengths and weaknesses.

A cheap, tried and tested method that is easy to administer to small samples is to send the questionnaire to the participants by hand or by post. Questionnaires sent by post are however often not returned and can also get lost. Hoinville and Jowell (1978) recommend sending a follow-up letter to maximise the response levels.

The questionnaires can also be delivered and returned by e-mail, which is a fast and economic method of data collection. A researcher living in South Africa can, for instance, collect data from schools in Zimbabwe without travelling to that country. However, “a major problem is the potential bias because those who don’t have a computer would not be able to respond” (Arthur et al 2012:236).

The questionnaire can be administered face-to-face, that is with the investigator asking the questions and checking the answers. (Tymms cited in Aurther et al 2012:236) says

that by using this method the interviewer encourages responses and can take additional notes relating to information that does not appear on the questionnaire. This method is however time-consuming and can put the interviewee under undue pressure, thus affecting the answers given, especially to questions of a sensitive nature.

A questionnaire can be administered telephonically and "... surprisingly phones can generate more revealing responses than face-to-face interviews ... points can be followed up [and] responses can be recorded" (Tymms cited in Aurther et al 2012:236). The respondents may open up and be more willing to give information on the telephone than in a face-to-face interview. Telephoning respondents who are in another country can save on transport and subsistence costs. This method also saves time, but can be expensive if long interviews are conducted by phone. Another limitation is that some respondents may not have access to a telephone network - especially schools in rural areas.

### *3.3.1.5 Processing questionnaire data*

To facilitate and speed up the analysis of the data collected, the questions can be pre-coded when constructing the questionnaire:

Answers to closed questions can be coded by assigning a number to each response, thus making it possible to process the data by computer. This method can be used for the following types of question: dichotomous questions [e.g. "1" for "male" and "2" for "female"]; multiple-choice questions, rank-order questions, and rating scales or Likert-type questions. (Cohen et al 2011.)

Open-ended questions can be analysed by categorising the data:

A category is a classification of ideas or concepts; categorization, then, is grouping the data into themes. When concepts in the data are examined and compared to one another and connections are made, categories are formed .... The categories provide the basis for structuring the analysis and interpretation - without data that are classified and grouped, the researcher has no reasonable way to analyse qualitative studies. (Gay et al 2011:468.)

According to Newby (2010), responses to open-ended questions can be analysed by identifying the frequency of certain words, from which certain themes can be identified for classification.

### **3.4 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH**

This section outlines and discusses the characteristics of qualitative research. Gall, Borg and Gall (1995:34) explain that “[q]ualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomenon in terms of the meanings people bring to them”. Qualitative researchers do not manipulate variables.

Johnson and Christensen (2008:33) argue that “[p]ure qualitative research relies on the collection of qualitative data (i.e. non-numerical data such as words and pictures)”. The authors (2008:34) highlight the following characteristic of qualitative research: that its scientific approach is “exploratory or bottom up” in nature.

The researchers generate a new hypothesis and grounded theory from data collected during field work”.

While quantitative research focuses on "... hypothesis testing. [t]he researcher formulates a hypothesis with empirical data to see if they are supported." By contrast, "... qualitative researchers avoid stating hypotheses before data are collected; and they may examine a particular phenomenon without a guiding statement about what may or may not be true about a phenomenon or its context". (Johnson & Christensen 2008:34.)

According to Johnson and Christensen, the main common research objective of qualitative research "... is to explore, discover, construct and describe" the phenomenon of interest. The authors add that "[q]ualitative research is used to describe what is seen and to come up with or generate a hypothesis and theories. It is commonly used to understand people's experiences and to express their perspectives" Qualitative researchers "... study behaviour in natural environments ... in the context in which the behaviour occurs". Hence "[q]ualitative research is sometimes referred to as naturalist research, naturalist enquiry or field oriented research". (Johnson & Christensen 2008:35.)

Newby says the following: "Qualitative research is concerned with understanding how people choose to live their lives, the meanings they give to their experience and their feelings about their condition." Qualitative-research, unlike quantitative-research, methods neither "... study behaviour under controlled conditions", nor "... attempt to isolate the causal effect or single variables". (Newby (2010:115.) In other words, qualitative-research methods do not manipulate variables but study them as they are.

Gay, Mills and Airasian (2011:16) posit the following:

[T]he central focus of qualitative research is to provide an understanding of a social setting or activity as viewed from the perspective of the research participants. Qualitative research seeks to probe deeply into the research setting to obtain in-depth understanding about the way things are, why they are that way, and how participants in the context perceive them.

Qualitative research tries to find out how people in a specific setting perceive a situation; people's perceptions may vary from one social setting to another, and so findings may not be generalised.

According to Gay, Mills and Airasian (2011:7-8)

[q]ualitative researchers are interested in studying and understanding a phenomenon as it is and possibly come up with a theory rather than testing a theory. In contrast, in quantitative research, research is most often conducted in researcher-controlled environments under researcher-controlled conditions.

Johnson and Christensen (2008:34) state that qualitative researchers "... study behaviour in natural environments ... in the context in which the behaviour occurs" and (2008:36) "do not wish to intervene in the natural flow of behaviour ... [They] ... study behaviour naturally and holistically." In support, Gay et al (2011:8) say the following: "[I]n qualitative research, context is not controlled or manipulated by the researchers ..." unlike in quantitative research.

Nagy, Hesse-Biber and Levy (2006:5) say that qualitative research de-emphasises the causal models of research: it does not use the cause-and-effect approach, and Salmon, cited in Johnson and Christensen (2008:35), says that “[q]ualitative research does not work from the assumption of determinism; ... which means that all events have one or more causes”.

Whereas in quantitative research, the goal is to try to isolate a variable or variables that cause the phenomenon of interest. “Qualitative research does not try to establish cause and effect relationships that enable them to make probabilistic predictions and generalisations” as in quantitative research. (Ibid: 2008:35)

According to Guba and Lincoln (1989) cited in Cohen et al (2011) “[q]ualitative researchers generally contend that reality is socially constructed” and “... social behaviour follows socially constructed norms. It follows that a phenomenon is understood and interpreted differently when the social setting changes.”

Johnson and Christensen (2008:35) state that “[q]ualitative researchers ... are not interested in generalizing beyond the people who are being studied; [they] ... view human behaviour as being fluid, dynamic and changing over time and place”.

Gay et al (2011:7) also say the following:

[Q]ualitative researchers do not necessarily accept the view of a stable, coherent, uniform world. [They argue that] all meaning is situated in a particular perspective or context and because different people and groups often have

different perspectives and contexts, the world has many different meanings, none of which is necessarily more valid or true than another.

Findings of a research in one district, for example, may not necessarily be generalised and be true in another.

Johnson and Christensen (2008:36) add the following:

[Q]ualitative researchers argue that it is important to 'get close' to their objects of study through participant observation so that they can experience themselves the subjective dimensions of the phenomena they study. In qualitative research, the researcher is said to be "the instrument of data collection". The narrative of qualitative research depends much on the understanding of a phenomenon from the perspective of the individual researcher. The qualitative researcher does not use a standardized instrument or measuring device, but rather asks the questions, collects the data, makes the interpretations, and records what is observed. The qualitative researcher constantly tries to understand the people he or she is observing from the participants' or 'natives' or 'actors' viewpoints.

Whereas:

[Q]uantitative research generally reduces measurements to numbers ... qualitative researchers do not usually collect data in the form of numbers. Rather they conduct observations and in-depth interviews and the data are usually in the form of words. (Johnson & Christensen 2008:36-37)

On the other hand, qualitative research collects analyses and interprets "... comprehensive narrative and visual [non-numerical] data to gain insights into a particular phenomenon of interest" (Gay et al 2011:7).

Quantitative research is described as being "hard",

... concerned with process, outcomes [such as assessment results, literacy rates, delinquency rates, etc], explanation, generalisation and the derivation of laws, qualitative approaches are "soft", descriptive and concerned with how and why things happen as they do. (Newby 2010:15-16.)

According Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011:219-220), citing Blummer (1969); Boas (1943); LeCompe and Preissle (1993); Lincoln and Guba (1985); and Woods (1984), the paradigm of qualitative research includes the following characteristics:

- Humans actively construct their own meanings of situations;
- Meaning arises out of social situations and is handled through interpretive processes;
- Behaviour and, thereby, data are socially situated, context-related, context-dependent and context-rich. To understand a situation researchers need to understand the context because situations affect behaviour and perspectives and vice versa;
- Realities are multiple, constructed and holistic.

It can therefore be argued that qualitative-research findings are not meant to be generalised to different social situations and are largely true for the place where the research was conducted.

The above section shows that the main features of qualitative research are that it is non-numerical and naturalistic, and that the interpretation of a phenomenon depends on the social setting in which it is observed because societies construct their own meanings to situations. Qualitative researchers do not normally formulate hypotheses before the onset of a study: they may come up with theories and hypotheses after the study.

The next section contains a review of qualitative case study research method.

### **3.5 QUALITATIVE CASE STUDY RESEARCH METHOD**

There are five qualitative research methods namely phenomenology, ethnology, grounded theory, historical research and case study research. This section contains a review of qualitative case study, the method chosen for this study.

#### **3.5.1 Case-study research**

The qualitative-research approach selected for this study is the case study, the characteristics of which are discussed in detail below.

Robson (2002:178), cited by Ashley (2012) in Arthur et al (2012) says that a case study "... is a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of



a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence”.

Johnson and Christensen (2008:406) view a case-study research as one that “... provides a detailed account and analysis of one or more cases. It is a study that is bounded by a focus on a particular person, event, group, organisation, a town or a unit of any kind”, and Gay et al (2011:445) say that case studies can be described as particularistic, meaning that “... it is focused on a particular phenomenon, such as a situation or event”.

A case study is said to be descriptive because “... the end result of the case study, the narrative, includes a “thick description” of the phenomenon that was the focus of the case study research ...” (Gay et al 2011:446).

Case studies are also described as heuristic, because they “... illuminate the reader’s understanding of the phenomenon under study beyond the reader’s original knowledge” (Gay et al 2011:446).

Trochim (2001:161-162) says that a case study “...is an intensive study of a specific individual or specific context”: Gerring (2001:1), cited in Liamputtong (2013:200), says that a case study can mean “... a social group, such as a family, village, religious group, ethnic group, etc.”; and according to Newby (2010:115), a case study is “... an investigation of a single instance, usually with the goal of identifying and perhaps understanding how an issue arose, how a problem was solved, often with the purpose of isolating critical incidents that act as decision points for change”.

Gay et al (2011:12) explain that the key question answered by the case-study approach is "... what are the characteristics of this particular entity, phenomenon or person".

Common to the definitions above is that a case study seeks details of a single entity: a student, a class, a peer group, a teacher, a school, or any other clearly-defined item of interest.

#### *3.5.5.1 What is a case?*

Ashley (2012:102) is of the view that what constitutes a case is wide-ranging and can be "... an individual, such as a teacher or student; an institution, such as a school; an event, project or programme within an institution; it may be a policy". It is a single entity. This view is shared by Gillham (2000:1), cited in Liamputtong (2013:300), who defines 'a case' as "... an individual, a group (a class, a family ...), an institution (a school, a family, a hospital, or a prison) and a community".

Similarly, Stake (2008:120), cited in Liamputtong (2013:200), explains that a case "... can be a child, a classroom of children, or an event". Other examples of cases are "... a child with a learning disability, a gifted learner, a pupil with a special need, ... a national programme, an activity such as the process of becoming a professional teacher" (Johnson & Christensen 2008:407).

According to Liamputtong (2013:201), citing Creswell (2012), Luck et al (2006:104), Ragan (1992), Stake (1995, 2000, 2005) and Yin (2003, 2008), a case is

... a single specific phenomenon. Case-study research has particular boundaries; therefore, the case is a system that is bounded by time, place,

event or activity and these boundaries can assist in limiting data collection. These boundaries are explicitly set via the description of the local culture, group process or institution.

Ashley (2012:102) states the following:

A case can be described as a bounded system (Smith, cited in Stake 1995:2) whereby its parameters of particularity are set by spatial, temporal, personal, organisational or other factors (Thomas 2012:5); and it is studied with reference to the specific context in which it is situated.

A school district in Zimbabwe is a bounded system in terms of organisational management. It can be clearly delimited in terms of geographical boundaries, the number and type of schools within it and has a management structure.

David (2006: xxv), cited in Liamputtong (2013:201), says that "... a bounded system ... may refer to any 'unit of research that can be defined as a coherent entity'. Thus case studies can be particular individuals, processes, organisations, locations, events, periods, etc."

Johnson and Christensen (2008:406) say the following:

Bound is added to emphasize that you should identify the outline or boundaries of the system you must determine what the case is and what it is not. Because case study researchers define a case as a bounded system, it should not be surprising that they study how the system operates. As a result, they are interested in holistic description. Almost all systems are made up of components or parts, and it is important to understand the system. For example

a school is made up of teachers, students, buildings, books. How the parts come together (i.e. the synergism) is of the utmost interest to a case study.

In this study, a school district in Zimbabwe is a case made up of a number of primary and secondary schools. Each school district is managed by a district education officer to whom all schools in the district report and submit monthly reports.

Johnson and Christensen (2008:407) state that “[c]ase study researchers also view each case as having an internal and external context”. The internal context of the schools in a district is the nature of their enrolment, their curriculum, the qualifications of their teachers, their infrastructure, and the community from which they draw their students. The external context can be the geographical position of the district within the province and other districts.

#### *3.5.5.2 Purpose of case-study research*

Ashley (2012:102) informs us that “[t]he purpose of case study research might be to *explore* a phenomenon about which not much is known, or to *describe* something in detail,” and Yin (2009), cited in Ashley (2012:102), suggests that “... case studies have a particular ability to answer *why* and *how* research questions rather than simply *what* and, therefore, they have the potential to *evaluate* or *explain*, for example, why a particular programme did or did not work”

Similarly, Newby (2010:52) identifies the purpose of a case study as to explain, explore and describe. ‘Exploration’ is “... to find out what is going on, to throw light on

something that we have never met before or do not understand. We start by not knowing and we use the case study to establish understanding”.

Newby (2010:52) states that explanation begins with the question why “... or with an assumption that this is what will happen ... or our goal is to explain some sort of outcome”, and “... we can use a case study to describe or record a situation”.

This study is both descriptive and evaluative in nature and describes and evaluates the philanthropic activities in the high schools in the district of Mutasa in Zimbabwe.

### **3.6 TYPES OF CASE-STUDY RESEARCH**

Several types of case studies can be identified, of which a few are discussed in the following subsections. Stake (1995, 2005, 2008), cited in Liamputtong (2013:203), categorises case studies into three groups, namely “... the intrinsic case study, the single or instrumental case study and the collective or multiple case study”,

#### **3.6.1 Intrinsic case study**

The intrinsic case study focuses “... on the case itself since the case exhibits a unique or unusual circumstance” (Stake 2005, 2008 in Liamputtong 2013:203), and Stake (1995), cited in Johnson and Christensen (2008:407), says that “... in an intrinsic case study the researchers’ primary interest is in understanding a specific case”. For example, the Johanne Marange Apostolic Church in Zimbabwe established their first school after the year 2006. The members of the church practice early marriages for girls in their early teens and do not go to clinics or doctors for treatment because it is against the rules of the church. An intrinsic case would be very much interested in

studying how this religious group will deal with church members who would like to marry young girls before they complete their education or how they implement the national curriculum that includes topics of modern medicine.

Yin (2009:46ff), cited in Cohen et al (2011:291) calls an intrinsic case study a 'single case design' and says that it focuses "... on a critical case, an extreme case, a unique case, a representative or typical case (an opportunity to research a case heretofore unsearched), a longitudinal case". For example, a study of a community where girls are not allowed to attend school is a critical case.

Creswell (2012), cited in Liamputtong (2013:203), suggests that the intrinsic case study is similar to the focus of narrative research", whereas Stake (2008:128) is cited in Liamputtong (2013:203) is of the view that "... the intrinsic case study design aims to develop what is perceived to be the case's own issues, contexts, and interpretations, its 'thick descriptions'." An intrinsic case study develops

... a better understanding of [a] particular case [and not] because the case represents other cases or because it illustrates a particular trait or problem, but instead because in all its particularity and ordinaries, this case itself is of interest.

### **3.6.2 Single or instrumental case study**

Creswell (2012:99) cited in Liamputtong (2013:202), describes a single or instrumental case study as one that requires "... the researcher to focus on an issue of concern,

and then selects one bounded case to illustrate this issue. The researcher chooses the single case study in order to exemplify the emerging issue.”

Stake (2008:123), cited in Liamputtong (2013:202), explains that in an instrumental case study, “the case is of secondary interest, it plays a supportive role, and it facilitates our understanding of something else”. The case can be either typical of other cases, or not. The choice of case is, however, made in order to “advance understanding of that other interest”.

Yin (2009:47-49, 52), cited in Ashley (2012:102), sets out the following five key rationales for selecting a single case:

1. the ‘critical’ case that seeks to test theory;
2. the ‘extreme,’ ‘unique’ or ‘rare’ case;
3. the ‘representative’ or ‘typical’ case;
4. the ‘revelatory’ case that is important because it may not have been previously investigated;
5. the ‘longitudinal’ case which is studied at different moments in time with a focus on change.

The single case study is undertaken to have a better understanding of similar cases.

### **3.6.3 Collective or multiple case study**

Ashley (2012:102) says that “... multiple case studies [involve] a small number of cases that are often related in some way”, and Johnson and Christensen (2008:408) state that the collective case study, also called the ‘multiple-case-study’ design (Yin 1994) means “... studying multiple cases in one research study. In the collective case

study, the researcher believes that he or she can gain greater insight into a research topic by concurrently studying multiple cases in one overall research study”.

Stake (2005, 2008), cited in Liamputtong (2013:204), proposes that in a collective or multiple case study “... the issue of concern is selected, but multiple case studies are chosen in order to exemplify the issue ...” Multiple cases are chosen “... so that different aspects of the issue are illustrated”. For example, a multiple case study can be employed to study the implementation of a new science- teaching programme at several schools in a district. “The multiple cases are selected because researchers believe that understanding them will lead to better understanding, and better theorizing about a still larger collective of cases.”

Stake (2008:123), cited in Liamputtong (2013:204), points out that “... a multiple case study is an instrumental case study but is extended to include several cases”, and Smeijsters and Aasgaard (2005:442) cited in Liamputtong (2013:204), explain that “... case study research can include multiple cases when researchers can see that it may offer in-depth or multi-faceted insights [rather] than having only one case study [and] ... each case should be researched and presented individually”.

Yin (2009:46ff), cited in Cohen et al (2011:291), posits that comparative case studies can be done within an overall piece of research and form an example of a multiple case design; Campbell (1975:180), cited in Cohen et al (2011:291), argues that “... having two case studies for comparative purposes is more than worth having double the amount of data on a single case study”; and Johnson and Christensen (2008:408) state that a multiple case is a comparative type of study in which

- several cases are compared for similarities and differences
- results of multiple cases can be observed to test a theory
- results from multiple cases are more likely to be generalised than form a single case

Of the three types of case study discussed, this particular study is suitable for a multiple case study, as data will be solicited from several schools in the district of Mutasa in Zimbabwe concerning the same topic of interest, which is philanthropy.

### **3.7 ADVANTAGES OF CASE STUDIES**

Cohen et al (2011:292) present the following advantages of case studies. as adapted from Adelman et al (1980): case studies are “strong in reality” because they are down-to-earth and attention-holding, in harmony with the reader’s own experience, and thus provide a “normal” basis for generalisation; they “... observe effects in real contexts”; and they allow for generalisations about either a single instance, or an entire class.

According to Nisbet and Watt (1984), cited in Cohen et al (2011:293), case studies have the following advantages or strengths: their results are more easily understood by a wide audience (including non-academics), as they are frequently written in everyday, nonprofessional language: they are immediately intelligible - they speak for themselves; they catch unique features that may otherwise be lost in larger-scale data (e.g. surveys) - these unique features may hold the key to understanding the situation.

Ashley in Arthur et al (2012) argues that “the strength of case study research lies in its ability to enable the researcher to intensively investigate the case in-depth, to probe, drill down and get at its complexity, often through long-term immersion in, or repeated

visits to/encounters with the case”, Case studies, however, also have weaknesses or limitations, which are discussed below.

### **3.8 LIMITATIONS OF CASE STUDIES**

Case studies also have limitations, such as the following:

Getting at the truth can be difficult [because] more usually people construct their interpretation to position themselves in a better light. They may be economical with the truth and will not actually tell a lie but not reveal the whole circumstances. (Newby 2010:54.)

Thus the omission of information may result in the researcher drawing wrong conclusions.

Case studies can result in wrong interpretation. Newby (2010:54) says the following: “If we start off on a track seeking to show something, it can lead us to wrong conclusions .... So it is best to cultivate a neutral attitude.” Nisbet and Watt (1984), cited in Cohen et al (2011:293), also argue that case studies are criticised for being prone to problems of observer bias, and may be selective, personal and subjective.

Case studies are also criticised for emphasising uniqueness - that is for not making it possible to generalise the findings. Case studies are however not meant to generalise findings, but to give a detailed narrative of a given entity.

The next section reviews data collection methods in qualitative research.



## **3.9 DATA COLLECTION IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH**

### **3.9.1 Introduction**

There are various data-collection tools available for qualitative research. This study contains a discussion on interviews because of their relevance to the current research.

### **3.9.2 Interviews**

#### *3.9.2.1 Introduction*

The interview is a flexible tool for data collection, enabling multi-sensory channels to be used: verbal, non-verbal, spoken and heard ... [gives] space spontaneity, and the interviewer can press not only for complete answers but for responses about complex and deep issues. (Cohen et al 2011:409.)

Kerlinger (1970) cited in Cohen et al (2011), suggests that an interview may be used to follow up unexpected results "... or to validate other methods, or to go deeper into the motivations of respondents ..."

Interviews have the following merits: they have a higher response rate and offer the interviewer a chance to probe and an extensive opportunity for asking. Interviews also have the following drawbacks: they are time-consuming, inconvenient for respondents, result in interviewee fatigue and are not anonymous. (Cohen et al 2011:409.)

### 3.9.2.2 *Types of interviews*

#### *a. Unstructured interviews*

In unstructured interviews there is “no formal structured instrument or protocol [and] the interviewer is free to move the conversation of interest that may come up” Trochim (2001:161).

Gay et al (2011) elaborate as follows:

[T]he unstructured interview is little more than a casual conversation that allows the qualitative researcher to inquire into something that has presented itself as an opportunity to learn about something at the research setting.

Unstructured interviews are informal and their goal “... is not to get answers to predetermined questions but rather to find out where the participants are coming from and what they have experienced”. This type of interview is used “... to obtain complex or personal data” and can be used for exploring a topic in a broad manner. (Gay et al 2011:386.)

In this particular study, informal interviews were used for capturing the uniqueness of each school’s experience regarding philanthropic organisations. It is however difficult to analyse data gathered from unstructured interviews.

#### *b. Structured interviews*

For this study, structured interviews were used for collecting data from the heads of schools and representatives of donor organisations in the area of study. Gay et al (2011) explain that in a structured interview “... the researcher has a specified set of questions that elicits the same information from respondents”. Structured interviews may contain both open-ended (divergent) and closed (convergent) questions.

Closed questions solicit brief responses such as “yes” or “no” answers, and are easy to analyse by way of appropriate coding.

Open-ended questions “... allow for a detailed response and elaboration on questions in ways you may not have anticipated” (Gay et al 2011:387). This is an advantage, because the researcher may gather richer data about the phenomenon of interest. The respondents may provide information that the researcher may not have thought of.

### *c. In-depth interviews*

Mears (2012:170) explains the following:

[I]n-depth interviews are purposeful interactions in which an investigator attempts to learn what another person knows about a topic, to discover and record what that person has experienced, what he or she thinks and feels about it, and what significance or meaning it might have.

According to Mears, what each person does, sees, thinks, believes and hopes for is distinctive and “... until we share that perspective with others it remains within [a person’s] own personal membrane of knowing”. Mears then states that an in-depth interview provides a way for a researcher “... to journey into another [person’s] perspective about a circumstance or event, so meaning can be learned and significance shared ... in-depth interviews offer a path to discovery and greater understanding” (Mears 2012 171).

Seidman (2006:9), cited in Mears (2012:171), says that “[a]t the root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in understanding the experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience”.

### 3.9.2.3 *Analysing interview data*

Cohen et al (2011:427) explain that qualitative data analysis differs from quantitative data analysis in that quantitative data analysis is done

“... in the numerical and positivist tradition [whereas in qualitative research] ... data analysis ... is almost inevitably interpretive, hence the data analysis is less a completely accurate representation but more a reflexive, reactive interaction between the researcher and the decontextualized data that are already interpretations of a social encounter.

Data generated from open-ended interviews are not uniform, and hence are difficult to code.

The following are some of the tactics for generating meaning from interview data suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994), cited in Cohen et al (2011:427)

- Counting frequencies of occurrence (of ideas, themes, pieces of data, words);
- Noting patterns and themes (Gestalts), which may stem from repeated themes and causes or explanations or constructs;
- Clustering – setting items into categories, types, behaviours and classifications;
- Splitting variables to elaborate, differentiate and ‘unpack’ ideas, i.e. to move away from the drive towards integration and the blurring of data;
- Identifying and noting relations between variables;

### **3.10 MIXED METHODS RESEARCH**

Mixed methods research that was used in this study combines approaches from both quantitative and qualitative research to one study. The approach is also referred to as mixed methods approach, mixed methods research, mixed research, mixed methodology, multimethod research and multiplism. (Johnson and Christensen 2012: 429). The scientific approach of mixed methods research is confirmatory, explanatory and exploratory.

According to Mertler and Charles (2011:319) mixed methods research combines the quantitative and qualitative approaches only at the data collection and procedures level of the research process and not across the entire phase of the research process.

Check and Schutt (2012:239) assert that the reasons for combining both quantitative and qualitative research methods in one study is to take advantage of the combined unique strengths of both methods. Mertler and Charles (2011:319) in support say that the mixed methods approach capitalizes on assets of both types of data and allows for broader understanding of a research topic than one approach alone. In this study quantitative questionnaires and qualitative interview schedules were used for data collection. Questionnaires permitted the survey of 30 school principals across the district under study in a relatively short time without visiting the schools while interviews allowed the collaboration of data with representative of donor organisations. Thus, the mixed methods approach collects multiple kinds of data in this case numerical and verbal. This is in line with the process of triangulation which, according to Lodico, et al (2010:35) “adds thoroughness, richness, and depth and understanding to the study.”

The other strengths of the mixed methods approach include the following:

- Mixed methods research can provide fuller, deeper more meaningful answers to a single research question.
- The researcher can use the strengths of an additional method to overcome the weaknesses in another method by using both in a study.
- Can provide stronger evidence for a conclusion through convergence and corroboration of findings. (Johnson & Christensen 2012:433)

### **3.11 CONCLUSION**

Chapter 3 contained a literature review of quantitative, qualitative and mixed research methods. Types of case study and advantages and limitations of such studies and methods of data collection in both quantitative and qualitative research. The chapter also contained a discussion of questionnaires and interviews as the principal methods of data collection used in this study.

Chapter 4 discusses the research design and methodology used in this study.

# **CHAPTER 4**

## **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter describes the type of design chosen for the study, the population and sample for the study, the data-collection instruments and data-collection procedures applied and the data-analysis methods used. The last section contains an outline of the limitations of the study.

### **4.2 TYPE OF DESIGN**

A mixed research approach was chosen. The research used the non-experimental quantitative census survey method and a qualitative case study approach to collect data. A mixed approach has the benefit of complementing the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods discussed in chapter 3 above.

According to Morgan and Sklar cited in Maree (2012) a case study creates a rich description of the phenomenon concerned. The case-study design enabled the researcher to describe and evaluate the impact of philanthropic activities at 30 high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe. This study was specifically an intrinsic case study, the goal of which, according to Johnson and Christensen (2008:408), is to "... describe a programme and to evaluate how effectively it is operating".

This case study was about the high schools in the Mutasa district. According to Merriam cited in Maree (2012) a case has a definable boundary: in other words, it is a bounded system.

## **4.3 METHODOLOGY**

### **4.3.1 Population**

The population for this study was made up of 30 rural high schools in the Mutasa district of the Manicaland province in Zimbabwe (see the map of Zimbabwe in chapter 1 above). At the time of the study, there were 40 secondary schools (high schools) in the Mutasa district, comprising 30 established schools and 10 satellite schools. Satellite schools are newly established schools that do not have premises of their own and operate on temporary premises, usually at a primary school, until such time that they build their own structures. The 10 satellite schools did not form part of the population for the study because they did not have premises of their own and therefore items relating to infrastructure in the questionnaire did not apply to them.

The high schools concerned can be classified into three subgroups in terms of the authority responsible for running them. The first subgroup of high schools comprised 20 institutions under the Mutasa Rural District Council, which is a local authority under the Ministry of Local Government and were established after independence in 1980. The second subgroup was made up of nine church-run high schools established by missionaries at various stages before the country's independence in 1980. The third subgroup was made up of one government high school in the Mutasa district. All the schools were situated in a rural area. Also, all teachers and principals at the schools are appointed and employed by the government of Zimbabwe.

### **4.3.2 Sample**

The study used a census sample as all 30 high schools in the population participated. The number of schools in the population was small enough for questionnaires to be used. Data were obtained from 29 (97%) of the 30 schools targeted. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011:114) 30 is considered the minimum number that can be used, and according to Johnson and Christensen (2012: 234) a sample of 28 from a population of 30 is considered adequate.

The other respondents were a representative each of a nongovernmental organisation (NGO) and a community-based organisation and two individual philanthropists. The representatives of the donor organisation and the community-based organisation doing philanthropic interventions in the high schools in the Mutasa district and two individual philanthropists identified by community members by means of snowball sampling were interviewed.

### **4.3.3 Data-collection instruments and procedures**

#### *4.3.3.1 Data-collection instruments*

Data were obtained from the school principals concerned by means of a questionnaire (see appendix G). There was also one interview schedule for the representative of Plan Zimbabwe, an NGO (see appendix J), and another for the representative of the Swedish Organisation for Individual Relief (SOIR) (see appendix M).

#### 4.3.3.2 Data-collection procedures

##### a. *Piloting the questionnaires*

The questionnaire for school principals was piloted at five high schools in the Mutare rural district to address the issues of validity and reliability of the instrument. The principal functions of piloting are as follows: to check the questions, instructions and layout for clarity; to obtain feedback on the validity of the items in the questionnaire; to eliminate ambiguities or difficulties in the wording; to identify omissions, redundant and irrelevant items; and to identify items that are too easy or too difficult and commonly misunderstood. The above variables affect the validity and reliability of the instrument. (Cohen et al 2011:402, citing Morrison 1993; Oppenheim 1992; Wilson & McLean 1994:47.)

Piloting provided an opportunity for reviewing the instrument for weaknesses in the items of the questionnaire that could lead to the following four “Special Hazards in Instrumentation and Testing” identified by Balian (2011:127-128)

The first hazard is the respondents attempting to “help” the researcher by giving answers that they believe the researcher wants, instead of providing valid and reliable data.

The second hazard is the “self-fulfilling prophecy”, where respondents do not give honest answers, but “answers which reflect the way they would like to see themselves”, thus weakening the validity of the questionnaire.



The third hazard is that a poorly designed instrument can cause a “halo effect”, which is “a tendency for the subjects’ responses to lose dispersion”. In the Likert-type items, for example, the respondents may check only “agree” throughout, irrespective of their true attitude towards a question.

According to Balian, the fourth hazard of a defective instrument that can be identified and eliminated by piloting is the “Hawthorne effect”, whereby “respondents may alter their normal patterns of responses” because they know that they are being studied.

Pilot testing presented an opportunity to investigate the presence of the above hazards and to measure the validity, reliability and practicability of the questionnaire.

#### *b. Questionnaire administration*

Each of the 30 school heads participating in the study received a questionnaire (see appendix G). These questionnaires were easy to administer to the participants because the questionnaires were all placed at one distribution point at the Mutasa district education office for collection by the school heads. Completed questionnaires were returned to the district office for collection. Closed questions were pre-coded for easy data analysis. Open-ended questions made it possible for the study to obtain a richer picture of some aspects of the study that may not have been covered by closed questions. (Cohen et al 2011; Newby 2010.)

The questionnaire made use of both descriptive and evaluative questions about philanthropic activities in the schools under study.

### *c. Interview schedules*

There were three interview schedules: one each for the NGO (see appendix J) and the community-based organisation (see appendix M) providing philanthropic services to the schools, and another for the individual philanthropists (see appendix O).

Both structured and semi-structured interviews (also called 'evolving interviews' - Newby 2010:339) were used. Semi-structured interviews are more flexible because they use a more conversational approach (Seabi in Maree 2012:89). Interviews also have the advantage of allowing respondents to introduce some unique and interesting aspects of the study drawn from their own experience not thought of by the researcher.

### *d. Ethical considerations*

The researcher obtained written permission from the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education in Zimbabwe to collect data in their schools (see appendix A). The research topic and a copy of the questionnaire were included in the request.

Roberts (2010:34) advises that a description of the benefits that the respondents can expect from the study also be included - a matter that was addressed in the letter seeking informed consent (see appendix C). The interviews were conducted by appointment at a time convenient to the participants.

The questionnaires included a statement to the effect that participation in the study was voluntary in nature and that the information collected would be kept confidential. The information would be used for research purposes only and would not be used in any manner that would be detrimental to the participating individuals and institutions.

The same ethical principles were applied as far as the interviewees were concerned, and also during the data-interpretation-and-analysis phase. (Ferreira in Maree 2012:37.)

*e. Data analysis*

The data collected were analysed by computer using a word table for tallying to show the frequency distributions of the variables in numbers and percentages (see appendix H). The coded data were analysed in groups reflecting the sections of the questionnaire and the interview schedule to identify patterns, themes, hierarchies and semantic relations of the variables. The data were presented in frequency tables for clarity and ease of interpretation.

Un-coded data generated from open-ended items in the questionnaire and interview schedules were analysed manually by identifying and highlighting common themes and issues that emerged from the responses.

Cohen et al assert the following: “Qualitative data analysis involves organising, accounting for and explaining the data; in short making sense of data in terms of the participants’ definitions of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities.” However, “there is no single or most correct way to analyse data: [one] has to abide by the issue of *fitness of purpose*”. (Cohen et al 2011:537.)

The purpose of this study was to explain, describe and evaluate the impact of philanthropic activities in the high schools in this delimited area.

#### **4.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The main limitation of the study was not being able to express donations in monetary terms. The study did not try to quantify the value of philanthropic contributions to schools in monetary terms because of the hyperinflationary economic environment that wiped out the value of the Zimbabwean dollar from about 2004 to 2008. In 2009, Zimbabwe adopted a multicurrency regime with the US dollar being the main currency used in the country. Giving values would have presented a much distorted picture that would have been almost incomprehensible.

Another limitation was the researcher's inability to access a large sample of individual philanthropists providing services to schools and individual learners in all 30 the schools spread across the district. This inability may have affected the conclusions about the level of impact of philanthropic activities in the district.

Also, because of promotions and transfers some of the school heads had been in their current post for a relatively short period of time and may not have known much about past philanthropic activities at that particular school. This problem could have been compounded by a lack of, or poor, record-keeping of such activities. It could also be that files on philanthropic activities were not continuously updated because of that matter not being enforced by school regulations.

Collecting data in rural Zimbabwe while residing and being in full-time employ in South Africa also had its distance and time constraints. This problem was solved by asking the personnel at the Mutasa district education office to distribute and collect the

questionnaires. This procedure was very effective as the rate of return was very high (97% of the questionnaires, or 29 out of 30, were returned).

The findings of this study will be limited to the philanthropists and schools in the district covered by this research and may not necessarily be generalised to other districts.

#### **4.5 CONCLUSION**

Chapter 4 discussed the research design and methodology (i.e., the population and the sample used and the data-collection instruments and procedures applied). This chapter also explained how the questionnaire for school principals was pilot-tested, the data-analysis methods used and the limitations of the study.

Chapter 5 contains the presentation, analysis and discussion of the data.

## CHAPTER 5

### PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE DATA

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains an analysis and discussion of the data collected in the study: it presents and analyses data (including enrolment statistics) regarding the participating schools and also the types of philanthropist identified and the types of philanthropic support and programme found at the participating schools.

The activities of the alumni associations at some of the schools are discussed. The data given in the chapter are discussed in order to try to answer the main questions of the study so that the impact of the philanthropic activities in the high schools studied may be evaluated.

Qualitative-research methods were used for evaluating the impact of philanthropic action on the high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe. Philanthropy is transformational giving resulting in positive change in the lives of individuals, institutions and communities. Philanthropy seeks to deal with the root causes of conditions such as poverty.

According to Frumkin (2006), the functions of philanthropy include the following: pursuing an agenda of change, addressing enduring social problems and achieving equity through redistributive giving. Philanthropy has its impact when the desired change is achieved.

As far as this study is concerned, change is when education has enabled disadvantaged individuals to meaningfully participate in the economy and when the quality of school institutions has been improved.

Questionnaires were distributed to 30 secondary schools, and 29 responses (97%) were received. Interview data were collected from representatives of Plan Zimbabwe, a non-governmental organisation (NGO), and the Swedish Organisation for Individual Relief (SOIR), a community-based organisation operating in the Honde Valley of the Mutasa district. Plan Zimbabwe also provided documentary sources containing data. Both the above are international organisations that provide donor support to students and schools in the district. Two other interviews were conducted with individual philanthropists.

The aim of the study was to evaluate the impact of philanthropic activities on the public high schools in the Mutasa district. The study sought to address the following specific research sub-problems:

- (1) What types of philanthropic activity take place in the public high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe?
- (2) What impact do these philanthropic activities have on the public high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe?
- (3) What is the impact of philanthropic activities on the student beneficiaries?

## 5.2 DETAILS REGARDING CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS

Data were collected from 29 school heads of secondary schools (also called “high schools”) in the Mutasa district. The schools are public schools in the sense that any student may enroll at any of the schools - access is not restricted. All the schools are located in rural areas.

Fourteen (48%) of these schools offer classes from Form 1 up to Form 4 (the ordinary or O level), and 15 (52%) go up to Form 6 (the advanced or A level).

Twenty-two (76%) of the schools studied were day schools and seven were boarding schools. Two of the boarding schools also enrolled day scholars.

The schools can be classified according to the type of authority responsible for running them. Eighteen of the schools (62%) fall under the Mutasa Rural District Council, a local authority, which in turn falls under the Ministry of Local Government.

Nine of the high schools (eight of which have boarding facilities and one is a day school) are owned and managed by mainline church organisations, namely the Anglican, Methodist and Roman Catholic churches.

There is one government high school and one private school in the Mutasa district.

### 5.3 ENROLMENT

The enrolment in the schools studied ranged from 65 to 1 155 students. A total of 22 schools (77%) had enrolments of over 300 students, and seven small-sized schools had enrolments of fewer than 300 students. The average enrolment was 489 students per school. Only two of the schools (7%) had more than 1 000 students. The enrolment details of the schools are summarised in table 2 below.

The number of teachers employed ranged from five teachers (for 65 students) to 51 teachers (for about 1 200 students).

Enrolment-students	Number of schools	%	Size of school in terms of enrolment
1- 99	1	3	Small schools 24%
100-199	4	14	
200-299	2	7	
300-399	5	17	Medium-sized schools 38%
400-499	4	14	
500-599	2	7	
600-699	3	10	Large schools 37%
700-799	2	7	
800-899	3	10	
900-999	1	3	
1 000-1 199	2	7	
<b>Total</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>

**Table 2:** Enrolment details

## **5.4 TYPES OF PHILANTHROPIST**

The study identified four types of donor providing support to the secondary schools in the Mutasa district.

There were two international NGOs, namely Plan Zimbabwe and SOIR, which funds a community-based organisation in the district.

Plan Zimbabwe has been providing school-fee assistance to most of the children in the district on an annual basis since 1986. It also provides funding for school-infrastructure projects. SOIR has been providing financial and other support to two of the secondary schools in the district since 2000. A private voluntary organisation was formed by a family in memory of their late daughter.

Data were also collected from three individual philanthropists, including a businessman, who provide once-off donor assistance to students and schools when needed.

Alumni associations and individual former students provide donor assistance to schools, either on an irregular basis or for a specific project.

## **5.5 TYPES OF DONOR SUPPORT TO SCHOOLS**

As shown by the data collected, several education programmes in the district studied are supported by donors. The findings in this connection are presented below.



### 5.5.1 Sports, science and technical subjects' equipment

As shown in table 3 below, a total of 22 schools (76%) received science-laboratory equipment, while 10 schools (34%) received computers for computer studies. Only two schools (7%) received equipment for agricultural studies and only two schools (7%) received sewing machines for the subject fashion and fabrics. Six schools received sports equipment. None of the schools were given equipment for building studies. The science subjects received more donor support than the technical subjects.

Subject	Number of recipient schools	%
Agriculture	2	7
Building Studies	0	0
Computer Studies	10	34
Fashion and Fabrics	2	7
Science-laboratory materials	22	76

Note: The numbers do not add up to 29 because some schools received donations for more than one subject area.

**Table 3:** Donations of equipment for sports, science and technical subjects

### 5.5.2 School infrastructure projects

As shown in table 3 below, of the 29 schools participating in the study, 20 (69%) received donations of infrastructure.

Type of infrastructure	N	%
Classroom blocks	8	28
Electrification of school buildings	4	14
Library buildings	9	31
Science laboratories	5	17
Teachers' housing	7	24
Toilet blocks	3	10
Water supply	4	14

Note: The numbers do not add up to 29 because some schools received donations for more than one area of need.

**Table 4:** Donations of infrastructure

A total of nine schools (31%) received donations of library buildings, and eight schools (28%) received donations of at least a classroom block each. Of these schools one school received four classroom blocks, and two schools received two classroom blocks each. One school was given a home-economics block. A total of seven schools (24%) received donations of teachers' housing. Of these schools one school received seven houses, another one four and yet another one two houses.

In the district under study, four schools (14%) received a variety of water-supply infrastructure, including boreholes, water tanks and a piped-water supply.

Three of the schools (10%) received multi-compartment toilet blocks for students and five received science laboratories.

Also, one of the schools received a donation of a large multipurpose school hall, four schools benefited from the electrification of their institution, and another school received 80 desks for their students.

### **5.5.3 Textbooks**

Since textbooks form an important resource in the teaching-learning process, the study required the respondents to report on the donation of textbooks received by their schools in the last six years. As shown by the results, 28 of the participating schools (97%) received textbook donations in the last six years, whereas one of the schools did not receive any textbook donations during that period.

The respondents were asked to rate the extent to which the textbooks met their requirements, the result of which is summarised in table 5 below.

<b>Response</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Received 100% of the textbooks needed	5	17
Received 75% of the textbooks needed	21	72
Received 50% of the textbooks needed	2	7
Received < 25% of the textbooks needed	0	0
Did not receive any textbooks	1	4
<b>Total</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>100%</b>

**Table 5:** Extent to which the textbook donations met the school's requirements

As shown in the table above, the responses were largely positive in nature, with 21 of the school heads (72%) saying that the textbooks donated constituted 75% of the books needed, while five school heads said that the textbooks donated constituted 100% of the books needed. Overall almost 90% of the school heads reported that the textbook donated constituted more than 75% of the books needed.

The participating school heads were asked whether the donation of textbooks had a noticeably positive impact on their students' academic performance. The responses are summarised in table 6 below.

<b>Response</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Strongly agree	7	24
Agree	15	52
Neutral	6	21
Disagree	0	0
Strongly disagree	1	3
<b>Total</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>100%</b>

**Table 6:** Whether the donation of textbooks had a noticeably positive impact on students' academic performance

The responses were positively skewed, with a total of 22 of the school heads (76%) agreeing that the donation of textbooks had a noticeably positive impact on their students' academic performance, while six of the school heads (21%) were neutral and one (3%) strongly disagreed.

#### **5.5.4 School fees**

One of the questions in the questionnaire asked the respondents to report on the number of students in their school receiving school-fee assistance. In 2014, students of 22 (76%) of the schools studied (a total of 648 students) were benefiting from school-fee donations.

As shown by the results, 20 of the schools (91%) received school-fee donations for their students from NGOs, while three of the schools received their funds from individual donors and two received school-fee donations from business people. Three of the schools received their funds from a combination of donors.

Plan Zimbabwe is an NGO that since 1986 has been in the forefront of providing school fees to a large proportion of the students in the Mutasa district. In 2014, about 300 girls and 300 boys in the district were benefiting from Plan Zimbabwe's school-fee-support programme. Previously the organisation had up to 1 000 student beneficiaries per year. (That was the time from around 1998 to 2008 when the Zimbabwean dollar had such a low value against the US dollar that donors could support a large number of students for fewer US dollars.)

Another organisation with a school-fee-assistance programme is SOIR, which started doing philanthropic work in the district in 2000. At the time of the study (2014), there were reportedly 51 students in two of the secondary schools studied benefiting from this programme, for which only double orphans were eligible.

### **5.5.5 Income-generating projects**

The donation of income-generating projects seems to be based on the principles of venture philanthropy, which involves the giving of skills and social enterprises to break the cycle of poverty. The aim of venture philanthropy is to build capacity and maximise social return on donors' investment. (Impetus Trust UK 2013)

Of the 29 schools in the Mutasa district participating in the study, five (17%) were given income-generating projects.

One of those schools has a donor-funded six-kilometre pipeline that receives water from a perennial mountain stream and by means of gravity channels the water down to the school throughout the year. Thus there are no pumping costs and the maintenance costs of the pipeline are minimal. The school has had an irrigation system for the last 22 years, and at the time of the study had a banana plantation under irrigation. Another school with an enrolment of over 1 000 students was donated a similar water-delivery system that receives water from a mountain stream about eight kilometres away.

Three of the schools received funding for piggery-production projects and two others had small-scale banana plantations set up with the assistance of donors.

The school heads were requested to rate the effectiveness of income-generating projects in supplementing school funds on a scale of 1 to 5. The rating was positively skewed, with four of the five school heads giving the effectiveness of these projects a rating of 5, and the fifth school head giving it a rating of 3.

The next three sections discuss the philanthropic activities of the NGOs operating in the Mutasa district.

## **5.6 PHILANTHROPIC PROGRAMMES OF NONGOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS (NGOs)**

The results of the data collected from three NGOs are presented below.

### **5.6.1 Plan Zimbabwe's philanthropic programmes**

Plan International operates as Plan Zimbabwe in that country, where it is simply referred to as "Plan". Documentary sources made available for this study outline the background, vision, mission, goals and operations of Plan. The organisation explains that it "... is an international humanitarian child-centred development organisation [and] child sponsorship is the basic function of the organisation" ([www.plan-international.org](http://www.plan-international.org))

Plan has been operating in Zimbabwe since 1986 and is currently implementing its programmes in eight districts in Zimbabwe, including Mutasa.

The organisation explains that it invests in programmes and projects aimed at, inter alia, the alleviation of child poverty. Its programmes include the support of children's

education. Plan says that it aims to empower deprived children and their communities so that they take control of their own development. The vision of the organisation is to see "... all children realise their full potential in society". Plan's mission is to "... achieve lasting improvement in the quality of life of deprived children" through its empowerment programmes that include financing children's education.

The aim of Plan's education-support programme is "... to improve on learner performance in primary and secondary education, reduce school dropout rates, increasing school enrolment, retention and completion rates", Plan also supports the physical development of institutions through its School Improvement Programme (SIP) that endeavours to create "... a safe and child-friendly environment in schools".

The philanthropic goals of Plan's education programmes can be summarised as follows:

- alleviation of child poverty
- empowerment of deprived children through education
- capacity-building of schools to improve the delivery of quality education

The impact of philanthropy can be evaluated in respect of these goals. In an interview with a representative of Plan it was reported that 24 secondary schools in the Mutasa district had benefited from its education programme. The humanitarian organisation selects disadvantaged schools in terms of resource mobilisation as a criteria to be on its programme. The schools in the Mutasa district are all in a rural area where the parents' main source of income is small-scale farming and informal trading. Plan supports a cross section of education programmes, which are presented below.

### **Infrastructure-support programme**

Plan provides infrastructure support to the secondary schools on its programme. As they put it, Plan “invests” in infrastructure development. Infrastructure investments include the provision of teachers’ housing, classroom blocks, laboratories, libraries, water-supply systems and the electrification of school buildings.

### **School-fee programme**

According to the representative of Plan, the organisation pays the school fees of disadvantaged students. At the time of the study, Plan was paying the school fees of about 300 boys and 300 girls – that is an average of 600 students per year.

### **Income-generating projects**

Plan was involved in venture philanthropy through financing a piggery project at one of the secondary schools. The organisation entered into a social contract with the school’s development committee according to which the school will pay the school fees of orphans from the proceeds of the project.

### **E-learning**

At the time of the study (July 2014), Plan was working with the state telecommunications company Tel One to provide free internet access to schools to promote learning in the rural areas.

### **Education through sports**

Education through sports is a Plan-sponsored programme that deals with topical contemporary issues such as HIV/AIDS, children’s rights and responsibilities, child

protection, adolescence, reproductive health and career guidance. The programme makes use of sports gatherings to spread a message about these matters.

### **Teacher-support programme**

The teacher-support programme funded by Plan provides training for teachers on how to manage children on different performance levels in the class, discipline and other areas of education that need attention.

### **Plan alumni club**

Plan alumni club was formed by former student beneficiaries. The aim of its members is to help transform the lives of children who are in a similar situation as they were before philanthropic intervention. The president of the alumni reported that the club has about 6 500 members.

The Plan alumni club demonstrates the notion of the philanthropic multiplier, a phenomenon that produces a ripple effect of goodwill. It appears that philanthropic work changes the mind-set and attitude of people towards disadvantaged people.

### **5.6.2 SOIR's philanthropic programmes**

The Swedish Organisation for Individual Relief, SOIR, started operating in the Mutasa district in 2000. It funds a number of poverty-alleviation projects at two secondary schools in the district. The organisation provides financial support to an average of 50 double-orphaned secondary-school students per year. Students on its programme receive a full set of school uniforms, including school shoes.

The organisation also finances psycho-social support workshops for the double-orphaned children on its programme to enable them to cope with their challenge. The workshops cover a wide range of themes, such as child rights, child abuse, bereavement counselling, and systematic counselling. Workshops are also conducted with the foster parents of orphaned children. The organisation organises children's camps for team and confidence building.

SOIR seems to apply the principles of venture philanthropy to financially empower institutions. The organisation provides seed money for income-generating projects at the two high schools on its programme. The organisation funded a poultry project for broiler and egg production at one of the schools and financed a piggery project at another school.

The representative of SOIR explained that 30% of the proceeds from income-generating projects is used to support orphaned children and that 60% is reinvested to sustain the project, while 10% is paid to the host-school administration.

The organisation is faced with a number of challenges, such as there are more orphans than resources. Beneficiaries are selected from children already attending school, leaving out orphans who are at home and have more pressing needs.

SOIR interventions have been in operation for 14 years and at an average of 50 beneficiaries per year the organisation has been able to provide secondary education to about 700 orphaned children.



### **5.6.3 The Felistas Hope Foundation**

The Felistas Hope Foundation is a family foundation founded by a young Zimbabwean couple in remembrance of their late daughter. The foundation provides school fees to talented but poor children. At the time of the study, the foundation had assisted 32 boys and girls. It currently has only three students in the programme because of a lack of donor sponsorship.

It is worth noting that the founder of the foundation reported that the beneficiaries have succeeded in life and that some have become teachers. Some beneficiaries of the foundation have come back to also help other children in need. This phenomenon is the philanthropic multiplier also seen in Plan beneficiaries.

## **5.7 FORMER-STUDENTS' ASSOCIATIONS**

Alumni associations were of interest to this study because they constitute a valuable potential source of philanthropic support for schools. Thousands of students have passed through the schools and can provide valuable funding and other support to schools. The questionnaire contained an item that requested the respondents to report on whether they had functional former-student associations at their school. Only five schools (17%) had a functional former-student association. The majority of the respondents, comprising 22 school heads (76%), reported that the main constraint of organising alumni associations was the difficulty of locating former students. However, the data available seem to indicate that the schools make a less than adequate effort to communicate with former students. At the time of the study (June 2014), 11 school heads (38%) reported that they did not contact former students.

The other constraint was the schools' underutilisation of modern communication systems such as social-media platforms to help former students "meet" in cyberspace, and not necessarily in person. Only three schools (10%) had a social-network group on Facebook, WhatsApp or other social-media platform. Modern schools should be media-based to reach former students across the world.

According to the media there are millions of Zimbabweans in the diaspora. Modern media can be used to tap into the potential philanthropic value of Zimbabwean alumni in the diaspora.

Only five schools (17%) had a school webpage, thus limiting the schools' exposure to former students spread across the country and in the diaspora and restricting the schools' ability to market fundable projects and programmes at their schools. Former students constitute an under accessed philanthropic resource. The philanthropic value of the alumni of secondary schools in the Mutasa district is still to be fully unlocked.

Although the philanthropic contribution of former students is generally very low, the alumni of one of the schools made a significant donation by buying the school a lorry. If a larger number of former students were to be reached for philanthropic purposes, there would be a real possibility of impressive transformation in schools.

Only six of the schools (21%) reported to have received donations from individual former students.

## **5.8 DISCUSSION OF THE DATA**

### **5.8.1 Details of the participating schools**

All 29 of the schools studied are rural secondary schools. Most parents of the children attending these schools are not formally employed: they are dependent on small-scale subsistence agriculture though they may sell the surplus produce to the markets.

Many of these people are informal-sector traders with no guaranteed regular income. Zimbabwe has also been experiencing high unemployment since the late 1990s. The social and economic indicators of the country in general and the rural areas in particular are not favourable. Because of the socioeconomic background of the students, paying school fees always presents a challenge. This challenge is aggravated by the HIV/AIDS pandemic, which leaves many children orphaned and head of the family. There is a high possibility of many students dropping out of school. Although the government of Zimbabwe pays the school fees of children who are unable to do so through its Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM), the demand for assistance still exceeds the supply of state funds. There is no free education in Zimbabwe.

Eighteen (62%) of the secondary schools under study (62%) fall under the Mutasa Rural District Council, which in turn falls under the Ministry of Local Government. All these schools were established after independence in 1980 and are not funded by the rural district councils. The school development committee (SDC) made up of teachers and parent representatives is responsible for the collection of school fees (mainly from parents in the rural area) and the development of the school.

The SDC may propose what fees to charge, but it is the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education that regulates the matter. The Ministry namely tries to protect the parents by ensuring that the fees proposed are affordable to the parents. Most of the schools studied (i.e. 22 - 76%) were day schools, attended mainly by the children of rural small-scale subsistence farmers and informal traders.

As such, the rural secondary schools in the Mutasa district can be described as struggling as far as the availability of funds for the development of infrastructure and for the procurement of school materials for use in the teaching-learning process are concerned. The rural secondary schools are hence perfect candidates for philanthropic interventions to improve their capacity to deliver basic education.

The seven boarding schools in the district enroll children from middle-class families from across the country, and not necessarily from the district. The fees charged by these schools are high and most rural households cannot afford them. The entry requirements of these schools are very high and based on merit, with the national Grade 7 examination results used for the selection process.

Given the competitive entry requirements, boarding-school have better “O”- and “A”- level results, so that the students tend to fare better in life both economically and socially, and the schools tend to have more influential alumni.

The authorities responsible for these boarding schools are church organisations; these schools then are the traditional mission schools.

### **5.8.2 Enrolment**

The average student enrolment per secondary school in the Mutasa district is 489.

Most of the schools are medium-sized.

Schools with a small enrolment base find it difficult to raise sufficient funds for school materials and the development of infrastructure. It seems that schools with fewer students generally have a proportionally less-developed infrastructure and less equipment and teaching-learning materials because they have a smaller revenue base.

### **5.8.3 Types of philanthropic intervention**

The study identified the following types of multilevel philanthropic intervention in the secondary schools in the Mutasa district:

Donor organisations provide a full range of infrastructural support to the secondary schools in the form of classroom blocks, school libraries, science laboratories, teachers' housing and other infrastructure.

Individual-level philanthropic interventions involve the identification of students who may need assistance to pay their school fees. One of the donor organisations also provides a full set of school uniforms. School uniforms help poor children not to stand out as being poor.

Teaching support involves the provision of teaching and learning materials to schools, including laboratory materials and equipment and library books, and teacher support involves the financing of workshops for additional training for teachers.

Philanthropic organisations fund the setting-up of income-generating projects that will strengthen the school system financially in a sustainable way. Doing so leans towards venture philanthropy, as discussed in the literature review.

#### **5.8.4 The impact of philanthropic interventions**

The aim of philanthropy is to transform the lives of disadvantaged people, and also institutions. Wendroff and Grace (2001) explain that philanthropy is successful when transformation takes place. Gary (2008) concurs by saying that philanthropy is aimed at finding lasting social change. Philanthropic interventions work because they break the poverty cycle and empower individuals and develop independent communities that will stop depending on charity. The impact of philanthropy can be seen when positive change takes place.

The sections that follow discuss the change brought about by philanthropic interventions in the high schools in the Mutasa district.

##### **5.8.4.1 Donations of sports, science and technical-subject equipment**

As shown by the data available, a total of 22 schools (76%) were donated science-laboratory equipment and materials while 10 schools (34%) received computers for computer studies. This seems to indicate that most subject donations were for science and computer studies. Such donations enhance both the instruction and learning of science and computer studies in rural secondary schools, which usually are not as well-resourced as urban schools. Science equipment is too expensive for most rural schools. It appears that science and computer studies are the preferred subjects as far as donations are concerned, and not technical subjects such as agriculture,

building studies and fashion and fabrics. Science is important in that a pass mark in that subject is required for entry into many of the tertiary-level institutions.

#### **5.8.4.2 Infrastructure projects**

Donations of infrastructure have significantly improved the physical facilities offered by the rural secondary schools. Gary (2008) describes such donations as capacity-building philanthropy that strengthens the service-delivery ability of institutions.

Nine of the schools under study were donated library buildings, which are centres of information and facilitate learning by encouraging the development of a culture of reading.

Some eight schools were donated classroom blocks so that the students do not have to attend lessons outside under a tree or in a crowded classroom.

Plan, a leading financier of infrastructure projects in the Mutasa district, stated that one of its goals is to provide a learning environment that is safe and child-friendly. This goal is realised by funding the construction of additional classrooms at rural schools, which is so expensive that many schools are unable to fund such a project themselves.

One of the challenges faced by rural secondary schools is attracting and retaining qualified and experienced teachers. Most teachers prefer to work in urban areas with better housing and amenities. The donation of teachers' housing at seven rural secondary schools significantly eased the housing problem at the schools.

It is common practice at schools to share a house: up to three or four teachers will share a three-bedroomed house at secondary schools in the rural areas.

Teachers' housing greatly reduces the discomfort of sharing a house meant for a family. Improved housing helps beneficiary schools to attract and retain staff. One of the schools was fortunate to have seven houses constructed with the assistance of donors, and another school received a donation of four houses for teachers.

The government of Zimbabwe introduced a rural electrification programme whereby the electrification of rural schools is subsidised. Some schools are however unable to raise the deposit required.

Four of the rural schools under study electrified their premises with the help of donors, making it more attractive and comfortable for the teachers to live there.

Electricity is also needed for the teaching and learning of especially science and computer studies. Some school libraries now have good lighting so that students can study there in the evening.

A small school with 65 students received a generator, three computers and a printer. Although the school has no main source of electricity, it can now produce quality test and examination papers, which made a huge difference to the school and the students alike.

Three of the schools were given multi-compartment blocks of toilets for use by students, thus improving sanitation and minimising the spreading of diseases such as cholera.

Infrastructure projects in general have a lasting impact because they are durable and will be used by generations to come. In the future, when all the necessary school buildings are in place, there will be less need for communities to raise money.

#### **5.8.4.3 Donations of textbooks**

The donations of textbooks to secondary schools had a very significant impact. A total of 28 out of 29 schools received textbook donations. Twenty-six (almost 90%) of the schools reported that the books received constituted over 75% of the books needed. Previously it was not uncommon for up to five or six students to share a textbook. In even worse cases a textbook could be available as a reference copy only - especially at the “A” level.

The availability of textbooks has a transforming effect in both teaching and learning. Nearly 80% of the school heads concerned reported that the availability of textbooks had a noticeably positive impact on the academic performance of the students.

#### **5.8.4.4 School-fees support**

By funding students’ school fees, donors significantly reduced the dropout rate in the rural secondary schools. In 2014, a total of 648 students of as many as 22 (76%) of the schools studied received school-fee support. If there had been no intervention these students could have dropped out of school. School-fee donations also help

students from poor families and orphans to stay in school and complete their high-school studies and increase their chances of breaking the poverty cycle in their family.

Plan Zimbabwe, an NGO that funds most of the students has been operating in the district since 1986 and in the 28 years up to 2014 has transformed the lives of at least 14 000 students by paying their school fees and enabling them to complete school. This is a very significant transformative action.

Another NGO, SOIR, has been providing school-fee funding to double-orphaned students for the last 14 years. The organisation has provided secondary education to over 700 double-orphaned children in the district. Double-orphaned children are the most vulnerable and the intervention provided breaks the poverty cycle in communities and child-headed families: it indeed serves as a permanent turning point in the lives of vulnerable children.

SOIR also finances and supports the setting-up of income-generating projects that are self-sustaining and whose proceeds help to pay the school fees of other orphaned children.

School-fee donations are examples of transformative giving and are not once-off transactions. It is giving that changes the lives of beneficiaries permanently. Gary (2008) calls this type of intervention “empowerment philanthropy” because it empowers individuals to take care of themselves by focusing, inter alia, on education.



According to Frumkin (2006), in the individual-level theory of change societal change is achieved one person at a time. To change society, you first focus on changing individuals.

Plan Zimbabwe's school-fee donations have resulted in what can be termed a "philanthropic multiplier", as explained hereafter. The beneficiaries of Plan Zimbabwe have formed an alumni association that aims to help other children in need. The Plan alumni association is a structured organisation with a president. At the time of this study (2014) it had over 6 500 members and was running a reproductive-health project for adolescent boys and girls.

A philanthropic multiplier results in the initial social investment being compounded to benefit other members of society. A culture of giving evolves.

#### **5.8.4.5 Income-generating projects**

Although only five schools (17%) benefited from the donation of an income-generating project, they set a benchmark in philanthropic best practice in terms of a sustainable transformative impact.

An example here is a school that had a water-delivery system constructed. The water project enables the school to receive water from a perennial mountain stream about eight kilometres away. Since gravity causes the water to flow down from the mountain there are no pumping costs involved. Such a donation enables the community to harness an existing natural resource in a sustainable manner.

The water project enables the school to irrigate a plot of cash crops. At the time of the study, the plot had a thriving commercial banana crop. The irrigation system, which has been operating for the past 22 years, enables the rural school to generate an additional income and not to rely on donations: rather, the project develops independent communities. Such a donation that has a far-reaching impact is referred to as a “transformational gift”. It empowers the beneficiaries and also sets into motion a desired philanthropic-multiplier effect.

Three of the schools were given piggery projects and two others manage small-scale commercial banana plantations set up with the financial support of donors.

The income-generating projects had a positive impact on the schools concerned and the majority of school heads rated the effectiveness of such projects in supplementing school funds at 5 on a scale of 1 to 5. One of the schools concerned rated the effectiveness at 3 out of 5.

All the income-generating projects are agricultural-based and will provide the practical component in the teaching of the subject of agriculture. The projects will also develop entrepreneurial skills among the students. It should be said, however, that only a few schools benefited from the donation of an income-generating project.

## **5.9 CONCLUSION**

Chapter 5 presented, analysed and discussed data collected for the study. The findings have shown that in general philanthropic interventions have resulted in

empowering individual students by enabling them to attend and complete high-school classes.

The school dropout rates have been reduced and the enrolment and completion rates have increased. Former beneficiaries of philanthropy have formed their own associations to help other disadvantaged children - a clear demonstration of the positive impact of philanthropic interventions.

Schools have been empowered in varying degrees by increasing their capacity to deliver quality instruction by the provision of infrastructure and income-generating projects. There is still much room for more interventions as many schools still lack a basic infrastructure such as a library.

The next chapter contains a summary, conclusions and recommendations.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapter 5 presented, analysed and discussed the data collected for the study, whereas this chapter, chapter 6, summarises the main findings, draws conclusions and makes recommendations regarding the study.

#### **6.2 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS**

The aim of the study was to evaluate the impact of philanthropic activities on the high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe. The impact of philanthropy was evaluated in the light of the measure of positive change brought about in individuals, institutions and communities.

The study was guided by three specific research sub-problems presented in the form of the following three questions:

- What types of philanthropic activity take place in the public high schools in the Mutasa district?
- What impact do the philanthropic activities have on those high schools?
- What impact do the philanthropic activities have on the students attending those high schools?

In order to find permanent solutions to negative social circumstances such as poverty, literature on the concept 'philanthropy' as opposed to charitable giving, which provides only temporary relief to problems, was reviewed.

Philanthropy is giving with the aim of empowering individuals and building the capacity of institutions such as schools in order to deliver quality service. Success follows when change is brought about in the lives of individuals and social institutions are transformed.

Philanthropy differs from charity, which responds to human needs such as hunger, provides relief and focuses on the symptoms or effects rather than on the causes of undesirable circumstances such as poverty. Philanthropy is about removing the causes of poverty so that individuals will not rely on charity anymore and focuses on finding lasting solutions and underlying root causes of people's problems by giving in order to bring about change in individuals, institutions and communities.

Types of philanthropy, including corporate philanthropy, strategic giving, venture philanthropy, high-impact philanthropy, transformational philanthropy and empowerment philanthropy were discussed and compared.

It was learnt that there are various reasons why people give, such as because of a personal experience, because they seek public recognition and because of the "warm glow" that they get when giving (Andreoni 1990).

Corporations may view giving as a marketing opportunity: they give because giving is good for business. Some forms of giving may be linked to the line of business of a corporation, such as an information-technology company giving bursaries to students to study computer science.

Bekkers and Wiepking (2007) believe that some people give when asked for a donation, while others give out of pure altruism: they care about the services rendered to the recipients. Protecting or building one's reputation was found to be a strong motivator for giving. Some people give with a genuine desire to make a difference in the lives of disadvantaged people. There could also be a combination of motivators.

A number of criticisms against philanthropy were raised in the literature, such as radical critics arguing that philanthropy is a way of distracting the poor from the core issue of inequality by giving assistance but not addressing the way in which the socioeconomic and political systems that cause poverty are organised. It could however be argued that empowering the poor through education is a step towards eliminating the causes of inequality (Frumkin 2006). Arnove (1980) argues that philanthropy is a way of "cooling off" society and containing the poor and preventing the demand for radical structural changes.

The literature review provided a theoretical framework for the study. Philanthropic activities can be explained and understood in terms of theories of change asserting that philanthropy brings about desired change in communities by training individuals, supporting the production of new ideas, building stronger organisations and entering the political arena for the purpose of exerting pressure on the political process. (Frumkin 2006)

The literature review also guided the study as far as its design and development was concerned. Qualitative-research methods and a case-study approach were used, with the secondary schools in the Mutasa district constituting the case. According to

Merriam (2012) and Savin–Baden and Major (2013:165), a case is a bounded system because it has definable boundaries.

The data needed were collected through a questionnaire administered to 29 heads of secondary schools and by interviewing representatives of a non-governmental organisation (NGO) and an NGO-funded community-based organisation as well as two individual philanthropists in the district.

There were found to be many vertically-linked philanthropic interventions in the secondary schools in the district in the form of donation support across all levels of the school system, including school-fees support for poor children, infrastructure development, textbook supply, school uniforms for poor children, income-generating projects for schools and teacher support through training workshops.

Philanthropic interventions enable thousands of financially-disadvantaged children in the Mutasa district to complete their secondary schooling, as is evident from the over 6 500 registered members of the alumni association of Plan Zimbabwe beneficiaries. Many other students are assisted by various organisations and individual philanthropists.

Each student was found to have an almost full set of textbooks made possible by donations, a fact which, according to the school heads, had a very significant and noticeable positive effect on the students' academic performance.

Donations also helped improve the physical infrastructure of the schools in the form of school buildings - including libraries, classrooms, laboratories and teachers' housing. Some schools however managed to secure more funds than others. From the findings of the study it would appear that bigger schools and more established mission schools get more funding, possibly because it is more prestigious to donate to better-known schools, and possibly because former students of more established mission schools are more successful.

Unfortunately few secondary schools were so fortunate to be awarded income-generating projects to help them earn additional income instead of relying solely on donations and school fees.

### **6.3 CONCLUSIONS FROM THE STUDY**

The aim of the study was to evaluate the impact of philanthropic activities on the high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe. The study was organised into six chapters. Chapter 1 served as an introduction to the study and contained a discussion on philanthropy as a global phenomenon that is well organised, advanced and worth billions of dollars annually in developed countries. Substantial donations worth mentioning in the *Forbes* magazine are made in Africa and Zimbabwe alike.

The problem and sub-problems, aim of the study and the research methodology were discussed. It was explained how research-ethics issues pertaining to the study were addressed. Chapter 1 also defined key concepts relating to the study and discussed the significance of the study and its limitations and delimitations.

Chapter 2 contained a literature review of the concept 'philanthropy', discussing theories of philanthropy, motivations for giving, models of philanthropy and other issues surrounding the concept 'philanthropy'.

Chapter 3 contained a literature review of qualitative-research methods. It briefly compared qualitative-research with quantitative-research approaches. The rest of the chapter elaborated on qualitative-research methods. It discussed the case-study approach at considerable length as it was the method appropriate for this study.

Chapter 4 explained the research design and methodology employed in the study and chapter 5 presented, analysed and discussed the data collected by means of questionnaires and interviews.

The following conclusions can be drawn from this study:

Donations in the form of infrastructure have improved the basic facilities of some of the rural secondary schools in the Mutasa district. The benefits are however not spread uniformly, with some more deserving smaller schools not receiving as much infrastructure support as the bigger ones. Many secondary schools still do not have a library and laboratories.

School-fees-support programmes, especially by Plan Zimbabwe, have made a significant impact on secondary schools. The enrolment and completion rates in the secondary schools have increased, while the dropout rate has decreased. Many children from poor families can now attend and complete high school because of donor funding. It is highly likely that the poverty cycle in the rural areas will be broken. Most

young people of school-going age will no longer loiter in the villages during school hours. There will presumably be fewer cases of socially undesirable behaviour in the community as there will be fewer idle youths. Keeping young people in school until after adolescence is in itself even more beneficial than the academic results because it will teach them to operate in a structured, disciplined and hierarchical environment of an institution that forms the basis of modern society. There are social and economic gains in placing and keeping children in school. The undesirable combination of being an orphan, poor and ignorant is dealt with.

Students who benefit from philanthropic action are most likely to also help other children in unfortunate circumstances, as demonstrated by the alumni association with a membership of over 6 500 former beneficiaries of Plan Zimbabwe. Children who receive assistance with their education are also likely to give later in life, creating a ripple effect of goodwill.

The donor community has made a very significant impact by providing so many textbooks that almost all students have a full set of basic books. As shown by their responses, school heads deem this fact to have a positive effect on their students' academic achievement.

Donations in the form of income-generating projects such as perennial water supply help schools supplement their income indefinitely. Such donations are more sustainable and make schools self-reliant.



## 6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FROM THE STUDY

The following recommendations from the study are made for increasing the impact philanthropy can make on the high schools in the district studied and throughout the country:

- That schools make an effort to use online platforms to form alumni associations from a wider catchment area throughout the country and to extend beyond the borders. The study findings show that only 17 % of the schools have a functional former students association and only 21% of the schools reported to have received donations from former students. These associations constitute a rich potential source of philanthropic dollars. A school could receive online philanthropic contributions made into its e-wallet via mobile money-transfer systems by means of a cell phone from anywhere in the country. If, for example, a school could link up online with 10 000 former students and each one of those students contributes US \$1.00, US \$10 000 could be raised, enough to buy the school 1 000 bags of cement at US \$10 a bag, which would be more than enough to build a standard house for a teacher to live in!
- That schools set up websites to give them exposure both throughout the country and internationally. The study findings show that only 17% of the schools have a website. Such websites would enable the schools to market school projects requiring funding.
- There is a need to raise awareness in Zimbabwe of how valuable philanthropy could be in achieving social change. To this end, a Zimbabwe philanthropy

association similar to Philanthropy SA in South Africa or the American Institute of Philanthropy in the United States of America (USA) could be formed. Such organisations publish current information about giving and motivate other people to give. In this respect, Somerville (2008:21) is convinced that "... people give in response to recommendations by others."

- There is a need to borrow from countries such as the USA where philanthropy is highly developed and take the initiative locally (in Zimbabwe) to form "giving circles" for increasing the understanding of philanthropy and mobilising resources to assist the poor. According to Eikenberry and Bearman "giving circles are made up of individuals who pool their resources and then decide together where these should be distributed". In their research on giving circles, these scholars found that such circles, inter alia,
  - Influence members to give more
  - Influence members to give more strategically
  - Increase members' knowledge about philanthropy, non-profits and the community. (Eikenberry & Bearman 2009)

Giving circles can develop a culture of giving among the Zimbabwean population.

- Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that future studies gather data to assess and document the extent of local Zimbabwean philanthropic activities.

## **6.5 CONCLUSION**

Chapter 6 presented a summary of the results as far as the research problem is concerned. The summary tried to provide answers to the research sub-problems. It was concluded from the study that philanthropic activities have a significant impact on the high schools in the Mutasa district. Based on the study, a number of recommendations were made.

The entire study began with the research problem of evaluating the impact of philanthropic activities on the public high schools in the Mutasa district of Zimbabwe. Literature was reviewed to gain insights into the concept and theories surrounding philanthropy and also the research methods used. The research approach used was that of a qualitative case study. Data for trying to answer the research questions were collected by means of questionnaires and interviews. The study showed that philanthropy has made a significant impact on various aspects concerning the high schools in the Mutasa district.

In the light of the world-wide boom in philanthropy as claimed in the literature, a number of recommendations have been made on how schools could gain even more from this phenomenon and by so doing increase the level of impact of philanthropy on schools both in the district and throughout the country.

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# APPENDICES

## Appendix A



### Research Ethics Clearance Certificate

This is to certify that the application for ethical clearance submitted by

**GT Madziyire [47753587]**

for a D Ed study entitled

**Evaluating the impact of philanthropic activities in the Zimbabwean public high schools in Mutasa district, Zimbabwe**

has met the ethical requirements as specified by the University of South Africa College of Education Research Ethics Committee. This certificate is valid for two years from the date of issue.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "KP Dzvimbob".

Prof KP Dzvimbob  
Executive Dean : CEDU

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "M Claassens".

Dr M Claassens  
CEDU REC (Chairperson)  
[mcdtc@netactive.co.za](mailto:mcdtc@netactive.co.za)

Reference number: 2014 AUGUST /47753587/MC

19 AUGUST 2014

## Appendix B



College of Education  
School of Educational Studies  
30 June 2014

To whom it may concern

### Request for permission to gather data for a doctoral study

Dear Madam/ Sir

This serves to confirm that Mr Godfrey Madziyire (student number: 47753587) is studying towards a doctoral degree in Educational Leadership and Management at the University of South Africa (Unisa) . The title of his thesis is **'Evaluating the impact of philanthropic activities in Zimbabwean public high schools in Mutasa district, Zimbabwe.'**

As part of his studies, Mr Godfrey Madziyire has to collect data from relevant respondents. He intends to collect it (research data) in Zimbabwe public high schools in Mutasa district of Manicaland to develop his thesis. I hereby request that he be permitted to gather the data so that he can complete his studies.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "L. Lebeloane", written over a white background.

Prof LDM Lebeloane  
Supervisor



University of South Africa  
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane  
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa  
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150  
[www.unisa.ac.za](http://www.unisa.ac.za)

## **Appendix C**

504 Gallery Court  
705 Francis Beard Street  
Arcadia 0083, Pretoria  
Republic of South Africa  
Cell +27 78 588 2111  
Email: gmadziyire@yahoo.com  
17 May 2014

The Secretary

Att: The Director: Policy, Planning, Research and Development.

Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education

P. O. Box CY 121

Causeway

Harare

Zimbabwe

Dear Madam,

Ref: Request to Collect Research Data in Mutasa District Secondary Schools

I am studying for a Doctor of Education degree in Education Management at the University of South Africa, UNISA.

I am writing to ask for permission to collect research data in secondary schools in Mutasa District for about two weeks starting from mid-August this year.

I wish to administer a questionnaire to all heads of secondary schools in the district as part of the research procedures to develop my thesis. The data collected will be analysed and the findings reported in Chapter 5 of the thesis. Thereafter the questionnaires with data will be locked away in a cabinet. The title of the thesis is "Evaluating the Impact of Philanthropic Activities in High Schools in Mutasa District in Zimbabwe." The questionnaire takes not more than 30 minutes to complete.

I am committed to respecting and protecting the privacy of data gathered and to the ethical use of information. The data gathered will be treated with the highest level of confidentiality. I will not disclose the identity of individual participants and schools and their responses. There are no foreseeable risks in participating in this research. This is in compliance with the provisions of the UNISA CEDU Research Ethics Policy.

I also intend to interview representatives of two donor organisations working in the secondary schools in Mutasa District. These are Plan International and the Swedish Organisation for Individual Relief. The role of these organisations in this study is that of respondents providing data about their education programmes in secondary schools.

Other participants in the study are not more than five individual philanthropists identified by the community from Mutasa district whom I wish to interview regarding their assistance to schools and students in the district.

This study will enable the development of knowledge and understanding of the impact of donations in secondary schools. It has the potential to increase the benefits our schools gain from philanthropic action by developing modern and effective fund raising systems for the education sector.

Should you have any concerns and questions about the study you may use the following details to contact my supervisor:

Professor LDM Lebeloane  
University of South Africa, College of Education  
Department of Education Management  
P. O. Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa  
Tel: +27 12 429 4433, Fax: 086 642 1620  
Cell: + 27 83 453 8148, Email: lebelldm@unisa.ac.za

Participation in the research is voluntary and participants may withdraw from the study and re-join at any time without consequence. I look forward to partner with you in this study. Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Godfrey Madziyire

DED candidate, College of Education, UNISA

Please kindly sign, date stamp and return the reply slip below.

---

### **Reply slip**

I have read about the above study and hereby grant permission that the research be carried out in the secondary schools in Mutasa District of Manicaland Province.

Signed \_\_\_\_\_  
For: Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education

## Appendix D

all communications should be addressed to  
"The Secretary for Primary & Secondary Education  
Telephone: 732006  
Telegraphic address: "EDUCATION"  
Fax: 794505 0



ZIMBABWE

REFERENCE: C/426/3

Ministry of Primary and  
Secondary Education  
P.O Box CY 121  
Causeway  
HARARE

24 June 2014

Mr. Godfrey Madziyire  
504 Gallery Court  
705 Francis Board Street  
Arcadia 0083 Pretoria  
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Re: **PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH AT ZINDI, ST.  
MATHIAS TSONZO, ST JAMES ZONGORORO, GATSI, CHISUKO,  
CHAVHANGA, SAGAMBE, ST. COLUMBAS, SAMARINGA  
SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND NYAKATSAPA HIGH SCHOOL IN  
MUTASA DISTRICT: MANICALAND PROVINCE**

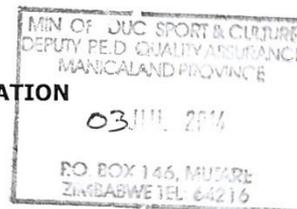
Reference is made to your application to carry out research at Zindi, St. Mathias Tsonzo, St James Zongororo, Gatsi, Chisuko, Chavhanga, Sagambe, St. Columbas, Samaringa Seondary Schools And Nyakatsapa High School In Mutasa District: Manicaland Province at on the title:

**EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF PHILANTHROPIC ACTIVITIES IN HIGH  
SCHOOLS IN THE ABOVE-MENTIONED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN  
MUTASA DISTRICT IN ZIMBABWE**

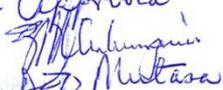
Permission is hereby granted. However, you are required to liaise with the Provincial Education Director Manicaland who is responsible for the schools which you want to involve in your research.

You are also required to provide a copy of your final report to the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education by 31 December 2014.

  
Z.M. Chitiga  
Acting Director: Policy, Planning, Research and Development  
For: **SECRETARY FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION**



\* The D.E.O.  
Mutasa District

3/7/14 Approved  
  
D.E.O. Mutasa

Allow the above named officer to carry out the stated research. The research study should not disturb students learning time. ~~Cooper~~ 03/07/14

## **Appendix E**

504 Gallery Court  
705 Francis Beard Street  
Arcadia 0083, Pretoria  
Republic of South Africa  
Cell +27 78 588 2111  
Email: gmadziyire@yahoo.com  
17 May 2014

The Provincial Education Director  
Manicaland Province  
Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education  
P. O. Box 146  
Mutare  
Zimbabwe

Dear Sir,

### **Ref: Request to Collect Research Data in Mutasa District Secondary Schools**

I am studying for a Doctor of Education degree in Education Management at the University of South Africa, UNISA.

I am writing to ask for permission to collect research data in secondary schools in Mutasa District for about two weeks starting from mid-August this year.

I wish to administer a questionnaire to all heads of secondary schools in the district as part of the research procedures to develop my thesis. The data collected will be analysed and the findings reported in Chapter 5 of the thesis. Thereafter the questionnaires with data will be locked away in a cabinet. The title of the thesis is "Evaluating the Impact of Philanthropic Activities in High Schools in Mutasa District in Zimbabwe." The questionnaire takes not more than 30 minutes to complete.

I am committed to respecting and protecting the privacy of data gathered and to the ethical use of information. The data gathered will be treated with the highest level of confidentiality. I will not disclose the identity of individual participants and schools and their responses. There are no foreseeable risks in participating in this research. This is in compliance with the provisions of the UNISA CEDU Research Ethics Policy.

I also intend to interview representatives of two donor organisations working in the secondary schools in Mutasa District. These are Plan International and the Swedish Organisation for Individual Relief. The role of these organisations in this study is that of respondents providing data about their education programmes in secondary schools.

This study will enable the development of knowledge and understanding of the impact of donations in secondary schools. It has the potential to increase the benefits our schools gain from philanthropic action by developing modern and effective fund raising systems for the education sector.

Should you have any concerns and questions about the study you may use the following details to contact my supervisor:

Professor LDM Lebeloane  
University of South Africa, College of Education  
Department of Education Management  
P. O. Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa  
Tel: +27 12 429 4433, Fax: 086 642 1620  
Cell: + 27 83 453 8148, Email: lebelldm@unisa.ac.za

Participation in the research is voluntary and participants may withdraw from the study and re-join at any time without consequence. I look forward to partner with you in this study. Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Godfrey Madziyire

DED candidate, College of Education, UNISA

Please kindly sign, date stamp and return the reply slip below.

---

### Reply slip

I have read about the above study and hereby grant permission that the research be carried out in the secondary schools in Mutasa District of Manicaland Province

Signed \_\_\_\_\_

For: The Provincial Education Director, Manicaland Province



## **Appendix F**

504 Gallery Court  
705 Francis Baard Street  
Arcadia 0083, Pretoria  
Republic of South Africa  
Cell +27 78 588 2111  
Email: gmadziyire@yahoo.com  
17 May 2014

The Head  
\_\_\_\_\_ Secondary School

Mutasa

Dear Sir/Madam,

### **Ref: Request to Collect Research Data**

I am studying for a Doctor of Education degree in Education Management at the University of South Africa, UNISA.

I am writing to ask for permission to collect research data by questionnaire at your school in mid-August this year.

I wish to administer the questionnaire to all heads of secondary schools in the district as part of the research procedures to develop my thesis. The data collected will be analysed and the findings reported in Chapter 5 of the thesis. Thereafter the questionnaires with data will be locked away in a cabinet. The title of the thesis is "Evaluating the Impact of Philanthropic Activities in High Schools in Mutasa District in Zimbabwe." The questionnaire takes not more than 30 minutes of your time to complete.

I am committed to respecting and protecting the privacy of data gathered and to the ethical use of information. The data gathered will be treated with the highest level of confidentiality. I will not disclose your identity that of your school or responses. There are no foreseeable risks in participating in this research. This is in compliance with the provisions of the UNISA CEDU Research Ethics Policy.

I also intend to interview representatives of two donor organisations working in the secondary schools in Mutasa District. These are Plan International and the Swedish Organisation for Individual Relief. The role of these organisations in this study is that of respondents providing data about their education programmes in secondary schools.

This study will enable the development of knowledge and understanding of the impact of donations in secondary schools. It has the potential to increase the benefits our schools gain from philanthropic action by developing modern and effective fund raising systems for the education sector.

Should you have any concerns and questions about the study you may use the following details to contact my supervisor:

Professor LDM Lebeloane  
University of South Africa, College of Education  
Department of Education Management  
P. O. Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa  
Tel: +27 12 429 4433, Fax: 086 642 1620  
Cell: + 27 83 453 8148, Email: lebelldm@unisa.ac.za

Participation in the research is voluntary and you may withdraw from the study and re-join at any time without consequence. I look forward to partner with you in this study. Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Godfrey Madziyire

DED candidate, College of Education, UNISA

Please kindly sign, date stamp and return the reply slip below

---

**Reply slip**

I have read about the above study and hereby grant permission that the research be carried out in my school.

Signed \_\_\_\_\_  
The Head

## **Appendix G**

### **University of South Africa**

College of Education (CEDU)

Department of Education Management

#### **Questionnaire for Heads of Schools**

May you please kindly complete this questionnaire. It takes not more than 30 minutes of your time. The responses will be treated in strict confidence and will not be used in any way that harms the respondents or their institutions. The information gathered will be used for academic research purposes only. Please do not write your name or the name of the school on these pages.

The research will enable the valuable donor work in our schools to be captured and recorded systematically as part of an academic study and in finding ways of increasing the benefits schools can obtain from non-profit sector organisations. Thus while participation in the study is voluntary and you may withdraw and re-join at any time without reprisal we encourage you to please be a partner to this research.

Thank you for making this study a success.

#### **Section A**

1. Please indicate the status of your school by ticking in the suitable boxes

- "O" level school
- "A" level school
- Day school
- Boarding school
- Number of teachers including Head

2. Indicate the school's type of responsible authority by ticking in the suitable box

- Rural District Council
- Church organisation
- Government
- Other-Please specify \_\_\_\_\_

3. State your current enrolment in the boxes

- Number of boys
- Number of girls
- Total enrolment

4. Is your school on the following communication networks? Please tick in the suitable box/es

- Facebook
- Twitter
- Has a website (e.g. www.schoolname.co.zw)
- WhatsApp
- None

## Section B

5. Please indicate the type of donor assistance your school has received in the past or recently by ticking in the appropriate boxes that apply to your school.

Tick in the box/es <input type="checkbox"/>	<b>Donations of sports, science and technical subjects' equipment.</b> If you tick an item please give a brief description of the equipment e.g. 5 sewing machines
	Agriculture
	Biology
	Building Studies
	Chemistry
	Computer Science
	Fashion and Fabrics
	Food and Nutrition
	Laboratory equipment
	Metalwork
	Physical Science
	Sports equipment
	Wood Work
	Other subject (specify)

6. Please indicate the infrastructure donations your school has received in the past and recently by ticking in the appropriate box/es.

Please tick where applicable <input type="checkbox"/>	Type of <b>infrastructure donations</b>	Number donated where applicable
	Classroom blocks	
	Computer laboratory	
	Electrification: donations of tubing and wiring materials	
	Library	
	Science laboratory	
	Students desks- (approximate number)	
	Teachers' houses	
	Toilet blocks	
	Water supply: borehole/piped /water tank or other	
	Workshop (please specify e.g. woodwork):	
	Other (please specify)	

7.1 Has your school received textbook donations in the past 6 years?

Yes

No

7.1.1 If your answer is **yes** please give a rating of the extent to which the text books meet your needs. Tick in the box that best applies to your school.

1	2	3	4	5
Meet less than 25% our needs	Meet up to 25% of our needs	Meet some 50% of our needs	Meet up to 75% of our needs	Meet 100% of our needs

7.1.2 Give your rating on the following by ticking in a box below. The textbooks donations have had a noticeable positive impact on students' academic performance.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

8.1 Are there any students receiving school fees donations from any other source **outside** the Basic Education Assistance Module-BEAM ?

Yes

If yes how many?

No

8.2 If your answer is **yes** indicate the source of the funds.

Non-governmental organisation/s

Individual donors

Business people

9.1 Has your school received a donation of an income generating project?

Yes

No

If **yes**, approximately how many years has the project been operating?

9.2 If your answer above is **yes** state the type of project


9.3 If **yes** please rate the effectiveness of the income generating project in supplementing school funds on a scale of 1 to 5

1	2	3	4	5
Not effective	Not very effective	Fairly effective	Very effective	Exceptionally effective

10.1 Have you ever received donations from local/ Zimbabwean donors?

Yes

No

10.2 If **yes** please give brief details of the type of donation


## Section C

### 11 Former Students Associations

11.1 Does the school have a former students association at the moment?

Yes

No

11.2 If **no** did the school ever had a former students association in the past?

Yes

No

11.3 What contributions have been made to the school by former students' associations?

Supplied textbooks

Paid school fees for some students.

Supplied equipment, briefly specify \_\_\_\_\_

Funded a building, briefly specify \_\_\_\_\_

Other contributions, briefly specify \_\_\_\_\_

None of which I know of.

11.4 What do you think are the constraints of organising former students' associations in schools? Tick applicable box/es.

Time to organise is scarce

Difficult to locate and contact former students

Former students are unwilling to participate

Other challenges/s \_\_\_\_\_

12.1 How does your school try to communicate with former students? Tick in the box/es that apply to your school.

Word of mouth

By mail

By SMS

By Facebook

School webpage

Via twitter

WhatsApp

Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

The school is not contacting former students at the moment

12.2 Do your former students have a social network group on Facebook, WhatsApp or any other platform?

Yes

No

14.1 Have you received donations from individual former students?

Yes

No

14.2 If **yes** please give brief details of type of donation below


15. Is there any other information or comments about donations you would like to add?


Thank you for being a participant in this study!

## Appendix H

### Questionnaire Data Analysis

Questions 1, 2, 3 and 4

Respondent	1. Status of school				2. Responsible authority					3. Enrolment			4. Is your school on any of these communication networks?				
	O level	A Level	Day school	Boarding	No of teachers	Rural District Council	Church	Government	Other	Boys	Girls	Total	1facebook	2 Twitter	3 Website	4 Whats App	5 None
1	√		√		13	√				100	59	159					√
2		√			37	√				391	319	710			√		
3			√	√			√			539	616	1155					√
4		√					√			296	222	518					√
5		√		√	48					383	502	885			√		
6	√					√				197	157	354					√
7		√	√		26	√				179	150	329	√				
8	√		√			√				65	48	113					√
9	√				5	√				30	35	65					√
10	√		√		9	√				119	75	194					√
11	√					√				410	289	699			√		
12		√	√	√	39		√			520	326	846			√		
13		√	√		37	√				364	317	681					√
14	√		√		15	√				172	124	296					√
15		√		√				pvt		0	377	377	√				
16	√		√		19	√				215	269	484					√
17						√				193	184	377	√	√	√	√	
18		√		√	47		√			461	432	893			√		
19		√			29			√		342	306	648					√
20		√	√		27	√				257	181	438					√
21	√		√		14	√				117	100	217					√
22		√		√	45		√			0	966	966	√	√	√	√	
23			√		31		√			277	307	582					√
24	√				9	√				94	85	175					√
25		√					√			263	206	469					√
26	√		√		17		√			204	189	393					√
27	√		√		21	√				253	174	427					√
28	√		√		34	√				399	320	719				√	
29		√	√		51	√											√
N	13	13	15	7		18	8	1	1				4	2	7	2	19

Question 5 Please indicate the type of donor assistance the school has received in the past by ticking in the appropriate box.

**Donations of sports, science and technical subjects equipment**

Q: Res No.	1 Agriculture	2 Biology	3 Blg Studies	4 Chemistry	5 Computer Studies	6 Fashion & Fabrics	7 Food & Nutrition	8 Laboratory Equipment	9 Metal Work	10 physical Science	11 Sports Equipment	12 Wood Work	13 Other
1													√
2	√				√			√			√		
3					√								
4								√					
5								√					
6		√		√	√			√					
7								√					
8								√					
9					√3			√			√		8 sewing machines, generator, printer
10								√					
11								√					Int . science kit
12		√		√				√		√			
13													
14								√					
15				√				√					
16										√			
17								√					
18								√			√		
19					√			√			√		
20	√					√		√			√		
21													
22				√	√50			√					
23													
24					√						√		
25					√10								Sci teaching/lrng material
26					√1			√					
27						√1		√					
28					√10								
29				√						√			
30													
N	2	2	0	5	10	2	0	19	0	3	6	0	
%													

Question 6. Please indicate the **infrastructure** donations your school has received by ticking in the appropriate box. Data analysis

Q	1 Classroom block	2 Computer lab.	3 Electrification	4 Library	5 Science lab	6 Students desks	7 Teachers' houses	8 Toilet blocks	9 Water supply	10 Workshops	11 Other
1 nil											
2				√						√HE	
3	√			√				√	√		School hall
4 nil											
5 nil											
6					√						
7	√						√				
8				√							
9									√		
10			√								
11 nil											
12				√	√						
13				√							
14			√		√						
15 nil											
16	√										
17	√						√				
18 nil											
19	√			√			√2				
20			√		√						
21 nil											
22 nil											
23			√?								
24					√						
25	√2			√1			√1	√	√		
26	√2			√1		√80	√4	√4	√*		
27 nil											
28				√1							
29	√4						√7				
N	8	0	4	9	5	1	7	3	4	1	
%											

\*26/ 9 borehole/ piped/ water tank

25/ 9 piped

3/9 piped /water tank

2/10 HE: home economics block

Question 7 Textbook donations.

Questions	7.1 Has school received textbook donations in the past 6 years?		7.1.1 If your answer is yes please give a rating of the extent to which the textbooks meet your school's needs					7.1.2 Give a rating on the following: The text books donations have had a noticeable positive impact on students' academic performance				
	Yes	No	1 Meet less than 25% of school needs	2 Meet up to 25 % of school needs	3 Meet some 50% of school needs	4 Meet 75 % of school needs	5 Meet 100 % of school needs	1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree
1.	√				√					√		
2.	√						√				√	
3.	√					√					√	
4.	√					√						√
5.	√					√					√	
6.	√					√					√	
7.	√					√				√		
8.	√						√					√
9.	√					√					√	
10.	√					√					√	
11.	√					√					√	
12.	√						√					
13.	√					√					√	
14.		√										
15.	√						√				√	
16.	√					√					√	
17.	√					√				√		
18.	√					√						√
19.	√					√						√
20.	√					√						√
21.	√					√					√	
22.	√				√						√	
23.	√					√						√
24.	√						√					√
25.	√					√					√	
26.	√					√					√	
27.	√					√					√	
28.	√					√				√		
29.	√					√		√				
N	28	1			1	21	5	1		4	15	7
%												

Question 8.1 &  
Questions 9.1, 9.2 & 9.3

Q  Res No	8.1 Are any of your students receiving school fees donations from any other source outside the Basic Education Assistance module BEAM?			8.2 If your answer is yes indicate the source of the funds. Key: Ind.-Individual Bus- Business			9.1 Has your school received a donation of an income generation project? Key: Yrs: Years			9.2 If your answer is yes state the type of project	9.3 If yes please rate the effectiveness of the income generating [project in supplementing school funds on a scale of 1 to 5				
	Yes	N	No	NGO	Ind	Bus	Yes	No	Yrs		1	2	3	4	5
1			√					√							
2	√	79			√	√	√		<1	Piggery					
3	√	105		√				√							
4	√	33		√				√							
5	√	7		√	√			√							
6	√	17		√				√							
7	√			√				√							
8			√					√							
9			√					√							
10			√					√							
11	√	56		√			√		1	Piggery			√		
12	√	?					√		6	Piggery, poultry, t/shop				√	
13	√	?		√				√							
14	√	10		√				√							
15			√					√							
16	√	10		√				√							
17	√	20		√			√		3	Banana plantation, piggery				√	
18	√	18		√				√							
19	√	1		√			√		22	Banana irrigation				√	
20	√	20		√				√							
21	√	20		√				√							
22	√	21		√	√	√		√							
23	√	45		√				√							
24			√					√							
25	√	2		√				√							
26	√	40		√				√							
27								√							
28	√	144		√				√							
29	√			√				√							
N	22		6	20	3	2	5	24						3	
%															

Question 10.1, 10.2

Q Res No	10.1 Have you ever received donations from local /Zimbabwean donors?		10.2 Details
	Yes	No	
1		√	
2	√		5 computers from individual and mining company
3	√		Classroom block
4	√		3 computers from Benza brothers
5		√	
6		√	
7		√	
8	√		Library books
9	√		1 generator, 3 computers, 1 printer
10	√		Sports kit
11		√	
12		√	
13			
14		√	
15	√		Books
16	√		US\$10 000 for practical subjects block
17		√	
18		√	
19		√	
20	√		Building material
21		√	
22	√		Foodstuffs from parents, textbooks, dining plates
23		√	
24		√	
25	√		1 392 library books
26		√	
27		√	
28	√		Teachers' house, library- Plan Zimbabwe
29	√		Sports uniform
N	13	16	
%	44.8	55.2	

Question 11.1, 11.2 and 11.3  
Former Students Association

Q>  Res. No	11.1 Does your school have a former students association?		11.2 If no did the school ever had a former students association ?		11.3 What contributions have been made to the school by former students associations						11.4 What do you think are the constraints of organising former students associations in schools?			
	Yes	No	Yes	No	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4
					Textbooks	School	Equipment	Buildings	Other contributions	None	Time	Difficult to locate ex students	Ex-students unwilling	Other challenges
1		√		√						√			√	
2		√	√											Econ problem
3		√	√				√pa					√		
4		√		√						√	√			
5	√								√prize giving		√	√		
6		√		√							√			
7	√									√	√	√		
8		√		√						√	√			
9		√		√										
10		√		√										
11		√	√			√					√			
12	√					√			√lorry			√		
13		√		√							√			
14		√		√						√	√	√		
15		√		√						√	√			
16		√		√						√	√	√		
17		√		√						√	√	√		No jobs spread
18	√							√			√	√		
19		√	√							√	√	√		
20		√		√						√	√	√		
21		√		√						√	√	√		
22	√		√			√	plates				√	√	√	√*see Qnr
23		√		√						√	√	√		
24		√		√							√			
25		√		√								√		
26		√		√								√		
27		√		√								√		
28		√		√								√		
29		√	√			√						√		√
N	5	24	6	19		3	2	1	2	12	6	22	5	
%														

Question 12.1 How does your school communicate with former students?

Question 12.2 Do your former students have a social network group on Facebook, WhatsApp or other platform?

Question	12.1 How does your school communicate with former students?									12.2	
	1. By word of mouth	2. By mail	3. By SMS	4. By Facebook	5 Via School web page	6. Via twitter	7. By WhatsApp	8. Other	9. Not contacting former students at the moment	Yes	No
Respondent											
1								√			√
2					√						√
3								√			√
4			√								√
5					√						√
6	√	√	√	√							√
7			√								√
8								√			√
9	√										√
10											
11	√		√								√
12		√					√			√	
13		√									√
14	√							√			√
15	√										√
16								√			√
17				√	√		√			√	
18					√						√
19	√		√	√						√	
20	√	√	√	√			√				√
21		√									√
22	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√			√
23								√			√
24								√			√
25											√
26								√			√
27								√			√
28								√			√
29								√			√
N	8	6	7	5	5	1	4	1	11	3	25
%											

Question 13.1 Have you received donations from individual former students?

	Yes	No	Details
1		√	
2		√	
3		√	
4		√	
5		√	
6		√	
7		√	
8		√	
9		√	
10	-	-	
11		√	
12	√		Foodstuffs, school fees for bright disadvantaged students
13		√	
14		√	
15		√	
16		√	
17		√	
18	√		Organised and funded prize giving days,
19	√		2013prize giving day donations
20		√	
21	√		Encyclopaedias
22		√	
23		√	
24		√	
25		√	
26		√	
27		√	
28	√		A siren
29	√		School fees
N	6	22	
%			

## Appendix I

504 Gallery Court  
705 Francis Baard Street  
Arcadia 0083, Pretoria  
Republic of South Africa  
Cell +27 78 588 2111  
Email: gmadziyire@yahoo.com  
17 May 2014

The Director  
Plan International Zimbabwe  
Manicaland Province  
P. O. Box  
Mutare  
Zimbabwe

Dear Sir,

Ref: Request to Collect Research Data from Plan Zimbabwe

I am a Zimbabwean studying for a Doctor of Education degree in Education Management at the University of South Africa, UNISA.

I am writing to ask for permission to interview a representative of your organisation in July this year.

I am requesting for this interview as part of the research procedures to develop my thesis. The data collected will be analysed and reported in Chapter 5 of the thesis. Thereafter the raw data collected will be locked away in a cabinet. The title of my thesis is "Evaluating the Impact of Philanthropic Activities in High Schools in Mutasa District in Zimbabwe." The interview will take about one hour to complete. I have attached a copy of the interview schedule for your scrutiny.

I am committed to respecting and protecting the privacy of data gathered and to the ethical use of information. The data gathered will be treated with the highest level of confidentiality. I will not disclose the identity of individual participants and schools and their responses. The data will not be used in any way that is detrimental to your organisation. This is in compliance with the standards of the UNISA Research Ethics Policy.

This study will enable the valuable work of your organisation in schools to be captured and recorded systematically as part of an academic study with a respected and reputable university.

Should you have any concerns and questions about the study you may use may the following details to contact my supervisor:

Professor LDM Lebeloane  
University of South Africa, College of Education  
Department of Education Management  
P. O. Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa  
Tel: +27 12 429 4433, Fax: 086 642 1620  
Cell: + 27 83 453 8148, Email: lebelldm@unisa.ac.za

Participation in the research is voluntary and participants may withdraw from the study and re-join at any time without consequence. I look forward to partner with you  
Yours faithfully

Godfrey Madziyire

---

**Reply slip**

I have read about the above study and hereby grant permission that the research be carried out about Plan Zimbabwe's education programmes in Mutasa District secondary schools of Manicaland Province

Signed \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_  
For Plan Zimbabwe

Bestpofe.com

**Appendix J**

**University of South Africa  
College of Education (CEDU)  
Department of Education Management  
Interview Schedule for a Non-Governmental Organisation**

1. [\_\_\_\_\_] In what year did your organisation start the work of assisting schools
2. [\_\_\_\_\_] Approximately how many secondary schools have benefited from your programmes in Mutasa District since you started?
3. What criteria does your organisation use to identify schools that benefit from your programmes?


4.1 Which forms of infrastructure development projects do you support in schools ?

Infrastructure projects	Tick	Number of secondary schools that have been supported in Mutasa District since inception
Classroom blocks		
Computer science Labs		
Computers for schools		
Libraries		
Science Laboratories		
Sports equipment		
Teachers houses		
Toilet blocks		
Water supply		
Other- please specify		

4.2 What is your evaluation of the impact of your infrastructure development projects in schools?


5.1 Has your organisation donated income generating projects to schools?

No

yes

If yes, please give details of the nature of projects and the number of schools that have been supported in Mutasa District.

Income generating project	Number of schools supported

5.2 What is your evaluation of the impact of these infrastructure projects on the recipient schools?


6.1  How many secondary schools are beneficiaries of your school fees support programme in Mutasa District?

6.2 Approximately how many Mutasa District secondary school students are supported by the programme in 2014?

Boys

Girls

Total

6.3  When did your organisation start the school fees support programme?

Approximately how many secondary students have been beneficiaries of the school fees since the programme started?

7. What is your evaluation of the impact of your school fees programme?


8. Is there any other information or comments you would like to share on your work in schools?


Thank you for answering these questions!

## **Appendix K**

Plan Zimbabwe  
Mutasa Program Unit  
P. O. Box 190  
1<sup>st</sup> & 5<sup>th</sup> Floors, Msasa House  
75 Herbert Chitepo Street  
**Mutare**  
**Zimbabwe**

Tel: +263 20 64415/63646/65846  
Fax: +263 20 61372  
www.plan-international.org



10 June, 2014

Mr G. Madziyire  
504 Gallery Court  
705 Francis Beard Street  
Arcadia 0083, Pretoria  
Republic of South Africa

Dear Sir,

Re: **REQUEST TO COLLECT RESEARCH DATA**

I acknowledge receipt of your letter dated 7 June, 2014 regarding the above subject.

I have read and understood the explanatory statement regarding the above mentioned research and hereby give permission for this research to be conducted.

I give permission for the database of Plan Zimbabwe's education programmes to be used in the research. The researcher is also advised to share a copy of report findings to Plan Zimbabwe for future use.

Yours sincerely,

H. Takada  
**PROGRAM UNIT MANAGER – Mutasa District**

**National Organisations** Australia Belgium Brazil Canada Denmark Finland France Germany Hong Kong Ireland Japan Korea Netherlands Norway Spain Sweden Switzerland United Kingdom United States of America

**Program Countries** Bangladesh Benin Bolivia Brazil Burkina Faso Cambodia Cameroon China Colombia Dominican Republic Ecuador Egypt El Salvador Ethiopia Ghana Guatemala Guinea Gambia Bissau Haiti Honduras India Indonesia Kenya Malawi Mali Nepal Nicaragua Niger Pakistan Paraguay Peru Philippines Senegal Sierra Leone Sri Lanka Sudan Tanzania Thailand Togo Uganda Vietnam Zambia Zimbabwe

Registered in the Republic of Zimbabwe as a Welfare Organisation, PVD 03/06

## **Appendix L**

504 Gallery Court  
705 Francis Baard Street  
Arcadia 0083, Pretoria  
Republic of South Africa  
Cell +27 78 588 2111  
Email: gmadziyire@yahoo.com  
17 May 2014

The Director  
Swedish Organisation for Individual Relief  
Manicaland Province  
P. O. Box  
Mutare  
Zimbabwe

Dear Sir,

Ref: Request to Collect Research Data from Swedish Organisation for Individual Relief

I am a Zimbabwean studying for a Doctor of Education degree in Education Management at the University of South Africa, UNISA.

I am writing to ask for permission to interview a representative of your organisation in July this year.

I am requesting for this interview as part of the research procedures to develop my thesis. The data collected will be analysed and reported in Chapter 5 of the thesis. Thereafter the raw data collected will be locked away in a cabinet. The title of my thesis is "Evaluating the Impact of Philanthropic Activities in High Schools in Mutasa District in Zimbabwe." The interview will take about one hour to complete. I have attached a copy of the interview schedule for your scrutiny.

I am committed to respecting and protecting the privacy of data gathered and to the ethical use of information. The data gathered will be treated with the highest level of confidentiality. I will not disclose the identity of individual participants and schools and their responses.

The data will not be used in any way that is detrimental to your organisation. This is in compliance with the standards of the UNISA Research Ethics Policy.

This study will enable the valuable work of your organisation in schools to be captured and recorded systematically as part of an academic study with a respected and reputable university.

Should you have any concerns and questions about the study you may use may the following details to contact my supervisor:

Professor LDM Lebeloane  
University of South Africa, College of Education  
Department of Education Management  
P. O. Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa  
Tel: +27 12 429 4433, Fax: 086 642 1620  
Cell: + 27 83 453 8148, Email: lebelldm@unisa.ac.za

Participation in the research is voluntary and participants may withdraw from the study and re-join at any time without consequence. I look forward to partner with you in this study. Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Godfrey Madziyire

**Please kindly sign, date and return the reply slip below**

---

**Reply slip**

I have read about the above study and hereby grant permission that the research be carried out about Swedish Organisation for Individual Relief's education programmes in Mutasa District secondary schools of Manicaland Province

Signed \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

For Swedish Organisation for Individual Relief

**Appendix M**

**University of South Africa**

College of Education (CEDU)

Department of Education Management

**Questionnaire for a Community- Based Organisation 2014**

1. 1 [\_\_\_\_] In which year did your organisation start the work of assisting students and schools?

1.2 In brief what are your objectives; what do you want to achieve in schools you work with?


2. [\_\_\_\_] How many secondary schools in Mutasa benefit from your programmes?

3.1 Please indicate the types of assistance your organisation currently provides to secondary school students in the following categories:

	Category	Tick	How many students are benefiting?
2.1	School fees		
2.2	Examination fees		
2.3	School uniforms		
2.4	Textbooks		

3.2 How many secondary school students in Mutasa District are you assisting this year?

[\_\_\_\_] Boys

[\_\_\_\_] Girls

3.3 Approximately how many secondary school students have been assisted by your organisation since you started the programme?

[\_\_\_\_] Boys

[\_\_\_\_] Girls

3.3 How do you select or identify students to benefit from your programme? Is it:

[\_\_\_\_] Poor background

[\_\_\_\_] Orphaned children

[\_\_\_\_] Academically gifted students

[\_\_\_\_] Other reasons. Please specify

--

3.4 According to your assessment how much change has your organisation brought to the community through their work? (You may use additional paper to elaborate)


3.4 Describe any challenges related to providing assistance to students.


4.1 Have you donated income generating projects to schools? If yes please briefly describe the type of projects


4.2 How are the proceeds from the income generating project/s supposed to be used? (please tick in the box/es) Is it for the payment of:

- School fees
- Uniforms
- Textbooks
- Stationary
- Food for the students
- General use, not specifically for one purpose
- Other uses? Please specify


4.3 If you have such projects how do you evaluate their success in making positive change for schools and students?


5 Thank you for participating in this study!

## **Appendix N**

504 Gallery Court  
705 Francis Baard Street  
Arcadia 0083, Pretoria  
Republic of South Africa  
Cell +27 78 588 2111  
Email: gmadziyire@yahoo.com  
17 May 2014

Mr/ Mrs/ Ms \_\_\_\_\_  
**(Individual Philanthropists)**

Dear Sir/Madam,

Ref: Request to for an interview

I am a student at the University of South Africa, UNISA carrying out research on philanthropy in Mutasa schools. I am interested in interviewing individuals who have made donations to schools and students in the district. I am writing to ask for permission to interview you regarding your contribution on a date in August this year that is convenient to you.

The interview is part of the research procedures to develop my thesis. The data collected will be analysed and the findings reported in Chapter 5 of the thesis. Thereafter the raw data will be locked away in a cabinet. The title of my thesis is "Evaluating the Impact of Philanthropic Activities in High Schools in Mutasa District in Zimbabwe." The interview takes not more than 30 minutes of your time to complete.

I am committed to respecting and protecting the privacy of data gathered and to the ethical use of information. The data gathered will be treated with the highest level of confidentiality. I will not disclose your identity and that of the individual students and school that you assisted. There are no foreseeable risks in participating in this research. I will adhere to the provisions of the UNISA CEDU Research Ethics Policy.

Other participants in this study are heads of secondary schools in the district, representatives of Plan International and the Swedish Organisation for Individual Relief. The role of these organisations in this study is that of respondents providing data about their education programmes in secondary schools.

This study will enable the development of knowledge and understanding of the impact of donations in secondary schools. The study will raise awareness of the important work donors are doing to help the education sector..

Should you have any concerns and questions about the study you may use the following details to contact my supervisor:

Professor LDM Lebeloane  
University of South Africa, College of Education  
Department of Education Management  
P. O. Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa  
Tel: +27 12 429 4433, Fax: 086 642 1620  
Cell: + 27 83 453 8148, Email: lebelldm@unisa.ac.za

Participation in the research is voluntary and you may withdraw from the study and re-join at any time without consequence. I look forward to partner with you in this study. Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Godfrey Madziyire

DED candidate, College of Education, UNISA

Please kindly sign and return the reply slip below

---

Reply slip

I have read about the above research and hereby give my consent to participate in the study

Signed \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Name \_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix O**

**University of South Africa  
College of Education (CEDU)  
Department of Education Management  
Interview Schedule for Individual Philanthropists**

1. May you please describe the nature of assistance that you have given to students? Is it school fees, uniform, or other form of support?


2. How many students have you assisted to date?

Boys
Girls
Total

3. Up to what level have you provided the support to the students?

Primary level
Secondary up to form 4
Secondary up to form 6
Tertiary level

4. How did you identify and select the students for support? Was it through teachers, community members or other form of contact?


5. How do you evaluate your philanthropic action in terms of how it has changed the lives of the recipients?


6. Is there any other information you would like to share regarding your philanthropic activities?


7. Thank you for participating in this study!