FORGETTING TO REMEMBER: ORGANISATIONAL MEMORY

by

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ABSTRACT

Organisations need to learn from their current and past experiences to optimise their activities, decisions and future strategies. Non-governmental organisations are similar to public or governmental departments in that learning is crucial for their existence. One of the key factors influencing learning is the development and maintenance of a functional organisational memory.

The organisational memory is a dynamic entity encompassing more than the storage facilities provided by an information technology system. It also resides in human form, acting as reservoirs and interpretation centres and feeding the organisational memory as a whole.

Previous research in organisational memory focussed mostly on describing the structure of the storage systems, with the current focus on developing management information systems to enhance organisational memory storage and retrieval. Some work has been undertaken to describe the processes involved, which include accessing, storing and retrieving the memory. Other functions that need special attention are the development of data to information, and especially creating and using knowledge.

The studies mostly involved existing organisational memory as it was represented at a specific time of the organisations' development. This study looks at all the different developmental phases of a regional NGO, which include start-up, expansion in target territory, expansion in activities, consolidation and close-out.

To investigate the temporal changes of organisational memory in a regional intermediary NGO, a retrospective case study methodology was used. The NGO was closing down, providing an opportunity to investigate all the stages of development. The data collection, analysis and interpretation involved

various in-depth interviews with current and past staff members and other key stakeholders, such as beneficiary organisations and consultants. In addition, a complex set of documents were studied, including proposals, strategic documents, minutes of meetings, and audiovisual material.

The main themes and factors, such as individuals, leadership, electronic and other management of the organisational memory, culture, including the importance of a vision and theory of change, policies and global developments are discussed using a temporal ecological framework.

The key findings of this study illustrate the importance of directories as part of the metamemory in accessing seemingly dormant organisational memories. The conclusion is that organisational memory survives after the demise of the organisation and that it is accessible through directories.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DECLARATION

I declare that "FORGETTING TO REMEMBER: ORGANISATIONAL MEMORY." is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Madri Stephani Jansen van Rensburg

28 February 2011

ABBREVIATIONS

CBO: Community-based organisation

CEO: Chief Executive Officer

IO: Intermediary organisation

IT: Information technology

MIS: Management information system

NGO: Non-governmental organisation

OM: Organisational memory

OMIS: Organisational memory information system

PSASA: Project Support Association Southern Africa

PSG: Project Support Group Southern Africa

RAANGO: Regional Association of AIDS NGOs

SADC: Southern African Development Community

STI: Sexually transmitted infections

UNAIDS: Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/Aids

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Inside the "daughter" library in Alexandria.

I stood there fascinated and totally in awe of the moment. I was standing on "the holy ground of knowledge". Here, in the same spot in the 3rd century BC, a library existed. It stood empty now. Its "mother", the Royal Library of Alexandria (the first known library of its kind), burned down and with it irreplaceable documents and manuscripts (papyrus scrolls). I was overcome with a deep sense of loss.

The modern library, "Bibliotheca Alexandrina".
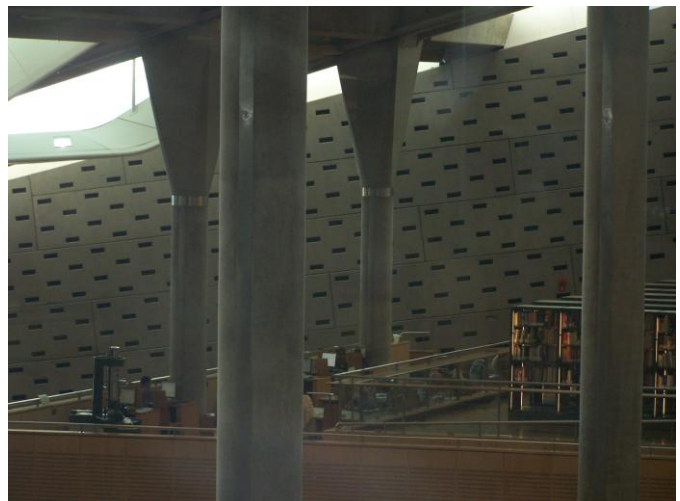
1.1 Forgetting to remember

One would expect that after the September 11th 2001 attack on the World Trade Centre, except for the loss of valuable human lives, valuable data would be lost, resulting in the closure of firms and companies. Organisations' most valuable and critical assets are human knowledge assets and data (Klay Management, 2004). The loss of data should have been considerable considering that more than 18 000 businesses were dislocated, disrupted or destroyed, mostly in the Twin Trade Centre complex (Makinen, 2002). However, in the New York financial hub, backups and off-site mirroring systems were in place as preparation for the expected Year 2000 computer glitch. Billing systems and document management systems were backed up, but most of the paper files were lost. "Like the lives lost the paper is irretrievable" (Leibowitz, 2001, p. 3). Likewise, the New York Fire Department lost 95 men (1 600 years of knowledge), yet five years later the knowledge loss was fully recovered (Girard, 2009).

It is probably true for organisations such as financial institutions and law firms to be able to have electronic data stored in multiple places and to retrieve data from paper copies sent to clients, and in doing so, to maintain the organisational memory (OM). Non-governmental organisations (NGOs), although sharing some characteristics with such organisations in general, are unique in that they are not working for profit and have stakeholders (and not shareholders or individual ownership). An NGO can basically be defined as "an organisation that does good" (Hilhorst, 2003, p. 7). NGOs have to be learning organisations and depend on their OM to enable them to learn and to improve service delivery to their beneficiaries (Britton, 2005; Coopey, 1995; Edwards & Fowler, 2002).

OM structure, function, maintenance and loss could be different for NGOs than other mainstream organisations, especially those functioning in developing countries and in situations where sophisticated electronic systems are not prevalent, and in particular with the current explosion in data volume (Klay Management, 2004).

South Africa's business history is an example of OM loss. The implementation of political affirmative action policies displaced veteran white employees with previously disadvantaged black appointees. This might have led to a loss of OM, which probably contributed to the fact that South Africa was listed as the most unproductive of 46 developing countries in 1997 (Institute for Management Development, 1997). South African organisations did not only suffer OM loss due to the withdrawal of individuals' organisational memories – South Africa also has relatively little business experience to learn from. This impacts on enterprising behaviour, which in turn feeds the dependency culture. Moeletsi Mbeki, and outspoken businessman, commented that black economic empowerment focussed on transferring equity rather than encouraging entrepreneurship (Mbanga, 2009).

In 2004, the unemployment rate was 27% (Statistics Southern Africa, 2004). In an attempt to curb the high unemployment rate, government resorted to massive public works programmes. Unfortunately these are mostly short-term programmes that also do not contribute to OM building or retaining (South African Treasury, 2003). There is also non-learning in that the "brain drain" damaged the OM and inexperienced new appointees have to relearn and reinvent what had been learned at great expense. It seems that South Africa has not only lost local experience; the African Renaissance also aspires to local solutions, but disregards learning from international lessons (Manning, 2002).

The most devastating effect of lack of experiential learning lies in the HIV crisis in Southern Africa. With a prevalence rate of 11% (18.3% reported by the 2007 Joint United Nations Programme on HIV and AIDS (UNAIDS)), and 5.4 million people living with HIV and AIDS in South Africa and a further 527 000 getting infected each year, it seems that learning is not taking place regarding preventative behaviour change or treatment options (Dorrington, Johnson, Bradshaw & Daniel, 2006). The lack of a fully functioning national monitoring plan indicates that lack of OM with its subsequent effect on learning and changing behaviour.

Transformation in organisations includes a loss of long-serving staff members. Current career trends include shorter periods of employment as employees change

jobs more often. This high staff turnover could result in loss of tacit OM. Group memory does not only lie in the information stored by the individual memories, but also in the "directories" held by the individuals that can identify the existence, location and means of retrieval of memory (Wegner, Erber & Raymond, 1991). Administrative staff members often carry OM related to networks and contacts. Cultural diversity amongst employees further influences the categorisation and labelling of information to be stored and retrieved (Anand, Manz & Glick, 1998).

Research on OM is important not only for critical incidents and disasters, but also to enable learning in organisations that will lead to more efficient decision-making. Learning organisations are organisations that base decisions on past experience (Huber, 1991; Senge, 2006). NGOs ideally should be learning organisations, as survival of an organisation depends on the memory of the organisation and its ability to access and use the OM.

1.2 Organisational memory

OM can be defined as "the means by which knowledge from the past is brought to bear on present activities, thus resulting in higher or lower levels of organisational effectiveness" (Stein, 1995, p. 22).

OM consists of both explicit (as expressed in policies and documents) and tacit (insight and skills embedded in individuals) memory (Connell, Klein & Powell, 2003). Categorising individual and social memory in organisations is another option (Corbett, 2000). Stein (1995) distinguishes four types of OM, combining explicit and tacit memory and individual and social memory. The four types are *conscious* (explicit individual), *automatic* (implicit individual), *objectified* (explicit social) and *collective* (implicit social) memory. Walsh and Ungson (1991, pp. 63-67) described OM as consisting of "five storage bins": individuals, organisational culture, processes of transformation, organisational structures (roles) and workplace ecology. Olivera (2000) added information technologies to these "storage bins".

In addition to structure, process is also important when studying OM. The different processes of OM include the acquisition, retention, retrieval and maintenance (prevention of loss and decay of OM) of information (Stein, 1995; Walsh & Ungson, 1991). Although OM was first seen as only contributing positively, Stein (1995) described memory as a possible constraint in organisational development and decision-making.

Different approaches to describe and use OM exist (Klein, Connell & Jasimuddin, 2007). The biological approach uses human memory as a metaphor for OM (Hall, 2005). The systems engineering approach describes knowledge flow, including software development that can lead to software "becoming the system" or "being part of the memory" (Beckett, 2000, p. 312). The current focus and application lies mostly in information technologies in automating and supporting OM to enhance organisational performance (Connell *et al.*, 2003; Corbett, 2000).

Organisational learning according to the social constructivist approach turns individual knowledge into organisational knowledge. This occurs through a process of externalisation from individual knowledge to group knowledge. The group internalises the knowledge and collectively accepts the organisational knowledge. Knowledge is spread through the organisation through memory (Jackson, 2007).

Systems theory has been used to describe OM by Olson (1979). He described memory as non-deterministic and process-orientated. Unfortunately his analysis did not contribute more to the systemic thinking regarding OM. An organisation could be seen as a complex system, with all the subsystems influencing each other and with interactions among all the individual parts. The relationship between the parts of the system is more important than the aspects contained in each part. The entire OM can also be considered to be larger than the individual parts, and OM exists to maintain the system. The memory as part of the organisational system (and a system in itself) functions within a context and is influenced by the environment (Becvar & Becvar, 1982). This study will attempt to describe and explore OM from the case being studied with systemic thinking as a theoretical approach.

Certain concepts are linked to OM (Britton, 2005). This study will only investigate the memory of the organisation and not the full knowledge management system of the organisation in which it is embedded. It is, however, important to define how these concepts are operationally defined in the present investigation:

- ***Organisational learning:*** Individual and collective learning in an organisational context that contributes to changed organisational behaviour. Organisational learning provides a purpose for the use of knowledge and is always context-specific and demand-led (Britton, 2005). Organisational learning includes collecting, absorbing and transforming knowledge into the OM.
- ***Knowledge management:*** The planned combination of management awareness, attitudes and practices, systems, tools and techniques designed to release the power of knowledge within organisations. It is the means to enable learning. It can be context independent and is usually supply driven (Britton, 2005).

The present investigation focuses on OM, and although learning and knowledge management are not included, it is important to consider the knowledge hierarchy as the use of memory to store data and the subsequent added value when data is transformed to wisdom (Britton, 2005). See Figure 1.1.
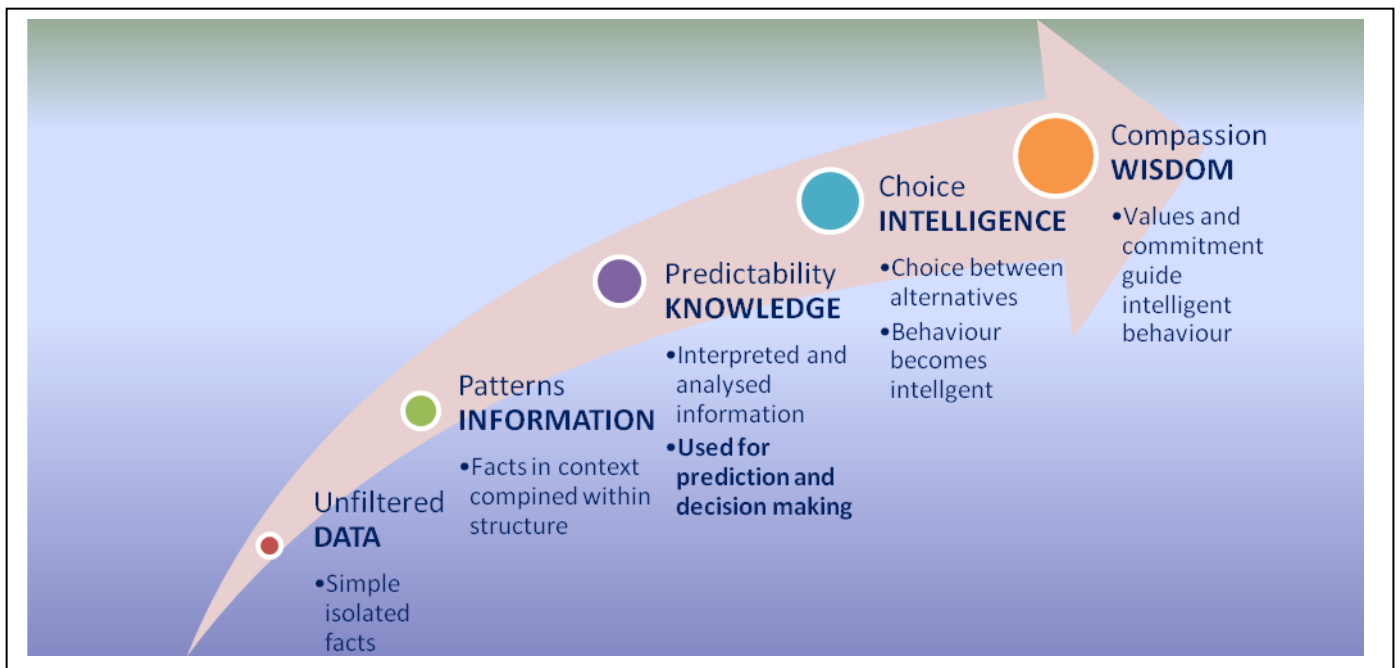
Figure 1.1: Knowledge hierarchy (based on Britton, 2005, p. 44)

1.3 Developmental phases and timing of events

Assumptions are made that memory exists in all organisations, regardless of their level of maturity (Beckett, 2000). In spite of a rigorous search, no research on differences in OM in organisations in different phases of organisational development (e.g. new/younger vs more mature organisations) could be found.

Research on OM either describes the structure of the memory or investigates the effects of critical incidents on the memory and the recovery of the memory (Klay Management, 2004). Studies on enhancing OM mostly focus on the development of software or management information systems (Hwang & Salvendy, 2005; Ji & Salvendy, 2004; Ward, 2007).

It is important to investigate the structure of OM in organisations that are in different phases of development, or an organisation that has completed all the phases. This temporal comparison of the OM enables investigation of changes in the memory (including the development and shift in location of the memory) through the life cycle of an organisation. It can reveal influences of the memory on organisational

development and the influence of the developmental phase of the organisation on the functionality of the memory.

In this case study the different phases to be investigated include those that are generally identified in the development of an NGO (Al-Talal, 2004; Edwards & Fowler, 2002). These phases include:

- start-up;
- expansion;
- consolidation, and
- close-out (partially or fully, with resulting setback or decline).

It should be noted that the expansion and consolidation phases do not necessarily follow a linear progression from one to the other and that the phases could be repeated and are mostly interlinked.

Placing and analysing the timing of events in the history of the organisation (different phases of development) and the influence of critical incidents on the organisation and its memory formed an integral part of the study. A temporal approach is crucial.

1.4 Research problem and objective

The problem that comes to mind is that if OM is an integral part of an organisation, could it be described as autopoietic? In other words, is OM self-creating and self-producing (Jackson, 2007)? This would imply that the memory serves to maintain the system that produces it. The individual components do not matter and can be replaced as long as the "network of processes of production" continues (Jackson, 2007, p. 79).

The following research questions arise:

- Where is the OM located?
- What is the influence (positive or negative) of OM?

- What influences (strengthens or weakens) the OM?
- What happens with an organisation with impaired or loss of memory?
- How does OM change through the NGO's developmental phases?
- How can OM be enhanced?

The objective of this research study is to describe the structure and influence of OM on organisational development and survival throughout its life cycle. It focuses on an NGO retrospectively in the close-out phase.

The investigation into OM is also relevant in practical aspects such as intellectual property rights and the use of OM in developing monitoring and evaluation systems. Monitoring and evaluation are crucial aspects of learning organisations and rely heavily on OM for decision-making. Understanding the structure of OM would contribute significantly to the development of monitoring and evaluation systems and measurement tools.

It is not only important to look at relationships within an OM – the context of the OM is also significant. This feedback (as supra-system) includes the industry, but also the wider economic environment and factors such as the stakeholder and beneficiary or client base (Stralinski, 2004). This necessitates a case study approach.

1.5 Methodology

This investigation is based on a single explanatory historical case study of OM in an organisation that has completed all the developmental phases, including start-up, expansion, consolidation and close-out (Al-Talal, 2004; Edwards & Fowler, 2002). The information gained and conclusions drawn will contribute to information for learning organisations and the use of OM in decision-making. A case study ensures an in-depth insight into the memory of the organisation (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2003).

The case that will be studied was a regional NGO working in HIV prevention and mitigation. Project Support Group Southern Africa (PSG) started in 1985 in association with the Department of Psychology of the University of Zimbabwe. It grew from a local (Zimbabwean) NGO to one working in nine Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries. PSG provided funding and technical support to 36 partner NGOs and community-based organisations (CBOs).

PSG closed down during 2008 due to a loss of donor funding. Using PSG to study OM provides a unique opportunity to study the impact of memory development and possible memory loss.

During the data collection phase, PSG was in the close-out stage of development. Information was gathered by making use of a multisource approach, including data sources such as:

- documentation;
- archival records;
- interviews (with current and past staff members, beneficiaries, donors and other stakeholders);
- direct observations (e.g. the hard copies and electronic copies of the explicit memory);
- participant observations (during board, management and staff meetings), and
- physical artefacts.

Explanation-building goes beyond the mere description of the case; it includes an analysis of "how" things happened, but excludes causality (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). A wide range of information sources will therefore be used, and it will be referenced against each other in order to develop a coherent understanding of what OM is and the role it played in the rise and decline of this organisation (PSG).

The main ethical consideration of the research topic is the cost of not doing the research. PSG has recognised the value of studying its memory loss. Even though the direct value or benefit to PSG was limited, they encouraged the study, which will

hopefully provide valuable information to similar organisations and their own beneficiary NGOs in nine SADC countries. It is expected that the study will contribute to the ultimate beneficiaries (the people benefitting from regional HIV NGO prevention and mitigation work) of PSG and other regional NGOs. Generalisation of results to all NGOs or other types of organisations will only be undertaken within the theoretical framework used in the current investigation (a systemic framework) (Neale, Thapa & Boyce, 2006).

1.6 Chapter layout

This thesis comprises the following chapters:

Chapter 1: An introduction to the field of research and the research topic, namely organisational memory (OM). The research objective is also stated, and key terms and the focus on OM in an NGO case study are defined.

Chapter 2: An evaluation of relevant literature and current debates around the structure of OM. A brief understanding of NGOs and their life cycle is also described.

Chapter 3: An overview of the relevant metaphors and theories used in describing OM. The main focus is on human memory as a metaphor and ecological systems theory.

Chapter 4: A description of the research design, methodology and tools used to collect and analyse data from a range of reflective viewpoints to gain a coherent understanding of OM in the relevant case study. Trustworthiness and ethical issues are also addressed.

Chapter 5: An outline of the different stages in the life cycle of Project Support Group Southern Africa, as well as a short summary of the body of knowledge. This

provides the timeline for the timing of the events and an opportunity to assess the memory.

Chapter 6: The OM (including the structure, functions and influences) is described according to the timing of the events and its influence on the memory of the organisation.

Chapter 7: A discussion of the main themes. The research conclusions and recommendations for further research are also provided.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The historical interest in memory

2.1.1 Human memory

The interest in human memory started when Aristotle believed that memory was "housed" somewhere. He considered the human brain the centre of thought processes, but believed that memory was situated in the heart (Minninger, 1995). This view is consistent with Chinese interpretations that used "remembering" and "memory" as ideograms for the heart (Minninger, 1995). Plato also referred to memory when he linked one memory image to another (Minninger, 1995).

Aristotle listed four types of associations that stimulate memory:
- close physical proximity (e.g. sea and shore);
- closeness in time (e.g. adolescence and acne);
- similarity (e.g. rollerblades and ice skates), and
- opposites/contrasts (e.g. rural vs urban settings) (Minninger, 1995).

James Weinland (in Minninger, 1995) added another four:
- cause and effect (e.g. fire and heat);
- parts and the whole (e.g. nose and face);
- detail and general (e.g. bee and insect), and
- numerical proximity (e.g. five and six).

St Augustine considered all these categories irrelevant. He believed that the only requirement is that ideas are active in the brain at the same time (one stimulates the

other), even if their relationship is highly unlikely (Minninger, 1995). This formed part of Pavlov's conditioning theory (Minninger, 1995).

Hermann Ebbinghaus (in Minninger, 1995) brought a scientific approach to memory in the 19th century. He undertook experiments and developed theories regarding memory loss. Frederick Bartlett (in Minninger, 1995) focussed more on associations in learning and how we impose meaning on what we observe and what we recall. He regarded Ebbinghaus' theory as too artificial and suggested that memories are based on new patterns being deposited on existing ones. Twentieth century developments included the division of memory into short- and long-term memory. Freud's suggestions on memory loss led the way for psychoanalysis, and his work on repression was important when considering memory loss or forgetting (Baddeley, 1998; Minninger, 1995).

2.1.2 Organisations: Learning and memory

2.1.2.1 Learning organisations

Any individual, social system or organisation needs memory to be "goal-seeking, self-steering and autonomous" (Deutsch, 1966, pp. 128-129; Feldman, 2004; Van der Bent, Paauwe & Williams, 1999). Deutsch listed three types of information needed for this:

- information about the world outside;
- information about the past (involving recall and recombination), and
- information about the organisation and its parts.

Decision-making is the most crucial managerial skill (Kransdorff, 2006; Kransdorff & Williams, 2000). This is only possible in learning organisations, which in turn depends on good OM (Paul, Haseman & Ramamurthy, 2004). Good decision-making depends on learning. For learning to occur (whether in humans or organisations), memory is crucial (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Miller, 1978). In general, memory can be defined as "a system capable of storing things perceived,

experienced or lived beyond the duration of the actual occurrence, and then retrieved at a later point in time" (Lehner & Maier, 2000, p. 283). One reason that decision-making is not optimal is because managers (and other individuals) are used to receiving information and not learning (acquiring information). This is partly because there was such a specialisation in types of learning: More than 30 types of learning have been described. People do not understand the basics of learning, or of OM (Kransdorff, 2006). The fact that knowledge is generated so fast and easily makes an understanding of OM even more important, as people tend to rely on the memory rather than generate new knowledge through learning.

Although many types of learning have been described, the main types of learning in organisations include involuntary and planned learning (Kransdorff, 2006). Huber (1991) also stated that learning needs not be conscious or intentional.

Learning types that are used in organisational contexts include:
- Involuntary learning:
    - Unconscious learning, which is intuitive and random. It is very commonly used, but seldom recognised.
    - Incidental learning, which happens after unexpected incidences. Justifications or rationalisations occur after pondering an occurrence. It is also mostly unrecognised.
- Planned learning:
    - Reflective learning focuses on self-discovery in cultural, historical and social implications.
        - Proactive learning is not common in industry, but in the NGO sector it is used in formal and informal evaluations. Case studies, reviews and post-mortems fall in this category.
        - Defensive learning is when reflective learning takes place, but only after an event occurred.
    - Action learning is a type of reflective learning that is facilitated. Problem-solving is very important in this type of learning.
    - Cognitive approaches also use problem-solving, but try to create coherent and systematic representations of complex problems.

- o Prospective learning is the most effective to avoid repeated mistakes (and improve on successes). It includes retrospective and proactive aspects and tries to learn before an experience takes place or is repeated.

All these types of learning are forms of experiential learning. In experiential learning, an experience is a starting point. It further emphasises that experiences can lead to improved success or failures (Kransdorff, 2006). Huber (1991) argued that learning does not necessarily lead to observable changes in behaviour; it only needs to improve the range of possible or potential behaviours.

OM is important for all types of learning, whether unintentional or planned. Learning does not only depend on the memory, but also actively contributes to the memory.

Huber (1991) found four constructs crucial for organisational learning: 1) knowledge acquisition; 2) information distribution; 3) information interpretation, and 4) organisational memory. Kransdorff (2006, p. 7) listed different modes of acquiring knowledge: 1) accidental; 2) innovative ("the geniuses at work", and it is usually rare); 3) incremental ("building experience on other experiences"), and 4) entrepreneurial/enterprising (necessary and generated out of experience). Lien, Hung and McLean (2007) found that the five most important aspects to implement organisational learning is: 1) the use of language that is familiar; 2) implementing concepts that are congruent with employees' work and personal life; 3) putting individual learning first and then diffusing it to teams and the organisation, and 4) linking the organisational strategy to organisational learning.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the development of systems as concepts of learning that build on each other (Lehner & Maier, 2000). It is clear that OM is linked to higher levels of the knowledge hierarchy as described in Chapter 1 (p. 6) and illustrated in Figure 1.1 (Britton, 2005). Data is mostly regarded as simple facts; information is data combined into meaningful structures, and knowledge is information that is put into a context and used for predictions (Britton, 2005; Tuomi, 2000).
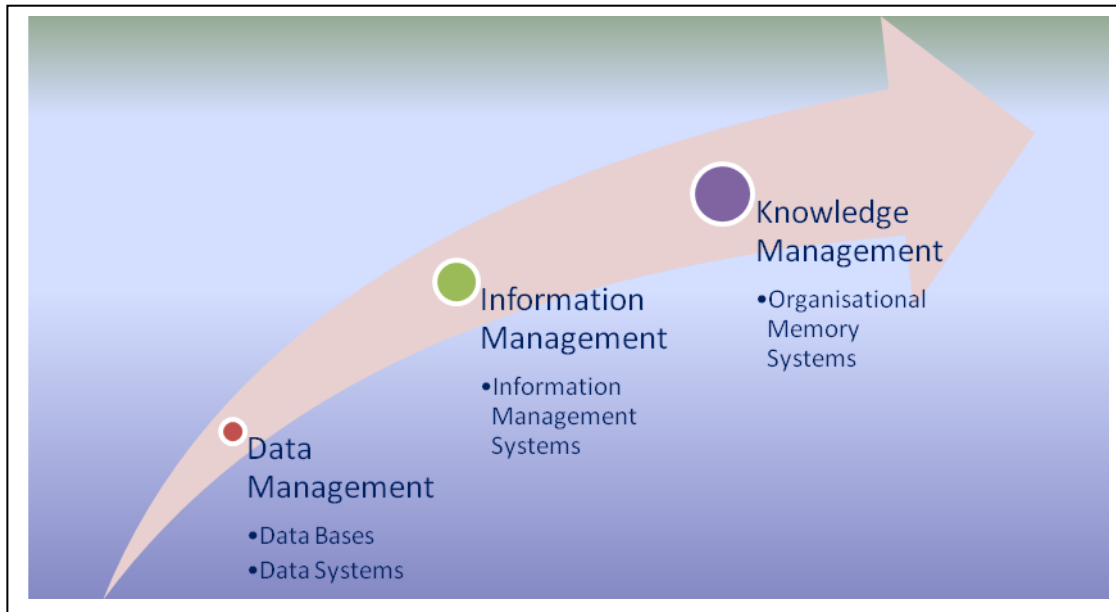
Figure 2.1: Systems in handling data, information and knowledge (adapted from Britton, 2005)

There is much overlap between OM, organisational learning and knowledge management, as is illustrated in Figure 2.2. Even a forum developed to enhance the sharing of research on OM and OM systems acknowledged the interrelatedness of these concepts and broadened the field to include all three aspects (Hanson, 2001; Morrison & Olfman, 2000). OM is a necessity for organisational learning (Conklin, 1996b). The present investigation focuses on the OM, although aspects of organisational learning and knowledge management necessarily form part of some discussions.
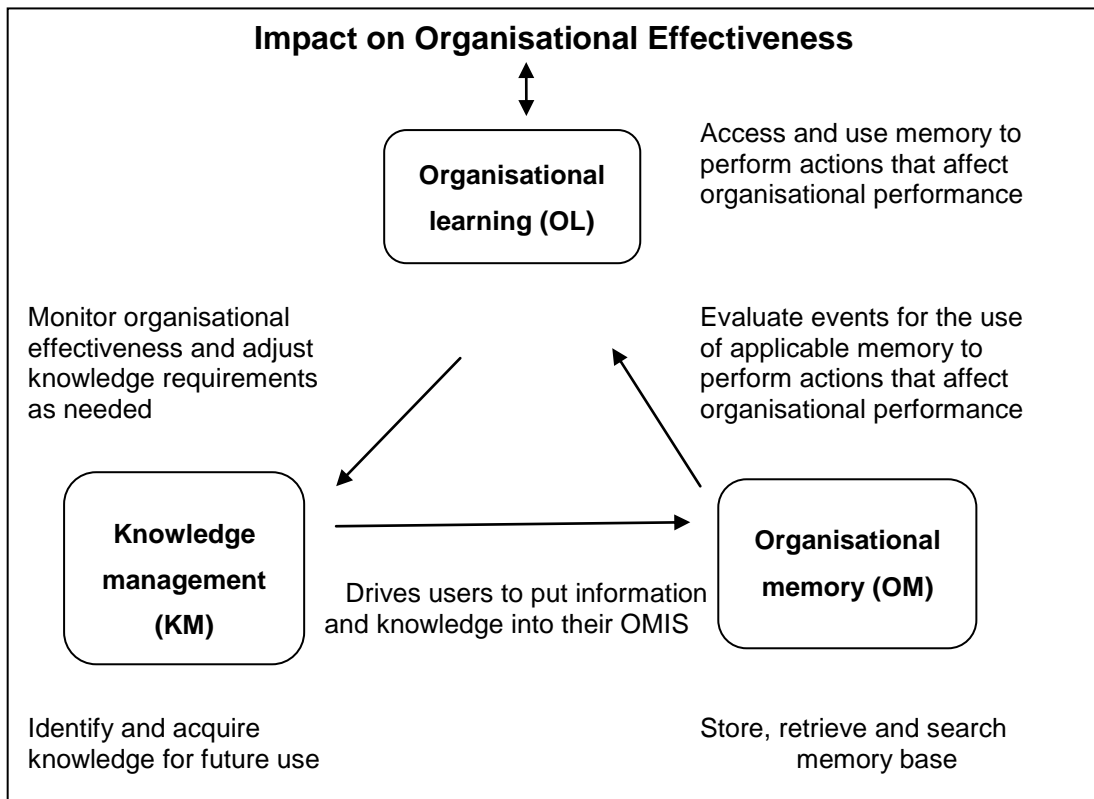
Figure 2.2: The KM-OM Model (adapted from Jennex, 2000)

2.1.2.2 Definitions

Taking into consideration the previous discussion on the levels of the knowledge hierarchy, it is also important for the present investigation to operationally define the differences between data, information and knowledge, and the systems associated with each (as illustrated in Figures 1.1 and 2.1).

Data is the unfiltered basic facts and the simplest unit. Data are managed by the use of databases and data systems (Jennex, 2000; Spender, 1996).

Information is data (facts) that forms patterns in a specific context. Management information systems are used to manage information (Jennex, 2000; Spender, 1996).

Knowledge is information that is used to make decisions and predictions through interpreting and analysing information. Davenport and Prusak (1998, p. 5) define knowledge as "a fluid mix of framed experiences, values, contextual information, expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information". According to Conklin (1996a, p1), "knowledge is the key asset of a knowledge organisation. Organisational memory extends and amplifies this asset by capturing, organising, disseminating and reusing the knowledge created by its employees".

Knowledge management is one of the important strategies used in corporations. It allows better decision-making, faster turnaround times, improved communication, and co-operation between staff. (Danskin, Englis, Solomon, Goldsmith & Davey, 2005; Schwartz, Divitini & Brasethvik; 2000). Knowledge management and OM together aim to ensure the effective use of existing knowledge and to create conditions for creating new knowledge. OM provides the basis, and knowledge management deals with the processes that nurture the overall flow of knowledge (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). "Knowledge management is concerned with capturing and identifying knowledge, organising it and distributing and accessing the knowledge" (Schwartz *et al.*, 2000, p. 123).

A **learning organisation** is an organisation that consciously established an environment to promote learning throughout the workplace (Senge, 2006). This includes where people continually expand their capacity to create results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to live together (Senge, 2006).

As **organisational memory** is a concept studied and used in many different disciplines (including business management, psychology and information technology) and different industries (including healthcare and law), various definitions and viewpoints of OM exist (Lehner & Maier, 2000; Morrison & Olfman, 2000; Ward, 2007). Due to this nature, OM is also seen as a type of social memory. Krippendorff's (1975, p. 17) definition of social memory resonates with OM: "Social

memory then is a form of explanation of behaviour which is reducible neither to the psychological processes of organic memories nor to the technical processes of artificially designed mechanisms. Social memory explains history determined behaviour by reference to the structural features of society." The importance of this definition is the emphasis it places on relationships and the function of the structure of the (social) system (Stein, 1989).

Covington (1985) developed the first operational definition of OM in a study of presidential agencies. He defined OM conceptually as "information acquired by one agency member and shared with others who use it" (Covington, 1985, p. 172). His operation definition was stated as "the frequency of which and the content of communications through natural or artificial means between newcomers and their predecessors or other veterans" (Covington, 1981, p. 28).

Other authors define OM similarly. According to Van Heijst, Van der Spek and Kruizinga (1998) OM is the explicit, intangible, persistent representation of the information and knowledge in an organisation. Organisational memory is a combination of abstract and concrete where the concrete is the history and trend data collected in the memory and the abstract is the experience gained by the OM over time (Jennex, 2000).

From an information technology perspective, OM is seen as cumulative value adding components (Lytras, Pouloudi & Poulymenakou, 2002). Walsh and Ungson (1991) defined OM as stored information from an organisation's history that can be brought to bear on present decisions. For the purposes of this study, OM is defined as "the means by which knowledge from the past is brought to bear on present activities, thus resulting in higher or lower levels of organisational effectiveness" (Stein, 1995, p. 22).

It is important to note that the memory, although consisting of structures and containing certain classifications (e.g. tacit and explicit and formal and informal parts), serves functions such as incorporating lessons learned and problem-solving (Ackerman & McDonald, 2000). OM should not only store information, but also the

meaning of the information, i.e. knowledge (Hamidi & Jusoff, 2009). OM is also very important to share objectives and to co-ordinate individual actions (Landoli & Zollo, 2008). OM is therefore not only a static structural entity.

Burn and Ash (2000) and Schwartz *et al.* (2000) argue that there is a distinct difference between the OM (that sits within individuals) and the organisational memory information system (OMIS) (a computational form that captures part of the knowledge). The OM captures the knowledge of the organisation, while the information system makes part of the knowledge available or provides a directory of where it can be accessed.

2.2 Organisational memory

Stein (1989) asks the important question whether memory is structure or process. In this study the memory is described as structure, process and patterns (Stein, 1989). It is important to consider and investigate the location and structure of the OM, and the processes and factors influencing the strengthening (enhanced remembering) or weakening thereof (memory loss).

Various challenges are relevant to OM:
- There are multiple formats (paper, electronic, mind and collective) and multimedia (e.g. texts, graphics, tables, audios, photos and DVDs), and even in different formats (e.g. PDF and MS) (De Hoog, Benus, Metselaar, Vogler & Menezes, 1994; Schwartz *et al.*, 2000).
- Multiple views of knowledge include products, processes, clients, strategies, results (including financial), plans and goals (visions). Different individuals, groups and departments may need different types of access (Prasad & Plaza, 1996; Schwartz *et al.*, 2000).
- Multiple sources and destinations of information need to be accessible (even from out of office or in multinational offices), yet it is spread over people, shelves, filing cabinets, desks, hard and soft computer discs.

- User adequacy, which is the biggest issue: ease of use, ease of info retrieval, adequacy of retrieved info, confidence in the info, applicability to the user's activity (Dieng, Corby, Giboin & Ribière, 1998). Fisher, Ostwald and Stahl (1997) state two barriers to capturing information:
  - o Individuals must perceive a large direct benefit for contributing to the OM (more than the effort).
  - o The effort must be minimal and not interfere with the normal work.

The system must use flow of information that is already happening and not be overwhelmed by information, as is discussed further on in this chapter as part of information anxiety (Conklin, 1996a; Kühn & Abecker, 1997).

2.2.1 The location and structure of organisational memory

Although the human brain is used as a metaphor in describing OM it is crucial to understand that OM is not structurally analogous to a "brain" in the sense that it can be accessed in the same way. OM is accessible through, among others, the organisation's employees, records and software applications (Lehner & Maier, 2000).

The structure of OM has been described by various authors, as will be discussed in this section, but the location of the memory seems to be more unspecified. It is generally accepted that OM has a decentralised nature and that it is distributed throughout the organisation (Lehner & Maier, 2000; Walsh & Ungson, 1991). Locating different aspects of the memory is less well defined in the literature and therefore more difficult. In this study an attempt is made to locate the different components of the memory for the case described.

Already early in the study and description of OM it was recognised that there are various components of OM. Miller (1978) described OM as containing human and non-human components (the latter called "artefacts"). He also mentioned that memory can exist outside the organisation. Weick (1979) listed the main components as people, rules, files and computers. Morgan and Root (1979) included

procedures, manuals and databases. Walsh and Ungson (1991) described OM as consisting of five storage containers ("bins"), namely individuals, organisational culture, processes of transformation, organisational structures (roles) and workplace ecology. This description by Walsh and Ungson became, and still is, the most commonly used description of the structure of OM:

- **Individuals**: Individual memories exist in each employee concerning their experiences and observations. Information is stored directly and in principles, values, assumptions, etc. Technology (e.g. databases) is used to expand the individual capacity. Moving between individual and collective memory and the challenges it poses for OM are described in section 2.3.4.

- **Culture**: In this model, culture is narrowly defined as "a learned way of perceiving, thinking and feeling about problems that are transmitted to members of the organisation" (Lehner & Maier, 2000, p. 287). This implies that past experiences manifest in the organisational culture, especially regarding decision-making. Language, symbols, stories, rumours, myths and other manifestations of culture add to the collective information.

- **Transformations**: The organisational processes contain the OM. Past events influence the procedures and decisions of the present. Especially administrative systems embody and preserve the OM.

- **Structures**: Structures influence the behaviour of employees and are a connection to the environment. Information is coded in roles, which direct behaviour (linked to conformity) and makes it more predictable. Social roles allow patterns to develop, and this influences the distribution of work and the structure of the organisation.

- **Ecology**: The physical workplace and environment contains coded information about the organisation. For example, aspects such as office space reflect the status of the employees. The norms and behavioural patterns resulting from this reflect OM.

- **External archives**: The OM is also located in places outside the organisation. Information of the past is kept in other organisations and can be recovered from these sources. These sources include past employees, consultants, competitors, advertising agencies, accounting firms, government agencies,

and in the case of NGOs, donor organisations and partner and implementing organisations.

Olivera (2000) added information technologies to the five storage bins. This is part of the system and in this study named organisational memory information systems (OMISs) (Beckett, 2000; Hwang & Salvendy, 2005; Ji & Salvendy, 2004; Klein *et al.*, 2007). An OMIS needs to be complemented by organisation level processes related to the whole OM (Anand *et al.*, 1998). There also needs to be a distinction between record keeping systems and information systems, as these are often confused or used as synonyms (McGovern & Samuels, 1998).

As stated earlier, OM consists of both explicit (as expressed in policies and documents) and tacit (insight and skills embedded in individuals) memory (Connell *et al.*, 2003; Klein *et al.*, 2007). OM can also be divided into procedural memory (skills knowledge) and declarative memory (fact knowledge), which both influence organisational outcomes (Moorman & Miner, 1998).

Categorising individual and social memory in organisations is another option (Corbett, 2000). Stein (1996) distinguishes four types of OM, combining explicit and tacit memory and individual and social memory. These types are *conscious* (explicit individual), *automatic* (implicit individual), *objectified* (explicit social) and *collective* (implicit social) memory (Klein *et al.*, 2007).

Stein and Zwass (1995) suggested that OM contains two different types of information:
- semantic information, including manuals, standing orders, processes, procedures and industry-specific knowledge, and
- episodic information, including records of knowledge on events or situations that are context-specific and resulting from modifications to semantic information.

According to Jennex (2000), OM can include the record of an organisation embodied in a set of documents and artefacts; everything contained in an organisation that is

somehow retrievable, and a collection of shared and stored understandings and beliefs forming a basis for organisational sense-making and social construction of reality.

According to Wegner (1986), Wegner *et al.* (1991) and Wexler (2002), transactional theory implies that it is not possible to locate OM, and that it is located in personal relationships that produce, preserve and adapt to social systems. Knowledge management is crucial to OM being accessible (Choy, Lee, Lau & Choy, 2005; Randall, Hughes, O'Brien, Rouncefield & Tolmie, 2001).

In systems theory it is difficult to separate OM into aspects such as tacit and explicit distinctions. A cybernetic approach proposes that knowledge is a holistic system property (Connell *et al.*, 2003). The implications of this is that OM is not isolated from the environment, that it cannot be transferred by "lifting it from its owner" and placed in a new location, and that processes are very important in that knowledge is embedded in it and not merely a separate entity (Ward, 2007). Knowledge is meaningless without mechanisms. For example, it is better for someone to experience the mechanisms (in the appropriate environment) of riding a bicycle than to be explained the theory and all the information regarding balance.

2.2.2 Organisational memory process

One of the key aspects studied in OM is the importance of remembering (Feldman & Feldman, 2006; Kruse, 2003), especially when decision-making or organisational change is needed (Meyer & Botha, 2004; Van der Bent *et al.*, 1999). In individuals, remembering involves transformation and reconstruction, while in organisations memory is based on the success of past events. The memory influence systems, structures and routines are difficult to change. Another aspect is that remembering is also based on perceived value for the future (Girard, 2009). According to Van der Bent *et al.* (1999), the following is important in remembering: learning depends on remembering; related events are more likely to impact on memory; memory and

learning are easier when events are more vivid, and factors and events perceived as more important are remembered more easily.

In addition to structure, process is also important when studying OM. Organisational performance mostly depends more on the ability to turn knowledge into effective actions rather than on the knowledge itself (Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Cross & Baird, 2000; Malhotra & Galletta, 2003; Zhang, Tian & Qi, 2006). Early descriptions of OM processes were linked to the metaphor of human memory and included coding, storage and retrieval (Miller, 1978).

Organisational memory processes include acquisition, retention, storage, search, recall, retrieval and maintenance of information (Stein, 1995; Walsh & Ungson, 1991).

Members come and go and leadership changes, but organisational memories
preserve certain behaviours, mental maps, norms and values over time
(Hedberg, 1981, p. 6).

Kransdorff (2006) identified different types (ages) of OM:
- short-term OM (lasts up to 5 years), and
- medium-term OM (lasts up to 10 years), both more relevant for operations, and
- long-term OM (lasts longer than 10 years), more related to strategy and culture.

Hamidi and Jusoff (2009) suggested five success factors to measure OMISs that can also be useful in the overall measurement and diagnosis of the OM status. These are: system quality, information quality, success in usage, individual impact, and organisational impact.

Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) and Beckett (2000) used a matrix to classify different OM processes, including transfer of knowledge between tacit and explicit memory

types. The four processes – socialisation, externalisation, internalisation and combination – with their outcomes are explained in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 OM processes for knowledge transfer

Descriptors	From/To	Tacit knowledge	Explicit knowledge
Knowledge gained from experience Simultaneous (here and now)	Tacit knowledge	Process: socialisation Outcome: sympathised knowledge	Process: externalisation Outcome: conceptual knowledge
Knowledge gained from rationality and reasoning Sequential (there and then)	Explicit knowledge	Process: internalisation Outcome: operational knowledge	Process: combination Outcome: systemic knowledge

Another method that can be employed to share knowledge from OM that is applicable to the African context specifically is narratives (Connell, Klein & Meyer, 2004; Frank, 1999; Linde, 1999). These authors suggested the following motives for organisational story use: education, effect, enrichment and entertainment (see Table 2.2). A corporate museum that stores and displays the history of the organisation is important not only to build identity but also to store OM (Nissley & Casey, 2002).

Table 2.2: Motives for organisational story use

	Selection of story audience	
Control of story content	Story directed at the needs of particular people	People selected who would benefit from story
Specific meaning or message	Education	Effect
No specific meaning or message	Enrichment	Entertainment

Roth and Kleiner (1998) suggested a six-step model to enhance OM: planning, reflective interviews, distillation, writing, validation and dissemination.

2.2.3 Memory loss and forgetting

With the boom in OM investigations in the late 1970s, the studies also included problems businesses were facing, including having too much information to be processed and memory loss (Girard & Allison, 2009; Henderson, 1996; Klein *et al.*, 2007; Morgan & Root, 1979).

It seems that memory loss is more prominent in organisations than individuals. The cost of duplicating information (from more than one individual in an organisation) is also much higher. This led to the investment in computer systems for organisations. Efforts were made to increase the availability of information (Morgan & Root, 1979).

A high staff turnover and repeating unnecessary processes of learning (due to the lack of OM management) can also lead to "corporate amnesia" (Hamidi & Jusoff, 2009, p. 142; Kransdorff, 1998). Succession planning (both technical and management) is important to ensure OM stays intact (Rothwell & Poduch, 2004; Scalzo, 2006).

Memory loss due to a lack of "sleep" and therefore a loss of memory processing were described by Schoeneborn and Blaschke (2009, p. 2). Sleep plays an important role in the processing of memory in an individual as it consolidates experiences. The authors illustrate sleep-wake cycles of organisational communication and the influence of this on "health sleep organisations" and "insomniac" organisations. The main application of this for the present investigation is the importance of reflection. It seems that regular periods of "withdrawal from the organisation's environment" can be used for "self-referential and imaginative reflection on future decision structures, processes, and routine based on experience of the past" (Schoeneborn & Blaschke, 2009, pp. 9-10). Reflection is an important activity in fast evolving organisations (Roth & Kleiner, 1998; Sauvagnac & Falzon, 2003; Sparrow, 1999).

On the other hand, on a par with remembering, forgetting is seen as the most important function of memory. Organisations would be overwhelmed by their own history and documentation that has become redundant. The dynamics of

remembering and forgetting allow evolution where learning and unlearning is equally important (Akgün, Byrne, Lynn & Keskin, 2007; Hedberg, 1981; Henderson, 1996; Schoeneborn & Blaschke, 2009).

Forgetting is an important part of the OM process. If we consider the learning organisation, some information captured does not stay in the memory. See Figure 2.3.
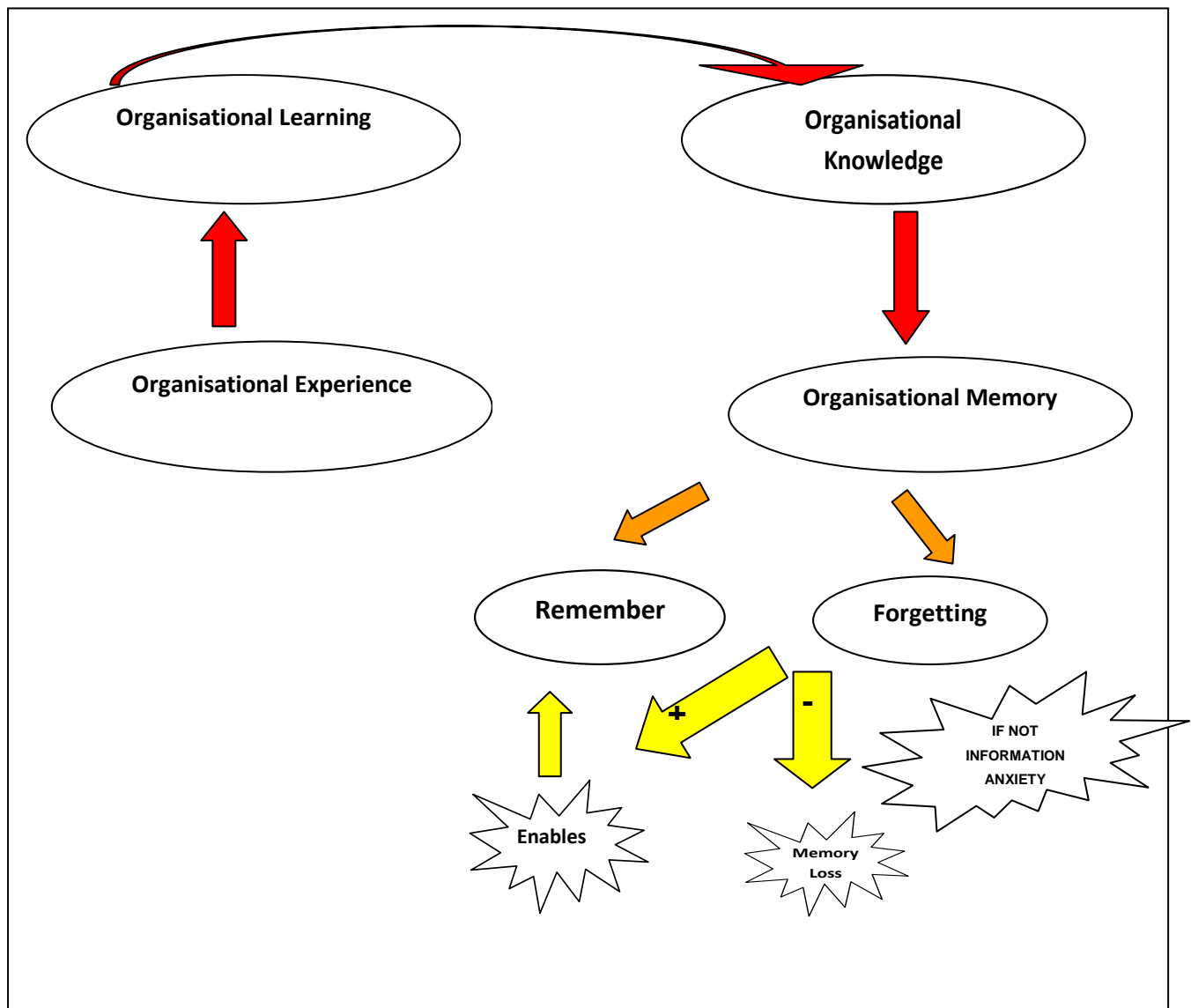
Figure 2.3: Forgetting as part of the OM process

According to De Holan and his co-workers (De Holan & Phillips, 2004; De Holan, Phillips & Lawrence, 2004), forgetting can be due to knowledge being 1) lost, 2) removed on purpose, or 3) deteriorated. It can also be purposeful or accidental. All of these have important implications for OM and OM management and organisational learning and management in general (Ward, 2007). In accidental memory loss, mistakes or failures of the organisation will be repeated and successes repeated without learning (De Holan & Phillips, 2004; De Holan *et al.*, 2004; Krippendorff, 1975). Purposeful forgetting is also important as it aids unlearning and allows the organisation to adapt to change. Considering the last situation (purposeful forgetting), forgetting can be defined as stopping activities or structural features of the organisation. Unlearning is to abandon practices (or strategies) that were dominant, but are blocking new learning (De Holan & Phillips, 2004; De Holan *et al.*, 2004; Miller, 1990, 1994). In general, forgetting is defined as: "Loss, voluntary or otherwise, of organisational knowledge" (De Holan & Phillips, 2004, p. 1606).

The matrix depicted in Table 2.3 shows the different categories of forgetting according to De Holan and his co-workers (De Holan & Phillips, 2004; De Holan *et al.*, 2004):

- Accidental forgetting of new information. According to Girard (2009), this is a failure to capture new information.
- Accidental forgetting of established or existing knowledge. According to Girard (2009) this is a type of decay of memory.
- Purposeful (or intentional) forgetting of new knowledge. Not sharing information due to lack of motivation is an example of this type of forgetting.
- Purposeful forgetting of established knowledge. An example can include deliberately deleting electronic files and sharing "false" memory (Kransdorff, 2006).

The last two categories are important for the management of forgetting (i.e. unlearning) in organisations (and to prevent information anxiety due to information overload), while the first two are important to be managed to prevent memory loss.

The ultimate goal should be to ensure that critical knowledge is maintained for next generations (Girard, 2009).

Table 2.3: Modes of organisational forgetting (De Holan *et al.*, 2004)

	New knowledge	**Established knowledge**
Accidental	Failure to consolidate DISSIPATION	Failure to maintain DEGRADATION
Purposeful	Abandoned innovations SUSPENSION	Managed unlearning PURGING

Girard and Allison (2009) found that an overload of information is one of the main causes of anxiety (related to business) experienced by middle managers. They found that 43% of the managers reported delaying decisions because of information overload. Not being able to find information was reported by 38% as a reason for wasting time and delaying decisions.

According to Wurman (1989), five components of information anxiety exist:
- not understanding information;
- feeling overwhelmed by the amount of information;
- not knowing if certain information exists;
- not knowing where to find information, and
- knowing where to find information, but unable to access it.

It seems that the last category is the most important, and also the most frequently included in other theories (Girard, 2009). The importance of information directories (and metamemory) is emphasised by this finding.

Girard (2009) also uses the term enterprise dementia when information anxiety and OM loss occur at the same time. This mostly occurs in organisations that are downsizing, reorganising, or are undergoing human or structural changes. This is important when considering the effect of timing of events and the normal life cycle of an organisation (Rusaw, 2005).

2.3 Important factors influencing organisational memory

Factors that could affect the development of an OM include those that hinder the transmission of information (Covington, 1985):

- staff turnover;
- record-keeping regulations;
- veteran-newcomer co-operation;
- goal compatibility;
- job routine, and
- recruitment control.

It seems that organisations in more stable environments (rather than turbulent) are more likely to have extensive memories (Covington, 1981). Unpredictable environments make it even more challenging (Levinthal & March, 1993).

It is important to consider some aspects mentioned in more detail, especially since this investigation considers OM as a combination of different expert systems and disciplines. It is a cognitive system that combines aspects of both technological and social nature (e.g. cultural myths, legends, personal memories, databases and files) (Stein, 1989).

2.3.1 The influence of organisational culture

Authors agree that organisational culture plays a major part in learning organisations, especially linking past experiences with decision-making (Berthon, Pitt & Ewing, 2001; Brown, Middleton & Lightfoot, 2001; Girard, 2009; Harré, 2001; Lehner & Maier, 2000; Spender, 1996; Walsh & Ungson, 1991). Stein (1989, p. xx) defines culture (related to OM) as "a feature of organisational life that co-determines its present and future via myths, stories and legends". Culture further encodes values and ethics. Culture can actually be a storage mechanism. The manifestations of culture (including language, common conceptions, symbols, stories, myths and rumours) are passed on through organisational "generations", resulting in some information being lost and enabling new interpretations. Knowledge is changed by social practices, but OM can also act as a record of cultural changes (Gibbons, Bali & Wickramasinghe, 2010).

2.3.2 The Influence of the individual

An important factor that influences the development and maintenance of OM is the individuals in the system (organisation). Sophisticated computer systems and information management systems have been developed, but many of these projects fail due to lack of commitment and motivation of individuals to contribute to OM and to create, share and use knowledge (Davenport, De Long & De Beers, 1998; Malhotra & Galletta, 2003; Ward, 2007; Weinberger, Te'eni & Frank, 2008).

Often the assumption is made that people not only have the capability but also the willingness to contribute to OM by sharing knowledge (Alavi & Leidner, 2001). Incentives for knowledge-sharing do not seem to motivate employees (organisational members). Employees who do not contribute to OM, however, often share knowledge on external online communities (Malhotra & Galletta, 2003). Knowledge-sharing (including contributing to the OM and using it) fails if individuals are not

motivated to contribute to it and if the organisational culture does not support knowledge-sharing (Orlikowski, 1992; Schwartz *et al.*, 2000; Ward, 2007).

Another important consideration regarding commitment and motivation is that it changes over time, not only for the individual (even in long-term employment), but also for the organisation, as individuals' motivation to share knowledge changes and fluctuates (Malhotra & Galletta, 2003).

Relationships are important in knowledge transfer and OM. Levin and Cross (2004) theorised about the influence of trust in relationships and the influence it has on knowledge transfer. They found that strong ties are correlated to receipt of useful information (if mediated by competence and benevolence-based trust). It was also clear that weak ties are correlated to access to novel information. These types of ties are seen as cheaper to maintain and are more diffused. It is especially important in sharing explicit information. Strong ties are more available, yet require more investment. Tacit knowledge-sharing is related to competence-based trust.

2.3.3 Language and communication as an expression of memory

Language is one of the expressions of culture that is linked to and houses the OM. Language and communication are also expressions of the values and norms and the unique characteristics of the organisation and its OM (Castor, 2005; Cooren & Fairhurst, 2005; Taylor & Van Every, 2000).

As Krippendorff (1975) suggested, communication can transfer parts of the memory that are not available to the individual transferring it, but still contribute to and contain the OM. Behavioural memory includes non-verbal gestures and motions that can convey very strong, complex and long-term messages. Behaviour is a very effective form of memory that can be read and interpreted (Krippendorff, 1975; Stein, 1989).

2.3.4 Individual and collective organisational memory

Although the OM process includes aspects of incorporating individual memory in the OM (that can be considered a collective memory) it is very important to describe the transfer of individual memory to collective memory (Stein, 1989). This is even more important in a study involving consulting psychology, as this discipline involves dealing with organisations and relationships in the organisations.

According to Pautzke and Kirsch (in Lehner & Maier, 2000), three strategies are used to transfer individual knowledge to the organisation (as illustrated in Figure 2.4):

- An employee shares his knowledge implicitly by participating in decision-making. This leads to memory loss with each employee leaving the organisation.
- Individual knowledge can be shared between several employees (e.g. through group discussions) if employees are willing to share.
- Individual knowledge can be stored through formal processes such as procedures and rules. Documentation plays a large role. Informal information is difficult to capture in this manner.
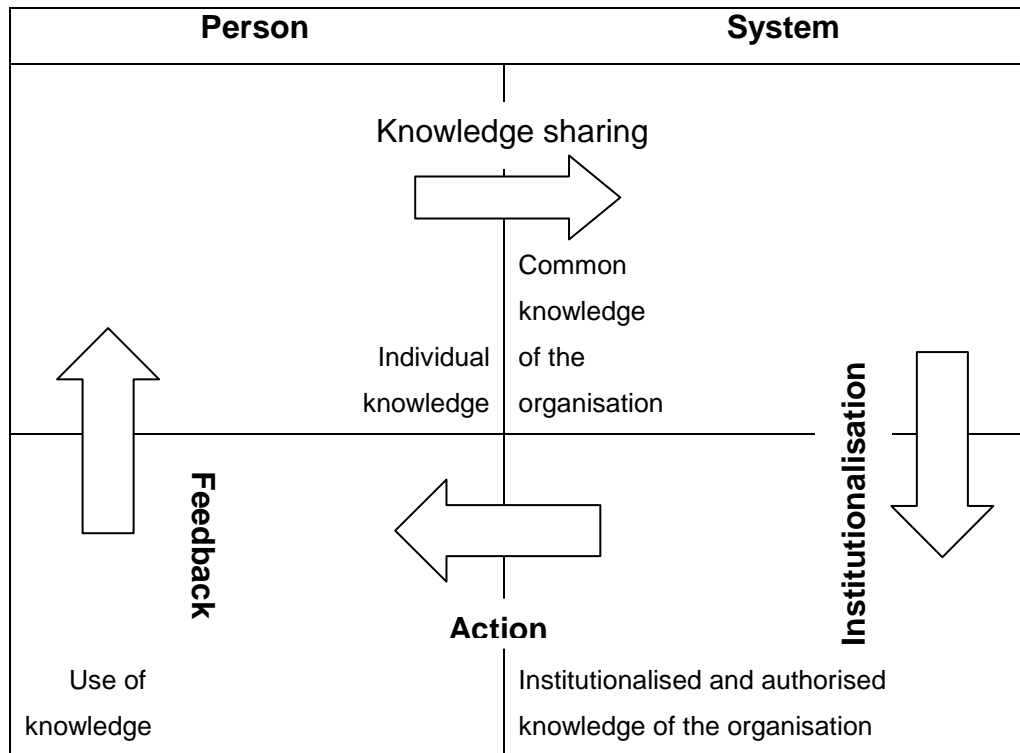
Figure 2.4: Organisational learning (Müller-Stewens & Pautzke, 1996, p. 195)

Similarly, three different types of relationships allow transactional memory (Lehner & Maier, 2000):

- Type 1: Information exchange between groups (organisational level).
- Type 2: Information exchange between the group and an individual.
- Type 3: Information exchange between members of groups.

Transactional or transactive memory describes how individuals in a group decide what information should be stored (Wegner, 1986; Wegner *et al.*, 1991). This is undertaken through analysis and interpretation of its relevance. The other steps in the process are also done through transactions between individuals, with communication being a very strong aspect in recall. According to Lehner and Maier (2000), the longer a group exists, the better the memory, possibly due to the increased understanding of who in the group is an expert in which aspect. However, without the formal distribution of the responsibility of coding, storage and recall and the willingness of members to assume the roles, the memory is weakened.

The relationships can be uni- or bidirectional, formal or informal, personal or electronic, in close or distant proximity. With sophisticated communication systems, transactional memory can be very complex to analyse (Lehner & Maier, 2000).

In addition to communication and relationships, the following factors could cause inaccessible organisational or group knowledge (Güldenberg & Eschenbach, 1996):

- fear of change (and loosing position) due to information-sharing;
- the inability to recognise the relevance of individual knowledge to the organisation;
- power struggles (and deliberately withholding information);
- lack of willingness to document knowledge;
- lack of ability to present knowledge in optimal form, and
- poor management of organisational knowledge.

2.3.5 The influence of technology in the 21st century

Sophisticated computer systems are constantly being developed to enhance the organisation. Computer systems such as Answer Garden, Cafe ConstructionKit, PreSERVe and the Collaborative Refinery attempt to incorporate communication flow into OM and to refine informal information (Ackerman, 1994; Ackerman & McDonald, 2000; Coffey & Hoffman, 2003). This does not necessarily help the individual. For example, an increase in information available to a manager does not enhance OM (Morgan & Root, 1979). The system would be "accessed by individuals, but designed to maximise the objectives of the organisation as an entity" (Morgan & Root, 1979, p. 5). Technology can assist in making information available, but it makes it more difficult to organise, describe and classify the information for later retrieval (Schwartz *et al.*, 2000).

According to Ackerman and McDonald (1996) and Hamidi and Jusoff (2009), information technology (IT) contributes to OM in two ways: by making the knowledge in the OM accessible to organisational members, and by making individuals with

knowledge known. OMISs are systems (mostly IT-based) that assist in the management of OM in the same way as management information systems assist in information management. Jennex (1997) includes three forms of OMIS: paper documents, computer documents, and self-memory. These systems exclude the interpretation of memory and are basic documentation of historical events rather than knowledge contained in the memory. It might reflect only a portion of the OM.

According to a number of authors (Li & Lai, 2005; Morgan & Root, 1979; Nilakanta, Miller & Zhu, 2006), the benefits associated with incorporating computerised systems include the following:

- It strengthens information and makes it more available to the organisation as a whole.
- It increases induction of new staff members and their exposure to organisational information, especially in organisations with a high staff turnover.
- It increases geographically dispersed or multicountry organisations.
- Electronic messaging systems (electronic mail, teleconferencing) can integrate communication needs.
- Sharing expertise and a common language can lead to a representative language that can enhance coding and applying experiential knowledge.

Information and knowledge can also be stored in different electronic formats, including visual files (photos, DVDs and videos) (De Hoog *et al.*, 1994).

On the negative side, relying on computerised memory systems too much can create problems when memory loss occurs. Failing to include social dimensions of OM can influence people to believe that knowledge (or a historical account of the organisation's past) is the OM (Stein, 1989). The value of networks and relationships between organisational members can never be fully captured by IT systems (Baird & Cross, 2000).

As the computer is used as a metaphor for OM, terminology is often linked to computer and technology aspects (e.g. input and output). This not only reflected the

multidisciplinary nature of OM studies, but also influenced the communication and understanding (and fear) of OM (Stein, 1989).

The electronic systems and availability of up-to-date information also influence the timing and the longitudinal adjustment of OM and knowledge creation and change (Kurtyka, 2005, 2009; Maier & Klosa, 1999; Nevo & Wand, 2005; Sharma & Yetton, 2007; Stein, 1989). Updating information is a key consideration in current OM systems, yet it seems that the "human" factor is receiving less attention in current studies (Swan, Robertson & Newell, 2000).

It is accepted that IT will play an increasingly important role, especially in multinational and virtual organisations, where it will be the main method of not only communication, but also the capturing and using of OM (Gibbons *et al.*, 2010; Ji & Salvendy, 2001; Li & Lai, 2005; Schwartz *et al.*, 2000). As will be discussed in the next section, aspects such as search engines and social networks (Twitter, LinkedIn and Facebook) play an increasingly important role in organisational directories. Similarly, technology such as Skype allows for colder communication media (to enable face-to-face communication that is important for labelling information chunks in the directories).

Some research has been conducted on artificial intelligence and OM (Bannon, 2000; Tsui, Garner & Staab, 2000). This mostly focuses on IT applications and making accessing OM easier. Other aspects that might have an influence on OM from a technology viewpoint that have not been widely researched include the influence of the global access of information and its implications on memory, and the effect of weaknesses of IT systems such as computer viruses.

2.3.6 Metamemory and directories

It is important to emphasise that in this investigation OM includes metamemory, as it is important to consider the memory of the OM (Hamidi & Jusoff, 2009; Nevo & Wand, 2005). This can be expressed as "directories" of the OM. Anand *et al.* (1998)

describes OM held by the individual group members as having two components: 1) information stored in individual memories, and 2) the directories held by individuals that identify the existence, location and means of retrieval of information held by the other individuals. In the same line of thought, Schwartz (1998) mentioned organisational memories to be based on the combination of two main components: 1) a knowledge base, which contains the content or knowledge that is of value to the organisation, and 2) a well-defined set of metaknowledge, which is used to determine how and when the knowledge or content should be applied. Burn and Ash (2000) and Schwartz *et al.* (2000) also mentioned that the information system provides a directory of where OM can be accessed.

It is clear from the discussion above that the link between individual and group memories is important. It is also important to distinguish between internal memory (memory held by group members personally) and external memory (memory not within personal memory of the group, but which can be retrieved when necessary) (Wegner, 1986). This information is stored in files (held by individuals outside the organisation, etc.), but should be retrievable by the group members. According to Anand *et al.* (1998, p. 797) "directories are idiosyncratic information items that inform group members about the existence and location of external information, as well as the means of retrieving such information".

Due to outdated perceptions and bias, directories can become faulty at times. This is partially due to the fact that directories are not stored as specific items, but rather as chunks or classes of information (for example, a scientist working on laser applied in medical fields will be categorised as a laser specialist). Furthermore, information in directories includes labels. These labels are held idiosyncratically and play a critical role in the retrieval of information. Information can be accessed easily if group members all use the same labels to tag information in the memory. Another crucial aspect is communication between group members. External OM can only be accessed through communication (Anand *et al.*, 1998).

Group members (employees) must first locate memory before they can use it. Locating information may take two paths: 1) Members might have directories that

identify the correct person with the information, or: 2) The member does not have a relevant directory and must first search for the directory. In the first instance communicating the information will be the next step, while in the second instance a search process needs to be conducted first. In this regard, the current developments in computers, intranets (used to access organisational directories or to broadcast a request for information) and search engines are very useful (Anand *et al.*, 1998).

The mechanisms for locating information are named "locators" (Anand *et al.*, 1998, p. 1998). The availability of the locators will determine the amount of information transferred to the external OM. The locators are also very important in the case of large geographically dispersed organisations. In these cases, it is difficult for group members to attach the same common labels to directories, as they are dependent on rich media (close to face-to-face communication) (Liang, Moreland & Argote, 1995). Updating networks (including social and business) and directories is crucial in changing environments to prevent memory loss (through forgetting) (Anand *et al.*, 1998). It is also important to have succession plans in an organisation, especially for long-serving administrative personnel who might have "directories of the directories" (they know who will know who has or where to find information).

Schwartz (1998, 1999) suggested the use of e-mail messages to enhance directories (and metamemory). In the technologically advanced settings that organisations are currently, this will enable links between knowledge and the individuals containing the knowledge.

2.3.7 Time and memory

According to Krippendorff (1975), messages can be transferred about knowledge that took years to obtain. This is most effective through non-verbal interactions and is a structural memory. It can firstly occur because memory expresses the influence of past events, and secondly because memory guides behaviour expressed by the system (Stein, 1989).

As described above, the changes over time can also be caused by individuals' changes in motivation and commitment to share knowledge (Malhotra & Galletta, 2003).

The work by Girard (2009) and Girard and Allison (2009) on information anxiety and OM loss imply that the life cycle of an organisation and the timing of changes in the organisation have a crucial influence on the memory.

2.4 Non-governmental organisations (NGOs)

2.4.1 Organisations called NGOs

According to systems thinking, an organisation is defined as any assembly of people working together to achieve common objectives (Boje, Gephert & Thatchenkery, 1996; Cherrington, 1994; Pfeffer, 1997).

NGOs are "organisations that do good" (Hilhorst, 2003, p. 7). They can be regarded as open systems that work in multiple realities. NGOs can be defined according to different dimensions, including their origins, function, ownership, approach, and scale of operation (Hilhorst, 2003).

Because they work with projects, NGOs can be seen as project organisations. Normally NGOs work with multiple projects simultaneously, most of them being short-term projects. Accordingly, the goals are related to a set of activities and the life of a project is limited, while organisations normally have long life spans (Srinivasan, 2007).

2.4.2 Types of NGOs

Although there are many ways to differentiate between NGOs (e.g. on the grounds of the field they work in, their size according to staff members, or their coverage areas), the categories important for this investigation include different levels according to the distance of beneficiaries (Carroll & Montgomery, 1987; Hirshman, 1984):

- **Grassroots NGOs** (and CBOs) work directly with beneficiaries and implement interventions directly. They can be directly funded or receive funding and technical support from intermediary or global NGOs.
- **Intermediate NGOs** (usually regionally based) are NGOs that support grassroots organisations and are intimately involved in the partner organisations' capacity-building (including knowledge transfer between and to partners). They contribute financially through drawing bigger funding and donor support for a specific dedicated area or theme of work and organising implementing partners.
- **Global/International NGOs** work across borders in multicountries and continents. They implement through partnering with other NGOs (grassroots or intermediaries). They work internationally and include more global advocacy work.

2.4.2.1 Intermediary organisations

The structure and function of intermediary organisations (IOs) are important for the present investigation – Project Support Group Southern Africa (see Figure 2.5). IOs can be defined as social promoters or grassroots support organisations (Hirshman, 1984).

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        International donors, public and private   │
│                                                   │
│                        ↑                          │
│                        │      Intermediaries      │
│                        │                          │
│                        ↓                          │
│                                                   │
│             Grassroots (Implementers)             │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
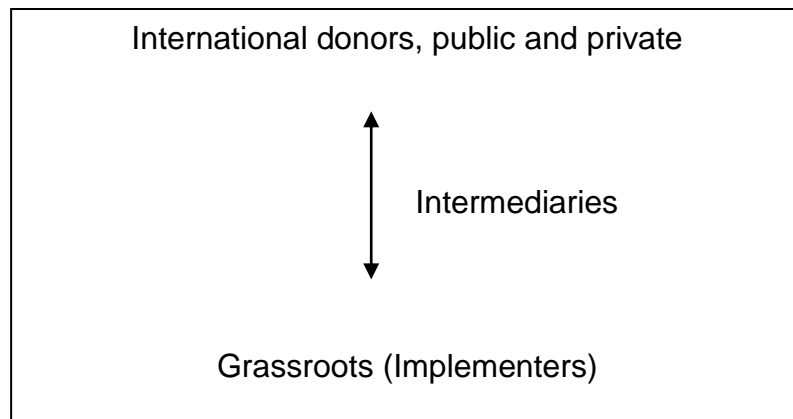
Figure 2.5: Role of intermediary NGOs

According to Carroll and Montgomery (1987), IOs usually display the following characteristics:

- They are usually non-governmental or quasi-governmental organisations that predominantly function for developmental and not profit-making reasons.
- Their main function is to co-ordinate the isolated activities of grassroots organisations.
- They do not implement direct activities, but work through the implementing and grassroots organisations.
- Their goal is twofold: The most important is that they are developmental, but they are also charitable organisations.
- The biggest benefit of working with or through them is that they can draw on larger donor resources and therefore increase the sustainability of small organisations. As a result, they contribute to the economic viability and the organisational capacity of the grassroots organisations.
- They are important elements of grassroots activity, yet mostly inconspicuous.
- They have different obligations to different sources. They need to accept responsibility for government or donor action, over which they sometimes have very little control or influence.
- There is also tension in intermediaries to respond to the needs of baseline organisations while meeting the needs and demands of international supporters.

- If there are no intermediaries, then the risk of donors dominating baseline organisations increases.

The difference between IOs and grassroots organisations lies in their scope of work: IOs mostly function on regional or national levels, never on a local level. Their main target is working with groups, and they seldom target interventions to individuals. Their functions include support, distribution (including distribution of information and knowledge, not only distribution of resources such as condoms and training materials), representation on different forums or to donor organisations, and research and evaluation activities.

IOs can be involved with different tiers of intermediaries (for example, an organisation can have country branches or key partners taking care of smaller organisations (Carroll & Montgomery, 1987)). Most IOs are multifunctional, and they adapt their mix of activities with time. Some are specialised offshoots of multifunctional parent organisations, while others are more narrowly focussed after experimenting with different functions or beneficiaries (Carroll & Montgomery, 1987; Hirshman, 1984).

A very important aspect of IOs is the relationships or *linkages* they are involved in. The following are the main linkages listed by Carroll and Montgomery (1987):
- *Upwards* to economic or political power centres. This is important for resource flow. An IO acts as facilitator, articulator of interest group demands. This could provide a dilemma in the sense that IOs have to balance between public support and independence. There is also difficulty in deciding when and how to "graduate" their clients (partner organisations).
- *Downwards* to grassroots organisations for service or resource delivery. In this respect, two issues are important: How sensitive and skilful are they in dealing with clients to avoid paternalism and to foster self-reliance? And: How well do they serve as articulators of grassroots demands? There should be a balance between the organisation working sensitively and client-responsible, as well as between working with very poor and better-off clients. IOs should build new networks and strengthen and build more complex relations.

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- *Horizontal* linkages can be competitive (which can create redundancy) or complementary. Networking includes aspects of co-operation, organising and federations, especially regarding sharing expertise. Donor policies usually create an atmosphere of competitiveness between IOs. Networks between IOs should increase negotiations with donors, enhance the sharing of experiences, promote the discussions of methodologies and even increase joint projects. Other linkages include networking with the private, commercial and finance sector and constituent grassroots organisations.

According to Carroll and Montgomery (1987), the internal structure of IOs is usually very specific (they are either innovative or duplicate external programme models). They have very unique leadership qualities (see 2.4.5 for the discussion on leadership in NGOs). The role and composition of the governing boards or councils vary and are different for each IO. Other aspects that need to be described for each IO are the composition of the staff and the financial picture of the organisation (especially who contributes resources, the degree of dependence on donors, changes over time, and non-donor revenue).

One of the main goals of any IO is to enhance the capacity of its partnering organisations. This can be achieved through two methods, namely scaling up (enlarging the target or coverage area of the partner organisation as it exists) or cloning (duplicating the mother organisation). Determining the characteristics of an optimal size of a scale-up will be the cost-effectiveness of coverage and inverse relationship between size and quality (i.e., will the quality of service provision be compromised when expanding activities).

The ways in which coverage can be expanded without undue stress on core organisations include routinisation of some functions and subcontracting. Layering or cloning strategies include developing existing organisations, introducing a multitiered structure (with different levels of partnering organisations taking responsibility for others), splitting into smaller bodies (with specialised and localised roles) or replicating the "mother" organisation's function (Carroll & Montgomery, 1987; Hirschman, 1984).

To determine the performance of an IO (evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency), various perspectives need to be taken into consideration (Carroll & Montgomery, 1987):

- **Donor perspective**: Donors need to have evidence that resources are channelled to the intended beneficiaries (poor, isolated and vulnerable groups), that disbursement happens fast and efficiently, that the IO has financial and administrative accountability, and that there is movement to mobilising additional resources and reduction in dependency on external donors.

- **Client groups**: They need access to wanted, tangible resources and markets. Success will further be evident from the protection and legitimacy they experience.

- From an **IO leadership perspective**, success will lie in obtaining a continuous flow of external resources, effective service delivery and achieving economic viability of beneficiaries.

- **Institutional scholar perspective**: They need strengthening of the organisational capacity of base groups to deal more effectively with own problems. They need IO to mobilise resources that baseline groups need and cannot obtain otherwise, and decrease dependency, to provide useful linkages and brokerage to political and economic power centres (private and government), as well as to display flexibility, innovativeness and adaptation to changing circumstances. They also need gradual achievement of some measure of sustained capacity and the creation of a significant niche between government and private business in providing resources to the poor.

Donor strategies and factors that will enhance sustainability are also important in IOs. Donors need a balance between funding activities directly to grassroots organisations and through IOs. Normally they will continue supporting grassroots organisations directly if they feel satisfied working with them. If there are any suspicions, then they will probably fund the grassroots organisations through IOs. Generally IOs know the country and contexts better than the donors. IOs can therefore make better selections of implementing grassroots organisations and offer more effective technical assistance (Carroll & Montgomery, 1987).

The dilemma for IOs is whether they are regarded as merely transferring resources between donors and grassroots organisations or building institutions. Donors are better at transferring resources, but mostly weak at building capacity. If they work directly, they prefer short-term projects. Donors expect IOs to be financially independent, yet this is in some way against the key functions of the IO as they also evolve and need different types and doses of external help. As IOs grow and become more competent and effective they also become more beaurocratic and less innovative (even less poverty-orientated). Donors are moving away from big disbursements and will empower new struggling IOs and invest in large IOs using new cost-effective methods. The redundancy strategy is mostly to terminate aid and allow older organisations to shrink, disappear and mutate as long as others (new IOs) emerge and grassroots organisations have alternative routes to get resourced (Carroll & Montgomery, 1987).

2.4.3 Learning in NGOs

Learning and OM are crucial for NGOs (Britton, 2005). Although NGOs learn through different themes, styles and experiences and have many challenges they continue to learn, try to learn more efficiently and do not stop learning even if they achieve success (Edwards, 1997).

Howes and Roche (1996) differentiate learning in NGOs from learning in other types of organisations in that NGOs are not exposed to market forces, and the implication that if an organisation does not learn it will be eliminated. However, this market pressure is mediated in NGOs by the pressure to demonstrate impact of activities.

Much of the information flow (and the use of OM) in NGOs is for day-to-day operations. Another aspect that seems common in NGOs regarding information is the fact that authors of documents (especially reports) are more concerned with the format and timeliness of the document than the content. The lack of feedback that would lead to improvements is probably due to lack of demand throughout the hierarchy for better quality and longer term reports (the reports usually focus on six

months to a year). However, the demand to show impact is to an extent changing the timeline and allowing NGOs to reflect on their activities for longer periods (5 to 10 years). The difference between the interest and demand from donors (who are now more focussed on longer term impact) and the immediate needs of beneficiaries is also playing a part in the loss of OM through inadequate documentation or OM management. Documenting and building OM and the monitoring of activities cause leaders to feel threatened, and the sharing of information and OM is impaired (Howes & Roche, 1996).

2.4.4 NGOs and organisational memory

The challenge faced by international NGOs that have well-developed OM (in the form of documented manuals, computerised global information systems, exchange visits, workshops) and an emphasis on learning is that the NGOs might see what they believe in (Edwards, 1997). Edwards uses the example of Save the Children, which has a strong child-centred approach and theory. They further capture lessons learned from projects and make them available internally as well as externally. The staff is, however, so busy with project work that even with good motivation and supporting computerised systems, they simply do not have the time to contribute to or use the information. The system should be built from a demand perspective. Even this rich system did not have enough demand from staff. NGOs (especially smaller NGOs at grassroots level) might simply not have sufficient capacity to develop or maintain OM systems. The limits of research funding and budget allocations for monitoring and evaluation activities play a role in NGOs of all sizes (Edwards, 1997). The importance of sharing information from OM between intermediary and regional (and international) NGOs and their partner organisations on lower levels is highlighted by this. Similarly, sharing should be encouraged between headquarters and branches at field level (Edwards, 1997, 1999).

In NGOs that work with partner organisations (such as PSG) it is noted that more impact can be achieved by support to partner organisations than through operational work (Edwards, 1997).

According to Girard (2009), preservation of organisational knowledge (i.e. OM) is not only important for public and private organisations, but also for not-for-profit organisations (including NGOs). OM is essential to the being of an organisation and also enables its continued existence (Kransdorff, 2006). This is true for organisations driven by production, but even more for organisations working for and in communities. In NGOs, learning is very important for continued success and the delivery of services. And key to learning is the health of the organisation's memory.

Organisations consist of individuals, who in the current conditions make up the company or organisations (Kransdorff, 2006). They are not part of the organisation – they are the organisation. When there are changes in the individuals (as is currently the norm), the organisation changes (including the memory that sits – even if only partially – with the individuals).

The case study in this investigation is a regional NGO. In some aspects it represents multinational organisations in that there is a geographical spread of offices or partnering organisations (in the case of PSG, in nine countries). This has implications for the memory system. Anand *et al.* (1998) included a concept called systemic memory, which includes the memory of the organisation as a whole. The memories of subunits are termed group memory. Although this terminology has value in their model of multilayered OM, it will not be used as such in the present study; memory of the different units will be classified and labelled in direct relation to the case study itself (e.g. PSG head office memory and partner memory).

An aspect of OM in a regional NGO is the importance of the externalisation of information (Anand *et al.*, 1998). This applies to the tasks of interpreting data from different contexts (and cultures both in the organisation and on country level). This will be even more important as globalisation and economic turbulence increase (Anand *et al.*, 1998; Coopey & Burgoyne, 2004).

OM is also important for monitoring and evaluation work in NGOs, especially concerning how success is defined and the changes in these definitions of success over time (Levitt & March, 1988).

Organisations change (or try to change) as is necessary in the global economy about every five years. Changes are also important for NGOs in different phases of development. The memory needs to adapt to changes, and needs to survive to enable changes. It also needs to incorporate changes in the main activities of developing NGOs, such as changing activities to incorporate advocacy and campaigning work (Britton, 2005; Coopey & Burgoyne, 2004; Kransdorff, 2006).

2.4.5 Leadership in NGOs

As with other organisations, leadership is very important for NGOs. For this study a leader is defined as a person who define and construct a reality and meaning through the articulation of a vision. This does not imply that the other members of the organisation do not contribute to the construction process, but leaders are those who manage meaning. In NGOs, the leaders often maintain relationships and interface with donors and funders. They are also often the brokers of meaning and knowledge and should be playing an increasingly important role in motivating organisations for learning (Britton, 2005; Bryman, 1996).

The leadership in IOs is unique in that in the initial start-up phase of the organisation, the leader (mostly the founder of the organisation) is normally a charismatic leader focussed on commitment and competence. Aspects that should be incorporated are the issues around accountability and replacement or rotation of leaders (Carroll & Montgomery, 1987; Hirshman, 1984).

NGOs and specifically IOs often (and this is the case with PSG) have flat hierarchical systems. That does, however, not imply that the learning is also less hierarchical. Learning is often limited to a few people from higher levels (March, 1988).

2.4.6 Life cycles of NGOs

According to Srinivasan (2007) and Greiner (1998), NGOs have five life stages and develop from single project-based entities into a vision-led professional entity. Each phase is accompanied by a crisis:

- Phase 1: **Growth through creativity** leads to a crisis of leadership. More sophisticated and more formalised management practices must be adopted.
- Phase 2: **Growth through direction** leads to a crisis of autonomy. The crisis involves top-level managers' reluctance to delegate authority. Lower level managers must be given more authority if the organisation is to continue to grow.
- Phase 3: **Growth through delegation** leads to a crisis of control. Autonomous employees who prefer to operate without interference from the rest of the organisation clash with business owners and managers who feel out of control.
- Phase 4: **Growth through co-ordination** leads to a crisis of red tape/bureaucracy. Co-ordination activities include product groups and formal planning processes that cause delays in decision-making and a reduction in innovation.
- Phase 5: **Growth through collaboration** leads to psychological saturation of employees due to emotional and physical exhaustion of teamwork and pressure for innovative solutions. This phase is characterised by the use of teams, a reduction in corporate staff, matrix-type structures, the simplification of formal systems, an increase in conferences and educational programmes, and information systems.

The life cycle that the present investigation uses includes the four phases described specifically for NGOs by Avina (2002). Although the four stages are presented in a sequential order, this is not necessarily the linear course in which NGOs develop or evolve. NGOs might close out directly after start-up or have many different consolidation and expansion phases (Avina, 2002).

- *Start-up*: There are two ways for NGOs to start up:
  - o Self-generating: Generally these organisations are small with a very localised impact. Their origin is often from a single motivated leader (often of higher educational level). The organisation often develops from a gap in service provision, and its constitution reflects the community it is in. Due to the capacity of the leader and members, the management (including knowledge management and financial management) is better limited (Avina, 2002; Edwards & Fowler, 2002).
  - o Externally assisted: These organisations start on small to medium scale assisted by an external agent often based on a model that was developed elsewhere. In some instances they mirror the parent organisation and in other cases they formed their own aims, objectives and methodologies. Even if the donor supports an innovative local initiative there is mostly a power relationship between donor and organisation. The leadership is often professional, and due to capacity development and technical assistance from the donor, management and systems are in place. These organisations have the advantage that they can withstand crises better (Avina, 2002; Edwards & Fowler, 2002).

The main concern for self-generating NGOs during this phase is to establish an institutional environment (structures, goals and mandate, targets, financing, role and obligations of beneficiaries) (Avina, 2002; Edwards & Fowler, 2002). According to South African not-for-profit governance there also needs to be a decision on what type of organisation it will be (options include: Voluntary association that is not-for-profit, NGO, CBO, Faith-based Organisation, Public Benefit Organisation, Trust that has registered with the Master of the High Court under the Trust Property Control Act 57 of 1988, Company registered in terms of Section 21 of the Companies Act 61 of 1973, and Company registered in terms of the Companies Act 71 of 2008 (http://www.dsd.gov.za/npo/index.php). Externally funded NGOs will have a stronger push to establish one of the more formal legally incorporated options due to accountability to donors and possible foreign aid agencies (Avina, 2002).

During the start-up phase it is also important to establish human and financial resources, a methodological (operational) vision, local interest and participation (as this is crucial for sustainability) (Avina, 2002).

Possible positive (successful) outcomes of this phase are visible in different ways. Some organisations will achieve its initial goals and will either be sustainable or close out. The organisation could also expand and take on new projects or expand to another area. Some organisations might realise that goals were unrealistic or resources were inadequate and either change or close out. The organisations are all successful as they adjusted to the environment and situation (Avina, 2002).

Negative outcomes (failures) are more related to lack or lowered community interest, which also harms future activities and initiatives. A positive aspect would be that community members and organisations reflect on the reasons for failure and avoid it. Externally funded NGOs will have a stronger resource base and will be more resilient than self-generated NGOs.

- *Expansion*: Expansion takes place at various times and for various reasons. It normally happens due to initial success, beneficiary needs or from interest from donors or government agencies. Expansion can include increasing the number of beneficiaries, increasing the number and type of services or increasing the area of operation (by including neighbouring communities or new target areas) (Avina, 2002).
    - o Planned expansions are usually in reaction to increased funding. The structure of the organisation becomes more sophisticated, including an increase in accounting and monitoring activities.
    - o Spontaneous expansions are usually more gradual.

A growing organisation will need an increase in personnel or a delegation of administrative and management responsibilities to junior staff or volunteers or some of the project beneficiaries. This is even more crucial when an organisation expands into a new region. Leadership is one of the crucial aspects. Leaders need to transform to shift the responsibilities of decision-making to enable them to focus on

strategic planning and monitoring and evaluation activities. They also need to be in touch with the external environment, including donor organisations (Avina, 2002; Britton, 2005; Bryman, 1996).

The success of an expanding organisation depends on intraorganisational and external factors. Internal factors include the feasibility, scope, content, pace and character of the programme. Relations with donors and political and economic powers are external factors. Expanding into a new culturally and politically different remote area will be specifically difficult (Avina, 2002).

Success varies in expansion phase, and a successful organisation is generally defined as "having evolved institutionally to the point where it can manage the augmented level of activities effectively, can finance itself into the foreseeable future, has retained a necessary level of autonomy from external actors and is providing desired and sustainable services to its target beneficiaries" (Avina, 2002, p. 136). Factors that lead to failure include improper motivation, insufficient planning, inappropriate programme design, inadequate human or financial resources, managerial incompetence and external pressure. Many collapsed NGOs were caused by failed expansions, and the effects of a failed expansion are felt through the organisation. However, the failure could cause major changes and a much needed turnabout in management or approach. The beneficiaries still suffer the most (Avina, 2002).

- *Consolidation*: All organisations undergo consolidation, either planned or unplanned. Consolidation takes place when "an NGO analyses its performance to better align its operative capacity to its external reality" (Avina, 2002, p. 136). It could include reconsideration of methodology, structure, programme focus, or operational procedures.
    - o Planned consolidation follows a specific management plan.
    - o Unplanned consolidation is a reaction on an internally or externally generated crisis. It mostly causes major organisational confusion. If this is due to lack of funding, staff might have to be retrenched and anxiety about this might impact very negatively.

External evaluations can play an important role in consolidation (although some larger NGOs might have internal evaluation units), especially providing reflection opportunities for the organisation. The problem with external evaluation is that it is often superficial due to time and funding constraints. External evaluators do not have the power to enforce recommendations (Avina, 2002).

A major concern is to keep the organisational functions continuing uninterrupted. This could be very difficult as some activities or target areas might have to be closed down. The timing of consolidation is very important. Organisations with good administrative and monitoring systems and that are in touch with the external environment responses will be faster (as they will pick up changes faster). Some organisations are more resilient (for example those focussing on income generation rather than welfare only). Institutional will is also important as it will allow beneficiaries and staff to react to unpopular but necessary decisions (Avina, 2002).

Healthy organisations will be able to learn from the evaluations and consolidation phase. Expansions will probably be repeated and the cycle of expansion-consolidation-expansion repeated. Failed organisations may be fragmented or forced to limit service provision rather rapidly. Staff might continue to make efforts to help beneficiaries even after the organisation closed (Avina, 2002).

- ***Close-out****:* A close-out is either:
    - o full-scale termination, or
    - o a partial reduction in activities.

Close-out does not necessarily mean ending all activities. Close-out in one area can mean expansion in another (with the net effect an expansion in activities). In the same way one activity can be replaced with others of more relevance. Close-outs also occur due to internal or external crises, or planned (Avina, 2002).
    - o A planned close-out mostly happens in phases. The NGO reduces in size over time and responsibilities might be transferred gradually to the community or beneficiaries.

   o A crisis-driven close-out is probably due to bad planning or failed consolidation.

Close-outs can be the result of successful completion of project activities and goals or beneficiaries might have been "graduated" to other donors or the formal economy. Forced close-outs are often the result of faulty start-ups, reckless expansions, or late or badly managed consolidations (Avina, 2002).

As discussed earlier, leadership plays a major role. Many NGOs start due to visionary and charismatic leaders. These NGOs often become very dependent on the leader and if he/she departs suddenly, the organisation disintegrates. In the same manner, dependence on external technical experts, internal corruption or incompetent management may cause close-out. External factors such as an economic crisis, changes in political factors (e.g. changes in local political leadership or NGOs expressing controversial and unpopular political views) and pressure from donors to reform to certain policies or procedures can similarly cause close-out (Avina, 2002).

The main concern during this phase is the effect the close-out will have on the beneficiaries. The main factors are the timing and the process of the close-out. The most beneficial would be to conduct the close-out in phases and at a slower pace. Another concern is the effect the close-out will have on staff, especially since very few NGOs have an ultimate goal to close (Avina, 2002).

CHAPTER 3

THEORY

3.1 Metaphors

Different approaches to describe and use OM exist (Klein *et al.*, 2007). OM is seen as a complex array of systems and relationships (Stein, 1989). To communicate, metaphors are often used. These metaphors are not necessarily models or theories, but enhance communication (Checkland, 1981; Checkland & Scholes, 1990; Cornelissen, 2005; Schoeneborn & Blaschke, 2009; Stein, 1989).

Metaphors have been used in the study of organisations since the 1980s (Schoeneborn & Blaschke, 2009). Tsoukas (1991, p. 566) describes it in the following manner:

Metaphors encourage different ways of thinking, which enable social scientists and lay-people alike to focus upon, explain, and influence different aspects of complex organisational phenomena.

According to Von Oech (1983), models to explain memory and brain function follow inventions. In the 17th century the brain was seen as a lens or mirror focussing or reflecting thoughts. During the industrial era the brain became a huge factory. With the invention of the telephone the brain was considered a huge switchboard (with immeasurable messages entering and leaving). Lately, the computer or technical model is used (Corbett, 2000; Minninger, 1995).

Two metaphors are often used to describe OM. One is human memory (Hall, 2005). Anthropomorphic metaphors include comparisons to physiology of the human brain or psychology of the human mind (Schoeneborn & Blaschke, 2009). This metaphor is gaining popularity lately in describing certain information management processes as "sleeping", loss of processes as "insomniac" organisations (Schoeneborn &

Blaschke, 2009, p. 1,2) and memory loss as "corporate amnesia" (Hamidi & Jusoff, 2009, p. 142; Kransdorff, 1998).

The systems engineering or "technology" approach describe knowledge flow, including software development that can lead to software "becoming the system" or "being part of the memory" (Beckett, 2000, p. 312). The use of computers as metaphor for OM is evident from terminology such as "input, feedback, programming, etc." (Minninger, 1995, p. 80). The current focus and application of research is mostly on information technologies in automating and supporting OM to enhance organisational performance (Connell *et al.*, 2003; Corbett, 2000). Organisations invest more and more in expert technological systems such as management information systems (Feigenbaum & McCorduck, 1983). The technology model is important for aspects of memory storage or retrieval, but will not be used here as a model or metaphor.

To use a combined sociotechnical metaphor as used by Trist (1981) seems to be a solution. However, it would be complex to describe all aspects of OM in this manner (Stein, 1989). This study acknowledges that both aspects (IT and the social development of memory) are important, and the methodology included capturing all these aspects, especially in relation to OM structure and location. In this study the metaphor of human memory will be used (and further described in this chapter) as it is more consistent with systems theory and with the view that organisations consist of subsystems. It is not a theory for OM, but a metaphor that tries to make the understanding of OM closer to the discipline of psychology and managers' and general employees' understanding and interpretation of OM (Stein, 1989).

Organisations do not have brains, but they have cognitive systems and memories
(Hedberg, 1981, p. 6).

A short description of the main concepts important in this metaphor is given here. According to Menninger (1995) and Baddeley (1998), three types of memory exist in humans (see Table 3.1):

- immediate/sensory (seconds);
- short-term (hours), and
- long-term (days and months).

Each of these types has two characteristics:
- Volume: How much can be stored?
- Time span: How long can the memory be maintained?

Table 3.1: Comparing three types of human memory

	Volume	Time	
Immediate	Thousands	2 seconds or less	Instinct plays a large role
Short-term	7 things	30 seconds to 2 days	Allows associations, establishing context and meaning
Long-term	Unlimited	Forever	Episodic and semantic

In humans, three kinds of memory are identified:
- verbal;
- visual, and
- kinaesthetic/haptic.

This is comparable to the model proposed by Atkinson and Shiffrin (1971), combining the different aspects in a very linear way (see Figure 3.1).

Environmental input

Sensory
Visual
Auditory
Haptic

Short
Temporary working
Control processes
Rehearsal
Coding
Decisions

Response output

Long
Permanent memory store
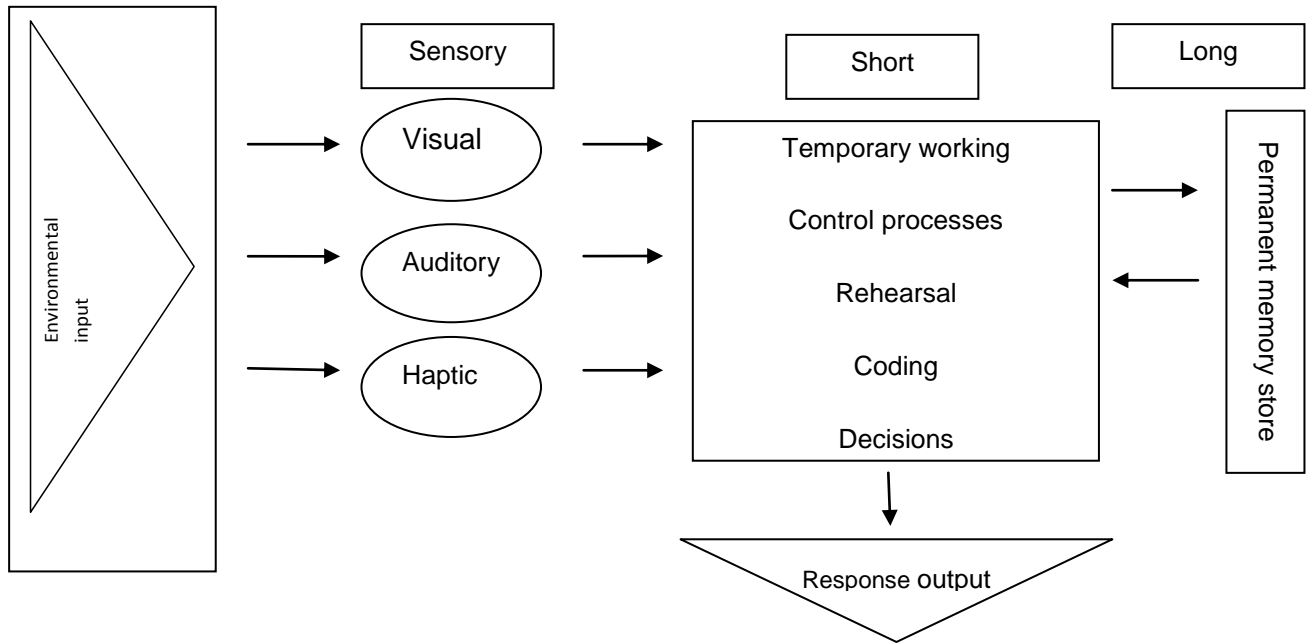
Figure 3.1: The flow of information (Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1971, in Baddeley 1998 p. 13)

Messinger (1995) also describes three steps in the memory process:

- registering (remembering is only possible if you register the fact);
- storing (filing the fact), and
- retrieval (including recall and recognition, deliberate or spontaneous).

Retrieving information from the long-term memory is not merely like accessing a book in the library. For the retrieval of information that is not immediately available retrieval cues are needed. Bartlett (in Baddeley, 1998) used the term schemata to refer to cues that give access to a whole complex of knowledge on a topic. This concept has since been used, adapted and renamed as "frames" or "scripts" by computer scientists. A script is an integrated package of information that can be brought to bear on the understanding of an event (Baddeley, 1998).

The retrieval is also linked to the method of encoding during learning. This includes the way information is classified, the depth of processing and the retrieval cues (especially if the cues are linked to more than one sense or multiple cues are used).

The context (or external environment) and state (internal environment) are both important. Retrieval involves two steps: finding the memory trace and evaluating it (Baddeley, 1998).

There are two main theories about forgetting or memory loss. According to the one, memory simply fades or decays. The other suggests that forgetting occurs when memory traces are disrupted or obscured by subsequent learning (interference) (Baddeley, 1998).

A question that has been asked is whether a skill is more easily remembered than knowledge. It would seem that skills involving a continuous or closed loop (each action acts as a cue for the next action) are less likely to be forgotten than discrete or open-loop skills (each action involves a separate response to a discrete stimulus). However, many skills are mixtures of the above-mentioned (Baddeley, 1998).

It furthermore seems that with skills that are closed-loop, forgetting sets in when the action becomes more conscious. Explicit learning happens when you are aware of the learning; the subsequent skill is learning the sequence unconsciously (e.g. to drive a car). You initially, while learning, think it through in a deliberate, mechanical manner. Implicit learning takes place outside awareness. This also happens after one has mastered a skill through explicit memory. When stressed, the explicit memory takes over and in such a situation one becomes aware of the skill or action which can lead one to "choke". In contrast, panic sets in when one cannot remember what to do. It is as if stress erases the short-term memory. With lots of experience, one seems to have more memory to rely on and "panic" less, but one can still "choke" (Gladwell, 2009, p. 265).

The developmental phase of a person has an influence on all the functions of memory. With age, certain aspects of memory such as working memory, long-term encoding and explicit learning are compromised (Baddeley, 1998).

3.2 Existing organisational memory theories

As described by Lehner and Maier (2000), different disciplines contribute to and benefit from OM theories, including organisational learning, organisational intelligence, knowledge management, organisational development and change management, organisational culture, artificial intelligence, industrial and organisational psychology, social psychology and organisational sociology.

Krippendorff's (1975) theory of social memory had influences on OM. A brief description of the influences will therefore be included.

Krippendorff (1975) defined social memory from a structural-behavioural point of view with a focus on the structure of the social system and the relations between people and the processes that occur within them. Three aspects of memory are highlighted to illustrate the processes of communication, encoding and decoding and the structures created in response to environmental conditions governing the people's relationships and behavioural patterns (Krippendorff, 1975; Stein, 1989). These three aspects are:

- **Temporal memory**: Communication plays a major role in temporal memory. The system's memory is not contained in small individual messages, but the system as a whole. Social systems have temporal memory because the members communicate with each other and affect behaviour. Memory can be reconstructed from information paths of past interaction.
- **Memory involving records**: Here the records themselves are not of primary importance, but rather what and how they are encoded and decoded.
- **Structural memory**: Two types of structural or non-symbolic memory can be identified. Memory is built from past interactions with the environment. "The organisation memorises certain characteristics of the environment (structurally) and projects the fruits of this past interactions with the environment into the future (procedurally)" (Krippendorff, 1975, p. 28). This implies that behaviour itself is a form of memory (and a very effective form) as

social structures guide the range of available behaviours that might be expressed by individuals or the system collectively (Stein, 1989).

Chronologically, the following theories regarding OM developed: During the late 1970s, investigations on organisational learning and memory started (Duncan & Weiss, 1979). Hedberg (1981) introduced the term "organisational memory" nearly at the same time as Kirsch did in Germany ("organisatorische Wissensbasis") (Lehner & Maier, 2000, p. 283).

The first OM model was developed by *Pautzke* in 1989 (Güldenberg & Eschenbach, 1996). This model included several layers (see Figure 3.2). This model brought together organisational development, organisational learning and knowledge management. The model listed five layers. The first two layers represent the actual knowledge available to the organisation, the following two are possible knowledge that could be accessed, and the fifth layer is all other available information.

- Layer 1: Knowledge shared by all employees. This includes "corporate culture" (all shared values, visions, unwritten rules, rituals, ceremonies that manifest as negotiation/decision-making and behavioural guidelines, manner of thinking and paradigms). The organisational identity filters knowledge at a basic level to include only information that does not conflict with the organisational paradigms.
- Layer 2: Accessible individual and collective knowledge. In this layer, all knowledge is available to the organisation. The manner in which individuals make information available to the organisation was described in the previous chapter.
- Layer 3: Non-accessible individual and collective knowledge. Sharing information that is not easily accessible due to information or communication pathologies.
- Layer 4: Metaknowledge of the environment.
- Layer 5: Other knowledge in the world.
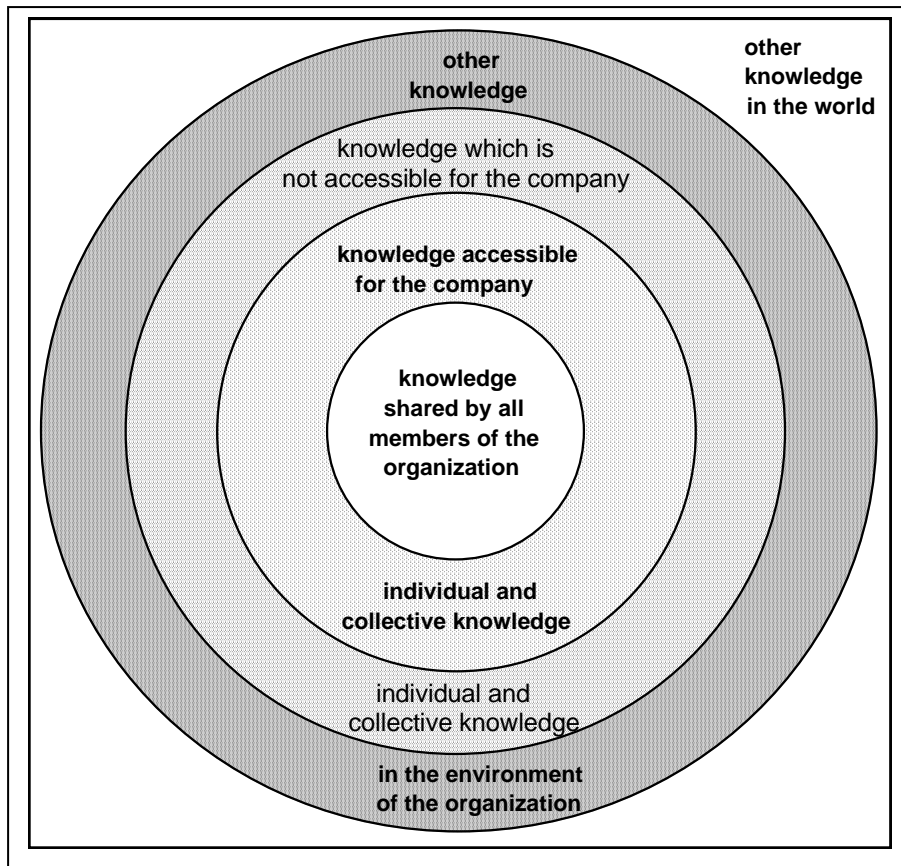
Figure 3.2: Organisational knowledge base model (Güldenberg & Eschenbach, 1996, p. 3)

Kirsch and Pautzke (in Güldenberg & Eschenbach, 1996) also contributed to descriptions of the understanding and challenges regarding individual and collective OM (Güldenberg & Eschenbach, 1996; Lehner & Maier, 2000). The last layer focuses on global information (Güldenberg & Eschenbach, 1996; Lehner & Maier, 2000). Changes in access to global information (including internet and the World Wide Web) had a major influence on knowledge-sharing that could not have been anticipated in this model. The model has important applications in knowledge management.

Walsh and Ungson (1991) developed a model of OM (see Figure 3.3), describing it as consisting of several retention components, including individuals, culture, transformations, structures, ecology and external archives (see Chapter 2). Their theory included a description of the structure of OM as well as the processes for

obtaining and searching for information. Walsh and Ungson (1991) indicated that the three critical factors in OM process are retention, acquisition and retrieval. The purpose of OM is seen in connecting past and present situations to allow decision-making. The theory focuses on information and decision-making and is therefore applicable mostly to business management of information (and not knowledge in general).
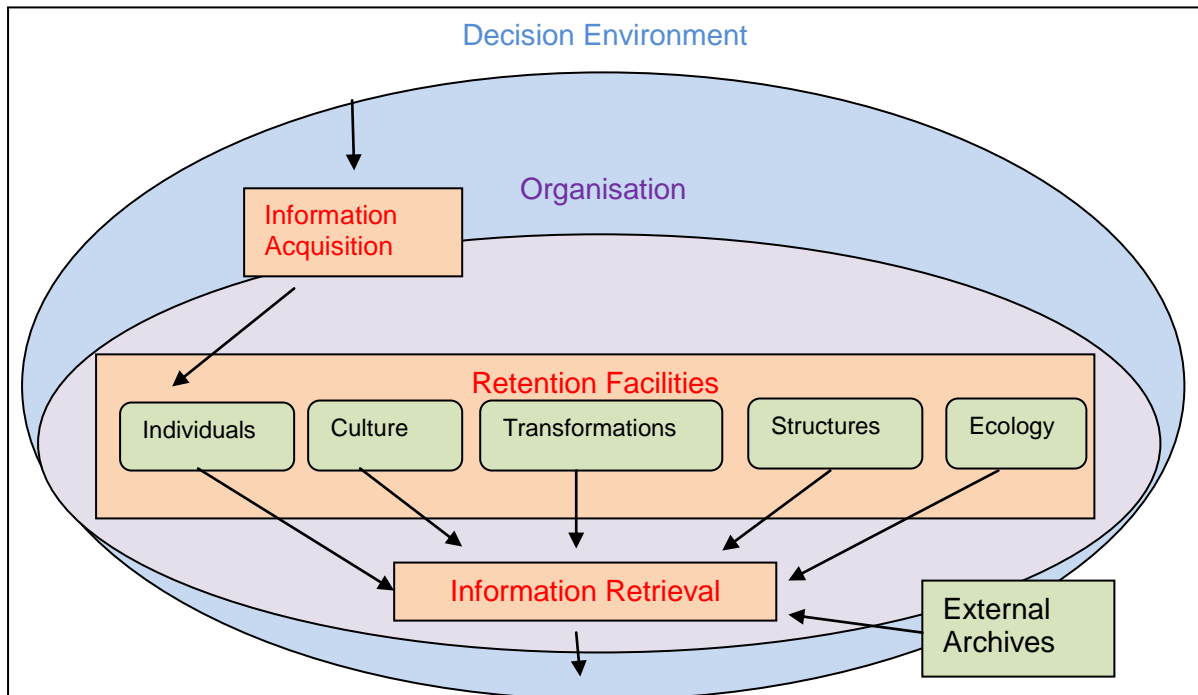
Figure 3.3: Organisational memory model of Walsh and Ungson (1991, p. 64)

The transactive memory theory was developed by Wegner (1986). In this theory, individuals aid each other and the collective memory by acting as "external" memories for each other. The strength of the memory will depend on the understanding of "who knows what" in the group. This theory is important in understanding that individuals in a system can encode new information internally (own memory) or externally (in documents). The implication is that the subject of the knowledge and the location of the knowledge are encoded, but not the knowledge itself. The explicit directories to knowledge are therefore crucially important (Wegner, 1986.

Wegner's (1986) group memory and transactive memory system included two types of group memory, namely procedural and declarative memory. In procedural memory, people use other people to increase their memory by taking note of what the other people notice and what they do not. Initially every person in the group remembers incidents fully. After interactions their own attention and memory are then adjusted. Transactive (transactional) memory systems include many individual systems and communication between group members (Lehner & Maier, 2000; Nevo & Wand, 2005; Sharma & Yetton, 2007; Wegner, 1986; Wegner *et al.*, 1991; Yoo & Kanawattanachai, 2002). Transactive memory includes three subsystems:

- ***Individual memory***: Wegner (1986) equates this to the processes of coding, storing and recall. It also includes metamemory that contains knowledge about the stored knowledge.
- ***External memory***: This includes all storage external to the individual memory (e.g. in computer systems, records and documents) with only the directories (access pathways) located in the individual. The storage of the directories could take up a significant portion of the memory.
- ***Transactive memory***: People can also act as external memory systems when persons act as reciprocal as external storage media. A larger, more complex memory then results in larger groups. This memory is described as transactional due to the transactional information process that several people take part in. The process includes coding (with the group members reaching consensus through interpretation and relating to other information), storing and recall (where communication plays a major role).

Hartwick, Sheppard and Davis (1982) and their co-workers' model of group remembering contributed to OM in describing the importance of remembering and forgetting, and describing four OM models for different group sizes, as it seemed that the larger the group the better the retention of memory:

- ***Truth-wins model***: According to this model, if one group member can remember something it is available to the group. This is overestimating group performance.

- ***Truth-supported model***: In this model, two group members need to remember a fact. An individual needs another individual to analyse the correctness of information.
- ***Simple-majority model***: This is similar to the above-mentioned model, but requires a simple majority agreement or consensus.
- ***Combined model***: This model combines the other three models. Initially information is remembered by one or more group members. It is then submitted to group discussion and after reorganisation a group opinion is formed.

More work is needed to refine this model, especially since research in this model focussed on specified partial functions of memory.

According to ***Watson's (1996) technological model***, the focus of the OM is technology (see Figure 3.4). Watson (1996, 1998) sees data management and OM tasks as the same. The model focuses on the location and process of data storage and the accessibility of data. The value of this model for this study lies in the importance to differentiate between data (facts not yet analysed), information (processed data) and knowledge (the ability to use data). This correlates with the hierarchy of knowledge as described in Chapter 1 and 2.
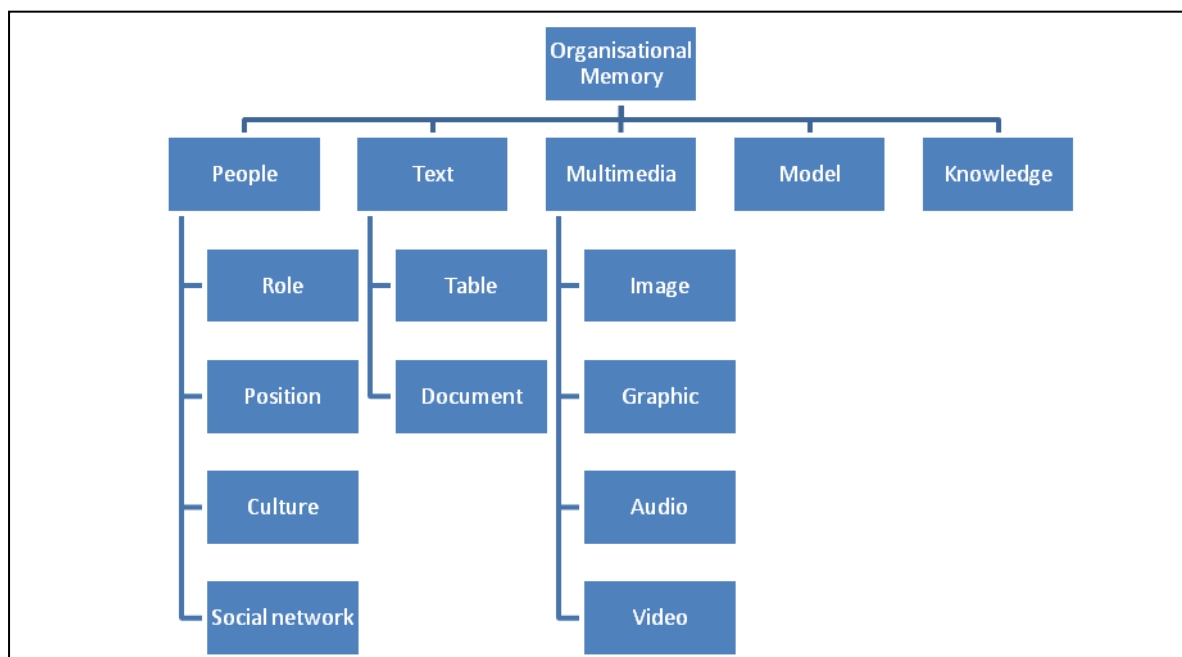
Figure 3.4: Components of organisational memory (based on information of Watson, 1998)

3.3 Systems theory for researching organisational memory

Systems theory is the most appropriate theory to guide data collection and analysis and act as a framework for the interpretation and classification of all aspects investigated in this study on OM (including structure, location and function) (McNamara, 2005, 2006).

Systems theory was initially developed by Bertalanffy (1950, 1955, 1968, 1974) to describe the interactions of different groups or subsystems working together. It has been applied to various disciplines (including mechanical, information, biological and social systems). Bateson (1979) applied and developed the theory that added value to interdisciplinary studies at the same time when OM studies started raising interest. Systems theory had a major psychology application in family system theory. Of interest in the current investigation is the application of systems theory on organisations. Senge (2006) contributed to systems theory in management and organisational theory.

Systems theory changed traditional organisational theories that regarded organisations as closed systems that also failed to take into consideration the environmental influences on organisations (Boje *et al.*, 1996; Cherrington, 1994; Pfeffer, 1997). The influence of the *environment* and the relationship of the organisation and the environment are most important and make it very difficult to study any part in isolation. The interaction of the parts is dynamic and this has implications especially since systems are not regarded as closed systems, but as open systems (Bailey, 1994). Environmental influences can be specific (e.g. suppliers, distributors and competitors.) or general (e.g. cultural values, economic conditions and the political environment) (Boje *et al.*, 1996; Cherrington, 1994; McNamara, 2005, 2006; Pfeffer, 1997).

In systems theory, an organisation could be seen as a complex system, with all the subsystems (not necessarily units or departments) influencing each other and with interactions among all the individual parts. The *relationship* between the parts of the system is more important than the aspects contained in each part. The interrelationship and interdependence of the groups, structures and processes are more important than the individuals, units or departments (Becvar & Becvar, 1982; Laszlo, 1996; Schein, 1980; Spender, 1996).

As stated earlier, systems theory was first used to describe OM by Olson (1979). He described memory as non-deterministic and process-orientated. Kurtyka (2005, 2009) uses systems theory of business intelligence and includes OM in his model (see Figure 3.5). He highlights that organisations should not be seen from a reductionist view, but that they are positioned in a larger context and are in relationship with the environment and resource base. Kurtyka (2005) named his framework a human systems model, but it is in essence a general systems model. It has value in describing organisations as systems, but does not focus on OM itself more than mentioning it as a component of the organisational system.

Kurtyka's (2005, 2009) basic assumptions are that an organisation is seen as a human system in relation to:

- the larger environment (world system), which contains the organisation, its suppliers, competitors, customers, etc.;

- the external environment (that the organisation encounters and has relationships with externally in its world, but has little control over (e.g. customers, regulators and competitors));

- the resource base (inputs), which the organisation has some general control over (labour, capital, suppliers, etc.);

- the boundaries of the firm, including:

  - *business actions*, consisting of prespecified goals, processes, rules, procedures and actions of the firm, and

  - *a business model*, which includes the physical plant, distribution, organisation structure and presuppositions within which business actions take place;

- institutional memory, which holds this in context and is accessible to the organisation. Kurtyka (2005, 2009) specifies that business intelligence is a technical artefact of institutional memory, but not the entire memory), and

- feedback from the environment, which is the force that drives change and can be s*ingle-loop feedback* or *double-loop feedback*, which impacts and challenges the firm's more basic assumptions and commitments.
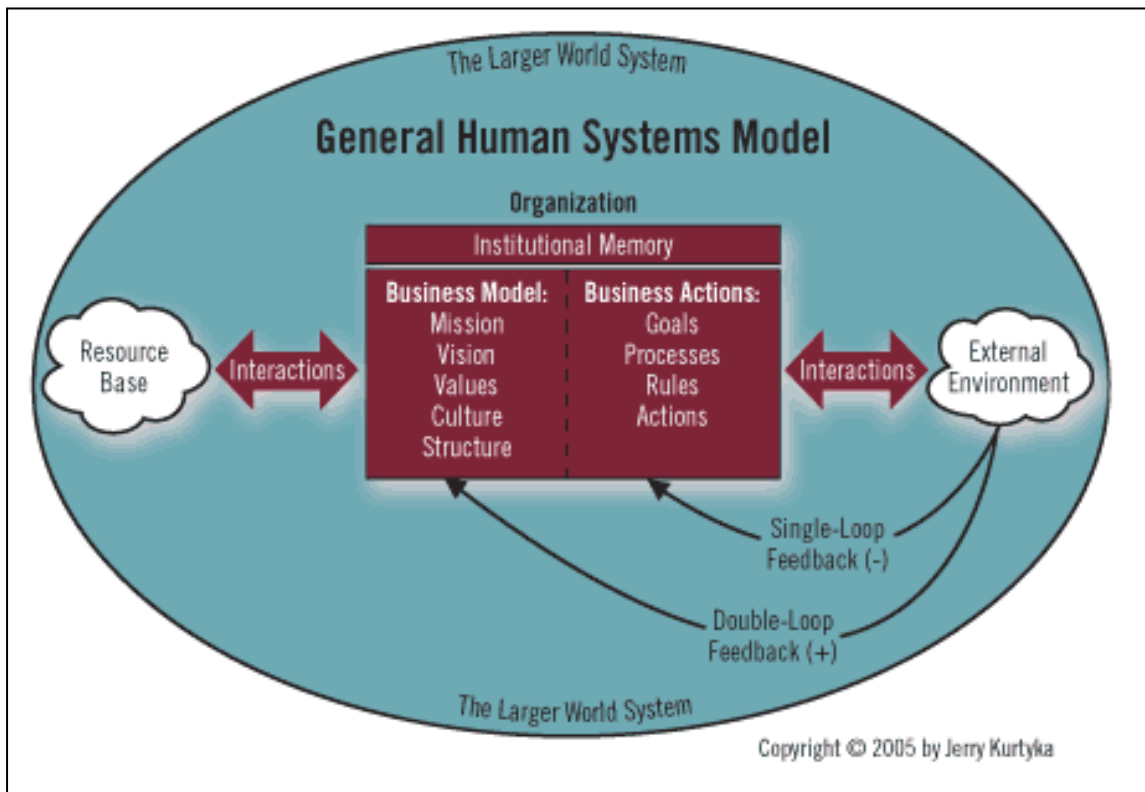
Figure 3.5: General Human Systems Model (Kurtyka, 2005)

Unfortunately few other OM scholars used theoretical frameworks or tried to develop complete theories on OM. Work on OM has been fragmented and focussed on either functionality or application on technology or knowledge management rather than academic theoretical developments.

If system thinking is applied to OM, some basic principles need to be emphasised. The whole OM can also be considered to be larger than the individual parts, and OM exists to maintain the system. The memory as part of the organisational system (and a system in itself) functions within a context and is influenced by the environment (Becvar & Becvar, 1982). This study will use a basic ecological framework incorporating timing effect (temporal approach) (Stralinski, 2004) and attempt to describe OM in the case of a regional NGO. It would probably include aspects of a temporal ecological system in particular.

An ecological framework is a systems model that explains behavioural patterns of individuals in relation to different systems in which they exist. In this framework,

interrelationships between the individual and his/her environment as well as interactions within and between the various ecological levels are considered important (Stewart, 2008). This model provides a framework through which the OM and different levels (subsystems) (i.e. social, organisational, community, public policy and physical environments) can be examined (McLeroy, Bibeau, Steckler & Glanz, 1988; Richard, Potvin, Kishchuk, Prlic & Green, 1996; Sallis & Owen, 2002). The ecological perspective offers an integrated multifactorial model that acknowledges that behaviour (and possibly OM) is determined by a variety of factors, including factors within the persons, teams, departments, social structures and the larger sociocultural environment (Curry, Hassouneh-Phillips & Johnston-Silverberg, 2001).

The following levels will be used to investigate OM (see Figure 3.6):

- Individual: cognitive, attitudinal, behavioural and developmental (including qualifications and work experience) history.
- Interpersonal processes and primary groups (microsystem): formal and informal social and work networks and support systems.
- Institutional factors (mesosystem): social institutions with organisational characteristics (i.e. norms, culture, structures, rules, regulations, incentives and other institutions that relate to the workplace OM).
- Community factors (exosystem): relationships among institutions and organisations, and informal networks within defined boundaries (i.e. area economics, media, community services, neighborhood organisations, formal and informal leadership).
- Culture at large (macrosystem): NGO industry, regional laws and policies, political stability and global aspects.

These five systems are not merely different levels, but should rather be seen as different systems that are all influencing each other in a complex and circular manner, not only working on different levels (mostly lower levels), and that all contribute to the overall effect. The interaction of the systems causes new factors to be considered as risks or protective factors.

This very complex interaction should further be seen as a continuum in time in which the OM functions. The different stages of the NGO life cycle will be used to analyse timing of events.
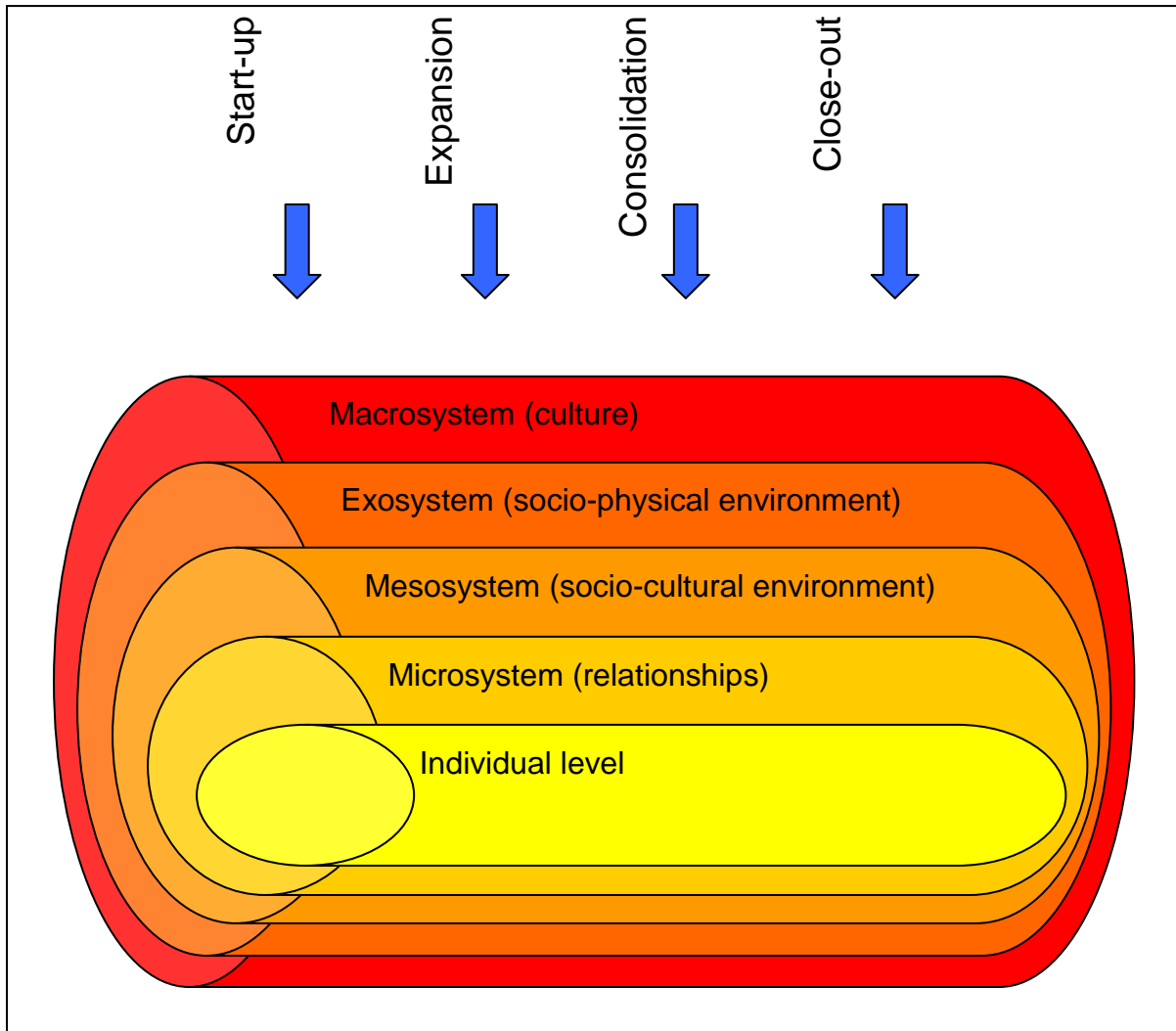
Figure 3.6: Temporal ecological framework (Jansen van Rensburg, 2004, p. 140)

3.4 Alternative theory

Organisational learning according to the social constructivist approach turns individual knowledge into organisational knowledge. This occurs through a process

of externalisation from individual knowledge to group knowledge. The group internalises the knowledge and collectively accepts (objectification) the organisation. Knowledge is spread through the organisation through memory (Jackson, 2007). These aspects are included in systems theory.

The realist view agrees that systems are open, complex, ambiguous and messy, but it moves beyond the mere distinction of tacit and explicit memory and emphasises the role of the mind (especially consciousness) in organisational knowledge. As consciousness is a higher level process, and both material and mental at the same time, there is no duality between mind and body (Jashapara, 2007).

On an individual level, a new problem or situation triggers a personal conscious experience as a mental state. The subjective experience of the situation is informed by the individual's memory of similar situations in the past. The conscious experience may create positive, negative or neutral attitudes. The individual's consciousness will influence the nature of the tacit or explicit knowledge used and will be visible as behaviour (Jashapara, 2007; Searle, 1999).

In organisations, new situations are experienced in a collective consciousness (based on dialogue, discussion and interaction between individuals in formal or informal environments). Shared meanings and representations are established. The nature of the collective consciousness is determined by the strength and quality of the relationships in the network. These networks and relationships can never be captured fully by technological systems (Baird & Cross, 2000). Organisational culture shapes the collective consciousness through narratives, stories, norms and values. The OM influences the collective consciousness and is stored in information systems (Jashapara, 2007).

The realist model includes a three-level realist hierarchy of explanation, namely structures, processes and behaviours, as illustrated in Figure 3.7.
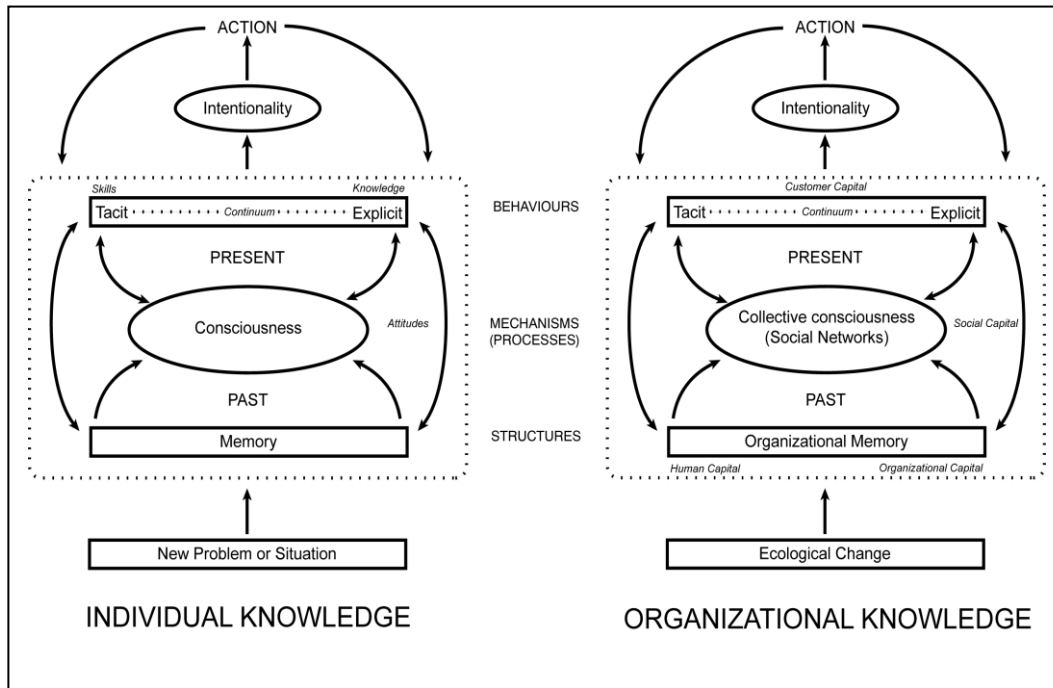
Figure 3.7: Realist model of individual and organisational knowledge (Jashapara, 2007, p. 757)

Although this theory has valuable contributions in the field of knowledge management its view of the structure and processes of OM is limited. Systems theory is therefore considered more applicable for the current study.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY: THE CASE STUDY
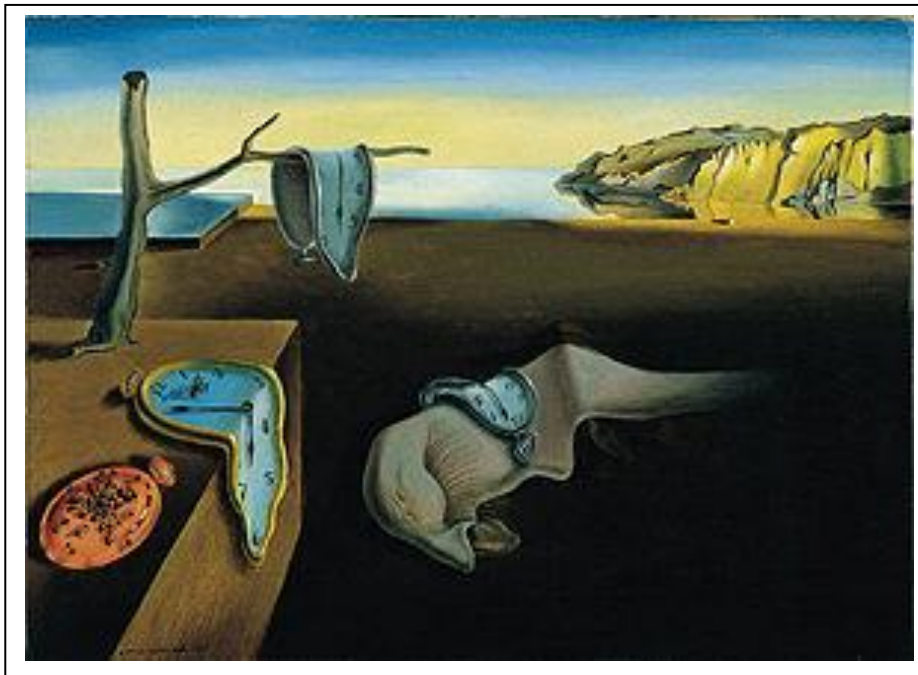
"The Persistence of Memory" by Salvador Dali, 1931

4.1 Methodology

This study used a single explanatory historical case study of OM in an organisation that completed all the developmental phases, namely start-up, expansion, consolidation and close-out (Al-Talal, 2004; Edwards & Fowler, 2002).

Case study research is mostly used to contribute to the knowledge of individuals, organisations and social phenomena. It enables the researcher to make sense of complex phenomena by investigating holistic and meaningful characteristics in

events such as organisational processes, relations, development and maturation. Case studies are conducted to answer "how" and "why" questions and focus on contemporary issues such as the use of OM in organisational learning over time. It is used when researchers have no or little control over behavioural events (Feagin, Orum & Sjoberg, 1991; Yin, 2003). As stated by Schramm (1971, p. 6):

The central tendency among all types of case study is that it tries to illuminate a decision or set of decisions: why they were taken, how they were implemented, and with what result.

The following steps were used as prescribed methodology by Yin (2003) in the case study approach to organisational research:

- Design of the case study protocol:
  - It was important that the researcher acquire case study analytical skills. This is described in the last section of this chapter as a reflection by the researcher.
  - A protocol (guide) was developed and reviewed after considering the available literature on OM in relation to the NGO sector. The protocol contained an overview of:
    - the topic under investigation and the objectives of the case study (to describe the structure and influence of OM on organisational development and survival throughout its life cycle);
    - procedures of information-gathering (including obtaining permission for interviews and logistics concerning information-gathering), access to sources of information and location of sources;
    - instruments and questions to be included during information-gathering, and
    - a guide for the report (which was adjusted as the research process unfolded).

> The composition of the case study protocol was an attempt to demarcate the scope and structure of the information-gathering procedure and analysis (Yin, 2003).

- Conducting the case study, based on the following three principles (Yin, 2003):
  - The use of multiple data sources (this study included all six possible types of data sources as described in later sections).
  - Creating a case study database. An electronic database was developed and updated with a separate filing system for documents that were only available in hard copy. Some documents had to be placed in storage, and summaries of these as well as impressions of how it relates to the PSG memory were kept in the electronic database.
  - Maintaining the chain of evidence. This was done mainly to increase the trustworthiness of the study and to express the database in terms of a coherent flow of information informing the initial research questions and objective of the study (see Figure 4.1).
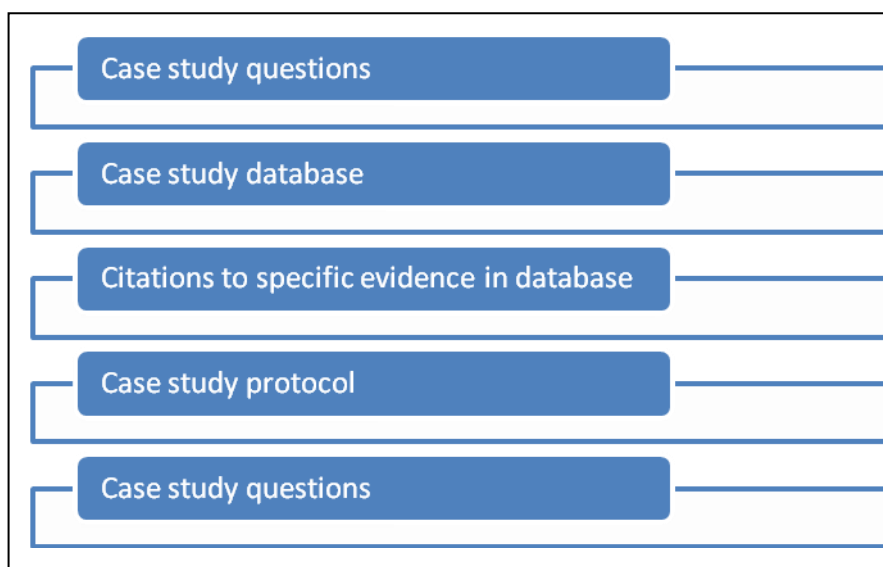
Figure 4.1: Maintaining a chain of evidence (Yin, 2003, p. 106)

- Analysis of case study evidence according to an analytical strategy, which developed during the information-gathering phase of the study. This schedule

was linked to the protocol (due to the confidentiality of the information and participants' details the protocol is only available on request from the author) and initial core questions (see 4.2.3) of the case study, but also incorporated a temporal analysis of developmental phases of the organisation. It was adjusted as information sources were reviewed and incorporated into the developing model.

- Development of conclusions, recommendations and implications based on the gathered evidence.

In the PSG case study, a variety of sources of evidence and methods were used to enable conclusions to be sufficient and trustworthy. The trustworthiness of the interpretations and conclusions was tested by various means, including using key informant review analysis. Triangulation of multiple information sources, methods and analyses as well as incorporating relevant theoretical perspectives further enhanced information and conclusions drawn from the results (Ammenwerth, Iller & Mansmann, 2003; Patton, 2002; Stake, 1995).

To guard against a lack of rigour, which is often mentioned in arguments against case study research, systematic procedures were followed. Every effort was made to guard against ambiguous evidence or biased views, as will be discussed in Chapter 7.

Another argument often raised is concerned with the generalisation of results. This study did not make any statistical inferences, but instead relied on analytical (referencing of results against theories) generalisations and naturalistic (more intuitive) generalisations, which led to a greater understanding of OM within the life cycle of a specific NGO (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). The goal of this case study was to extend the theoretical explanatory base of the nature, role and function of OM (Neale *et al.*, 2006: Yin, 2003).

4.2 Information-gathering

Different methods were used for the collection of information from each of the source categories. An appreciative approach was best suited for this investigation. A retrospective study of an organisation that was in the close-out phase of development was the only possibility to provide a unique temporal insight.

4.2.1 Appreciative approach

A positive approach, Appreciative Inquiry Method, was used (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2005). The main application for appreciative inquiry seems to be as an intervention for organisational change. It consists of four phases (see Figure 4.2), namely the discovery, dream, design and destiny phases. The first phase of appreciative inquiry is often used on its own by researchers. Given the fact that no change would be managed, but only information gathered, only the first phase – discovery – was used as an information collection approach. As no change management or intervention was intended only the discovery phase was included as a positive approach to data collection.
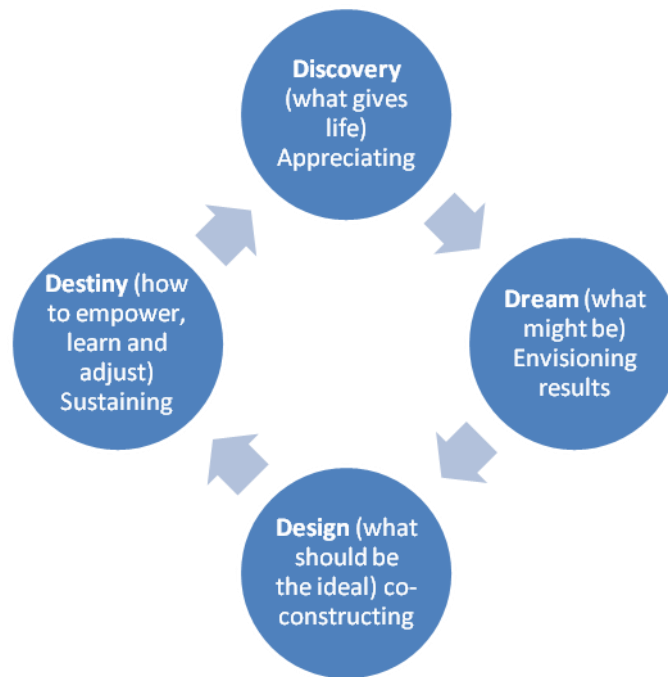
Figure 4.2: Appreciative Inquiry Cycle (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2005, p. 16)

Although the research study did not include an intervention change process, appreciative inquiry engages members of an organisation in their own research. It aids them to discover their positive core and life-giving forces (Whitney & Trosten-Bloom, 2003). In this approach there is a focus on achievements and how projects can be developed to enhance service delivery (solution-focussed rather than problem-focussed). Although the emphasis is not on negative aspects, challenges are also determined, but with associated solutions or changes.

Appreciative inquiry is often used to generate knowledge (especially practical knowledge), as illustrated in Figure 4.3 (Watkins & Mohr, 2001). It is also used in evaluations where applicable and practical solutions and recommendations are sought, and is therefore very appropriate for this evaluation (Elliott, 1999; Preskill & Catsambas, 2006).

Typical questions in appreciative inquiry are:
- "Tell a story about a time when you experienced learner counselling *at its best* and that you were proud to be a part of."

- "What circumstances or conditions made these 'exceptional moments' possible?"
- "What would enable all experiences to be as positive as the one you just described?"
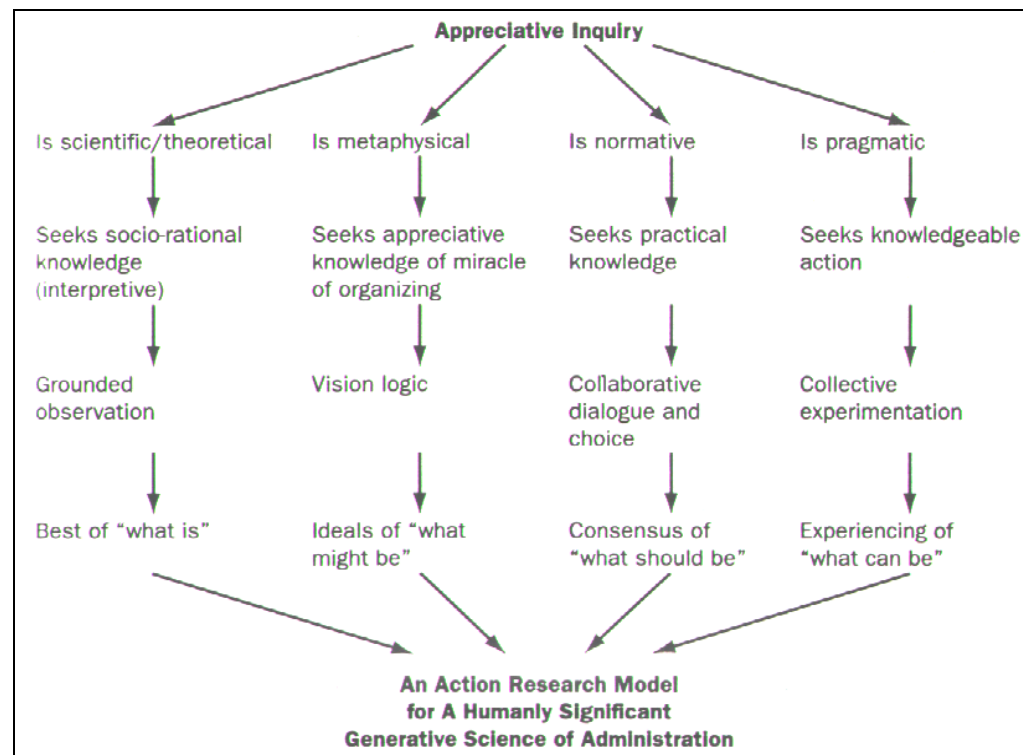
Figure 4.3: Appreciative Inquiry (Watkins & Mohr, 2001)

Although it might seem that PSG did not benefit directly from the process (except for the historical documentation), the beneficiary partner organisations benefitted and will benefit from the study results directly. The positive approach of appreciative inquiry used for information collection also assisted in providing an opportunity for some staff members and key informants who needed closure to voice their opinions in a manner that focussed on the positive aspects of PSG. Some interviewees were very emotional regarding the closure of an organisation that they invested much energy and time in and that they saw as an extension of themselves (and their caring nature).

4.2.2 Information sources

The case used in this study was a regional NGO working in HIV prevention and mitigation. As stated earlier, PSG started in 1985 in association with the Department of Psychology of the University of Zimbabwe. It grew from a local (Zimbabwean) NGO to one working in nine SADC countries. PSG provided funding and technical support to various partner NGOs and CBOs. PSG closed down during 2008 due to a loss of donor funding. Investigating the history of PSG to study OM provided a unique opportunity to study the impact of OM development and possible memory loss and to gain an in-depth understanding of OM using a temporal approach. It is anticipated that the information will have value beyond describing OM and that it might contribute to other management practices that rely on OM (including possibly contributing to monitoring and evaluation plans and systems).

As detailed in Chapter 5, exploring the history of PSG revealed significant phases in the development of the OM. These phases added a temporal approach to the study of the development and loss of the OM.

A *triangulation approach* using different information sources and information-gathering strategies was used to enhance trustworthiness and to ensure authenticity and legitimacy of the data sources. Triangulation can be categorised into four main groups, of which data source triangulation and methodological triangulation were the main types employed in the present study (Denzin, 1984). Although using only one researcher has serious time and cost implications especially when implementing a case study methodology, it had the benefit that in-depth understanding was enhanced (although care was taken to strengthen the trustworthiness of the gathered information by referencing it against key informant reviews) (Tellis, 1997; Yin, 2003).

Data source triangulation in the information-gathering and analysis included the following sources of evidence:

- documentation (PSG provided access to all documents in the resources centre before archiving the data for final storage at a partner organisation);

- archival records (included tracing documents from donors and other organisations and from individuals along with personal documents);

- interviews (47 interviews, as discussed below);

- direct observations during site visits that included contextual reality observations;

- participant observations during meetings and training sessions, and

- physical artefacts, including observation of explicit memory in hard copies and electronic documents and files during various site visits.

In order to obtain information that revealed the organisational and OM development and the perceived influence of OM in decision-making and strategic direction, a variety of data sources were studied (see Table 4.1). The collection of evidence included the review of documents stretching throughout the entire life span of the organisation, searches for documents off-site, desktop review, site visits, attending meetings for observations and conducting 47 individual interviews with:

- staff members (five current at closing down stage, including the last chief executive officer (CEO), who was employed specifically to close down the organisation, a researcher, the final financial manager, a facilitator/trainer and project manager);

- staff members (five past staff members, including a deputy director, two research managers, a project manager and a previous CEO);

- beneficiaries, consisting of 30 interviews with NGOs and CBOs in eight countries (of which four worked across borders or in multicountries – i.e. three or more countries):
  - Botswana
  - Lesotho
  - Malawi
  - Mozambique
  - Swaziland
  - South Africa
  - Zambia
  - Zimbabwe

- similar organisations (five interviews), and
- other sources (one founder member and one consultant).

Unfortunately the founder of PSG could not be contacted (even after repeated attempts over more than two years). The role he played as visionary was elaborated on in many interviews, and although his opinion regarding the memory of PSG could not be obtained, his contributions to the organisation were captured. Perhaps the unavailability and "silence" of his voice carries a message in itself.

A sampling frame with details of staff members and beneficiary organisations was drawn up. A complete list of all employees was compiled to serve as a sampling frame for the employees' interviews. A similar list of beneficiaries was compiled. All documents relevant to the OM were listed and reviewed where available. The review process included the ecological framework and involved classifying the document into a time period (developmental phase of the organisation) and then analysing the different aspects of the memory revealed by the document (including location, influencing factors on the OM, influence of the OM on the system, memory loss, and factors that could enhance OM). Filing systems (both hard copies and electronic versions) were observed as artefacts.

A non-probability convenience sampling method was used to include the viewpoints of all the role-players. An effort was made to include as many as possible of the listed sources as were contactable. A snowball method was used to actively recruit past staff members to participate in the study (Brink, Van der Walt & Van Rensburg, 2007; Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). To enhance information-gathering a variety of interview methods were also used to include staff who emigrated and beneficiaries in other Southern African countries (including face-to-face, telephonic and electronic interviews). Some face-to-face interviews were conducted in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe, and others in South Africa.

Table 4.1: Data sources and methodology

Data source	Population	Sample	Information-gathering method
Employees (current)	6	5 (83%)	Face-to-face interviews
Employees (past)	35	2 (14%)	Face-to-face interviews
		3	Self-completion, electronic interviews (via e-mail) for those in different countries (Australia and New Zealand) and telephonic interview
Beneficiaries	42	16 (71%)	Face-to-face, telephonic interviews, self-completion, electronic interviews (via e-mail) on history and organisational memory
		14	Self-completion, electronic interviews (via e-mail) for surviving 2007 interviews and OM
Founding chairperson	2	1 (50%)	Face-to-face interview
Consultant (long-term IT specialist working with PSG on retainer basis)		1	Self-completion, electronic interviews (via e-mail)
Similar regional organisation representatives		5	Face-to-face interview
Document review	All relevant available documents: Policy document Procedures Annual donor reports Proposals Research reports Evaluation reports Publications Promotional material Minutes of meetings Training material and reports PSG models and guidelines		Document review
Visual sources	DVDs Videos Photos		Observations and visual/textual analysis
Filing system (electronic)	Server and management information system		Observations of artefacts during site visits
Filing system (hard)	Filing cabinets		Observations of artefacts during site visits

Data source	Population	Sample	Information-gathering method
Meetings	Strategic (Dec '07) Anchor partner meeting (Feb '08) Board meeting (Aug '08) Staff meetings (1st Aug and 15th Sept '08) Observing peer educator training		Observations during site visits and meetings
Archival	Strategic documents Minutes of meetings		Document review

Permission to study the organisation has been obtained from the last (final) CEO and board members of PSG. This included permission to review documents. This document review excluded personnel files. The necessary information (e.g. information on number of staff members and their employment periods) was obtained from the Financial Manager. The Board of Directors did not deem ethical clearance from an external committee necessary due to the fact that the organisation was closing and the case study nature of the study (with a focus on the system rather than individuals).

4.2.3 Instruments

The essential core research (and interview) questions centred on the following information:

- Where is the OM located?
- What is the influence (positive or negative) of OM?
- What influences (strengthens or weakens) the OM?
- What happens with an organisation with impaired or loss of memory?
- How does OM change through the NGO's developmental phases?
- How can OM be enhanced?

Different tools were then developed (containing the core questions) for different types of stakeholders (see examples in Appendix A), including:

- staff OM questionnaire (current staff);

- staff OM questionnaire (past staff);

- consultant questionnaire;

- key informant interview schedule (open-ended and in-depth);

- surviving 2007 questionnaire for beneficiary organisations (including OM questions);

- beneficiary questionnaire for historical and OM investigation, and

- OM questionnaire for related organisations.

Most of the tools contained open-ended questions, and staff interviews included an organogram on which the participants could indicate the location of the OM (during their employment and the optimal location according to them). This is available in Appendix A.

The tools and procedures were pilot tested on two part-time staff members and one partner organisation (by performing face-to-face and electronic interviews) before the information-gathering commenced. See Table 4.1 for a description of the data sources and types of data-gathering methods.

To enhance information-gathering, different interview methods were used, including face-to-face interviews, as well as electronic interviews for those who were not available for personal or telephonic interviews. Repeated follow-up and electronic reminders were sent out by the researcher (to individuals) as well as the CEO of PSG (specifically to enhance participation of beneficiary partner organisations). Response rates are generally low for electronic information-gathering methods, although slightly higher for open-ended questions and qualitative methods (Converse, Wolfe, Huang & Oswald, 2008). Every effort was made to identify and recruit as many participants as possible, and using electronic methods was the only feasible method to include participants in Southern Africa and some past staff members living abroad. The overall response rate for employees and beneficiaries was 48%. An analysis of the response rates for each category of respondents shows the difficulty in obtaining participation from past employees (14% – 5 out of 35) compared to current employees (83% – 5 out of 6), beneficiary organisations in nine countries (75% – 30 out of 42) and founding members (50% – 1 of 2). The

organisation was represented well and although some opinions of those who wished to be excluded probably held negative responses, the trustworthiness of the information is high.

4.3 Trustworthiness

To strengthen trustworthiness of the data-gathering and analysis, various methods were employed. The following description centres on the trustworthiness of data-gathering, data analysis and the composition of the conclusions. In essence the trustworthiness of this investigation was established with the following specific techniques:

- Using multiple information sources (information-gathering phase) (see section 4.1).
- Establishing a chain of evidence during information-gathering (information-gathering phase) (see section 4.1).
- Key informant reviews (composition phase). After the drafting of the history from the PSG document review, the draft document was submitted to three key informants who were all part of PSG since its inception. The comments made contained formatting changes and requests to highlight certain aspects and people that were deemed important to PSG history. Their recommendations were integrated in the text as contained in Chapter 5. None of the key informants raised any issues regarding historical information that was regarded as incorrect. Although the reflection on the history was not meant as a full documentation of the organisation's history, the reviews by the key informants had some important implications regarding the memory, as will be discussed in Chapter 7.
- Identifying alternative and rival explanations (data analysis phase). This was done during the analysis phase and is explained in later sections of this chapter and in describing the results in Chapter 6.
- Explanation building (data analysis phase). This is the main aim of the study, and a strong focus had to be maintained on the iterative process of recoding

and integrating data and updating the explanation (while comparing the explanations to rival theories).

- Setting interpretive boundaries (design, data analysis phase). The use of the analysis strategy (see section 4.1) aided in this. It was, however, difficult to keep the focus on the case and the specific topic due to the number and nature of the data sources.

- Repeatability. In an attempt to achieve some methodological replicability, two important strategies were used, namely:
    - the development of a case study protocol, and
    - the development and maintenance of a case study database.

It is important to communicate standards used in qualitative research in ways that address concerns not only for qualitative research in general, but also specific to case studies (Kvale, 1995). According to Yin (2003), consideration must be given in case studies to trustworthiness. To establish trustworthiness it is important to raise the specific methods employed in the current case study in particular:

- ***Establishing appropriate operational measures for describing OM memory as a concept*:**
    - using multiple data sources (information-gathering phase);
    - establishing a chain of evidence during the information-gathering, and
    - having key informants review the draft case study report (composition phase).

- ***Establishing causal relationships*:**
    - pattern-matching (data analysis phase);
    - explanation building (data analysis phase), and
    - identifying and addressing alternative and rival explanations (data analysis phase).

- ***Establishing how the study can be externalised*:**
    - The use of theory in the research design and analysis of the information and clearly documenting and indicating the context of the study allow externalisation.

4.4 Data analysis and integration

The strengths of case studies lie in the convergence of information and in-depth insights to adequately describe the phenomenon under investigation (Mouton, 2001). Rigorous thinking of the researcher is critical to the analytical phase of the study (Tellis, 1997), and the researcher's knowledge and experience were used to maximum advantage in this study.

After initial investigation of the different sources and types of information data, a data analysis strategy specific to this case study was developed. The information strategy, which included using an ecological framework (including different time phases of the OM), enabled the researcher to treat the evidence fairly, produce analytical conclusions and use tools more effectively (see Appendix B for the framework). The analysis included making sense of the data not contained in narrative form (e.g. visual sources, including observations and photographical material) using the same framework. A temporal approach was included with which data was analysed using a timeline. This framework allowed the information to be integrated into the same categories. The coding was open, and the revision of codes formed an iterative process during the information coding and analysis phases. The temporal ecological framework formed the framework to code and analyse information, but did not constrain the codes or themes from emerging, as would have occurred if predetermined codes or modes were used (see Appendix B).

The specific data analysis strategy was an iterative process using an explanation-building technique (Tellis, 1997; Yin, 2003). In explanation building the goal is to analyse the case study by building an explanation as a hypothesis-generating process. In this study it included the following activities:

- Preparing a historical document of PSG. This step involved documenting the history of the organisation and investigating the recall ability of the members of the organisation. It further allowed a primary investigation of the OM. A brief overview of the history and a reflection of the process of accessing the OM form the first part of reporting the results as discussed in Chapter 5.

- Verification of the historical document by key informants.
- Review of documents and making notes on OM from the various documents, observations and site visits. An ecological framework was used to include different levels of influence under investigation (as described in Chapter 3). In addition to the ecological aspects included in the framework it was divided into the life cycle of the organisation to allow investigation changes in the OM over time (see Appendix C for a list of the documents included).
- Preparation of the raw data from interviews (transcriptions and preparation of documents for analysis).
- Coding of the quotations of the documents (including interview transcripts, notes on documents and observations).
- Categorising codes and recoding according to:
  - structure and location of the memory;
  - function of the memory;
  - influences of events on the memory;
  - organisational aspects influenced by the memory;
  - recommendations to enhance OM;
  - influence of developmental phases, and
  - influence of critical incidents.
- Combining the evidence to develop a theoretical model on OM at PSG.
- Critical thinking around rival/alternative explanations.
- Description of the case.
- Investigating the practical implications of the study.

Explanation building goes beyond mere description of the case – it includes an analysis of "how" things happened (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006).

The analysis also addressed the following aspects, as advised by Yin (2003):
- analysing the use of all available evidence;
- evaluating alternative explanations;

- not being distracted from the focus of the case study (this is especially important when the information base is extensive and contains information on related topics), and
- demonstration of prior knowledge by the researcher.

4.5 Ethical issues

The main ethical consideration of the research topic is the cost of not doing the research. By supporting the investigation, the organisation has recognised the value of studying the memory of the organisation. Even though the direct value or benefit to PSG was limited, they encouraged the study to provide valuable information to similar organisations and their own beneficiary NGOs in nine SADC countries. The study will therefore contribute to the beneficiaries (the people benefitting from regionally from HIV prevention and mitigation work) of PSG and other regional NGOs.

Institutional consent to the case study (including document review and observations) was obtained from PSG and entry into the organisation was established. The researcher was authorised to conduct the study by PSG before its closure (through consent). Permission to use documentation and visual sources was given by PSG Management and the PSG Board.

Interviews conducted with staff and stakeholders included verbal informed consent. Where face-to-face interviews were conducted and discussions were recorded on audio cassette, consent for both the participation and recording was obtained. The interviewees were also informed about the purpose and the procedure of the information-gathering and analysis. Confidentiality of discussions was and will be maintained.

Due to the nature of case studies, confidentiality and anonymity had to be managed. Participants were requested to have their identifications made public (none refused).

Given the voluntary nature of the study and the sensitivity of PSG closing down, some staff members chose not to participate; others were not contactable. However, a response rate of 48% for an organisation of 20 years and geographically spread over nine countries can be considered high.

The use of triangulation also contributed to the ethical imperative of qualitative data to ensure the trustworthiness of the information and findings. Another aspect lies in the researcher's experience and stance.

4.6 The researcher

In case studies of this nature it is important to consider the abilities, skills and experience of the researcher (Feagin *et al.*, 1991). As a research psychologist holding two master's degrees, I am suitably qualified (in research methodology) to conduct the study. I have the following skills needed for the study: the ability to ask good questions and interpret answers, listening skills, flexibility, and being unbiased by preconceived ideas. I have a firm grasp of the issues being studied and the NGO context as my experience includes multicountry and cross-country research and familiarity with the key role-players in SADC regional HIV NGOs.

I am very aware of the environment of the organisation and the culture at the time of the study as I was also employed as a research manager during an expansion period of the organisation (in 2004) and could therefore understand the organisational processes. I documented my own impressions of the OM before information-gathering started as well as after the information-gathering (before analysis of the data). The benefit of an "insider" view and understanding of the organisation (or part of its developmental phases) was more beneficial than the cost of not being totally objective (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006).

CHAPTER 5
PROJECT SUPPORT GROUP
SOUTHERN AFRICA: HISTORY

This chapter aims to reflect on the life cycle of Project Support Group Southern Africa (PSG). It further reflects on the body of knowledge retrospectively. The life cycle is demarcated into different phases, on which this chapter and Chapter 6 are based. A full record of the PSG body of knowledge, including a full account of the history of the organisation, is not possible retrospectively after the organisation closed, and falls outside the scope of this study. This chapter provides a brief reflection on how the body of knowledge reveals aspects relevant to the study of the OM of PSG.

Chapter 5 and 6 also contain an additional referencing system in the form of footnotes. This is done to enable reference to the chain of evidence that was collected during the case study. The documents referred to as evidence are attached as Appendix C, a document reflecting on the history of PSG is attached as Appendix D, and a list of the interviews referred to is attached as Appendix E.

5.1 Project Support Group life cycle

5.1.1 Background and main achievements of Project Support Group

PSG can be viewed as an implementing and innovative organisation that expanded to become a regional intermediary organisation. It had its roots in the University of Zimbabwe, and through strong links maintained this basis of academic and innovative work.[1]

PSG at the height of its existence was a regional non-profit organisation working in nine Southern African countries, namely Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe. PSG worked through implementing partners doing HIV and AIDS prevention and mitigation projects.[2]

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[1] Key informant 1; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History); Final Annual Report, 2008
[2] Key informant 1; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History); Final Annual Report, 2008; PSG Profile; PSG Brochure 2005/6

The goal of PSG was stated as:[3]

To develop economical, effective methods that build partners' capacity to deliver economical and effective AIDS prevention and mitigation services.

PSG defined its mission as:[4]

- building bridges between knowledge and application, i.e. applying state-of-the-art knowledge to implement and generate state-of-the-art knowledge to improve practice;
- integrating professionalism and voluntarism, adding value to altruism, and
- developing approaches that link formal health systems to informal community-based AIDS prevention and mitigation initiatives.

PSG had a community-based HIV and AIDS prevention and mitigation approach, using volunteers to deliver services.[5] Communities, however, need an enabling environment through appropriate training. PSG provided approaches that link formal health initiatives to informal, community-based HIV and AIDS prevention and mitigation responses.[6] PSG's approach to capacity-building was based on the conviction that effectiveness derives from partner ownership. The capacity development was geared towards results that included continuous support rather than once-off training.[7] Some partner organisations conducted only mitigation or prevention work, while others were involved in both. Some projects are now offering voluntary counselling and testing services, and a few conduct CD4 counts (even after the closure of PSG).

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[3] Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History); PSG Profile; PSG Brochure 2005/6
[4] PSG Profile; PSG Brochure 2005/6
[5] Beneficiary OM Interview 1; Dube, 2001
[6] Rossiter, 2007
[7] De Jong, 2001

District Commissioner at CD4 count machine handover ceremony, Mpatamatu
(Photo submitted by Mpatamatu Home-based Care, 2006)

Key successes of the organisation were[8]:

- long-standing relationships with donors and effective and efficient channelling of resources to partners (many of them before 1993)[9];

- effective community-based implementation models using volunteers throughout Southern Africa[10];

- effective monitoring and evaluation systems that were applicable to CBOs and NGOs[11];

- long-term partnerships, many of which have been maintained over decades[12];

- partners who have been able to develop and expand activities beyond the core scope of activities and to expand geographically (many partners expanded into multiple countries)[13];

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[8] Krystall, 1998; Key informant 1; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)
[9] Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)
[10] Beneficiary OM Interview 6, 10; Dube, 2001
[11] Proposed Work Plan, 2005; Partner Work Plan, 2005
[12] Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)
[13] Beneficiary OM Interview 6, 13; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)

- commendations by various international agencies, including the World Health Organisation, The World Bank, The British Department for International Development, Family Health International, and various governmental structures[14], and

- documentation not only of activities and successes, but also of processes.[15]

The basis of PSG was the programme implementation model. PSG developed a structural training programme. This programme involved a structured training cycle, with shared reciprocal visits, interaction, and mentoring from more experienced partners to new partners. The cycle included[16]:

- skills-building workshops (providing an overall conceptual and skills-based framework);

- practical internships (new co-ordinators visiting established partners), and

- field support visits (experienced co-ordinators visiting new partners or new co-ordinators).

As the partnerships grew in number, PSG responded with more structured training approaches. During the early years, two training suites existed: a management training suite (10 modules) and a co-ordinators' training suite (six modules).

As PSG expanded and the partner organisations themselves expanded, PSG increased its structure and developed five core training courses[17]:

- a project managers' course;

- a prevention co-ordinators' course;

- a mitigation co-ordinators' course;

- a peer educators' course, and

- a care supporters' course.

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[14] Peer Education Model Guidelines, 2008; Prevention Participatory Approaches Manual, 2004; PSASA Peer Education Training Manual

[15] Learner Guide: GDoH, Research surveys, 2008; Research briefs for surveys, 2005; Research briefs for IDIs, 2005; Research briefs for FGD, 2004

[16] Beneficiary OM Interview 6, 10, 11, 13, 15, 16; Final Annual Report, 2008

[17] Beneficiary OM Interview 6, 10; Final Annual Report, 2008; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)

When analysing the history and development of PSG five different phases of development emerged including:

- Start-up phase
- Expansion in target area
- Expansion in function
- Consolidation and
- Close-out

PSG Time Line

Start-up   **Expansion (physical)**   **Expansion (function)**   **Consolidation**   **Close-out**
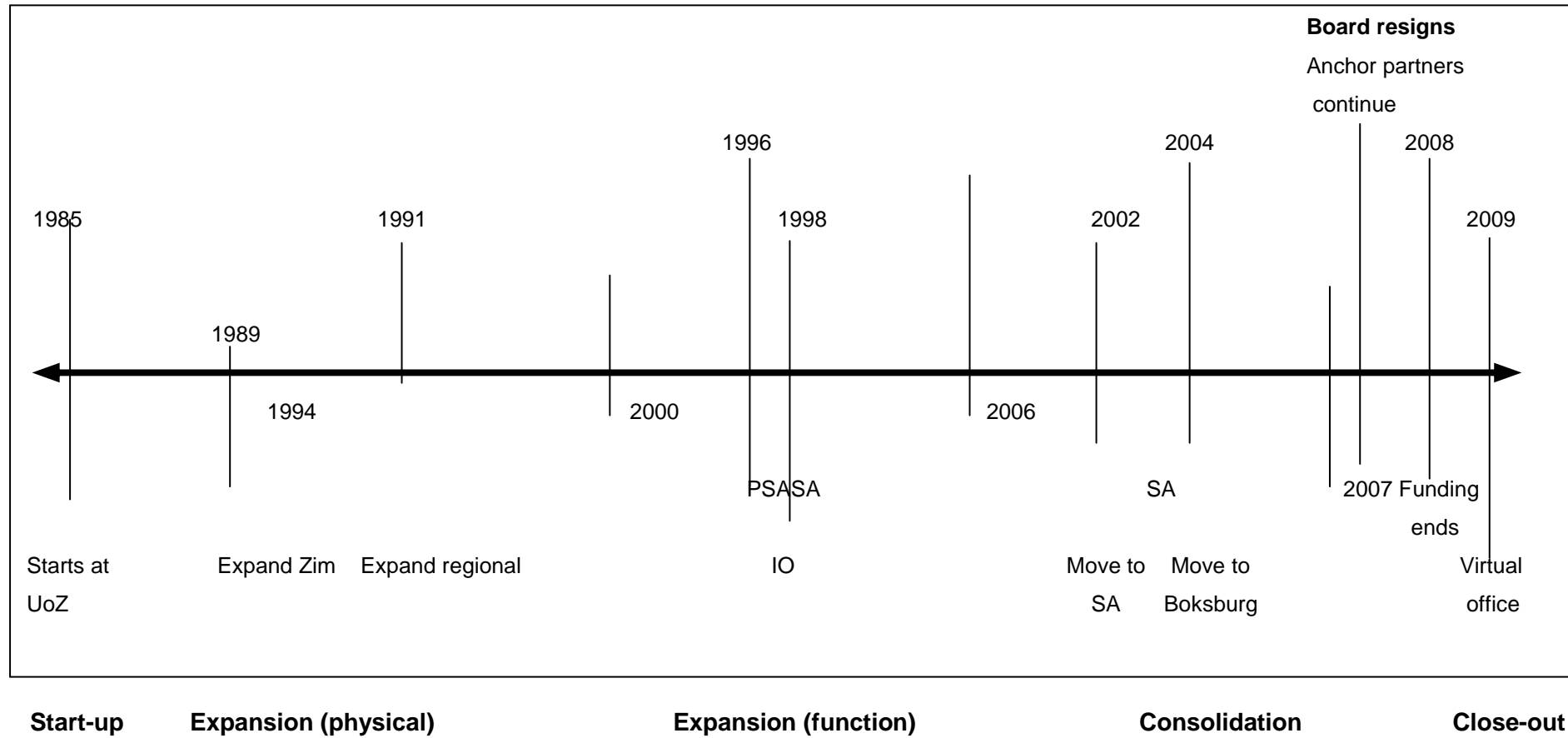
5.1.2 Life cycle

It is not easy to divide the life of an organisation that evolved rapidly and in different aspects (including geographically, changing from an implementing to intermediary funding organisation while wearing an academic hat) into distinct stages. The following should be seen as an attempt to guide the analysis of the memory and not as absolute and distinct stages of development. Chronologically the phases overlap, for example with expansion of area and consolidation of functions taking place at the same time.

5.1.2.1 Start-up phase (1986-1998)

The beginning of PSG can be traced to 1986. An ethnographic study of HIV-vulnerable women in Bulawayo was undertaken by the Psychology Department of the University of Zimbabwe. A need was detected for sexually transmitted infections (STI) education and services. In response to this, the Bulawayo City Council initiated an HIV/STI project for vulnerable women and men. The start-up phase also involved a geographical expansion to replicate the model. The first expansion involved replicating the model in similar communities, including Kariba and then Mutare (after careful considering risks and physical location and moving to a next project once the project was strong and functioning well). After Mutare, PSG involved projects in Beira (in Mozambique) and then Harare. This was still undertaken by PSG as a service delivery agent of the University of Zimbabwe. This was the first Peer Education HIV Prevention Programme in Zimbabwe.[18]

During this phase, PSG (especially in the form of the founder) was involved in developing an innovative programme implementing model. This implementation model was developed, tested and replicated based on an academic (especially psychological

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[18] Beneficiary OM Interview 2, 6, 10; De Jong, 2001; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)

and behavioural) theory.[19] This was a key strength of the organisation throughout its existence. The scientific view and documentation and publication enabled the organisation to have partnerships with other academic institutions and to base learnings and decisions (such as expansion and replication) on evidence. This evidence also led to the expansion of the organisation based on demand for replication of the implementation model by external stakeholders (including municipalities, healthcare providers, businesses such as mines, and the defence force).[20]

The main and most prominent feature of this phase was the leadership. The founder and leader of the organisation played the crucial role of developing the implementation model. The relationships and links enabled testing and roll-out of the model. His reputation, work ethic, dedication and high intellectual abilities enabled the organisation to start and develop rapidly.

The first people involved in the organisation were students of the Psychology Department. They were handpicked from the cream of the students and moulded into having a similar work ethic, and were trained and led by example. Initially the staff consisted of only one paid member (and volunteer students), with the founder working as consultant generating the needed funding. In essence, the organisation during this phase relied only on the founder's experience, abilities (including fundraising), links and networks.[21]

5.1.2.2 Expansion in target territory (1988-2006)

Even during the start-up phase some expansion took place, mainly to replicate the services that PSG offered. PSG expanded throughout Zimbabwe. It then also expanded

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[19] Beneficiary OM Interview 2, 4; Pitts, Wilson, Phillips, White & Shorocks, 1989; Wilson, Msimanga & Greenspan, 1988; Wilson, Chiroro, Lavelle & Mutero, 1989; Wilson, Greenspan & Wilson, 1989; Wilson, Greenspan, Sibanda & Wilson, 1989; Wilson, Sibanda, Greenspan & Wilson, 1989
[20] Key informant 1; Beneficiary OM Interview 6, 10, 11
[21] Key informant 1; Beneficiary OM Interview 1, 2, 4

to Zambia (and formed a branch office in the form of a new organisation called the Human Resources Trust. This was possible through personal links of the founder through the University of Zimbabwe and his reputation and skills. The *modus operandi* included outreach activities. This included the key personnel travelling, providing capacity development and input into programme development, with the base remaining at the office in Harare.[22]

The expansion continued to Botswana (also based on personal contacts with members of the University of Oslo). Although an organisation was formed replicating the PSG main office in Zimbabwe, it never became as significant as the organisation in Zambia. The expansion continued to Namibia, South Africa, and for a short while, Tanzania, and the implementation model was replicated in Kenya (although not as a direct funding beneficiary of PSG). Some of the projects (some became new replicated PSG projects while others were part of existing projects or under guidance of existing structures such as government departments and municipalities) developed from an external demand (from businesses, municipalities, healthcare providers), while others followed a natural geographical expansion.[23] All these expansions are included under the start-up phase as PSG still functioned as an implementing organisation. It still functioned from the same office and used the same methodology. This regional growth also included developing governance structures in each country in addition to the overall regional governance structure.[24]

5.1.2.3 Expansion and consolidation in function and activities (1998-2002)

This phase overlaps with the expansion of the target area and the following consolidation phase. PSG was registered in 1993 as a not-for-profit research, training and management support organisation in South Africa.[25] PSG identified donors with a

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[22] Key informant 1; Beneficiary OM Interview 1, 2, 4, 11
[23] Key informant 1; Beneficiary OM Interview 1, 2, 4, 10
[24] Key informant 1, 2
[25] Krystall, 1998

long-term focus and those who were willing to work regionally. PSG then complemented its core donors with additional funds from donors with a shorter term perspective. PSG was careful not to position funds from shorter term donors at the core of any programme activity. PSG kept administration both monetary and office staff costs low.[26]

The initiation of the on-grant activities (the establishment of PSG as an intermediary organisation) took place during 1998, when PSG submitted a proposal to the Norwegian government – the Norwegian Agency for Development Co-operation.[27] PSG received support from the Norwegian and Netherlands governments (the Royal Dutch Embassy and the Royal Norwegian Embassy), and the Swedish International Development Agency since 1993, including significantly expanded support under regional Norwegian and Netherlands government grants from 1999 onward.[28] Largely through these grants PSG has been supporting approximately 45 different partner organisations and 400 community HIV and AIDS prevention and mitigation projects throughout Southern Africa. (See Appendix F for a list of beneficiary organisations.)[29]

Since 2003, an annual budget of around US$6.3 million had been disbursed in grants to partner projects. On average, a reasonable amount of around 7.5% (well below the normally accepted 10-15% for grant-making management costs) was used to cover the operational costs of the PSG office and its services in training, support, research and project and financial management. The contracts between PSG and its donor partners were completed in December 2006.[30] Provisions were made for an extension to ensure the maintenance of work and to provide PSG and its partners the time to develop new strategies.[31]

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[26] Beneficiary OM Interview 14, 15; De Jong, 2001
[27] Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)
[28] Netherlands-Norwegian Joint Proposal, 2002-2006; SIDA Mitigation Proposal, 2002
[29] Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History); Final Annual Report, 2008
[30] PSG Annual Report, 2006; Rossiter, 2007
[31] PSG Annual Report, 2006; Rossiter, 2007

The major changes in the organisation included an expansion of its function and the ability to reach a wider target audience. The research functions of the organisation increased and a research manager was appointed to enhance this function. Commissioned research complemented the funding sources and the organisational reputation and evidence base.[32]

Because PSG developed from a unit at the University of Zimbabwe (Psychology Department), research activities had always been a priority. The research focussed on identifying, describing and refining effective prevention and mitigation strategies.[33]

Initially PSG evaluated the large-scale, economical prevention project through existing data sources. During 1997, PSG developed a major focus on intervention research. These studies included the then popular trend of community randomised trials. The donor-driven evidence-based approach also resulted in the same trend in PSG research studies. This was especially true for prevention work, which needed to be validated or else run the risk of being marginalised by other medical interventions.

PSG's intervention research can be divided into several categories[34]:

- Baseline and follow-up cross-sectional surveys (with control groups). These surveys were undertaken in Zimbabwe, Zambia and South Africa.
- Coverage studies to determine the effectiveness as confirmed by behavioural data were also conducted.
- Quasi-experimental studies were undertaken (including comparison groups). The results of these were usually rapidly available.
- Randomised community trials were also conducted. These included a three-country study for Population Council Horizons Project[35] and a five-country study for Family Health International and Bristol-Myers Squibb.[36]

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[32] Beneficiary OM Interview 1, 2, 4; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)
[33] Robotin & Chiroro, 2004
[34] Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History); De Jong, 2001

The work during this phase shifted more to support and technical assistance to partner organisations, continuous funding sourcing and distribution and less direct implementation. The implementation was undertaken through grassroots and larger NGOs, CBOs, faith-based organisations and municipal structures. Specific responsibilities regarding the intermediary function were key to the development of PSG. These included partner selection (according to clearly defined criteria), financial disbursements, central monitoring and record-keeping, and technical assistance to partner projects.[37]

Regular prevention and mitigation regional skills building workshops were conducted by PSG support staff (project leaders, currently called regional technical advisors). Other activities included co-ordinating national workshops (conducted between partners in a specific country), internships and mentorship programmes. Field visits were conducted to identify challenges, innovations and best practices.[38]

5.1.2.4 Consolidation (2002-2007)

During 2002, three staff members of PSG moved to South Africa due to the socio-political situation in Zimbabwe. Although the shift might initially have been regarded as an expansion, it was the start of a consolidation. On a financial level PSG secured funding on a long-term basis with 3- and 5-year proposals. In an attempt to consolidate reporting to donors and limit repetitive activities, two of the three major donors agreed to combine their funding and to receive one combined progress report.[39]

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[35] De Jong, 2001
[36] Commissioned research for BMS & FHI 1-6
[37] Krystall, 1998
[38] Beneficiary OM Interview 11, 13, 14, 15, 16; Final Annual Report, 2008; Project Leaders Meeting, June 2004; Regional Mitigation Workshop Reports 1 & 2, 2004; Regional Prevention Workshop Reports, 2004; Regional Monitoring & Evaluation Workshop, 2005
[39] Key informant 1, 2; Beneficiary OM Interview 6, 9, 10, 13

After 2004 the research focus shifted to assessing outcomes and the impact of projects at community level.[40] These surveys used partner recruited research staff and included upscaling partner research skills, including participatory and qualitative skills. During 2005 and 2006, annual surveys were conducted at 10 partner sites. During 2005, five mitigation sites (including three with control sites) and five prevention sites were surveyed. The 2006 surveys included four prevention sites and six mitigation sites.[41] Surveys for the Gauteng Department of Health included four in 2006 at different project sites[42], one in 2007 at hostels, and another compared behavioural changes between orphans, non-orphans and adults in Orange Farm.[43] The 2008 surveys were conducted at higher education institutions, investigating peer education as a behaviour change method.[44]

The research activities during the last few years were also strongly linked to monitoring and especially evaluation activities. Outcomes and impact assessments were not only conducted for partner projects and to measure PSG activity effectiveness, but also for other organisations on a consultancy basis, for example, during 2005 and 2006, a longitudinal study was conducted in Ladysmith for Bristol-Myers Squibb and Family Health International[45], and during 2006, a baseline survey was conducted on palliative care for Family Health International at four sites in the Limpopo and Northern Cape Provinces, as well as studies for the Academy for Educational Development. This illustrated and strengthened the research, monitoring and evaluation status of PSG and its partners.[46] (See Appendix G for a list of research projects and consultancies).

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[40] Beneficiary OM Interview 10, 11; PSG Research Activities, 2005
[41] PSG Annual Survey Reports documents 1-21
[42] Surveys for GDH 1-4
[43] Surveys for GDH 5, 6; Final Annual Report, 2008
[44] Surveys for GDH 7
[45] Beneficiary OM Interview 10, 11; Commissioned research for BMS & FHI 1-6
[46] Commissioned ICPC Research Reports FHI 1-5

Great emphasis was placed on the monitoring and evaluation capacity development of partners. It included a regional workshop in 2005 where skills, knowledge and new applicable and easy-to-use methodologies were shared.[47]

A tiered structure and approach evolved as a natural development. Anchor partners (experienced and large-scale partners) took on more responsibility for smaller and less developed partners. This expanded the original strategy of PSG, where co-ordinators provided mentoring and training to each other.[48]

Consulting had been rendered for international agencies, including the Ford and Rockefeller Foundations, the Red Cross Society, World Vision, the Wellcome Trust, the World Health Organisation, the World Bank, the British Department for International Development, the United States Agency for International Development, the European Community, Family Health International, the Academy for Educational Development, Population Services International, Population Council International, the Regional AIDS Training Network, the Horizons Project, and governmental departments (e.g. the Gauteng Department of Health, Multisectorial AIDS Unit).[49]

The expanded activities necessitated a change in staff. The management included an executive director, programmes director, financial manager and research manager. More administrative and financial staff members were employed, as well as project leaders. Other personnel (including part-time staff) included an IT officer, researchers, data capturers and a research writer.[50]

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[47] Beneficiary OM Interview 9, 10; Regional Monitoring & Evaluation Workshop Material and Report, 2005

[48] Key informant 1; Beneficiary OM Interview 11, 13, 14, 15, 16; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History); Final Annual Report, 2008

[49] Key informant 1; Beneficiary OM Interview 1, 2, 3; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History); Final Annual Report, 2008; Memorandum of Agreement between GDoH and PSG, 2006; Gauteng AIDS Plan, 2005/2006; AED Baseline Assessment Report, 2005

[50] Key informant 9

Preparing for research fieldwork
(Photo by Jansen van Rensburg, 2007, Johannesburg)

PSG maintained strong links to universities, probably due to two main factors: 1) its own origin from the University of Zimbabwe, and 2) as a thought leader in building programme implementation models for training and practice.[51] PSG has collaborated with the University of Zimbabwe, University of Zambia, University of Pretoria (Centre for the Study of AIDS in Africa), University of Botswana, University of Mozambique, University of Tulane, University of Oslo and Diakkonhjemmet University in Norway.[52] There were also placements and an internship for research students from the universities. Research presentations and documents were developed. A specialist (and

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[51] Beneficiary OM Interview 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 10; Peer Education Model Guidelines, revised for GDoH, 2008; Prevention Participatory Methods Manual, 2004
[52] Beneficiary OM Interview 1, 2; Krystall, 1998; Final Annual Report, 2008

an assistant) was employed to develop a management information system to enhance the documentation of project proposals, reports and other information.[53]

Due to the move out of Zimbabwe, the funding resources had to be allocated to new accounts. This was not problematic in Zambia, but a very disruptive incident occurred when money transferred to the South African account was the victim of an internal fraud scheme at the bank. Although most of the funds were recovered, the ensuing court case and unavailability of funding caused various problems. This, and a change in spending pattern (new property) raised concerns with donors. An audit and evaluation of the activities of PSG lowered staff morale and seriously damaged many relationships.[54]

This phase saw many attempts to change staff and board members. After having the deputy (programmes) director act as director after the resignation of the original director, three different directors tried to grasp the key aspects of PSG and lead the organisation into a new phase.[55] The staff turnover increased, and resentment from some individuals led to a serious loss of information in long-term employed and key individuals as well as in filing systems (e.g. parts of the electronic filing system developed through the management information system staff were deleted).[56]

Despite the human resource problems and the issues with funding and donor organisations, PSG maintained the implementation activities through the efforts of the partner organisations. In 2007, no funding could be distributed and although partner organisations suffered (especially the smaller ones and the ones depending largely on PSG for funding and resources), they survived (see Appendices H and I). In true PSG style, a study was commissioned to investigate the key strengths that enabled this. The

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[53] Proposal for MIS for PSG, 2005; Various documents related to MIS development, including minutes of meetings; Personal observations of the system; Observation of hard and electronic filing systems
[54] Key informant 1
[55] Final Annual Report, 2008
[56] Key informant 5

main aspects related to the capacity built by PSG[57], the reputation and legacy of PSG, which allowed credit from suppliers, networking and relationships, community involvement and ownership, volunteerism and dedication of staff, communication, and using existing structures.[58]

At the time the organisation was in the close-out phase it was working in nine Southern African countries through 42 partner organisations (NGOs, CBOs and faith-based organisations).[59]

**Training by PSG of organisations supported by the Multisectorial AIDS Unit,
Gauteng Department of Health**
(Photo by Jansen van Rensburg, 2007, Johannesburg)

PSG continued to add value to the regional efforts and strategies though participation in various forums. The organisation continued contributing to the Regional AIDS Training

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[57] Jansen van Rensburg, 2008 (Surviving 2007 study); Surviving 2007 interviews 1-14
[58] Jansen van Rensburg, 2008 (Surviving 2007 study); Surviving 2007 interviews 1-14
[59] PSG Brochure and Profile; Final Annual Progress Report, 2008

Network[60] and was part of the founding of a regional organisation to enhance regional activities of organisations working regionally in SADC, the Regional Association of AIDS NGOs (RAANGO), in 2007.[61] The reasons for setting up RAANGO included:

- to ensure that civil society was adequately represented on HIV and AIDS issues at regional level, including the SADC UNAIDS Partnership Forum, and
- to look at options of representation of civil society at regional level.

The purpose of RAANGO was twofold: 1) on external-regional level: common identity at regional level/one voice, and collaboration with SADC, the African Union, the New Partnership for Africa's Development and partner organisations, and 2) on internal-regional level: collaboration, partnering, sharing of information, and to avoid a duplication of activities/efforts.

RAANGO meeting, December 2007

(Photo by Jansen van Rensburg, 2007, Livingston, Zambia)

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[60] Beneficiary OM Interview 14, 15; RATN & KHI Conference Report, 2009
[61] Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)

5.1.2.5 Close-out (2007-2008)

The official close-out phase started when the funders announced that there was no extension to the funding beyond 2008.[62] Although many attempts were made at the last minute and by many individuals (including ex-staff members) to obtain additional funding, the ultimate decision was to appoint a director with the purpose of a planned close-out.[63]

The PSG Board went through major changes during 2007. In March 2007 the board resigned in an effort to allow PSG to restructure and develop new strategies. Fortunately seven of the anchor partners agreed to take on the added responsibility of serving on the board. This commitment must be commended, especially since 2007 was a challenging year for each of the projects. The board provided valuable assistance to the PSG office.[64]

The skeleton staff that remained consisted of the director, a financial person, a programmes officer, data capturer (to assist with the collection of data for the final report) and a general administrative person. None of these staff members were long-serving members, and most of them were employed for less than one year. They not only had to manage the closing of the organisation, but also had to deal with emotional reactions from ex-staff members, partner organisations and other stakeholders (e.g. other regional organisations).[65] Despite the dire situation, efforts were still made to save the organisation.[66]

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[62] RNE Meeting, 11 February 2008
[63] Key informant 4, 5, 6, 9, 11
[64] Mid-term Report, 2008; Final Annual Report, 2008
[65] Mid-term Report, 2008; Final Annual Report, 2008
[66] PSG Strategic Plan 2008-2012; Research Vision 2007

The organisation, however, committed to documentation of the history and finalising a few research studies for publication.[67] This, and the fact that the majority of the partner organisations continued to be sustainable, indicate that the organisation did not fail, but completed a "normal" life expectancy.[68]

The main success of the organisation lies in the continuation of the partner organisations, which included scaling up and cloning (layering). Scaling-up activities can include enlarging the organisation, its target area or the methodology employed. In the case of PSG, cloning was evident to enable the scaling up of activities. The cost-effectiveness of scaling up is often seen as compromising quality. PSG assisted partner organisations in expanding their coverage and in some instances expanding their physical reach or areas of influence.[69]

Layering or cloning usually involves development of a multitiered structure. The use of anchor partners to support smaller, developing partners was illustrative of this. PSG could also have splitted into smaller bodies with either specialised or localised roles. What is evident is the development of some organisations to replicate the PSG (the mother organisation) function. For example, some of the PSG beneficiary organisations now also work regionally, in different manners[70]:

- Hands @ Work works in Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa and Zambia and is expanding to countries outside PSG countries. This organisation has clear country offices that function independently. The central office (Masoyi) is the experimental arm, which replicates successful strategies in other countries.
- Project Support Association Southern Africa (PSASA) works in different countries (Lesotho, Mozambique, South Africa and Swaziland), in some instances with a very long reach, from a central office in South Africa.

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[67] Jansen van Rensburg, Henderson & Coats, 2007; Jansen van Rensburg, 2007; Jansen van Rensburg & Pillay, 2009; RATN & KHI, 2009
[68] Jansen van Rensburg, 2008 (Surviving 2007 study)
[69] Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)
[70] Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)

- Thembalethu works in Mozambique, South Africa and Swaziland and has a similar approach to PSASA, with a shorter reach, being able to work across borders due to its location.

- The Southern African Catholic Bishops' Conference works in another country (Lesotho) through established connections to the Lesotho Catholic Bishops' Conference.

5.2 Body of knowledge

5.2.1 Main components of the body of knowledge

The body of knowledge of PSG (that was housed in different parts or elements of the OM) included [71]:

- PSG history (in documents as well as personal individual memories of all persons involved with the organisation throughout its lifetime).

- Funding and other proposals and programme documents such as financial and annual donor reports.

- Partner portfolios (including all the relevant information from funding proposals to different formats of reports such as DVDs, photos, quarterly financial and narrative reports). In this sense PSG formed a component of the partner organisation memories.[72]

- Academic and scientific documents of both PSG and thematic information relevant to its functioning – research reports and consultancies. (A list is attached as Appendix G. This list is, however, not inclusive of all consultancies as many have been done by the founder of the organisation based on his personal reputation and in his own capacity).

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[71] Appendix C; Final Annual Report, 2008; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)
[72] Various, as listed under proposals and strategic documents

- Processes and policies for PSG (including human resource documents such as job descriptions and performance appraisal documents) as well as the partner organisation development.[73]

- The PSG programme implementation model with all the accompanying documents on organisational management, operational research, monitoring and evaluation, report-writing and financial controls (with the relevant templates, frameworks and guidelines).[74]

- Records of activities such as regional workshops, site visits, internship reports and other technical reports of project managers and leaders.[75]

All these made significant contributions to the organisation and its implementing partners as the main objective of PSG remained replication of successes.

PREVENTION: Human Resources Trust peer educators at an outreach at Chipata Compound

(Photo by Jansen van Rensburg, 2004, Lusaka, Zambia)

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[73] Human Resource Documents 1-8

[74] Beneficiary OM Interview 6, 10; Peer Education Model Guidelines, 2008; Prevention Participatory Approaches Manual, 2004

[75] Beneficiary OM Interview 11, 13, 15, 16; Mid-term Programme, 2008

MITIGATION: Orphans and Vulnerable Children and children of staff at the crèche facility at Thembalethu Home-based Care
(Photo by Jansen van Rensburg, 2005, Malelane)

5.3 Implications for studying the organisational memory

It is important to reflect shortly on the historical information (life cycle) and description of the body of knowledge as it affects the study of the OM.

The aspects of the history and body of knowledge that are contained in the memory and affecting the memory are included in the analysis of PSG's memory in the next chapter. The process of obtaining the information for this description of the life cycle and the body of knowledge revealed aspects of the memory.

The description of the events was documented in documents such as reports and promotional material. However, certain discrepancies were found, and the verification of facts was mostly relying on individual members interviewed. It seemed that the more aspects of the history were repeated (for example in background paragraphs of proposals or funding reports), the more diluted and even distorted it became. Evaluation

reports attempted to focus on the history, but due to the different purposes of these documents it often only gave a brief repetition of the terms of reference or other documents studied.

Individual accounted experiences rich in emotion and information that was not directly relevant, yet very informative or revealing more of the context or organisational culture and environment at the time. It seemed that PSG had been true to its mission and that its impact over the past 22 years was significant and relevant even when it closed in 2008.

CHAPTER 6

TEMPORAL CHANGES IN THE ORGANISATIONAL MEMORY OF PROJECT SUPPORT GROUP

"The Disintegration of the Persistence of Memory" by Salvador Dali, 1954

This chapter will investigate the changes that occurred during the different phases in the development of PSG.

6.1 Start-up phase (1986-1998)

Bulawayo: Birth town of PSG activities

6.1.1 Structure and location

From the birth till the very last day of closure of PSG its OM played a crucial role in the development and success of the organisation.[76] The memory during the start-up phase was located mostly in two individuals (including the founder) and in careful documentation. The physical files and documents were located in the Psychology Department of the University of Zimbabwe and the two subsequent PSG offices in Harare. This was more in the form of the initial project proposals, research reports and consultation documents.[77]

The OM originates in the vision and mission of the organisation.[78] The memory is important to understand how and why the organisation started. The historical

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[76] Key informant 1, 3, 4; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)

[77] Key informant 1, 4; Beneficiary OM Interview 6, 10, 12, 15; PSG proposals, 1996-2000, 1998-2001; PGS Progress Report 1999-2001; Krystal, 1998; Wilson *et al.*, 1998; PSG Programme Document 1999-2001; PSG Operations Research Study Proposal, 1996/7

[78] Key informant 1, 2, 6, 9

component of the OM also allows learning and development of strategies.[79] It is built by people and adjusted and refined according to successes and failures. The process is iterative with data-gathering, analyses and interpretation. Opinions are formed to enable the OM to mature.[80] The OM involves much more than the history of the organisation and needs filtering and sorting of historical events while focussing on the future.[81] The OM also relies on the relationships created with donors, civil society, government structures and other partners.[82]

6.1.2 Factors influencing the organisational memory

The main influence was the founder. He did not only generate the knowledge, but also disseminated it and was the main "container" and manager of the memory.[83] The OM developed due to his academic background, passion for knowledge and insight into the importance of capturing and storing the OM. This was a positive aspect that enhanced the OM. The emphasis of PSG on capacity-building ensured that lessons learnt did not remain in the OM of the "mother organisation".[84] The importance of placing theory into action was shown through developing the PSG Peer Education Implementation Model and sharing it widely.[85]

While PSG was an implementing organisation it did not invest much time or resources into formal documentation of the OM, although good processes, financial systems and a

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[79] Key informant 1, 2
[80] Key informant 1, 3, 6, 9
[81] Key informant 1, 4, 6; Beneficiary OM Interview 12, 15, 16
[82] Key informant 1, 2; Beneficiary OM Interview 1, 2, 4, 9, 11, 13, 16
[83] Key informant 1, 9; Beneficiary OM Interview 13, 15
[84] Key informant 1, 6; Beneficiary OM Interview 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, 16; Related organisation 2; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)
[85] Key informant 1, 7; Beneficiary OM Interview 1, 2; PSASA Peer Education Model; PSG Peer Education Model Guidelines, 2008

variety of documents were in place.[86] Research studies were conducted that enabled the OM to develop through the thought leadership of the founder. Many publications resulted, but these were not placed into a structured knowledge framework.[87] This and later events raised many questions regarding the allowance of individual intellectual property rights. Recognition of individuals' intellectual rights and those of the OM as a whole raised important issues. Most of the research was initiated, planned and conducted by the founder.[88]

The fact that activities took place over an increasingly wide geographic area, but that there was only one main office, enhanced the storage and recall of the memory. The OM was physically located in one place, which enabled the memory to be stable. The fact that the physical location was at an academic institution further enhanced the capturing (documentation) of and access to the memory.[89]

6.1.3 Influence of the organisational memory on the organisation and its functions

At this stage the OM was the main driver of the organisation. The organisation's main function depended on the building and expansion of the memory. The OM co-existed with the knowledge generation and replication abilities of the organisation at the time. OM is crucial for decision-making regarding the adaption of piloted programme models (the main function and focus of the organisation at the time).[90] It is also important to

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[86] PSG proposals, 1996-2000, 1998-2001; PGS Progress Report 1999-2001; Krystal, 1998; Wilson *et al.*, 1998; PSG Programme Document 1999-2001; PSG Operations Research Study Proposal, 1996/7
[87] Key informant 1, 2; Pitts *et al.*, 1989; Wilson, Msimanga & Greenspan, 1988; Wilson *et al.*, 1989; Wilson, Greenspan & Wilson, 1989
[88] Key informant 1, 4
[89] Key informant 1, 5
[90] Key informant 4, 12

document decision-making processes to enable replication of both the activities and the decision-making processes.[91]

6.1.4 Memory loss

Due to the lack of a very formal and structured foundational OM, some documents could have been lost at the time, but the extent of the loss was not determined. The loss was, however, not expressed in any interview or found in any document reviewed for this study.[92] As the two main keepers of the OM were involved in all PSG activities at the time, access to the memory was easy, efficient and effective.[93]

6.1.5 Enhancing memory

A basic OM system should have been developed at the time that could provide a framework for the future PSG OM. This could assist documentation and capturing of organisational knowledge on a continuous basis, taking into consideration development of the organisation and changes in the environment.[94]

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[91] Key informant 1, 4; Proposals, 1996-2000; Programme document, 1999-2001; PSG Psychology Department University of Zimbabwe Report, 1998-2001; Proposal Evaluation, 1998
[92] Key informant 2
[93] Key informant 1
[94] Key informant 5, 12

6.2 Expansion of target territory (1988-2006)

Regional expansion of PSG activities

6.2.1 Structure and location

During this part of the development of PSG the OM was still situated in the key staff, especially the long-serving members.[95] The management of the physical documents was the responsibility of the financial manager, who held the keys to the filing cabinet, but not the directory to the OM.[96]

The partners started to develop their own OM (based on replications of the PSG OM development process) and housed parts of the PSG OM. Large parts of the explicit and individual OM were also stored in PSG branch offices in Zambia and with anchor partners (such as the City Council of Mutare and PSASA).[97] This expansion of the OM was especially important, not only considering documents, but also new capacity and skills that were rapidly built across the region at the time. With the expansion there was

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[95] Key informant 7
[96] Key informant 7; Observations of the filing system
[97] Key informant 1, 7; Beneficiary OM Interview 10, 12, 15; Partner narrative and financial reports for all years

also increased documentation regarding reporting structures from partners to PSG and from PSG to donors.[98]

When the move of the head office to South Africa occurred, most of the documents (up to that date) remained with the Zimbabwe office and the staff who remained there (housed in a "library" format). This meant a split in the core physical OM. Due to political threats to NGOs, many of the documents were destroyed in later years. The main implication of this split and the destruction of the documents was the difficulty in conducting the financial audit and evaluations in 2004/5.[99]

6.2.2 Factors influencing the organisational memory

During the expansion phase the OM and the metamemory were still situated in the individual staff members and the founder of the organisation. There was no threat of memory loss while expanding, but the move to South Africa raised many challenges. The founder of the organisation was physically removed from the rest of the organisation (as he did not move to South Africa, but played a larger international function and travelled extensively for his consultancy work). He then had to play a different role in the organisation. His influence was very strong until the close-out of the organisation (this was even reflected in the choice of property and small issues such as the allocation of parking areas), and he continued to influence the culture of the organisation. Balancing the reliance on this prominent figure and retaining the OM with changing the organisation and adapting to new circumstances took a large toll, especially on internal relationships in the organisation.[100]

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[98] Key informant 1, 2
[99] Key informant 1, 2, 3, 7; Beneficiary OM Interview 2; Rossiter, 2007; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)
[100] Key informant 1, 7; PSG Policy and Procedures Document, 2004

6.2.3 Influence of the organisational memory on the organisation and its functions

As a result of the political situation in Zimbabwe a major portion of the OM was physically situated in a different location or destroyed.[101] The day-to-day functioning of the organisation and the explicit OM were not severely disrupted due to the fact that the key personnel (three main staff members made the move to South Africa) brought their individual OM with them. The main challenge, however, arose when an external financial audit and organisational evaluation were requested by the donors. This was a direct result of the fraud committed when transferring the money to the South African bank. It was difficult for external persons to access the individual memories, and the loss of financial records and other documents in Zimbabwe from the original start-up phase of the organisation contributed to the difficulty. The result was a loss of reputation and serious damage to relationships.[102]

6.2.4 Memory loss

The extent of the memory loss during this phase could not be determined.[103] During the early part of this developmental phase there were electronic backups of the documents (scanned and stored by the founder), but these could not be traced for this study. The publications (scientific articles) revealed stable aspects of the memory. Later in the phase, the requested external evaluation revealed the difficulties and challenges to access memory located in individual organisational memories.

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[101] Key informant 1, 2; Beneficiary OM Interview 11, 13, 14, 15; Rossiter, 2007; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)

[102] Key informant 1, 2; Beneficiary OM Interview 9, 11, 13; Rossiter, 2007; Jansen van Rensburg, 2009 (PSG History)

[103] Key informant 1, 2

6.2.5 Enhancing memory

Sharing of the key documents with other offices might have lowered the chance of deletion of the memory. Intellectual property rights of individual authors of documents later became an issue. The importance of establishing and ensuring intellectual property rights for individuals in the organisation who generate knowledge should receive serious attention in these early phases.

6.3 Expansion of function and activities (1998-2002)

Research training workshop (Limpopo, South Africa)

6.3.1 Structure and location

Individual OM continued to play a major role during this phase. It was now seen as residing in the managers of the departments, who were not only supposed to champion the development of the OM, but also manage it.[104]

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[104] Key informant 3, 4, 7, 11, 12; Beneficiary OM Interview 13

The importance of the OM during this phase was illustrated in the induction of new staff to the organisation, especially the vision, and how the vision relates to the history of the organisation. This enabled the new staff to carry the vision and therefore the OM and its importance in the organisation.[105]

The core components of the OM (these are the OM itself and not merely information or information sources stored in the OM) during this phase included[106]:

- documents;
- the vision and the clear communication of the vision;
- strategic plans and documents and project proposals;
- reports on past achievements (as expressed in financial and narrative reports to donors) and reflection on failures to achieve successes;
- the history of the organisation (including descriptions of activities);
- correspondence with all stakeholders, especially revealing relationships;
- networks;
- individuals (in this phase strongly related to key influential persons and those carrying the historical aspects of the memory);
- partner organisations, and
- beneficiaries.

A major development during the later part of this phase was the documentation of procedures and policies. This was in response to the increase in the staff complement.[107] These processes and procedures (and documents and templates) were implicit when the total staff consisted of only three and there was still a direct influence from the founder. With an increase of employees, each aspect had to be documented and formalised. Job descriptions were developed and performance appraisal

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[105] Key informant 3, 5, 7; Beneficiary OM Interview 10, 12, 15, 16
[106] Key informant 1, 3, 4, 7, 9; Beneficiary OM Interview 2, 3, 9, 11
[107] Key informant 2, 4, 7; Beneficiary OM Interview 14; HR policies, procedures and templates

procedures specified. These documents (including probation reports) revealed significant characteristics of the diverse staff complement and the influence each had on the organisation. It also revealed a very structured, formal and perhaps rigid organisational management style and OM.[108]

There was a clear change in leadership "personality". It was clear that the first employees were handpicked to suit a specific personality type. When the staff complement increased, "new" and different personality types had to be selected (especially since new competence sets were needed). This had an influence on the organisational culture and a major influence on the perceived value of the OM and the maintenance thereof.[109]

Emphasis was placed during this phase on communication etiquette, especially regarding electronic communication. Nurturing relationships (especially cross-cultural in multicountry settings) was very important. These relationships played an important role in the management and storing of the OM. In itself it housed aspects of the OM as well as ensured that the PSG OM remained available, even 15 years later. It also provided directories for access to the OM for future inquiries (such as this investigation).[110]

6.3.2 Factors influencing the organisational memory

Initially the induction process involved very strict processes and close management of new employees. Information was shared in the form of packaged materials on the

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[108] Key informant 1, 4, 6; HR documents, templates, job descriptions, probation reports; Induction documents
[109] Key informant 1
[110] Key informant 1, 2; Beneficiary OM Interview 1, 2, 3; HR documents, templates, job descriptions, probation reports

history and activities of the organisation (including all the necessary templates and policies).[111]

Different events were mentioned as enablers of good OM. These included meetings, especially strategic meetings (between partners and the board), but also staff meetings, as these provided an opportunity to find solutions for challenges and difficulties. Better documentation of these meetings would enhance the OM even more.[112] "Softer" events (such as team-building and celebrations) provided the nuance of the culture of the organisation and also much needed recognition of individuals and their directories.[113]

Good handover techniques and sufficient time for orientating replacements were also important. During the first phases of PSG, the handover techniques were good and enough time was invested to orientate new staff. However, when staff numbers increased and the staff turnover was high, with employees staying for shorter periods, it deteriorated and disappeared.[114]

The fact that only the managers were allowed access to and communication with the board and donors had a very negative influence on morale and on the OM. On the odd occasion that some sharing took place, it was experienced as a highlight, especially in learning about the organisation's past.[115] It seemed that the board and donors held important aspects of the OM and not only the history, and also contextual clarifications that aided the OM.

An evaluation was requested by donors in 2004. This evaluation and evaluations of some partners contributed to the OM through the reflective process it entailed.[116]

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[111] Key informant 4, 5, 7; Induction material and documents
[112] Key informant 9, 11
[113] Key informant 3, 5, 9, 11
[114] Key informant 3, 5, 11, 12; Beneficiary OM Interview 5, 6,10, 15, 16
[115] Key informant 3, 4
[116] Chakeredza & Nzira, 2004/5; Ndubani, Zulu & Kasuta, 2000

6.3.3 Influence of the organisational memory on the organisation and its functions

OM is crucial to identify successes and direct new functions and activities[117], and the OM influence is especially crucial for intermediary organisations regarding funding allocation decisions.[118] Intermediary organisations further have an important role to play and responsibility in developing the capacity of small grassroots (e.g. CBOs) to maintain their own OM.[119]

The memory had an influence on various stakeholders of the organisation. Even though PSG did not have a direct implementation function at this stage, the ultimate beneficiaries were still the most important stakeholders.[120]

6.3.4 Memory loss

There seemed to be a loss of OM in the form of documents with the move from Zimbabwe to South Africa. This loss was more of explicit OM and could therefore be identified early, and therefore better managed. The main collection of documents and electronic files remained at the Zimbabwe PSG office and in private collection of the founder, in a very good systematic and organised "library". Accessing these later became a problem. With the move, the long-standing close personal relationship with staff members of the Norwegian Embassy and the Royal Netherlands Embassy (the donors who trusted and respected PSG and the PSG founder) changed and new relationships had to be built with new and unknown personnel in the South African

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[117] Key informant 12
[118] Key informant 12
[119] Related organisation 1
[120] Key informant 1, 2; Beneficiary OM Interview 6, 7, 8, 9, 14, 16; Related organisation 2

embassy. It was not identified as having an influence early enough and therefore took longer to rectify.[121]

However, the loss of memory due to the move from Bethal to Johannesburg (PSG was initially housed in the PSASA Bethal office) had more severe implications.[122] This was firstly because it was not as obvious as the loss of physical documents, and secondly, due to the loss of relationships. This harmed relationships because of the separation of the OM that was shared (also on an individual level, as the PSASA director was a key role-player in PSG). The relationships between major role-players (founder, board and management) were very fragile and seriously inhibited the less tacit OM.

6.3.5 Enhancing memory

The development of a system that could capture organisational knowledge continuously would have enhanced the memory.[123] The system and OM need to be continuously adapted to the changing organisation or environment, and sharing and feedback to everyone in a very inclusive manner is important.[124] Sharing of individual organisational memories is a necessity, as well as the documentation of all events and practices in a manner that ensures that the OM is accurate, complete and relevant.[125] A resource centre or library (even virtual or electronic) with electronic automatic reminders to all interesting parties of new information is possible in the present electronic age with advanced technology.[126]

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[121] Key informant 1; Beneficiary OM Interview 3, 4, 9, 11, 13, 16
[122] Key informant 1, 3, 7, 12; Beneficiary OM Interview 13
[123] Key informant 4, 12
[124] Key informant 3, 5, 12; Beneficiary OM Interview 7, 16; Related organisation 5
[125] Key informant 2, 4, 5, 6, 11
[126] Key informant 5, 11

Better documentation of meetings and more informal events (even spending lunch together) could also provide an opportunity to develop the organisational culture. This will enhance the OM to be shared, especially emotional and contextual aspects of the memory.[127]

6.4 Consolidation (2002-2007)

PSG staff at Boksburg office

6.4.1 Structure and location

The main aspect (as also revealed in the large allocation of financial resources) was the development of a sophisticated management information system (MIS). The MIS was supposed to provide an electronic filing system for managing information in the organisation.[128] It (incorrectly) became a replacement of the OM as most people saw it as synonymous with OM.

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[127] Key informant 3, 4, 9, 11
[128] Key informant 5, 12; MIS documents, including budget; Annual Report, 2007

The OM during this phase was spread over all departments and individuals.[129] The containers for the memory included hard copies of documents, electronic copies (including backups on the server) and multimedia of PSG and partner organisations (DVDs, videos, audio cassettes, individuals, partners, donors).[130]

It was interesting that the respondents mentioned specific individuals (as holding the main responsibility of the memory) by name, and although they represented different departments or functions of the organisation, they were not necessarily management. It seemed that the respondents were trying to identify a metadirectory of the directories (individuals).[131] Although the tacit memory was well developed and used there was now a strong reliance on individuals as directories (metamemory) of the organisation. One respondent described it as "a librarian functioning as more than just the keeper of records, documents and numbers, in that he/she also stores the nuances of the stories, events and even the culture".[132]

The importance of the metamemory was also evident from the continued involvement from ex-staff members (emphasising the importance of maintaining good relationships with those who left) and the reliance on their memories (and directories) of where documents were located (even though the filing system was accessible and categorised).[133] This could also indicate that there was a lack of effort from the organisation as a whole due to the development and implementation of the new MIS.[134]

The MIS and the search for information in the present investigation led to the conclusion that the OM should not be housed and managed by a single entity (person or department) or in a centralised system, but that there should be submemories for each

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[129] Key informant 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 11, 12; Beneficiary OM Interview 10, 12, 15
[130] Key informant 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 11, 12; Related organisation 2
[131] Key informant 4, 7, 8, 9
[132] Key informant 9, 11
[133] Key informant 4, 5; Personal communication with Research Manager, April 2006; Observations of MIS and filing systems
[134] Key informant 4, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12

system or department.[135] Having the responsibility of the OM rest with one person or department increases the risk of losing a certain area of memory. On the other hand, a spread of the responsibility might result in weaknesses in certain areas of the OM if there is insufficient interest or effort in one department to manage and maintain its memory.

There was a focus on building the monitoring and evaluation skills of all partners through workshops and the sharing of material and methodologies during this phase. This made a huge contribution to the awareness and use of OM in the partner organisations for the purpose of monitoring and evaluation activities that would allow reflection.[136]

During this phase the PSG OM was recognised to lie within the partnering organisations as evidence of the importance of documenting "lessons learned" from the partners and collecting and documenting "good (best) practices".[137] This not only strengthened the PSG OM, but also the OM of the partner organisations. The use of the Most Significant Change Method to collect narratives from grassroots levels was an attempt to capture tacit memory of beneficiaries and unexpected change not easily measured using quantitative methods.[138] It not only enhanced the OM of PSG, but contributed to learning in the participating partners. They were trained in the Most Significant Change methodology as a new skill and learned through its application.[139] The collection of good practices, narrative reports and using new methodologies brought a change in the recall or extracting function of the OM. It also enhanced sharing of partners' OM within the projects (directly with the beneficiaries) and between projects. It further allowed sharing

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[135] Key informant 4, 7, 8
[136] Beneficiary OM Interview 11, 13, 14, 15, 16; Annual Report, 2006; Final Annual Report, 2008; Project Leaders Meeting, June 2004; Regional Mitigation Workshop Reports 1 & 2 for 2004; Regional Prevention Workshop Report, 2004; Regional Monitoring & Evaluation Workshop, 2005
[137] Key informant 3, 4, 6; Beneficiary OM Interview 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, 16; Related organisation 2; Minutes of Project Leaders Meeting, 2004
[138] Key informant 4, 9; Jansen van Rensburg, Henderson & Coats, 2007
[139] Regional Workshop Report, 2005; Annual Reports, 2005, 2006; Annual Survey Reports, 2005, 2006

the memory (and storing of knowledge) "off-site" in other organisational memories such as the donors through donor reports, and the scientific and NGO communities through presentations.[140]

The focus on measuring impact (not only of individual organisations, but the PSG regional impact) was an important function of the OM.[141] The sharing of impacts achieved contributed to the reputation of the organisation and generated interest from new donors and organisations for funding opportunities as well as commissioned research.[142] There was also development regarding research materials to enable skills transfer. Each impact study recruited fieldworkers from the project (mostly volunteers and staff). In-depth workshops on the methodology preceded each study attended by project staff and the fieldworkers. The skills were enhanced and therefore remained with each of the 20 partners trained during the two years, and the OM of the partner organisation was not only enhanced with documents and manuals (on methodology), but also the direct individual organisational memories of all staff who participated. Some reported applying it in different contexts such as youth clubs and churches.[143]

Visual (including photos) and memory schemas (for example linking certain events, and physical artefacts such as offices and the arrangement of furniture) evoked very clear and detailed accounts of events. This should be used more.[144]

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[140] Key informant 1, 4, 7; All annual reports; Robotin & Chiroro, 2004; Jansen van Rensburg & Pillay, 2009; Jansen van Rensurg, GDoH presentation, 2007

[141] Key informant 1, 3, 6, 7, 8; Beneficiary OM Interview 7, 8, 9, 14, 15, 16; Annual Impact Surveys 2005, 2006; Jansen van Rensburg & Pillay, 2009

[142] Key informant 1, 2, 5, 6, 7; Beneficiary OM Interview 7, 8, 9, 14, 15, 16; Memorandum of Understanding, GDoH; De Jong, 2001

[143] Annual Impact Surveys, 2005, 2006; Research manuals and briefs for FGD, 2004; Surveys, 2005; IDIs, 2006; Health Facility Assessments, 2005; Learner Guide for GDoH surveys, 2008

[144] Key informant 1; Beneficiary OM Interview 2, 3, 8, 13

6.4.2 Factors influencing the organisational memory

The culture and environment of the organisation during this phase seemed stable with clear structures, roles, responsibilities, accountability and boundaries.[145] There was generally enough time allowed for transfer of knowledge between PSG and other stakeholders.[146] The creation of an electronic filing system was a highlight, although it was never optimally used.[147] The backups by the server of data and documents allowed some security to electronic OM.[148]

The high staff turnover significantly weakened the OM, especially in capturing information (with very weak record-keeping). The high staff turnover also resulted in the loss of the ability to process information to knowledge through higher thought processes. The reputation as expressed by the OM attracted highly skilled people who were employed for their technical skills and thematic knowledge. As "experts" they did not all feel the need to contribute to the OM or share their individual organisational memories. Employees left with information not documented and with expertise that was not fully used existing information.[149] The lack of exit interviews and documentation of the reasons for the resignations left a gap in the memory analysis.[150] Lack of clear communication and handover between new and old management and succession planning hampered the transfer of OM.[151] Poor handover between managers had a serious effect on the OM.[152]

Another influence of the high staff turnover was the changes in policies and procedures. New policies were informally developed to suit each new employee. This was evident in the type of policies and procedures as well as the content (for example long maternity

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[145] Key informant 9; HR documents, policies and procedures
[146] Key informant 9, 12
[147] Key informant 4, 5, 12
[148] Key informant 4, 12
[149] Key informant 4, 5, 6, 7, 11; Beneficiary OM Interview 5, 6, 10, 15, 16; Annual Report, 2007
[150] Key informant 5, 6, 7
[151] Key informant 4, 6, 11, 12; Beneficiary OM Interview 13
[152] Key informant 6, 12

leave vs paternity leave depending on the sex of the manager; length of study leave, and grants and loans depending on study activities of managers).[153]

Not only was there insufficient training of all staff to use the MIS, but there also is no evidence of any outcomes of the project as stated in the proposal and other documents.[154] Documentation regarding planning for the development of the MIS (including quotations for a training workshop) was very well organised and filed. One specific example is the list of foundation documents that states that among other things, the history will be documented, which was not available electronically or in hard copy. It seems that the accounts and recollection that the system (or major parts thereof) was deleted, held truth and that very few of the planned activities actually took place.[155]

"Bits of information" was reportedly missing.[156] This comment raised two important questions: 1) Was the directory (metamemory) still intact to allow the inference that there was a loss of OM? 2) Was the focus during the development of the MIS to include all information with a resulting overload and incorporation of irrelevant information and data (not necessarily contributing to knowledge)? It is probably related to the first, as there was no evidence found to indicate that a large amount of information was entered into the system. Activities that took place and could be accounted for were more focussed on the development of filing systems and databases.

The loss of the OM can be contributed in part to the "power struggle" and the lack of sharing information and knowledge between individuals and departments and even withholding necessary information and knowledge.[157] The OM was seen as being in

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[153] Key informant 4; Different HR materials and documents
[154] Key informant 4, 7, 11, 12
[155] MIS file of documents, especially the proposal, work plan with deliverables, overview of the different files and databases, minutes of meetings and extended communication
[156] Key informant 8
[157] Key informant 4, 5, 11, 12

"silos" and not shared across the organisation.[158] "The 'wholeness' of the organisational memory broke down."[159]

The culture of the organisation at the time before the final decision to close was very negative.[160] The resentment felt by individuals (and the seeming loss of vision) and the resistance to change had a severe impact. This altered the moment the "vision" changed to the decision to close out. The uncertainty was a major factor determining the culture at the time as individuals questioned the values of the organisation and individuals, management (including board members) and the intentions of the partner organisations in the changing organisation.[161] On a basic level there was a general lack of understanding of the OM and its importance, with a resulting lack of interest or effort to maintain information or generate knowledge.[162]

An evaluation took place in 2007. This evaluation was regarded as threatening due to the prevailing organisational culture and the fears regarding threats of loosing funding. Although the final evaluation report reflects on many good aspects, the general emotions during and after this evaluation were very negative, influencing the OM processes (especially reflection).[163]

6.4.3 Influence of the organisational memory on the organisation and its functions

The first phase of obtaining information for the development of the MIS (from different departments and various individuals) was experienced as a highlight by many. It raised

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[158] Key informant 5, 11
[159] Key informant 5
[160] Key informant 5, 6, 8
[161] Key informant 4, 5, 6; Observation of vision and "visions"
[162] Key informant 4, 6
[163] Rossiter, 2007; Key informant interviews (various)

awareness regarding the importance of metamemory. This interest and energy especially during the first few months of the MIS project were good, but it needed constant input and not a once-off event, with the result that it eventually faded.[164]

The influence of the OM during this phase was on four main groups: regional structures, partner organisations, beneficiaries and employees.[165] This phase already saw a decline in the function of the OM, yet its impact and implications were far-reaching. The contribution of the OM to the new functioning of the organisation as a regional role-player was noticeable.[166] The fact that PSG formed part of large regional structures such as the Regional AIDS Training Network and RAANGO and started to play an increased role in leveraging regional influence necessitated an adaptation of the OM. This included the structure, and function, and especially the recall and availability of directories. This does not mean an increase in disseminating information, but an increase in availability of the directory and promoting and marketing the available information. Taking steps (e.g. the development of an MIS) was an attempt to do this.[167]

The main effect of the OM was on the partner level. Due to the lack of funding in 2007, partners were forced to take responsibility to survive without PSG funding.[168] Most of them realised the importance of the capacity-building that happened during the previous 22 years (as described in Chapter 5, section 5.1.2.4), yet the underlying factor making this survival possible was the transfer and sharing of OM between PSG and the partners.[169] In particular the OM allowed partners to be innovative[170], to use the relationships they have built[171] and the networking skills they were exposed to[172]. They

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[164] Key informant 4, 5, 11, 12
[165] Key informant 7, 8, 9
[166] Key informant 1, 8; Beneficiary OM Interview 7, 8, 9, 14, 15, 16
[167] Key informant 1, 4, 7, 9, 11; Related organisation 5; MIS file of documents, with proposal, work plan, minutes of meetings and communication
[168] Surviving interview 7
[169] Surviving interviews 1-14
[170] Surviving interviews 2, 7, 8, 13, 14
[171] Surviving interviews 2, 3, 5, 6
[172] Surviving interviews 2, 6, 7, 8, 10, 14

were also able to focus on their vision (as part of the OM)[173] and used documented processes such as site visits by donors and other stakeholders[174], and policies and templates for proposals[175]. They used evidence as was documented by PSG research studies, impact evaluations and documented lessons learned and good practices.[176] Most importantly it brought an awareness of the importance of reports (especially donor progress reports and the reputation it can build with donors), sharing information and using documented cases for planning and funding proposals.[177]

The memory of PSG headquarters also had an influence on the human resources applications.[178] It further had a major influence on productivity, especially wastage of time on trying to grasp the vision and other basic information needed for optimal functioning.[179]

Although research continued to play a major role and the results were disseminated, it seems that the co-ordination and the link between direct evidence-based decisions of the organisation were no longer strong.[180] The evidence base of PSG's work was crucial to fulfil its role as a regional influencer.[181]

6.4.4 Memory loss

The status of the memory was poor due to poor management practices (and rapid changes in management) and the disintegration of the board of directors (especially the

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[173] Surviving interviews 4, 10
[174] Surviving interview 6; Related organisation 3
[175] Surviving interview 6
[176] Surviving interviews 1-14, especially 9
[177] Surviving interviews 9, 11
[178] Key informant 9
[179] Key informant 2, 5, 6; Beneficiary OM Interview 10, 15
[180] Key informant 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7; Beneficiary OM Interview 1, 2, 4, 15; Rossiter, 2007
[181] Key informant 1, 2, 6; Beneficiary OM Interview 7, 8, 9, 14, 15, 16

loss of the visionary founder).[182] The collapse of relationships with the donors (in part due to changes in the donor staff) further damaged the OM.[183]

There was also some memory loss contributed to internal "power struggles", internal conflict and some individuals deliberately not sharing information or deleting electronic components of the OM.[184] This had a serious influence on the motivation of staff and their innovativeness.[185]

Ex-staff not only held individual OM, but also metamemory. Yet their involvement could also have been detrimental due to the fact that they did not undergo "forgetting", and irrelevant information (that might have been important in different developmental phases and contexts) was still regarded as the only "truth".[186] Long-serving staff members could often take ownership of the information and manipulate or delete facts as it suited them. This information, when not documented, is difficult to verify. The implication was a waste in resources and time, as activities were repeated and lessons learned repeatedly.[187] The lack of sufficient use of the sophisticated MIS was detrimental rather than useful.[188]

6.4.5 Enhancing memory

Succession planning and the handing over of information, knowledge and relevant directories between management were critical.[189]

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[182] Key informant 1, 2, 6, 12
[183] Key informant 1; Beneficiary OM Interview 2, 4, 9, 11, 13, 16
[184] Key informant 1, 5, 12
[185] Key informant 4
[186] Key informant 1
[187] Key informant 4
[188] Key informant 4, 7, 12
[189] Key informant 4, 5, 9, 12; Beneficiary OM Interview 13

All staff should be involved in and contribute to and use the MIS.[190] This requires all staff to be sufficiently trained in the use of the MIS.[191] Documentation of all activities (including insignificant ones) should be prioritised. This documentation function should be mainstreamed and seen as an inherent part of the organisation. It will not only need the buy-in of all the employees, but should be part of a learning culture.[192] This includes transparency and sharing of information and equal access for all staff (not only to hard and electronic copies, but also to key individuals such as donors and board members).[193]

Knowledge was generated at a fast pace and needed an easily accessible OM that could also capture contextual issues. It should be able to incorporate information and knowledge produced by different people on different topics.[194] The system should be comprehensive and well maintained. It should have a structured record-keeping process (logical database structure) to enable easy maintenance and retrieval of data, information and knowledge.[195] The documentation of successes and activities should be linked to financial data (for example, unit cost analysis should be linked to impact of the activities).[196] Documentation should also include the organisation's profile, partner and donor (and possible future donors') profiles and personnel histories.[197] The management of the OM should include "auditing information on a regular basis and critically evaluating the relevance of the information, the need to add or remove information."[198]

Although the memory is spread over the entire organisation, a specific unit or person should take ultimate responsibility for the maintenance and storage of the

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[190] Key informant 4, 5, 7, 12
[191] Key informant 4, 5, 7, 10, 12
[192] Key informant 3, 4, 5; Beneficiary OM Interview 15, 16
[193] Key informant 4; Beneficiary OM Interview 7
[194] Key informant 4
[195] Key informant 6
[196] Key informant 3, 6; Beneficiary OM Interview 12
[197] Key informant 1, 4, 6
[198] Key informant 6 (quote); Beneficiary OM Interview 10, 11, 14

information.[199] One suggestion was that this should lie within the IT function[200], while others suggested the research or monitoring and evaluation functions[201] and a dedicated knowledge management specialist.[202]

6.5 Close-out (2007-2008)
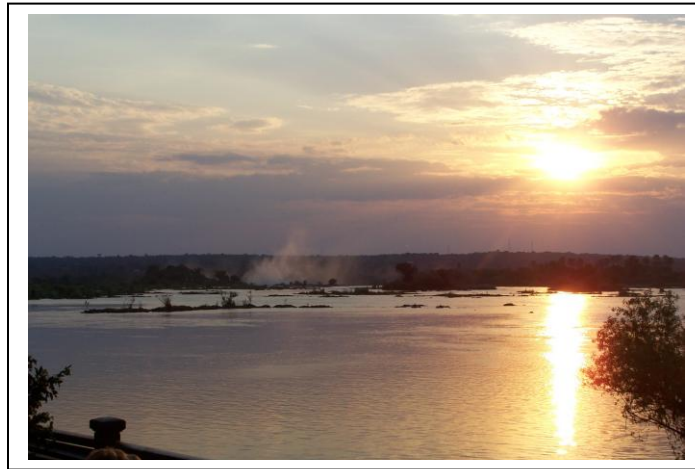
Last regional meeting in Livingston, Zambia

6.5.1 Structure and location

During this phase most of the OM was found in individuals who already left the organisation and through directories or metamemory of those remaining to close down the organisation.[203] In general, the OM was regarded as healthy and strong.[204] The memory still existed, although the directories were more difficult to access.[205]

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[199] Key informant 5, 6
[200] Key informant 4, 12
[201] Key informant 8; Beneficiary OM Interview 1; Related organisation 2, 3, 4
[202] Beneficiary OM Interview 1
[203] Key informant 9
[204] Key informant 7, 9, 10
[205] Direct observation of filing system, MIS

The organisational memory is an entity that stands alone from the organisation or the staff, it needs to continue beyond infinity, beyond any human lifespan or the corporate dynasty. It can adapt and is therefore sustainable.
– Direct quote of Ian Endendyk, last financial manager of PSG, who passed away suddenly in October 2008 just before the closure of PSG.

There was a loss of the original vision of the organisation (including the importance of relationships, evidence-based research and low-cost applicable community interventions) and it had to be replaced by a new vision of closing the organisation and the OM continuing in a different format.[206] At this stage, it seemed that there was an attempt to unconsciously replace the loss of the organisational vision (and the visionary founder's purposeful withdrawal from the organisation) with mental visions or prophecies (significantly called "visions" by all involved).[207] This coincided with a very strong religious focus of most of the remaining staff members (reminding one of stages in the bereavement process).[208] Without a vision, the organisation seemed to have lost not only its purpose, but also its memory.[209] "It was aimless, disjointed and showed no progress."[210]

During this phase other aspects were included in the memory, such as "feelings". It was stated that the OM is not only in books, but like a family business relying on feelings and emotions.[211] During the interviews (and after the closure of the organisation) this emotional aspect was very important. The memory was elicited by strong emotions, such as relating events to anger or sadness.[212]

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[206] Key informant 1, 2, 3, 4, 9; Beneficiary OM Interview 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 11, 13, 15, 16; Observations of vision and "visions"
[207] Key informant 1, 5, 6, 7, 9
[208] Key informant 1, 5, 6, 7, 9
[209] Key informant 6, 9
[210] Key informant 9
[211] Key informant 1, 3, 4, 9
[212] Most interviews with current and ex-staff

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The Vision (Prophecy)

During June/July 2007 a long-serving board member received the following vision:

There was a tree that became too big.

It was cut to a stump.

It was said that even if 20% remain the stump would be burned.

From this burned stump, new growth would develop.

The then CEO consulted with an independent person with experience in organisations with problems and closure. His interpretation of the vision was that the CEO should lead the organisation, and that those who did not follow should be cut away.

During the same time another employee also received a vision in which:

Darkness was followed by a short burst of light and then darkness.

Various interpretations of this vision resulted, including:

- The organisation will survive eventually.
- A new visionary leader will be able to rescue the organisation after a period of severe turmoil.

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6.5.2 Factors influencing the organisational memory

The most positive aspect of this phase was the visionary leadership and the passion of the final CEO to record and document the legacy of PSG to be available for the partner organisations to be used as marketing tools to attract funding.[213]

Bad grant management in the beginning of this phase was perceived as being a major negative influence.[214] In an attempt to rescue and reform the organisation, a consultant

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[213] Minutes of final strategic partner meeting, 2007

(with a close relationship with and understanding of the founder) was commissioned to manage the change. The lack of sharing the background and key strengths of the person (and the differences in personality and management style) elicited strong emotions (even resentment) from staff members, who were already experiencing high levels of anxiety about the future of the organisation. This resulted in internal challenges in relationships, conflict and power struggles.[215] This was further fuelled by recruitment of staff that seemed to lack the special knowledge either in HIV or experience in working in NGOs (even when they were specialists in the functions they were employed for).[216] This is a serious dilemma for expanding organisations: Which is more important – technical knowledge (of the topic or industry) or operational knowledge?

The memory was seen as fragmented to some observers, as not all employees had access to all information.[217] The high turnover of management and poor handover of information, especially between rapidly replaced executive directors, seriously inhibited the memory from functioning optimally. The general lack of proper communication internally in the organisation was also perceived as a major negative influence.[218] The deletion of a major component of the MIS continued to influence the OM negatively during this phase.[219]

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[214] Key informant 4, 7, 8, 10
[215] Key informant 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10; Grievances and disciplinary documents and minutes
[216] Key informant 1, 7
[217] Key informant 9
[218] Key informant 6, 12
[219] Key informant 4, 7, 9

6.5.3 Influence of the organisational memory on the organisation and its functions

Funding management and future planning and management of funds were enhanced by the OM.[220] Through the planned close-out and the format it took (including documenting the history) and developing promotional and marketing material, the reputation of the organisation remained. "People believe in PSG because they see the impact it made."[221]

The perceived lack of development and even loss of OM had an impact on staff morale and contributed to stress and strain on interpersonal relationships.[222] The culture of the organisation changed to suspicion and resulted in dividing the organisation. The culture of trust was disappearing.[223] Focussing on negative emotions and repeating negative comments and frustration resulted in hurt, disappointment and distrust.[224] The repeating of the negative comments and gossip was also included in the memory (without verification) and caused serious emotional reactions and confusion.

6.5.4 Memory loss

Although the memory was regarded by some as fragmented, it was probably only perceived as such due to the key function of the organisation being the closing down of it and the emotions at the time.[225] The key directories (metamemory holders) of the organisation's memory were not present (employed at that stage) and the memory therefore appeared fragmented, while it was in fact being generated and its survival

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[220] Key informant 4, 10; Beneficiary OM Interview 6, 16
[221] Key informant 7; Beneficiary OM Interview 12, 15, 16
[222] Key informant 1,10
[223] Key informant 2, 3, 5, 7
[224] Key informant 2, 3, 4, 9
[225] Key informant 9

being managed.[226] "As PSG expanded and a change in leadership occurred (including different boards with different agendas) it was difficult to maintain some sort of system. However, I am sure that if somebody wants to document the memory they can do it."[227]

6.5.5 Enhancing memory

Suggestions to enhance the OM included dedicating an individual to manage the OM.[228] Participants suggested that the responsible person should be the CEO, and that ultimately the responsibility lies with the PSG Board.[229] It is unclear if this could be included as a role of the CEO, although it should probably be a management role with some authority. In this phase of PSG's development the CEO was recruited and appointed to be dedicated to the sole purpose of closing the organisation, and although he was a champion to preserve the memory, managing the OM process was not possible. During the PSG closing phase the CEO did place an emphasis on the documentation and dissemination of information and especially knowledge generated by the organisations. In organisations less successful or not having a planned exit, the strategy and focus could be quite different. Documentation should be a priority throughout the life cycle of any organisation, not only regional or intermediary organisations that will have partnering organisations continuing interventions initiated by the closing organisation.

The CEO in this case managed this part of the knowledge and OM to promote the success of the organisation, alleviate emotional responses and develop in some individuals, including ex-staff, pride in their work and effort (with recognition of individual contributions). He also ensured that the documents could assist partner organisations in obtaining funding as the reputation and successes of PSG clearly contributed to the

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[226] Key informant 2; Researcher observations during search for PSG history
[227] Key informant 2
[228] Key informant 10, 11
[229] Key informant 6, 10

survival during 2007.[230] It might seem strange to capture the history of a closing organisation and to develop promotional material (especially considering the cost involved), but this contributed to the OM remaining with the individuals and partner organisations as well as other intermediary organisations in the region.

The capturing of the memory during this phase also allowed contributing to other organisations' learning and decision-making regarding the economic context they faced. It also helped future donors and funders to see the partner organisations and the PSG activities and their investment into similar programmes as positive. It lessened resentment and kept the door open for funding opportunities in the region. The insight gained also enabled the remaining organisations (partners, complementary organisations and competitors) to adapt their responses to the changing environment and be more sustainable.

6.6 The importance of studying temporal aspects

It is important to investigate changes over different stages of the organisation and its memory. During the expansion (of functions) phase of development of the organisation the memory seemed to be closely related to the general descriptions found in literature (including the different components and structure and function), as these studies mostly investigated growing and expanding organisations. Investigating the OM during other phases and changes over time is desperately needed.

This study dissected key changes such as the changes in perceived importance of different individual organisational memories. This and other important themes will be described in more detail in Chapter 7.

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[230] Key informant 3; Surviving 2007 document; Surviving interviews 1-14

CHAPTER 7

MAIN THEMES, CONCLUSIONS AND
RECOMMENDATIONS
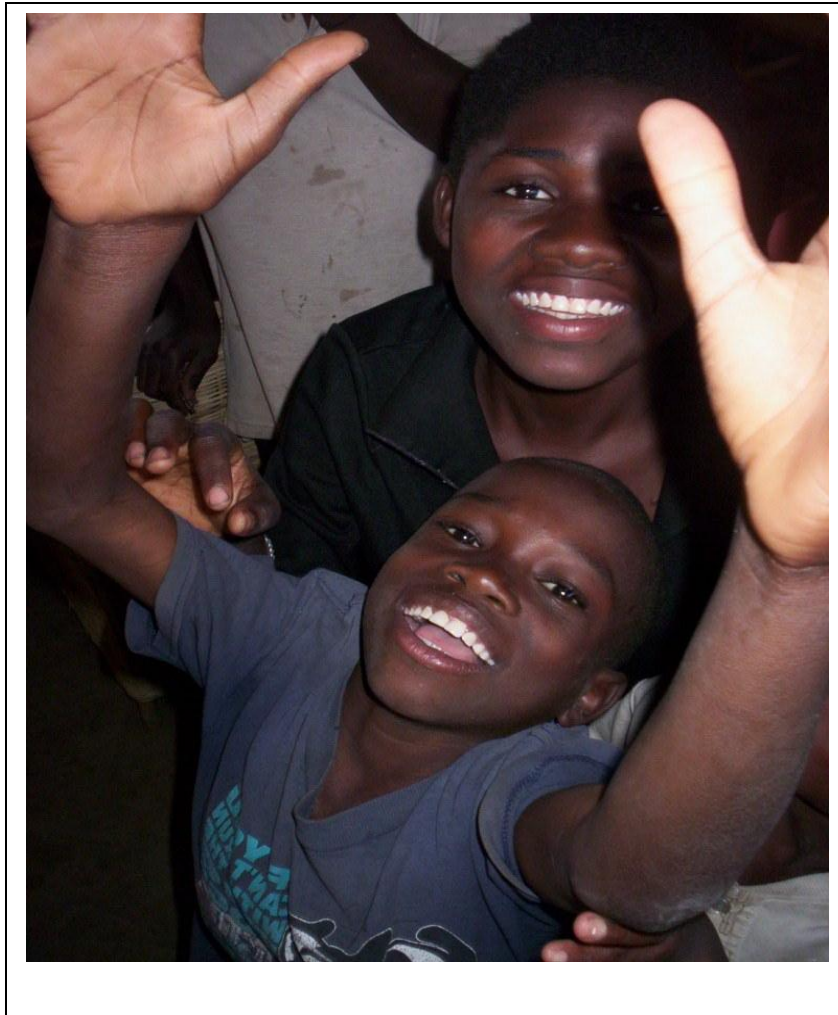
Children at Mangochi, Malawi

(Photo by Jansen van Rensburg, 2005, Mangochi)

This chapter discusses the main themes of the results. To improve the understanding of the main themes and the use of the ecological framework, a few main issues are considered first. Limitations and recommendations of the study are provided after the conclusion.

From the results it is clear that there are structural changes in the OM and that the factors influencing the memory change with each phase. None of the descriptions or models for OM is capable of capturing the interrelatedness and complexity of these changes. Using any of the models (e.g. the storage bins of Walsh & Ungson, 1991) will severely compromise the understanding of the issues. Using different descriptions to capture the changes might present a structured description, yet the loss of the information will compromise the importance of certain aspects as they might not appear important from a narrow categorising as was advocated by followers of the realist view of NGOs (Jackson, 2007; Jashapara, 2007). This seems to be very relevant for NGOs, even if the OM of other types of organisations can possible be investigated and managed using a more restrictive yet formal approach. An ecological framework will therefore be used to discuss the main themes emerging from the temporal analysis of the OM of PSG. Structural factors, location and influencing factors of the OM change over time and according to environment and other challenges, allowing adaptation of the OM and the organisation.

Another important finding concerns the OM process. The OM of PSG (and probably similar organisations) might appear to have been lost or diagnosed with a poor prognosis, while in fact the metamemory was hidden and the OM was still healthy and well stored. Certain functions of the memory process might not be visible and leads to the interpretation and conclusion that the memory is lost. The PSG OM contained all the types of information described by Deutsch (1966), information about the external world, the past and the organisation and its parts. In addition, the PSG OM also contained information on impact of activities on different partner organisations.

The functionality and level of use do not imply the status or "health" of the organisation. In other words, the OM is not dependent on it being used or maintained (this does not apply to the directories, where demand directs the development and use of the directories).

Although the reflection on the history (as documented in Chapter 5) was not meant as a full documentation of the organisation's history, the reviews by the key informants had some important implications regarding the memory:

- It seemed that the explicit memory of the organisation (although challenging and time consuming to capture as many documents had to be traced from other sources such as donors and the company who did an evaluation) can be restored.
- Recalling historical facts (e.g. dates) was easier when recalling associated emotional aspects, for example. With the interviews, people who were involved at the start of PSG were less likely to become emotional during the interview or to remember and link traumatic experiences to the historical events. Emotions linked to very strong memory responses (Jashapara, 2007; Searle, 1999). Narratives and photos provoke the OM.
- It was easier to obtain information on the development of the organisation in the earlier phases than anticipated. The physical documents were mostly destroyed during the turmoil in Zimbabwe and no electronic copies were available. Yet these documents (e.g. annual reports) could be recovered more easily from donors than later copies (that were mostly sent electronically). Physical documents were more likely to be filed in an accessible and more "public" space than electronic copies, which were mostly only shared by a relatively small audience directly involved with the organisation. It was easier to obtain reports than proposals (even when they were directly linked and had financial contractual value). The implication of this is that NGOs should send more than one hard copy to any reporting system.

The following diagram (Figure 7.1) illustrates the different aspects of interest when studying the OM. It expresses the view of this study to see OM not as structure or function, but to include all structures, processes and patterns in an overall inclusive view of the OM (Connell *et al.*, 2003; Stein, 1989). This is used to clarify complex interactions of the different issues discussed below. It incorporates aspects of work on patterns and processes by Stein (1989), the structural aspects (Lehner & Maier, 2000), including the storage bins of Walsh and Ungson (1991), formats by De Hoog and co-workers (1994), and the use or purpose of OM (Dieng *et al.*, 1998; Fisher *et al.*, 1997).
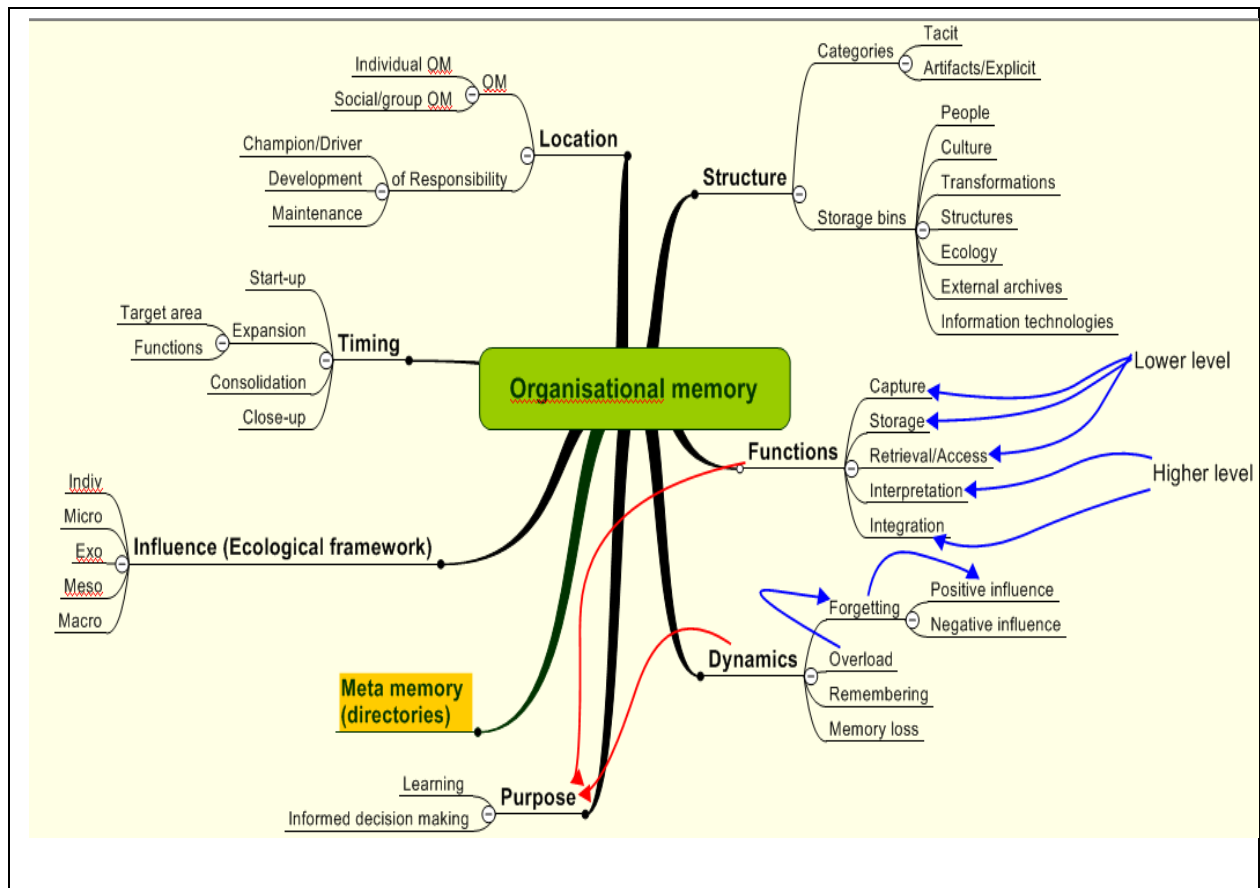
Figure 7.1: Illustration of functions, structure and influencing factors of OM

When applying the metaphor of the human memory it is clear that:

- The capturing of information of the OM needs investment and effort (Huber, 1991). More importantly, higher functions need experts to interpret and integrate information or groups of the organisation. This has implications for budgeting for organisations. OM processes do not become automatic after repetition as with human memory (Gladwell, 2009).

- Aspects such as motivation and trust play a similar role in human memory and OM.

- OM does not "die" with the "death" (demise) of the organisation – it remains in the external "storage bins", even if all the internal OM is destroyed or lost. The directory (metamemory) of the organisation is of crucial importance. Most efforts to capture, maintain and make the OM accessible should probably be directed towards developing the metamemory. This, however, does not only include an MIS, but rather a focus on people and cues, especially visual elements (Baird & Cross, 2000). The implication of this is that it is more interesting (which enables motivation of all involved), is linked to narratives, which improves recall (and more detailed recall), and is cost-effective. Publications that are on public domain can be used by a wider audience and are traceable when the directories are damaged or compromised.

- Human memory also changes with the developmental phase of the person (Baddeley, 2009), but with OM this change does not imply loss of memory or deterioration in a function.

- Contradictory to what Morgan and Root (1979) found, in the case of PSG, memory loss was much less in the organisation than in individuals. This was probably due to the external OM (in ex-staff, donor and other locations).

7.1 Main themes

A general ecological framework will be used to discuss the main themes emerging from the results. These are very interrelated and complex systems that interact which each other (McNamara, 2005, 2006). This allows not only for describing the structural aspects, but also the processes (Olson, 1979). The following levels will be used:

- Individual: physiological, cognitive, attitudinal, behavioural and developmental history.
- Interpersonal processes and primary groups (microsystem): formal and informal social network and support systems.
- Institutional factors (mesosystem): social institutions with organisational characteristics (i.e. norms, culture, structures, rules, regulations, incentives in schools and other institutions that relate to children).
- Community factors (exosystem): relationships among institutions and organisations, and informal networks within defined boundaries (i.e. area economics, media, community services, neighborhood organisations, formal and informal leadership).
- Culture at large (macrosystem): NGO industry, regional laws and policies, political stability and global aspects.

Figure 7.2 indicates the relationships between the different components or subsystems of the organisation. It is based on aspects of the ecological framework and illustrates the importance of relationships.
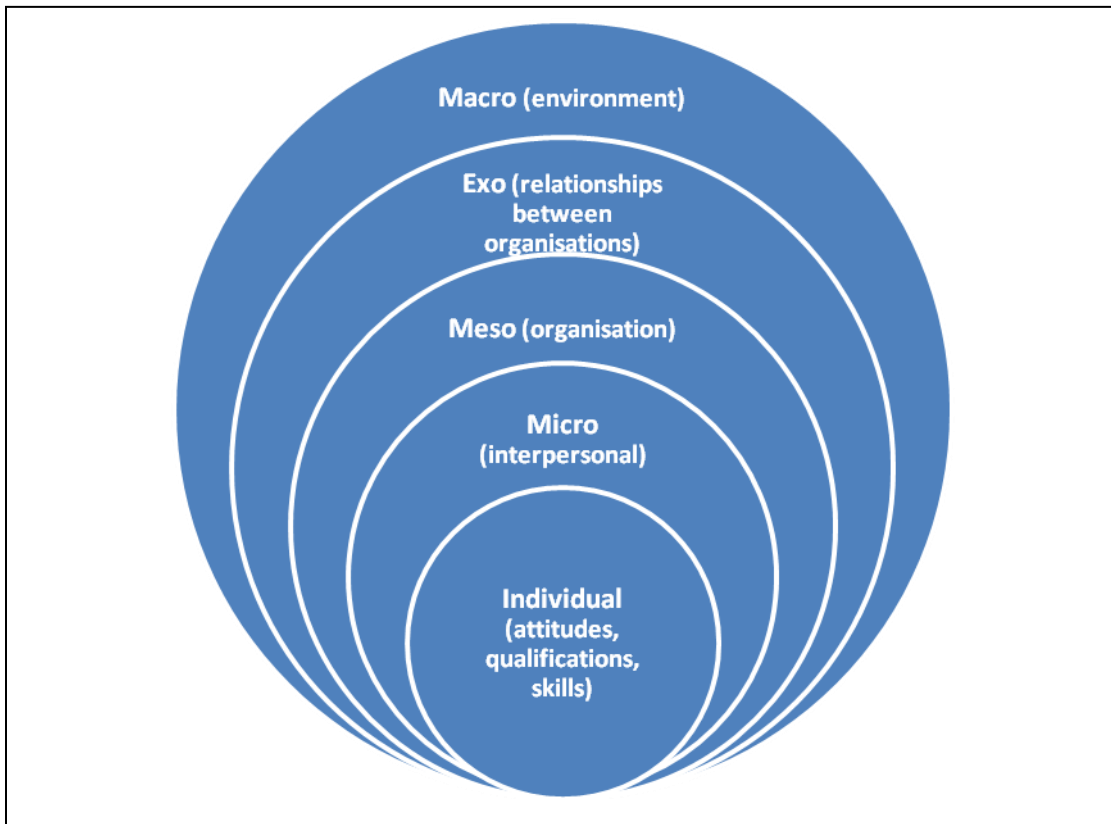
Figure 7.2: Network relationships (Raynor, 2010)

7.1.1 Individual level

The capturing, storage and access/retrieval functions of the OM need the individual organisational memories and individual capacities. However, these functions can be shared through electronic means. The function of intellectual interpretation of information and generation of new knowledge depends largely on individual OM. The functions of individuals to critically evaluate, interpret and integrate information are higher levels of functioning of the OM. These functions are strongly related to the purpose of the OM to learn and make decisions (Kransdorff, 2006; Kransdorff & Williams, 2000; Paul *et al.*, 2004).

It seemed that the individuals in PSG used all three the strategies described by Kirsch and Pautzke (in Lehner & Maier, 2000) to transfer knowledge to the organisation, namely sharing knowledge implicitly through decision-making, sharing between employees in groups, and individual knowledge shared through documentation. Information-sharing also took place between groups (in PSG, but also between PSG and its partners and between partners), between individuals and groups at site visits and workshops, and between members of groups during national and regional workshop discussions and exchange visits (Lehner & Maier, 2000). All these patterns of sharing and target audiences were included in the sharing of information of PSG: *upwards* (donors and other stakeholders), *downwards* (to partner organisations and up to grassroots level) and *horizontal* (other regional organisations, academic institutions and competitors) (Carroll & Montgomery, 1987).

Most of the transactional theorists emphasised the importance of the individual memory (Davenport *et al.*, 1998; Lehner & Maier, 2000; Malhotra & Galletta, 2003; Nevo & Wand, 2005; Sharma & Yetton, 2007; Ward, 2007; Wegner, 1986; Wegner *et al.*, 1991; Weinberger *et al.*, 2008; Yoo & Kanawattanachai, 2002). Unfortunately little has been undertaken until present to unpack the temporal changes in the contribution of the individual OM. This research also contributes to the understanding of the four OM models (for different organisational sizes) as proposed by Hartwick *et al.* (1982). The PSG model is the closest to the combined OM model of larger groups.

Changes through phases

The importance of the individual organisational memories cannot be overemphasised. What the study revealed about the changes through the developmental phases is very important (see Figure 7.3). There was a definite shift of the perceived importance of different individual organisational memories. During the start-up phase, the founder is the most critical person; during the expansion in target areas, all individuals (especially since it is a small core group of two to three individuals) hold the OM. The type of learning involved here is innovative learning (Kransdorff, 2006). When functions expand

and the staff complement increases, the OM is perceived to be managed by the managers of the different units. During consolidation the memory is seen to be located in all staff members, with a shift to the importance of identifying relevant directories (who are not necessarily managers, but experts or administrative and IT staff). During the later phases of the consolidation and the close-out phase, the focus shifts to metamemory and directories (and supradirectories of the directories). The importance of individuals with a wider network and better relationships now forms the basis of accessing the memory. Although this movement was noted in this case study, it is probably true of organisations that survive long or have an extensive and diverse OM and expertise (including university departments). Wegner (1986) did account for the exchange between individual organisational memories, but did not include the changes between the different levels of individuals involved during different phases.

Start-up	• Founder
Expansion (Area)	• All individuals (in small staff compliment)
Expansion (Function)	• Managers of departments
Consolidation	• Key experts of key functions (meta memory)
Close-out	• All with CEO or board as champion
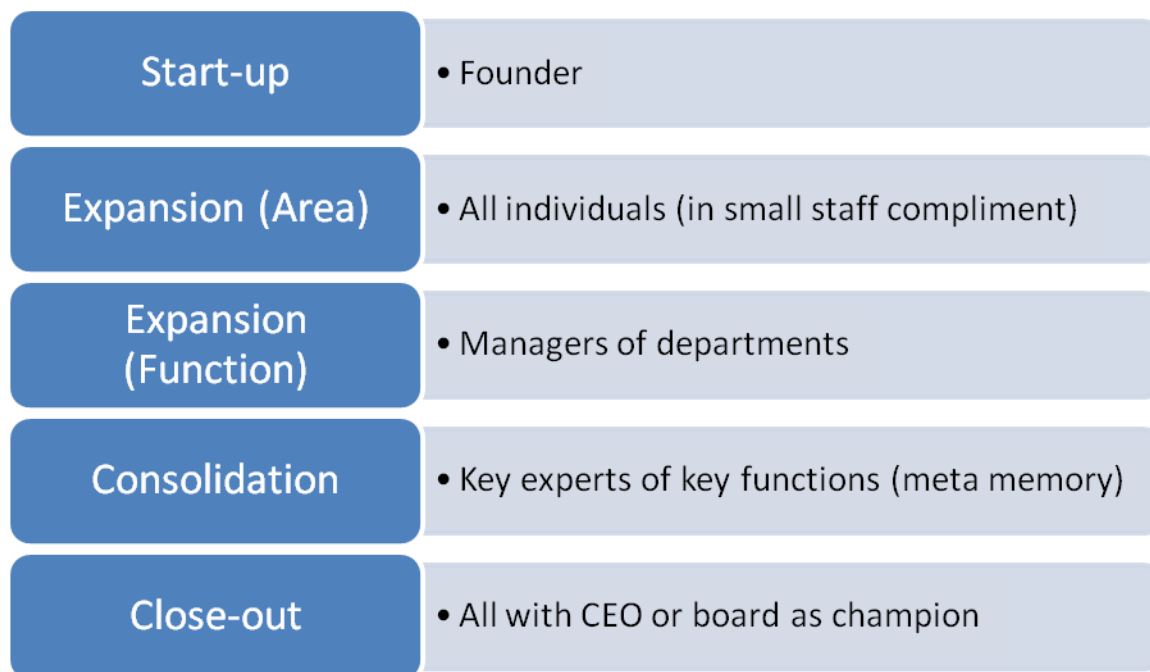
Figure 7.3: Changes in importance of the individual in the organisation

Intellectual property rights of the organisation and the individual

One of the important issues raised in this investigation is the aspect of intellectual property rights. As the OM exists for and by knowledge generation it is crucial to have policies that will guide intellectual property rights. These policies need to balance the rights and recognition of the individual and that of the larger organisations. Individual contributions need to be recognised and individuals allowed to build their academic and publication reputation by disseminating the information at conferences and through publication (with the acknowledgement due to the organisation). This should be encouraged and seen as an empowerment strategy.

However, the organisation also has intellectual property rights, as this information forms part of its body of knowledge and was probably generated using organisational resources. Negotiation is very important, especially to avoid and prevent individuals from manipulating (and even) destroying information and knowledge contained in the OM. Ultimately the information belongs to both parties, and this sharing is what builds a strong OM (that is being able to rely on individual organisational memories). Other policies should also include clauses on confidentiality and the responsibility to ensure the safety and security of the OM.

Individual characteristics of employees are important aspects influencing the OM, as were seen regarding the personality types, academic inclination and preference to document information and emotional reactions used to elicit memory. Jashapara (2007) and Searle (1999) also found that experiences of the individual may create different attitudes (positive, negative or neutral) and that these influence the knowledge used by the individual and will be expressed through behaviour.

Characteristics

Other characteristics of the employees that seem to be important for OM development are:

- General *attitude* towards knowledge and knowledge generation and OM. Motivation played a major role in the individual contribution to OM (Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Orlikowski, 1992; Schwartz *et al.*, 2000; Ward, 2007). As Malhotra and Galletta (2003) indicated, this motivation in not stable and changes over time and should be managed by the organisation.

- A general positive attitude towards the organisation (enhancing the NGO culture). This includes the aspects of *trust* in the organisation and co-workers as was evident in this study and confirm research by Levin and Cross (2004).

- Personal *integrity* (especially regarding confidentiality of financial and other information).

- *Skills* in field of expertise to ensure relevant capturing and managing of individual OM and general OM.

- *Emotions* play an important role in the individual OM. The power of emotional cues should not be underestimated (Baddeley, 1998). Dealing with severe negative emotions should also be managed (as was illustrated in PSG, this could lead to conflict with resulting deletions of the OM though electronic deletion of files, or withholding important personal information.) In the same manner, emotional cues are used to elicit detailed accounts of OM (similar to visual aids). It is understandable that this research study evoked strong emotional reactions from those who passionately invested time and expertise to build the organisation and who contributed throughout the organisation's life cycle. Hopefully it also provided those who chose to participate with an opportunity to find closure and see the impact of the organisation (Avina, 2002).

7.1.2 Microsystem

The OM in itself can be considered a supporting system. The capturing, storage and access/retrieval functions of the OM need the individual organisational memories and

individual capacities to manage it. However, these functions can be shared through electronic means.

Management of the OM

Certain clarification should be made regarding the management of the OM. Just as the OM structure and function should not be seen as distinct aspects, all employees and stakeholders are responsible for the functions of the OM and maintaining the structure (as much of the OM as is located in individual organisational memories). The co-ordination function should be geared towards ensuring that directories are up to date and accessible (internally and externally). It seems that the nature of the OM does not allow for it to be managed or directed. The OM exists – whether it is accessible or used is another story. Nurturing the relationships and directories are the critical components. This would require training of individuals and ensuring that everyone contributes.

Electronic assistance

One would expect that technology had only benefits for the development of OM. In this case study of PSG, the earlier phases can be identified during a time of little technological availability. However, obtaining documents and information from this phase was easier than anticipated (probably due to the personal investment of the founder). The physical documents were mostly destroyed during the turmoil in Zimbabwe and few electronic copies were available. Yet these documents (e.g. annual reports) could be recovered more easily from donors than later copies (which were mostly sent electronically). Physical documents were more likely to be filed in an accessible and more "public" space than electronic copies, which were mostly only shared by a relatively small audience directly involved with the organisation. It was easier to obtain reports than proposals (even when they were directly linked and had financial contractual value). Later documents (including proposals) often contained valuable information on the history and successes of the history, while narrative reports to donors contained information regarding challenges and solutions. This information

seemed to be more refined and integrated than mere documentation of events and activities.

The MIS is often (incorrectly) regarded as the OM of the organisation. Watson (1996, 1998), for instance, saw data management and OM tasks as the same. Burn and Ash (2000) and Schwartz *et al.* (2000) shared the opinion formed from the results of this study that MIS is useful as a capturing tool, but should not be considered as the OM, especially regarding the importance of individuals and individual OM (Anand *et al.*, 1998). The MIS can be used to fulfil certain functions (such as retrieval and making access to knowledge for decision-making easier), but it is not the OM, merely one component of it. Two main contributions of an MIS are: 1) it makes knowledge accessible, and 2) it makes directories to knowledge accessible (Ackerman & McDonald, 1996; Hamidi & Jusoff, 2009).

Some of the advantages of different uses of technology that are clear from this case study are:

- It is possible to retrieve memory (and documents) from previous electronic communication (from sender or receiver). This was also suggested by Schwartz (1998, 1999).
- Search engines such as Google or library resources can be used to search for information. This allows for access to not only the OM, but also knowledge from other organisations (like-minded and other global role-players) (Güldenberg & Eschenbach, 1996).
- Information outside the organisation that can contribute to interpretation and knowledge-generation is at hand and updated regularly (Kurtyka, 2005, 2009; Maier & Klosa, 1999; Nevo & Wand, 2005; Sharma & Yetton, 2007; Stein, 1989). IT can also enable regularly updating the OM.
- Directories are easier to be developed and maintained (this is the main application and use with the storage function of the MIS).

Some of the negative aspects of technological advantages are:

- Large portions of or the entire memory could very easily be erased, even from off-site, by previous and annoyed ex-staff or computer viruses.

- Password and other protections are necessary, which make access more difficult and could be seen as excluding people. Many smaller NGOs cannot afford the development or management of a sophisticated MIS.

- Communication etiquette (especially concerning e-mail) is crucial. The inappropriate use of e-mails, internet sites, or using lists to generate mass e-mails can damage important relationships (donors and internal politics). People often do not clearly see the boundaries of promoting and electronically communicating personal beliefs and loyalty to the organisation, which could result in being insensitive to donor beliefs and approaches.

- The MIS can focus on data and information rather than knowledge, and people often see the MIS as replacing or being the OM. This can lead to an overload of information, especially information that is not interpreted and integrated into knowledge and used appropriately (Conklin, 1996a; Kühn & Abecker, 1997).

- The networks and relationships can never be captured by technology. The organisational culture plays a bigger part in this (Baird & Cross, 2000).

It is important to also see developments in technology as macrosystem factors. With the advances in technology, international and global issues are more of an influence on even small NGOS, and events in remote or distant countries can have far-reaching effects on the storing and recall of OM.

Directories and metamemory

Probably the most important factors in studying OM that can be managed and should receive more attention (both in research on OM and in general management of NGOs), are the metamemory and directories (Girard, 2009; Hamidi & Jusoff, 2009; Nevo & Wand, 2005; Wegner, 1986).

Access to the memory is virtually impossible without the directories (Anand *et al.*, 1998). They enable access to the networks (and individual and inter-organisational relationships) and the OM stored in individuals (and hard copies). The memory continues to exist, but is not accessible if the directories are not explicit. This not only has implications for the investment in sophisticated technology, but needs soft skills in building and maintaining important relationships with key "gatekeepers" and those holding the metamemory and directories.

Visual cues

Audiovisual aids to capture and access the OM are very important (De Hoog *et al.*, 1994). Especially illustrating activities and the impact of activities are made easier. It also enables mental cues to be developed in individual OM to make retrieval (of even small details) important. This correlates with Baddeley's (1998) finding that visual cues enhance human memory.

Staff complement

Changes in the staff complement from a few core members to more specialised individuals who focus on less diverse key tasks has a positive influence on the functionality of the organisation, but implies management changes to include a human resources function. Interpersonal conflict is often found in multicountry organisations such as intermediary organisations (IOs) with different country offices. The main negative influence is that with a more diverse staff, staff turnover also increases, with a loss of individual OM and the ability to interpret information and knowledge generated by a predecessor.

7.1.3 Mesosystem

Leadership

The leadership (and management) of an NGO differs from that of other types of organisations in that NGOs often start due to the passion of a charismatic and influential leader (Avina, 2002; Britton, 2005; Bryman, 1996; Carroll & Montgomery, 1987; Hirshman, 1984). While the organisation is growing and expanding, the influence of this leader is very direct (often the staff complement is small and resembles the leader in personality type and work ethics). This has implications for the initial development of the OM and the value attributed to it (Britton, 2005; Bryman, 1996).

The fact that the PSG OM was located in one main individual (during the start-up phase) could be dangerous. Due to the nature and academic background of the founder it never became a negative factor. However, smaller NGOs that undergo little change have a very low staff turnover (with long-standing or egocentric leaders), this could have a substantial influence on the development of the OM and in the capturing and sharing of information (March, 1988). Memory loss is more severe when the individual is lost to the organisation, often resulting in the closing of the organisation. More importantly, it influences decision-making and delegation of responsibilities negatively.

There seemed to have been different stages of withdrawal of the founder from PSG. The first stage was a physical distancing (as he continued with international consultancy while the other three individuals moved to South Africa), but he continued to stay involved as a board member and his presence was felt through the organisational culture (and work ethic) he promoted earlier on. He withdrew over time by being less involved in day-to-day operational issues and later overall management. His influence was still felt through the consolidation phase, and he was still regarded as the "saviour" at the beginning of the close-out phase. Attempts were made to convince a similar individual to rescue PSG and even replacing the vision. Both were then severely rejected when not reacting in the exact way people expected. Due to the popularity and

admiration for the founder, each withdrawal elicited severe responses. Managing this process is important.

During the close-out phase the same type of leadership (visionary) was needed to enable planning and executing the closure in a manner that retained the OM (and allowed for marketing and promotion activities using the PSG reputation). This was crucial for the organisation to fulfil the ultimate goal of contributing to the beneficiaries' lives in a positive way. Closure in another format could have caused damaged to the partners and future similar endeavours by leaving stakeholders disillusioned and with unresolved issues.

The organisation saw a rapid turnover of executive managers (5 in 3 years, using general manager or CEO as title according to the preference of the individual), each feeling dedicated and ultimately frustrated by not being able to revive PSG. Only when it was clear that PSG was in a close-out phase and that this needed to be managed very well (to ensure survival of the "offspring" solely based on the OM) was a fitting person recruited and authorised by the remaining staff, ex-staff members and the board.

Vision and "visionaries"

Related to the leadership and management is the vision of the organisation. This seemed to play a crucial role in PSG throughout the development of the organisation. The OM is not only expressed through the vision – the vision also guides the development and perceived importance of the OM. Due to the fact that the founder was academically inclined, this awareness and emphasis developed seemingly "naturally".

The vision (and the fear of losing it) was so dominant in PSG that it contributed to the stuckness the organisation experienced at one time. Every effort was made to regain either the visionary or the vision (even unconsciously having visions/prophecies) that could guide the organisation, but most of all provide some hope in the desperation.

Unfortunately the founder of PSG could not be contacted (even after repeated attempts over more than two years). The role he played as visionary was elaborated on in many interviews, and although his opinion regarding the memory of PSG could not be obtained, his contributions to the organisation were captured. Perhaps the unavailability and "silence" of his voice carries a message in itself.

Theory of change

To enhance the activities it is suggested that the different organisations and other stakeholders and individuals involved in activities be linked by sharing a similar vision and having an explicit theory of change.

A theory of change forms the blueprint of the organisation and describes in a logical manner the consecutive steps that need to be taken to achieve the overall vision. A typical theory of change includes clearly stating the 1) inputs (resources), 2) activities, 3) outputs (direct results of the activities), 4) outcomes (objectives of the organisation or project), and 5) impact (or ultimate vision). Each of these levels' results depend on the achievement of the results of previous levels.

The programme theory is illustrated in Figure 7.4. This is useful in assisting organisations in capturing the theory of change in the OM and updating according to project results and lessons learned of successes and failures (Ackerman & McDonald, 2000; Edwards, 1997, 1999). It also takes into account the environment and stakeholders such as donors and beneficiaries.
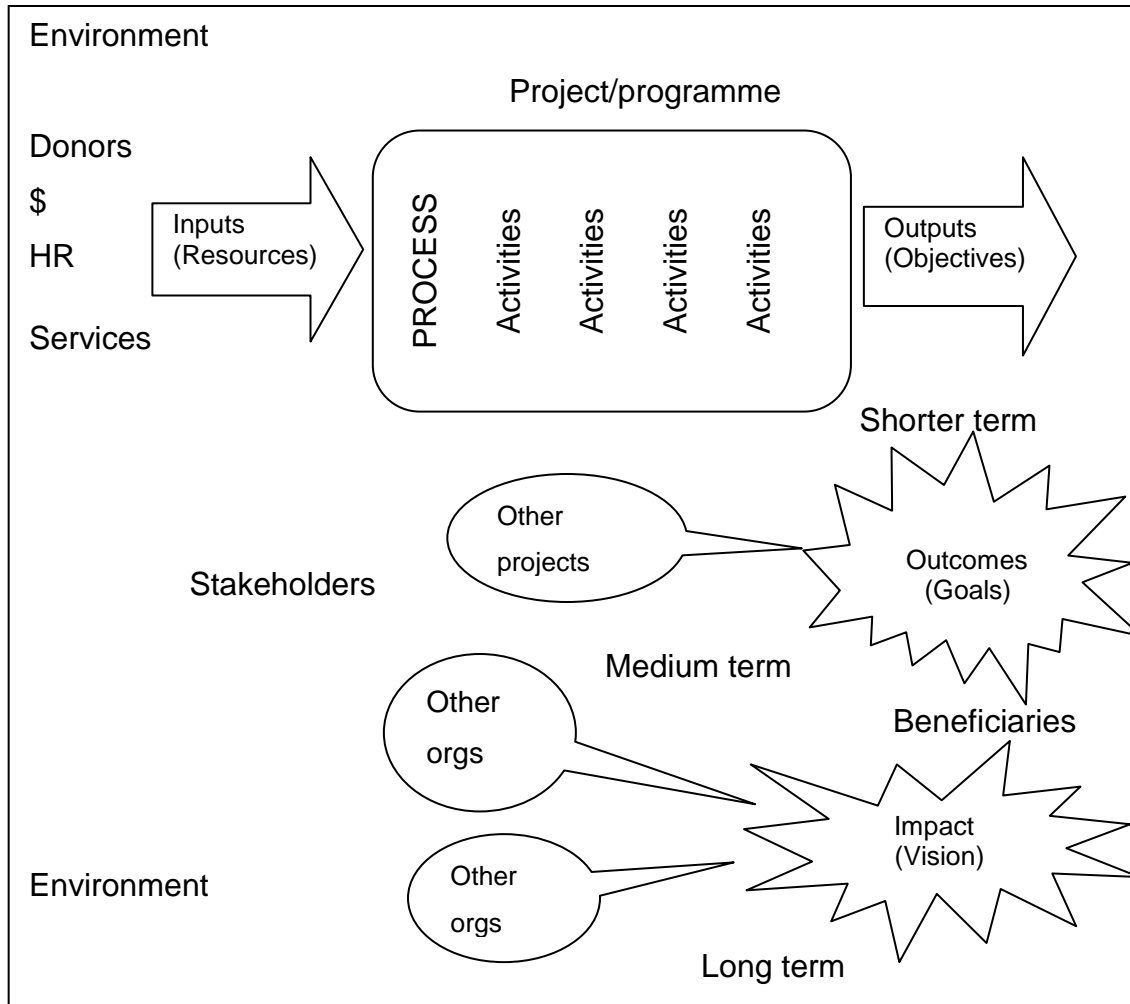
Figure 7.4: Diagram illustrating project theory of change (adapted from OLIVE, 1998, 2001)

It is strongly recommended to use a theory of change that is embedded in the OM to illustrate to partners the combined effect or impact that the IO is striving for. It is crucial to use some models or theory of change to clearly illustrate the ultimate goals of the projects and how each partner organisation will contribute. It will enhance the OM and allow for strategic planning and improved monitoring activities. It will also enhance commitment to contribute to the OM. A two-phase approach seems to be needed:

- Using a theory of change will explicitly contribute greatly to the awareness of the importance of OM, especially regarding learning in the organisation. Communicating and emphasising aspects of the theory of change will explicitly not only be useful to plan interventions, but also enable strategies and tools to measure the influence of different subsystems from different levels of the ecological framework (see Figure 7.2). To enhance the understanding that the activities will contribute to a long-term effect, additional illustrations of the timing effect should be included in the theory of change and the initial development or OM framework. The timing aspect is important in changes over time, and the historical influence of the timing of events has an influence on the outcomes as well as the manner in which the OM will be accessed and used. A well-developed and accessible OM will contribute to measuring progress according to the theory of change and allow for timely adjustments to this theory of change. Certain aspects also build onto each other and influence different systems (and parts of the OM). Achieving success in one does not imply achieving the overall goal. For example, peer education will develop over time and will have to change and adapt as the programme progresses.
- A further attempt can be made to illustrate to all participating organisations and individuals how networking will enhance their activities. The Inter-organisational Relationships Networking Model as described above (see Figure 7.3) could be used to communicate the combined influence of the network as contained in the OM.

Culture

The organisational culture did not appear as important as one would have expected (Berthon *et al.,* 2001; Brown *et al.,* 2001; Girard, 2009; Harré, 2001; Lehner & Maier, 2000; Spender, 1996; Walsh & Ungson, 1991). Perhaps the PSG culture changed little over the years. It was also clear that most of the culture (even until the close-out phase) was based on the founder and the perceptions of his preferences. The following were the main aspects of the culture of the organisation that were expressed:

- Learning in the organisation and decision-making abilities were strongly influenced by the OM. The more the organisation learned from its past successes and failures, the more accurately it could apply it in decision-making processes and strategies. There was also learning taking place between PSG and its partners. Not only did they share the OM and replicated aspects of the OM process, but the partner experiences were also incorporated in the learning and OM of PSG.

- When communication was open and processes transparent, the OM was shared easily. This confirms the studies by Krippendorff (1975) and Stein (1989, 1995). Inhibited communication between staff and the board and donors, although preventing inappropriate exchanges at a sensitive time in the organisation's history, seriously hampered the exchange of OM (especially history) that might have alleviated some anxiety and enhanced awareness of the organisational vision and goal achievements. The negative aspect was that when open communication is not allowed and there is mistrust and emotional reactions, office gossip starts. The gossip is also captured in the OM, even when it is unverified and sabotages information. It cannot be regarded as knowledge as it is not refined, but it is still stored in OM.

- On the positive side, the culture of the organisation (based on the academically influenced background of the founder) encouraged communication on various levels (Krippendorff, 1975). Information and knowledge generated in the OM were disseminated between staff, to partner organisations and to the wider scientific community through conference presentations and scientific publications throughout the life of the organisation. This was a major positive influence from the founder, and it is not commonly seen in NGOs, not even larger IOs.

A culture of trust, transparency and openness enables an environment that will encourage OM development and contributions of all staff. It will enable a culture of

sharing of information (Levin & Cross, 2004). This can only happen when a clear vision is communicated between staff and when this vision is shared by everyone.

The environment should also be conducive to documenting and record-keeping. This should be mainstreamed into all aspects of the organisation, and all staff members should be involved. The documentation should be complete, accurate and relevant, and to ensure this, the responsibility of the overall management of the OM should lie with a person with enough authority.

Sleep and time

One of the key aspects that was found lacking in PSG and that could enhance OM is the opportunity to reflect on information and the individuals' roles and interest in OM. This could be undertaken through informal meetings such as team-building, excursions and even small events such as sharing lunch. These were described as periods of "sleep" for the organisation to allow reflection and integration of information (Schoeneborn & Blaschke, 2009). This might be more important in fast-evolving organisations (Roth & Kleiner, 1998; Sauvagnac & Falzon, 2003; Sparrow, 1999).

These events will also assist in unlearning and forgetting as important parts of the OM process (Akgün *et al.*, 2007; Baddeley, 1998; Hedberg, 1981; Henderson, 1996; Schoeneborn & Blaschke, 2009). During this study there were no really challenges regarding unlearning, as the only major change in main activity was the change from an implementing organisation to an intermediary (grant-making) organisation. Unlearning for PSG would have been inappropriate, as its IO function relied on the OM from the previous function. In the case of organisations that have radical changes in service delivery, the memory might be overloaded and the forgetting process should be enhanced to enable unlearning (Girard & Allison, 2009; Henderson, 1996; Klein *et al.*, 2007; Morgan & Root, 1979). A stuckness will develop if this is not undertaken.

Related to the issue of allocating time for informal interactions is the allocation of enough time to process OM. Since the interpretation and integration of information is critical to OM (Britton, 2005; Hamidi & Jusoff, 2009), sufficient time should be allocated to individuals and teams for reflection.

Currently the trend is for people to stay for shorter terms at an organisation. This is also true for the NGO working environment where people who invested emotionally in a cause were employed on a long-term basis, even for the duration of their working career. A high staff turnover has a detrimental effect on the OM transfer (Covington, 1985; Rothwell & Poduch, 2004; Scalzo, 2006). This is even more important with key administrative personnel who often hold the OM directories. Again, time is a valuable and scares resource that should be managed to enable sufficient handover.

Time is also a resource that should be considered when sharing the OM. Fast access to the knowledge generated and stored in the OM is important for management decisions. This is possible through the effective use of the metamemory and the relevant directories. Managers have limited time for decision-making. Similarly, donors and other executives spend limited time reading long reports. Using the OM optimally can save valuable time and ensure better outcomes of knowledge disseminated that is well integrated and interpreted. Many funders of commissioned research studies and evaluations prescribe the maximum number of pages for a report to emphasise this point.

Reputation

A key factor of the success of PSG and an important function of the memory lay in spreading the reputation of the founder and most influential person (Prof David Wilson), as well as in his and other employees' and board members' efforts to build the reputation of the organisation. The influence of the reputation of key personnel and especially the organisation is dependent on the OM. The reputation of individuals is

captured in the OM, and through the knowledge stored in the OM the organisational reputation is managed and marketed.

Policies and procedures

There were changes in the policies, procedures and guidelines over time within the organisation. Initially these were seen as strictly following strict governance and labour rights. With time the policies became manipulated and reflected various personal aspects. The evolution of an NGO (especially an IO such as PSG) will include changes and revisions of its guiding documents, but this would probably be best managed by an external consultant.

7.1.4 Exosystem

The implications of understanding and having an awareness of OM in NGOs (and the temporal influences) include internal role-players (general OM and individual organisational memories for management and staff) and external role-players (donors, beneficiaries and ex-staff). All these imply that good relationships and networks are very important, especially for inter-organisational relationships with and between partner organisations (Stein, 1989).

Relationships and networking are major factors and are described here, but should also be considered as part of the macrolevel. The networking abilities increased with increased access to the combined OM (and especially the directories and metamemory) of PSG, its partners, beneficiaries and stakeholders. Indirect access to networks of all those who were included in the PSG network increased the reach of PSG. (This is similar to the extended networks of distant relationships on social networks such as Facebook and professional networks such as LinkedIn.) The importance of networking was also evident from the survival of partner organisations during 2007. One of the

reasons was the networks that were in place and using the reputation and trust built through the relationships of PSG.

Inter-organisational networks are very important for regional IOs such as PSG, as their main function is to increase the combined impact of the grassroots organisations that are best suited for community responses. Using relationships and networks is impossible without OM, and metamemory is difficult without documented relationships and mapped relevant networks. The important function of multinational and regional IOs in preserving OM was also emphasised by Girard (2009).

It is important to consider the network and inter-organisational relationships in organisations such as this, as the implementation and sustainability are dependent on the partner organisations, the regional and global networks. This will be of great importance for IOs as globalisation and economic turbulence increase (Anand *et al.*, 1998; Coopey & Burgoyne, 2004).

Normally the involvement of networks can be seen either as an input from the acting organisation or as a strategy to implement the innovation (Raynor, 2010). In the case of PSG, it appeared to be both an input and a strategy.

It is necessary to evaluate the networks and relationships and include information in the OM, especially information to address the following:
- membership capacity (What could be gained from the network? How could involvement be justified? How much time would be devoted to it? What is offered?);
- network capacity (leadership, adaptability, management, technical capacity) to influence value proposition as well as goal destination, and
- outcomes for all four levels as illustrated in Figure 7.2.

Figure 7.5 illustrates the combined effect of the networks and the inter-organisational relationships and emphasises the ultimate vision of the combined efforts on both the goal destination and value proposition. This can be used in capturing information for the OM in a manner that is accessible, understandable to all staff, and easily retrievable.

Networks are often formed on different levels and involve different stakeholders (for example between individuals, countries, organisations and regional IOs). This should, however, not be seen as hierarchical or linear. The involvement of the intermediary organisation is also different for the different networks. All of these relationships influence the OM in a complex and interactive manner.
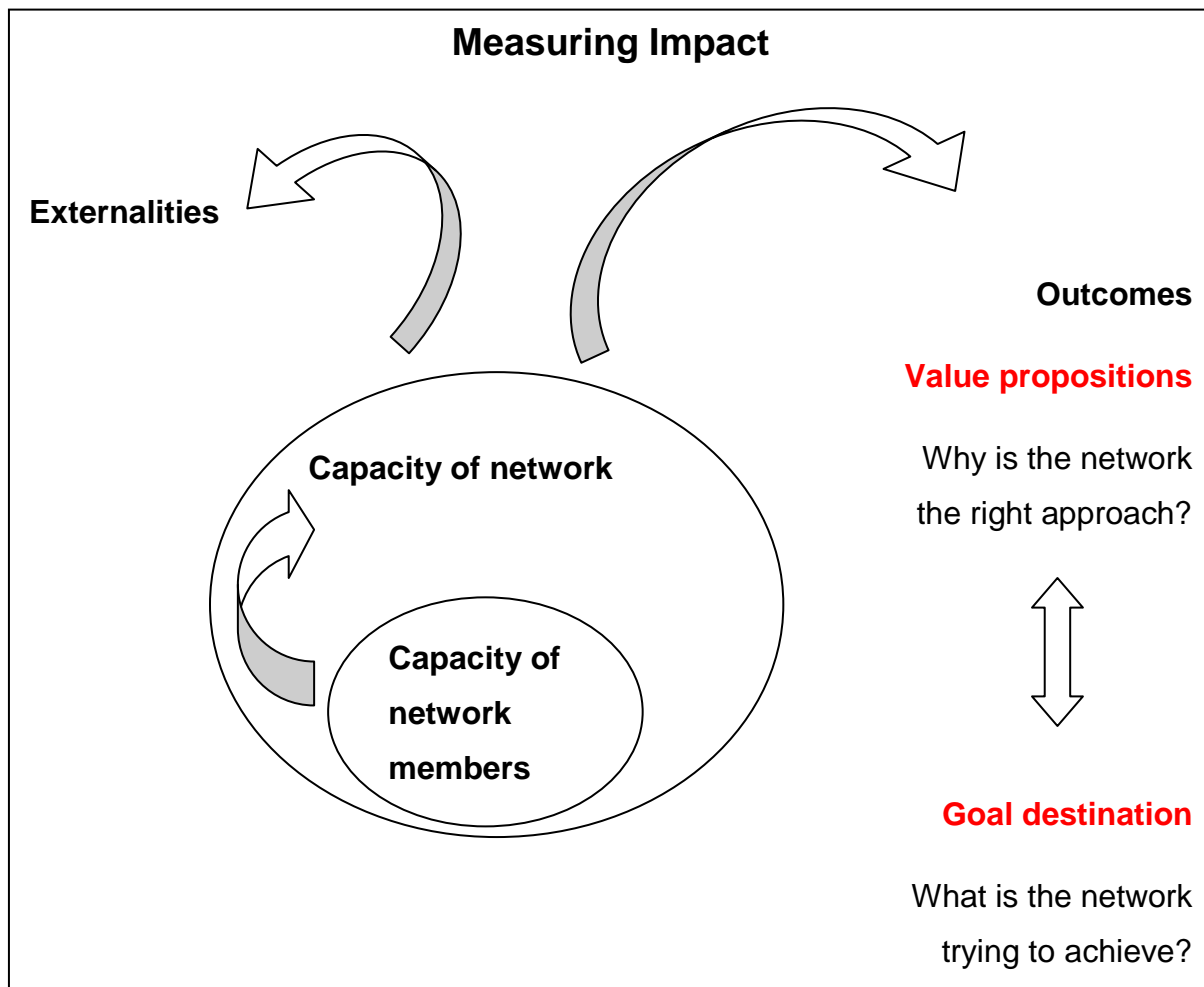
Figure 7.5: Networking (Inter-organisational Relationships) Model (Raynor, 2010)

7.1.5 Macrosystem

One of the main insights gained regarding the value of the OM of PSG as a regional IO was that the OM allowed the organisation and its partner organisations to adapt to the changing environment and to be more sustainable. (Kurtyka (2005, 2009) placed an equal emphasis on environmental factors.) It also influenced the activities, such as changing funding distribution to partners in the SADC region by taking into consideration a variety of factors, including partner factors (impact, cost-effective implementations and efficiency), the interests and main funding interests of donor organisations, changes in the need for activities (based on global statistics and interpreting these for predictions of future trends), and the timely adaption of interventions (based on lessons learned).

Major changes in the environment included the political and socio-economic situation in Zimbabwe and the resulting exodus of NGOs, especially larger and regional IOs (including PSG), and the consequences it had for the OM. These socio-economic influences are important to consider and received attention from authors such as Curry and his co-workers (2001).

PSG played a part in the founding of RAANGO and through its participation not only gained OM, but also contributed to the shared OM of the new structure and its other partner organisations.

In essence, this agrees with the Kurtyka model (2005, 2009) in that it includes the larger global environment, the external environment directly affecting the organisation, and the resource base.

This study contributes to expanding OM systems theory (Kurtyka, 2005, 2009) and includes a temporal analysis (Stralinski, 2004). In summary, Table 7.1 displays the key themes of each developmental phase as investigated by the study.

Table 7.1 Summary of key main findings

Level	Start-up	Expansion: Area	Expansion: Function	Consolidation	Close-out
Individual	Founder	Key staff passion	Staff diversity	↑ Staff turnover	Ex-staff
Micro	Small group	Close relationships	Staff dynamics	MIS	External directories
Meso	Vision (theory of change)	Financial structures	Policies + procedures	Changes to governance	"Lead to close" vision
Exo	Direct involvement with each partner	Increase in partners (based on relationships)	Inter-organisational relationships + networks and reputation	Management handover	Development of promotional material for partner sustainability
Macro	Local needs	Political change	Regional influence	Global influence	Beneficiaries + partners Impact

It is possible to identify the following stages of the development of the OM of PSG:

- individual OM made up PSG OM (tacit and explicit memory);
- a group memory developed (with increased documentation and filing);
- dissemination helped building reputation and sharing results;
- a basic framework for the OM developed with planning to capture, store and access the memory;
- metamemory and directories developed;
- the memory survived.

7.2 Conclusion

The main conclusion that can be drawn from this study is the importance and value of OM in IOs (Girard, 2009). If OM is valued and nurtured though a proper management system focussing on the directories (not only residing in expensive and sophisticated systems, but especially in individuals), it can enhance the life and working activities of the organisation, its beneficiaries and other stakeholders.

The metaphor of the human brain does not allow for the ability of the OM of NGOs to extend beyond the life of the organisation. A temporal ecological approach to investigations and descriptions of the memory is preferred. It is clear from this study that after two years post-close-out, the OM continues to live in individual and documental records. This is not merely an account of history, but applications of lessons learned and of significant events that enabled learning as advocated by Ackerman and McDonald (2000).

Death of the organisation does not erase the memory. The memory that survives is more than storage bins – it actively influences the surviving beneficiaries and stakeholders. The memory still exists after the organisation has been closed. This is evident from the ability of this study to trace the memory through various directories. However, it would probably been more difficult for another researcher as I carried some of the memory and also metamemory of the organisation as a previous research manager. The relationship with many past employees, partner organisations and other stakeholders also contributed (Carroll & Montgomery, 1987), but the fact remains that the memory was not lost and is recoverable through the directories.

According to Güldenberg and Eschenbach (1996), organisations have different levels of memory, each with a different level of access. The current investigation seems to contradict this in that in the case of PSG, the key factor was the availability of the directories as the enabling factor to access all levels of the OM. It was also enhanced

through the visionary actions of the last CEO to capture information. The memory was not genetically transferred to the surviving "offspring", but will remain in artefacts, documents and individuals as long as the directories remain available. The "dementia" described by other authors (Girard, 2009) is not relevant to this long-surviving regional intermediary NGO.

The history might be distorted or some areas of less interest lost, but the implications of significant events and the lessons learned remain clear (even if not acted upon). The investigation of the changes over time significantly contributed to a better understanding of the OM location, structure, functions and influencing factors as changed over time (Girard, 2009).

7.3 Recommendations for further research

The major limitations of this study were:
- The retrospective nature of the study has implications for the availability of material. However, investigating OM does in itself imply that the availability of material reveals much about the OM. It would also be impossible to do a longitudinal study of an organisation over a period of 25 years.
- Certain key respondents did not respond (especially those who did so due to strong emotional reactions and feelings of loss).
- Organisational language did not appear to be a major factor, as mentioned by various authors (Castor, 2005; Cooren & Fairhurst, 2005; Taylor & Van Every, 2000), in this case study. The studies of the mentioned authors did however not focus on NGOs and the context could therefore be different. A different type of analysis that focussed specifically on discourse analysis could possibly have revealed more. However, this fell outside the scope of this study.

The following recommendations can be made for future research:

- Investigating OM over time, including different phases in its life cycle. It is therefore necessary to first investigate the organisational development and change of the organisation and all the elements of the ecological framework, e.g. change and influence of the environment (from global to personal employee level).

- This case study focussed on investigating changes through the organisational life cycle; future case studies could investigate the influence of critical incidents on OM.

- Investigating the directories (and metamemory) as a main focus.

- The Most Significant Change Method seems to influence different parts of the OM of the organisation (including tacit and explicit, documented and individual organisational memories) and different stakeholders (including partner organisations, donors and ultimate grassroots beneficiaries). It is important to investigate the influence of the Most Significant Change Method on the beneficiaries and grassroots organisations in more depth.

- It is also important to focus on OM as a system (including all the different aspects as illustrated in Figure 7.1). Studies focussing on descriptions of structure or function alone are only relevant when investigating a clearly defined phase of development. These descriptions might be relevant to only one phase. For example, "bins" change over time and investment in the wrong or inappropriate structure (e.g. the MIS) could be uneconomical and ineffective.

- Studying and using a temporal approach to study the OMs of other types of businesses or business units (e.g. small and medium enterprises, academic departments, and governmental departments and structures).

Applications of understanding of OM through this study

This study's impact could impact on the following:

- PSG's beneficiary NGOs' development and sustainability through the historical record created, and

- monitoring and evaluation system and framework development.

An understanding of OM could contribute to consulting psychologists' understanding of the organisations they work in. It could also contribute to organisational development practices.

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Appendix A

Examples of Tools

Appendix A1: General Questionnaire (adjusted for present, past staff, consultants, co-ordinators)

Appendix A2: Key Informant interview schedule

Appendix A3: Beneficiary Questionnaire (history and memory)

Appendix A4: Surviving 2007 interview schedule

APPENDIX A1: General Questionnaire

Ref no: [   ]

ORGANISATIONAL MEMORY

I am doing a research study to investigate and describe organisational memory. Just like human beings, organisations use memory (or the ability to store and recall information or experiences from the past) to influence present activities or planning for the future. This research will use information of PSG as a case study. It is important to obtain information from employees of PSG. Your experience, opinions and knowledge about PSG is very important for the study. I would like to invite you to participate in an interview, as I value your input. This should take approximately 30 minutes of your time to complete. The information will be treated confidentially. The case study will contribute to a better understanding of organisational memory and contribute to organisational growth and development.

Do I have permission to continue the interview? Yes: _____   No: _____

Name:_____   Position at PSG: _____

Starting date: _____   Date left: _____

Date of interview completion: _____

1. Do you think that organisational memory is important for an organisation such as PSG?

Yes: _____   No: _____

Please explain your answer:

2. What do you think is the core components of the organisational memory in an organisation such as PSG? (Please elaborate)

3. How would you describe the organisational memory of PSG? (What did it consist of, where was it situated, what is the status of the memory?)

4. On the organogram A, please indicate in which function the organisational memory was located? (You can indicate as many as needed). If it was different for different time periods, please explain for each period.

Organogram A

```
                          ┌──────────────┐
                          │  PSG Board   │
                          └──────┬───────┘
                                 │
                          ┌──────┴───────┐
                          │ CEO/General  │
                          │   Manager    │
                          └──────┬───────┘
   ┌────────┬─────────┬──────────┼──────────┬────────┬─────────┐
┌──┴───┐ ┌──┴───┐ ┌────┴─────┐ ┌──┴─────┐ ┌─┴───┐ ┌──┴──┐ ┌────┴────┐
│Admin │ │Finance│ │Programme│ │Research│ │ M&E │ │ IT  │ │  Other  │
│      │ │      │ │    s     │ │        │ │     │ │     │ │(Specify)│
└──────┘ └──────┘ └──────────┘ └────────┘ └─────┘ └─────┘ └─────────┘
```
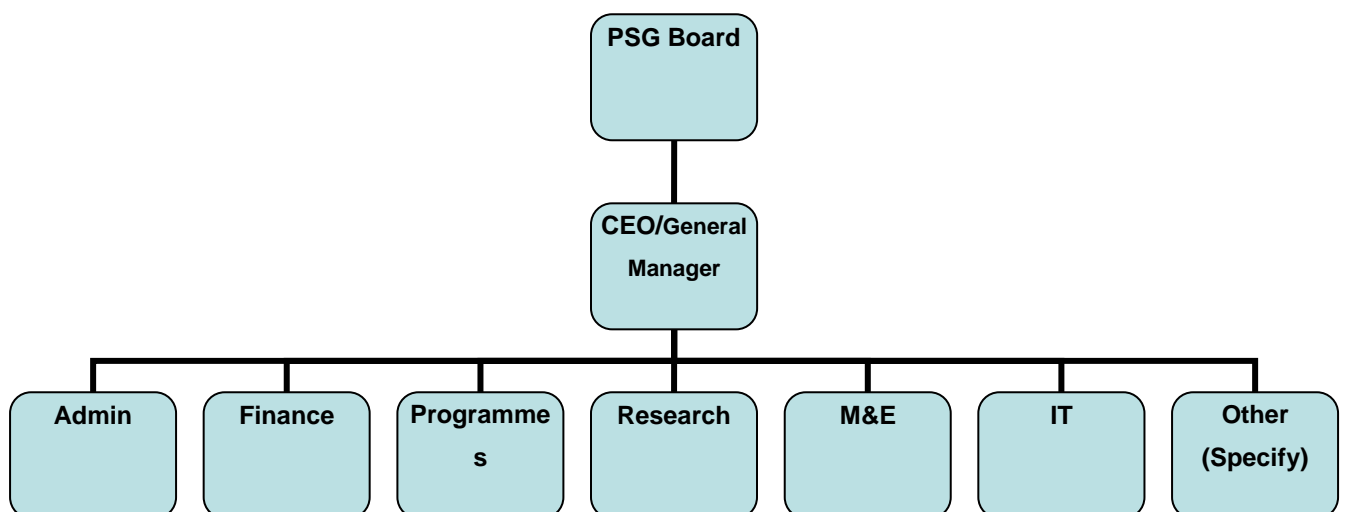
Explanation (if needed):

5. On the organogram B, indicate in which function the organisational memory **SHOULD** be located. (You can indicate as many as needed).

Organogram B

```
                    ┌──────────────┐
                    │  PSG Board   │
                    └──────┬───────┘
                           │
                    ┌──────┴───────┐
                    │ CEO/General  │
                    │   Manager    │
                    └──────┬───────┘
                           │
   ┌──────┬──────┬─────────┼─────────┬──────┬──────┐
┌──┴──┐┌──┴──┐┌──┴──────┐┌─┴──────┐┌─┴──┐┌──┴─┐┌───┴────┐
│Admin││Finance││Programme││Research││M&E ││ IT ││ Other  │
│     ││     ││   s     ││        ││    ││    ││(Specify)│
└─────┘└─────┘└─────────┘└────────┘└────┘└────┘└────────┘
```
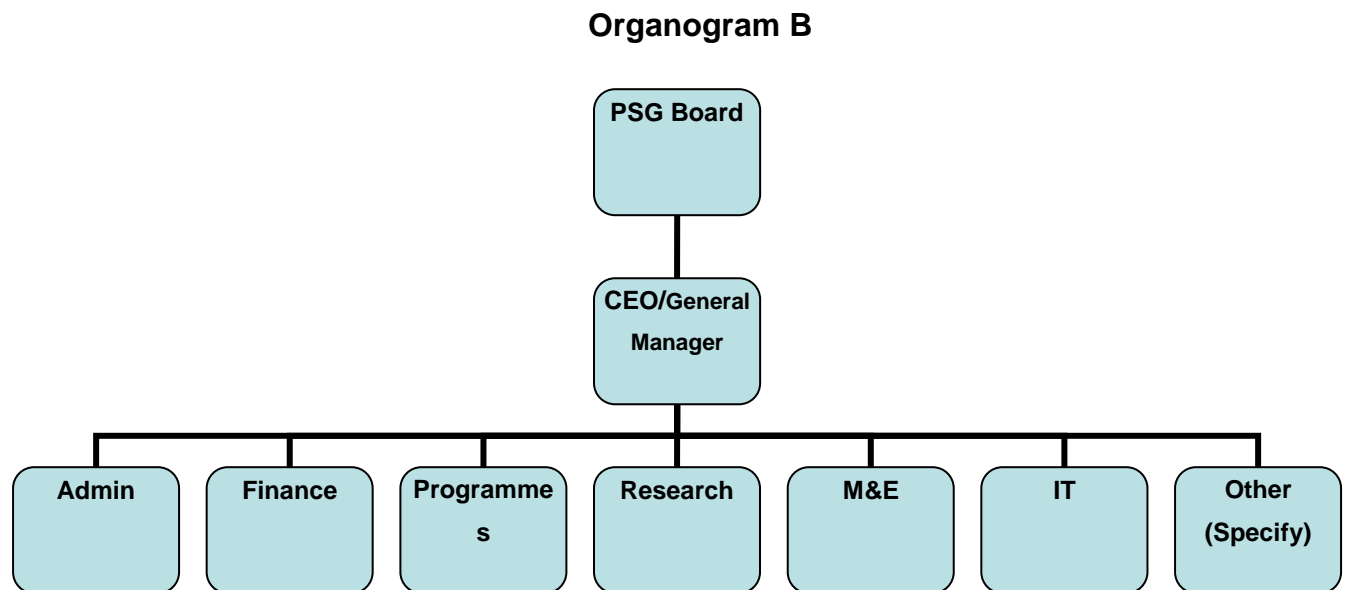
Explanation (if needed):

6. Do you recall any processes during PSG's history that strengthen PSG's memory?

Please elaborate (and include the effect of these processes).

7. Do you recall any processes during PSG's history that weakened PSG's memory?

Please elaborate (and include the effect of these processes).

8. What was the peak experience or high point in the time you were employed by PSG when you experienced the organisational memory at its best?

9. If you could give advice to a new organisation on how to enhance their organisational memory, what would it be?

Thank you for your participation, I value your contribution and will keep all responses confidential.

APPENDIX A2: Key informant framework for questions

Introduction

- D Consult

- OM (storing, retrieving, loss)

- Organisational learning

PSG history

Phases:

- Start-up

- Expansion

- Consolidation

- Close-out

When each

Memory (Each phase)

Start-up phase

- Where was the memory of PSG located during this phase (bins)?

- How good was the memory?

- What influenced the memory?

- Strengthened

- Weakened

- What did the memory influence? Any examples

Other Questions

1a. What is her experiences with PSASA memory?

1b. Is it more or less the same regarding stages, location and influence on learning, etc?

2. What would be the use of OM research (knowing more on OM)?

3. What advice would she give to other organisations regarding OM (storing and retrieving)?

4. Are there other key persons that she think I could include (especially from the early phases)?

Xtra question

Some notes/ideas on vision

APPENDIX A3: PSG Beneficiaries Questionnaire

This questionnaire aims to collect data on PSG influence on regional partner development. Please assist us in developing a historical record of PSG's foundational role in the SADC region. This conversation is tape recorded and notes will be made during the conversation. We thank you for your participation.

Partner: _____Date: _____

Respondent name: _____Tape number:_____

A. PSG HISTORY

1. What do you think was the major historical events in PSG's history?	2. How did each of these events influence the development of your organisation?

3. What was the influence of PSG in the initial stages of the organisation being established?

4. What was the influence of PSG in the growth of you organisation from an emerging to a mature organisation?

5. What was the major positive contribution that PSG made to your organisation?

6. If you could select one example of PSG's regional influence, what would it be? [INCLUDING PSG PARTNERS, OTHER ORGANISATIONS, REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT]

7. What do you think is PSG's legacy?

B. ORGANISATIONAL MEMORY

1. Do you think that organisational memory is important for an organisation such as PSG? (please elaborate)

2. Where do you think the organisational memory of PSG was located? [IF DIFFERENT FOR DIFFERENT TIME PERIODS PLEASE LIST FOR EACH]

3. Do you recall any processes during PSG's history that strengthen PSG's memory?

Please elaborate (and include the effect of these processes)

4. Do you recall any processes during PSG's history that weakened PSG's memory?

Please elaborate (and include the effect of these processes)

5. What was the influence of PSG's memory on your organisation?

6. Where do you think organisation memory should be situated in an organisation?

7. How do you think organisational memory can be enhanced?

APPENDIX A4: Surviving 2007

Appreciative Inquiry Interview

Introduction

The Personal Perspective

1. *Tell me about a personal peak experience or high point in your programme last year – a time when you felt most alive and engaged and really proud of yourself. What was it about you, the situation or your organization that allowed this peak experience to emerge?*

The Organisational Perspective

2. *Now tell me a story of a peak experience in your organization and its programme that happened last year that made you feel alive and proud of the organization and made you convinced that no matter what, your organization would survive.*

Lessons about Organistional Qualities

3. *What did this teach you about the extraordinary qualities of your organization and its people?*

4. *What do you think are the outstanding things in your organization that gave it life last year, without which your organization would not have survived?*

Spending Priorities

5. Towards the end of last year you received grant money from the donors through PSG for 2007. Tell me some stories about what your organization did with the money.

Benefiting from the Resources

6. Now tell me one or two extraordinary stories about how the finances were used for the beneficiaries.

Volunteers and Staff

7. What was extraordinary about the contribution of volunteers and staff in 2007? Tell me a story that comes to mind that made you feel proud and really value the team that you have.

Programme Innovations

8. *Can you tell me what innovative things your programme and its people did in 2007 to ensure that OVC, the sick and the team were able to eat in 2007?*

9. *Can you tell me what innovative things your programme and its people did in 2007 to ensure that the HBC programme continued?*

10. *Can you tell me what innovative things your programme and its people did in 2007 to ensure that peer education and prevention programmes continued?*

Innovative Resourcing Strategies

11. *You had fewer financial resources in 2007. Tell me some stories about some of the innovative things that you did to continue with your work despite these shortages. What other resources did you manage to access and how did you do this?*

Community Support and Mobilisation

12. *Tell me a story about the support you got from the community, business or the government during the year that uplifted your spirits and that made you feel that it was all worth while. How did this happen?*

Solving a Pressing Problem

13. *What were the core services that you continued to provide during the year? Can you tell me a story about service delivery that illustrates how you addressed a most pressing problem (in OVC, HBC and Prevention) that made you feel proud of the resourcefulness of your organization?*

Interview Summary Sheet

(to be completed by the interviewer)

What are the best stories and quotes that you heard in this interview

Themes and Lessons Learnt

(to be asked of the informant)

What are the lessons that you learnt and themes in 2007 about your partners, your priorities and your people that you want to take with you into the future?

Appendix B

Temporal Ecological Framework

Level	Start-up	Expand Area	Expand Function	Consolidate	Close-out
Individual					
Micro					
Meso					
Exo					
Macro					

Appendix C

List of documents reviewed

*Referencing style according to each documents (some information, e.g. publication dates or authors missing). This also reflects OM changes as the styles changed.

Promotional, training and reflective material

- Jansen van Rensburg, M. (2009)*. PSG History and Reflection.* Commissioned by PSG board. (Attached as Appendix)
- Jansen van Rensburg, M. (2008). *Surviving 2007 study.* (Attached as Appendix)
- PSG (2005/6) *PSG brochure* 2005/6
- PSG (unknown date) PSG profile and description (intended as promotional material)
- PSASA (unknown date) Peer Education Training Manual (undated)
- PSG (2008). *Peer Education Model Guidelines* (developed for Gauteng Department of Health.
- Prevention Participatory Approaches, Manual for development of new material and activities, First draft as discussed at Regional Prevention Workshop, 20-22 July 2004, Lusaka.
- Research brief for conducting Focus Groups (2004)
- Research briefs for surveys (2005)
- Research briefs for IDIs (2005)
- Learner Guide: GDoH, research surveys (2008)

Evaluation Reports

- Rossiter, G. (2007). *Report on the evaluation of PSG Regional Programmes*. Regenesys.

- Chakeredza, V., & Nzira, T. (Undated). Independent Evaluation of the Project Support Group (PSG) Regional Operations.

- Ndubani, P., Zulu, R., & Kasuta, E.T. (2000). Evaluation of the Youth Alive Zambia Behavioural Change Process Programme. University of Zambia, Institute of Economic and Social Research.

Funding proposals

- Project Support Group, Psychology Department, University of Zimbabwe. Proposal: 1996-2000.

- Project Support Group, Psychology Department, University of Zimbabwe: 1998-2001.

- Project Support Group, Programme Document: January 1999 – December 2001.

- Krystall, A. (1998) Project Support Group, Psychology Department, University of Zimbabwe, Regional partnerships to reduce HIV infection and mitigate its impact in Southern Africa, 1998 -2000. Regional Project Proposal Evaluation. Prepared for the Royal Norwegian Government (NORAD – Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation).

- Wilson, D., Crewe, M., Billinghurst, K., Bassett, M., Kathuria, R., Osewe, P., Steen, R., Asiedu, K., and Van Damm, J. (1998). Targetted versus General Population Interventions for STD/HIV Prevention: a Proposal for Intervention Research.

- Project Support Group (1998). Programme Document: January 1999 – December 2001.

- Project Support Group (1996/7). Operations research study draft project proposal: A randomized trial to compare general population and targetted interventions in Zimbabwe and Zambia.

- Netherland –Norwegian Joint Proposal 2002-2006

- SIDA Mitigation Proposal 2002
- PSG. (2005) Regional programme document: Submitted to the Royal Netherlands Embassy, Jan 2005 – December 2006.
- Memorandum of agreement between Gauteng Department of Health and PSG, 2006.

Strategic documents
- Swedish Strategy for Support for Regional and Subregional Development Cooperation in Sub-Saharan Africa, 2002-2006.
- Project Support Group (2004) Strategic Plan: Jan 2004 – December 2008.PSG Research Activities 2005.
- Proposed Work plan for 2005.
- Partner Work plan for 2005.
- Research vision 2007.
- PSG Strategic Plan 2008-2012.

Progress reports
- Nakarada-Kordic, D. (2000). Progress report for the period July 1999 to December 1999: Targetted versus general population intervention for STD/HIV prevention. Population Council Horizons Programme.
- Nakarada-Kordic, D. (2001). Progress report for the period July 2000 to December 2000: Targetted versus general population intervention for STD/HIV prevention. Population Council Horizons Programme.
- Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2004). Regional Programme Document submitted to The Royal Netherlands Embassy: January 2003 to December 2003.
- Project Support Group Southern Africa (2004) Progress Report submitted to the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) for the period January 2003 to December 2003.
- Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). Regional Programme Document submitted to The Royal Netherlands Embassy: January 2004 to December 2004.

- Project Support Group Southern Africa (2005) Progress Report submitted to the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) for the period January 2004 to December 2004. Titled: Regional partnership to expand HIV/AIDS prevention and mitigation responses among cross-border migrant populations in Southern Africa.
- Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). Regional Programme Progress Report submitted to The Royal Netherlands Embassy: January 2005 to December 2005.
- Project Support Group Southern Africa (2006) Progress Report submitted to the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) for the period January 2005 to December 2005.
- Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2007). Regional Programme Progress Report submitted to The Royal Netherlands Embassy: January 2006 to December 2006.
- Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2008). Regional Programme Progress Report submitted to The Royal Netherlands Embassy: January 2007 to December 2007.
- Mid-term Progress Report (2008).

National workshop reports
- Regional Mitigation Workshop Report, 2004, Windhoek, Namibia, 31 May – 2 June
- Regional Prevention Workshop Report, 2004. Lusaka Zambia, 18-23 July
- Regional Mitigation Workshop Report, 2004, White River, South Africa, 18-22 Oct
- Regional M&E Workshop Material, 2005, Johannesburg, South Africa

PSG Impact studies 2005 and 2006
- 1. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Prevention and Mitigation Impact Surveys.*

- 2. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Mitigation Impact Surveys.*

- 3. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Prevention Impact Surveys.*

- 4. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: East London High Transmission Area, South Africa.*

- 5. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Matshelo Community Development Association (MCDA), Botswana.*

- 6. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Centre for Positive Care (Farms), South Africa.*

- 7. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Centre for Positive Care (Workplaces), South Africa.*

- 8. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Hwange AIDS Project, Zimbabwe.*

- 9. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Hands@Work, Mozambique.*

- 10. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Mpatamatu HBC, Zambia.*

- 11. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Mangochi HBC, Malawi.*

- 12. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Semonkong, Lesotho.*

- 13. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Thembalethu HBC, South Africa.*

- 14. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Prevention and Mitigation Impact Surveys.*

- 15. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Prevention Impact Surveys.*

- 16. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Mitigation Impact Surveys.*
- 17. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Somebody Cares, Malawi.*
- 18. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Nazarene HIV/AIDS Task Force, Swaziland.*
- 19. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Masoyi HBC, South Africa.*
- 20. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Sibambeni AIDS Programme (Bulawayo Catholic Diocese), Zimbabwe.*
- 21. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *An assessment of the Regional Programme: Dedza, Malawi.*

Gauteng Department of Health Annual Surveys 2006-2008

- 1. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *A Baseline assessment for New Life Centre for Gauteng Department of Health.*
- 2. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *A Baseline assessment for OASIS Rover Crew for Gauteng Department of Health.*
- 3. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *A Baseline assessment for Westonaria Randfontein AIDS Project (WRAP) for Gauteng Department of Health.*
- 4. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *A Baseline assessment for South African Youth Alive Health Campaign Awareness Centre (SAYAC) for Gauteng Department of Health.*
- 5. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2007). *A Baseline Behavioural Monitoring Assessment of Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Orange Farm of the Grow Bacha Project.*

- 6. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2007). *A Baseline Behavioural Monitoring Assessment of Gauteng Hostels: African Culture Music Dance Association (ACUMDA).*
- 7. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2007). *A Baseline Behavioural Monitoring Assessment of Gauteng Tertiary Education Institutions in Gauteng.*

Commissioned research reports BMS & FHI

- 1. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *Annual Summary Report: IDI with PLWA: Baseline Study.*
- 2. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *Annual Summary Report: Household Surveys Baseline Study.*
- 3. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2005). *Annual Summary Report: Health Facility Assessments: Baseline Study.*
- 4. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *Summary report: IDI with PLWA: Comparison between Baseline (2005) and Follow-up (2006).*
- 5. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *Summary report: Household Surveys: Comparison between Baseline (2005) and Follow-up (2006).*
- 6. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2006). *Summary report: Health Facility Assessments: Comparison between Baseline (2005) and Follow-up (2006).*

Commissioned ICPC research reports FHI

- 1. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2007*). Initial Evaluation of ICPC Pilot Model in Northern Cape and Limpopo.*
- 2. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2007). *Initial Evaluation of ICPC Pilot Model in Northern Cape Province: Kimberley (Francis Baard).*
- 3. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2007). *Initial Evaluation of ICPC Pilot Model in Northern Cape Province: De Aar (Emthanjeni).*
- 4. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2007). *Initial Evaluation of ICPC Pilot Model in Limpopo Province: Polokwane (Capricorn).*

- 5. Project Support Group Southern Africa. (2007). *Initial Evaluation of ICPC Pilot Model in Limpopo Province: Jane Furse (Sekhukhune).*

Other commissioned research and consultancies

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Partner organisation documents
- PSASA (undated). *Peer Education Training Manual*.
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- Various quarterly reporting documents of partner organisations spanning 10 years.

Notes on Observations by researcher
- Filing system: observed 2008
- MIS system: observed 2008
- Report on Vision: observed 2008

Minutes of meetings
- Project Leaders meeting 4 June 2004
- Minutes of final strategic partner meeting 11 and 12 December 2007
- RNE (Royal Netherlands Embassy) Meeting : 11 February 2008

Human resources material

- Induction package (including latest Annual reports, proposals and policy documents and templates for documents including monthly work plans, monthly activity reports, etc.)

- Roles and Responsibilities, (undated)

- Policies and Procedures, (2004)

- Full time study Procedure, (2005)

- Personal loan Procedure, (2005)

- Study grant Procedure, (2005)

- PSG Management Procedures, (2004)

- Key performance areas (KPA), job descriptions and performance appraisal documents for various jobs

- Grievances lodges (x2 documents) and minutes of disciplinary meetings

MIS Documents

- PSG (2004). *Proposal for MIS system for PSG*.

- Implementation plan for MIS

- Various correspondence with consultants

- Minutes of meetings between Manager and Information specialist and other meetings

- Extended fling on correspondence (more than 150 pages of printed e-mails alone)

- Job description for information specialist

- Agenda for MIS workshop

- Budget with quotes

- Overview of the different files and databases

- Various documents describing aspects that would be documented. It is unclear if these materialised because it was never observed in the system

Other material

- Various photos of staff activities, donor visits and partner organisation activities (some included in main text)
- Various documents on progress with development, including meetings with key role-players
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Appendix D

PSG History

Pioneering
community
partnerships

Project Support Group
1986 – 2008

Introduction

Project Support Group Southern Africa (PSG) is a regional non-profit organisation operating through a network of partners implementing HIV and AIDS prevention and mitigation projects in the nine Southern African countries of Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe. It has been in existence since 1986 and is widely recognised as a pioneer in the fight against HIV and AIDS in Southern Africa, having initiated many of the prevention and mitigation models in use today. PSG's overall goal is to *"assist Southern African governments, municipalities, non-profit organisations and church partners to develop, manage and sustain optimally efficient, effective, evidence-based HIV/AIDS prevention and mitigation activities as part of an expanded regional programme."*

In particular, the organisation is renowned for its

- Long standing relationships with the international and regional donor community;
- Close and longstanding partnerships with key implementing organisations;
- Efficient channelling of resources to its regional network for more than fifteen years;
- Effective community-based prevention and mitigation models utilising trained volunteers;
- Proven monitoring and evaluation systems utilised by many Community Based Organisations;
- Systematic development of partners beyond their core scope of activities;
- Focussed expansion into nine Southern Africa countries;
- Commendations from international aid agencies including the World Health Organisation, The World Bank, The British Department for International Development, Family Health International and various Governmental Structures.

This document profiles PSG's Community Partnership Model (shown above) and highlights its contribution to the development of community partnerships across Southern Africa over the past twenty-two years.

Contributions to this report by partner organisations by way of documents, photographs and interviews, and, in particular, Dr. Madri Jansen van Rensburg, are gratefully acknowledged.

PSG ORGANISATION

Origins

Project Support Group Southern Africa (PSG) can trace its origins to an ethnographic study of HIV vulnerable women in Bulawayo that was compiled in 1986 by the University of Zimbabwe.

Resulting from this study which identified a need for education in STIs, the Bulawayo City Council initiated an HIV/STI project for vulnerable men and women. PSG was established as the University's agent to manage the project. Later this initiative was expanded into other potential high risk areas in Kariba and Mutare using PSG as the project implementer.

In 1993 PSG was officially established as a research, training and management support group, and in 1998 mounted the first Peer Education HIV prevention programme in Zimbabwe through a single partner, Krystall. Soon thereafter the organisation incorporated mitigation projects into its core activities

From 1999 PSG expanded regionally and began working through implementation partners based in Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malawi and South Africa, as well as Tanzania for a period. This led to regional governance structures being established in four countries, with a central governing authority being registered in South Africa in 2002.

PSG staff at their headquarters in South Africa, November 2006

In its lifetime PSG has developed from a start-up entity to a mature organisation, and has evolved from a single Zimbabwean project to a regional organisation with more than 400 projects in 9 SADC countries. It has expanded geographically from its base in Harare to regional centres across Southern Africa, and increased its activities from a single focus on commercial sex workers and truck drivers, to multiple interventions involving mobile groups and cross border sites, orphans & vulnerable children, voluntary AIDS counselling, testing and monitoring services, and holistic palliative care for those infected with the virus.

PHILOSOPHY

PSG's approach to capacity building is founded on a belief that effective HIV and AIDS intervention is the result of internal ownership combined with external support which is results-orientated, tailored and continuous. PSG's philosophy is therefore governed by 'how' rather than 'what' to do, and was foremost in shaping its pioneering community based prevention and mitigation approaches which utilise trained volunteers to deliver its services

PSG's mission since inception has been to develop methods which build partners capacity to deliver economical and effective HIV/AIDS prevention and mitigation services. It is focused on building bridges between knowledge and application, adding value to altruism, integrating professionalism and voluntarism, and developing links between the formal health sector and informal community-based AIDS prevention and mitigation initiatives.

While it is widely recognised that responsibility for AIDS prevention and mitigation rests largely on communities, they cannot shoulder the burden alone as their needs are too great. The disjuncture between formal and informal initiatives, where the former seldom provide appropriate levels of support, and the latter are ineffective in accessing or utilising the resources available, has given rise to the need for intermediary organisations such as PSG to link formal and informal responses and create an enabling and supportive environment for the effective implementation of HIV/AIDS responses.

Leadership

PSG leadership over the years has matched the contextual needs and development phases of the organisation. In its initial stages, when the organisation required a visionary, inspirational leader, this position was skilfully filled by its founder, Dr David Wilson. In later years, organisational needs leaned towards value-driven, knowledge-based and operationally-responsive leaders, and the function was managed by individuals such as Ms Noleen Dube and her successors. Currently, in response to the changing environment, a more participative leadership style has been adopted with greater involvement by the governing board in the daily affairs of the organisation.

Governance of PSG was initially provided by the board of the Department of Psychology at the University of Zimbabwe. However, at the time of registration as a non-profit organisation, this was changed to an independent, self-governing board of directors headed up by David Wilson. This board continued to manage the affairs of the organisation until 2007 when a unique governing entity was created comprising representatives from the seven major partnering organisations. However, recognising potential conflicts of interest, this body is due to step down in 2009, and be replaced by a new board of directors.

PSG founder, David Wilson (far right) with his team

The management structure of PSG has always been kept lean, and at most has comprised an Executive Director, Programmes Director, Financial Director and Research Manager. Operational functions are managed by a working committee of management and staff, thereby encouraging a consultative, rapid and flexible decision-making process. Collectively, the personnel involved in PSG and its partnering network represent years of experience, and at each level there exists the skills and expertise to sustain the organisation and its partners.

Staffing

The PSG staff compliment has fluctuated over the years in line with organisational growth. At its start, the organisation was made up of an associate group of twenty field coordinators, but with the expansion of partner organisations and their own staff compliments, it became necessary for PSG to develop an internal structure to manage these activities. This led to the recruitment of project leaders to provide intermediary support to the partners; but as PSG became more involved in project management, it increasingly delegated training and support activities to its downstream partners by developing the skills of their volunteers, including care supporters, peer educators, zone leaders, coordinators and project managers.

This strategy has been highly successful, infusing the partner organisations with teams of personnel, who despite being mostly poor volunteers, continue to work with an unbending commitment and a strong sense of responsibility towards their families and community.

"PSG enjoys strong visionary management, impressive clear-thinking project coordinators and competent peer educators and home-based carers."
(Regenesys report 2007)

PSG has generally filled its operational needs by recruiting highly skilled specialists into key programme management and MER positions and for financial and administrative management functions. In line with operational needs, this recruitment strategy is supplemented by using contractors and consultants, who add to the dynamics of the organization and contribute to its skills base, operational capacity and overall professionalism

As would be expected in organisations such as PSG, which experience cyclical fluctuations in staffing needs, many people have passed through its hands over the years. However, it is to PSG's credit that most of these continue to make their mark in other organisations, usually at a higher level. Some have moved to similar regional and global organisations; others to government positions; and a few have become renowned experts and authorities in their field of study.

PSG & GRASSROOTS ORGANISATIONS

PSG can be best defined as an "Intermediary Organisation" which occupies a position between grassroots organisations on the one side, and donors and government institutions on the other. It supports many types of initiatives, ranging from fledgling projects located in a single area, to large-scale programmes stretching across districts, provinces and even countries

PSG's principal contribution to a grassroots organisation in its development phase is by way of technical and financial support designed to establish proper structures and systems, and introduce effective intervention programmes. Having these in place from the start enables grassroots organisations to demonstrate accountability and build reputations, which in turn opens doors to additional funding.

Through the sharing of best practices and knowledge PSG is also able to fast-track a grassroots organisation to a level of credibility that enhances its marketing efforts and increases support from other players. This is complemented by the valuable exposure it receives by being plugged into PSG's influential network of donors, research institutions, regional NGOs and Governments.

> *"Technical visits made by PSG staff and other anchor partners facilitated growth, skills polishing and enhanced confidence in our organisation. Critical evaluation from such visits made us realise our strengths & weaknesses and deal with them in a progressive manner."*
> (Regenesys report 2007)

As the grassroots organisation expands its activities PSG increases its technical support through skills training and development workshops, notably its Peer Education and home-based care programmes. This is followed by inter-partner initiatives such as exchange visits, internships, mentoring, and combined prevention projects.

PSG assists mature organisations to enlarge their geographical coverage, and has in some instances been used as the vehicle to expand their reach into other African Countries. For example, the Hands@Work organisation, one of PSG's anchor partners, has created independent country offices in Malawi, Mozambique and Zambia, and is currently expanding into countries outside PSG's area of activity.

Monitoring and periodic evaluations of grassroots organisations are also seen as crucial for their development, and PSG plays an essential role in this. Ongoing project evaluations by PSG help these organisations track its progress in STI and HIV control using generated statistics, and provide meaningful yardsticks to measure their impact and effectiveness.

In 2007, a lengthy delay in fund disbursements by its principal donor brought immense pressure on PSG and its partnering network. This necessitated every beneficiary having to develop survival strategies to keep going for almost the full calendar year. A post-event qualitative survey conducted with 14 partner organisations to investigate coping strategies employed by them over this period, provided compelling evidence of the durability of these partners, and the immense value of the technical support and training provided by PSG over the many years.

PSG members and partners begin their three day internships with Mutare City Health in Zimbabwe

PSG PARTNERSHIPS

PSG has developed an extensive regional network which currently numbers 42 partners in nine countries and encompasses approximately 400 community projects. This positions the organisation as the ideal regional platform to implement national and regional HIV and AIDS intervention programmes.

Through its partner network PSG is able to focus on high-risk areas and cross-border activities, leading to the promotion of multi-faceted links between projects in different countries and the sharing of knowledge and best practices. PSG has developed its partnership model across two main areas, **HIV Prevention** and **HIV/AIDS Impact Mitigation**. Both have been uniquely designed to operate in the most economical and affordable way possible using community volunteers to deliver these services.

In the area of HIV Prevention, **peer educators** promote HIV awareness and provide education on behavioural change. Through community meetings and the use of participatory methods to stimulate individual dialogue and community debate, these educators introduce safer sexual norms and practices and establish new behavioural patterns. They also distribute condoms and provide referrals to those in need of medical treatment.

PSG's HIV/AIDS Impact Mitigation work is done through **care supporters** providing education and palliative care for orphans and people living with HIV and AIDS. Palliative care is provided directly by these care supporters, and indirectly through the training of community and family members. In addition to basic nursing care, care supporters also undertake household chores such as fetching water, preparing food, and cleaning the house. Through close networks with healthcare facilities, care supporters are able to assist with referrals and often accompany clients on visits to the Clinic.

> *"Were it not for the intervention of the PSG partners in the areas where they work, many more adults and children would have died or been living in inhuman conditions of abject misery, illness and poverty".*
> (Regenesys report, 2007)

Peer Educators and care supporters also act as the project's eyes and ears into the community. Through them new clients are identified, successful activities reported, and project activities monitored at a baseline level. They enable a sensitive two-way communication between community members and partner projects, raising issues and needs, and disseminating new information to the community.

Intervention delivery is not standard across the PSG network. While some partner organisations are active in both mitigation and prevention, others focus only on one aspect. Some even offer voluntary counselling and testing services, as well as conducting CD4 counts.

More recently, economic and skills development projects have been initiated by some partners to mitigate against the conditions of poverty afflicting most of their clients, and to enhance their own sustainability. Many partners are now managing complex integrated projects for the benefit of vulnerable households.

District Commissioner of Mpatamatu, Zambia at the handover ceremony of CD4 Count equipment.

PSG initiates regular prevention and mitigation skills development workshops for its partners, as well as coordinating national workshops, internships and mentorship programmes. Field visits to partnering projects are conducted annually by PSG personnel to identify challenges, innovations and best practices. This relationship has led to the development of a tiered operational structure between PSG and its partners. Through this structure, "anchor" partners, being experienced and large-scale projects, take on more responsibility for smaller and less developed partners, providing mentoring, training and knowledge. This approach has now become PSG's core strategy in the development of its regional network.

PSG's HIV prevention and HIV/AIDS impact mitigation activities gave rise to the need to monitor, evaluate and record project effectiveness, and this has become an important component in PSG's role within the partnership. The quality of its MER systems and standards of maintenance have been identified through independent evaluation as an organisational strength and many of these have been adopted for use by other "non-PSG" NGOs.

Key to PSG's success in this area has been the development of a comprehensive framework for monitoring and evaluating projects. This M&E framework encompasses a detailed and logical results chain supporting the premise that **inputs** lead to **outputs**; outputs are a function of **unit costs**; large-scale outputs achieve **high coverage**; high coverage is imperative for change to occur and important **behavioral outcomes** to be realized; behavioral outcomes lead to a **reduction in STD/HIV rates**, which represents the best measurement of project impact

Through its regional network, PSG is able to undertake large-scale activities with extended coverage and significant economies of scale. One example of this has been the reduction in unit delivery cost of condoms in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. According to impact assessment surveys undertaken by one PSG anchor partner, the cost to distribute condoms was reduced from US$0.07 per unit in 1997 to only US$0.01 per unit in 2001 following PSG's involvement in the project. Five years later this cost was only US$0.07/condom, comparing very favorably to initiatives in Cameroon (US$0.34/condom) and Brazil (US$0.70/condom).

PSG's monitoring and evaluation framework undergoes continuous updates and upgrades, and recent developments have included monitoring forms for peer educators, care supporters, project coordinators and project managers; baseline and follow-up behavioral surveillance surveys for priority groups; and community coping and quality-of-care assessment surveys. Such developments are then shared with partners at regional workshops hosted by PSG; for example in 2006, having trained partners on a new participatory method based on the "Most Significant Change", this measurement was incorporated into PSG's annual surveys.

PSG's confidence in the success of its M&E framework is derived from comprehensive outcome and impact data collected from various partner organisations over a number of years, supported by ongoing assessment reports. Its effectiveness has also been independently evaluated by international universities, including the London School of Tropical Medicine, John Hopkins University, and the Universities of Michigan, North Carolina and Amsterdam.

PSG's support for partner organisations also includes comprehensive packages developed to assist them in project management and raising funds, such as:
• Fund application proposal packages
• Operational Review forms
• Financial reporting manuals and forms
• Progress reporting manuals and forms

PSG & REGIONAL NGO'S

Since 2000 there have been significant changes within SADC and the regions in which PSG operates. Governments of SADC countries are now more committed to HIV and AIDS prevention and mitigation work. In addition to developing policies and plans, creating multi-sectoral structures at regional, national, district and local levels, and increasing the availability and accessibility of antiretroviral therapy, SADC governments have significantly increased expenditure on HIV-related interventions. Their efforts have been matched by increased funding from international agencies, such as the World Bank, the Global Fund and PEPFAR.

Unfortunately this increase in resources has not always translated into benefits for those needing assistance, reasons having been identified as *"the complexities of donor funding requirements, insufficient absorptive capacities at country level and poorly crafted strategies and guidelines that are not always based on verifiable evidence"* (SADC, 2006).

In the face of such environmental changes, the SADC Secretariat in concert with international aid agencies developed a **'Framework on Regional Support to HIV and AIDS in Southern Africa'.** Participants in this initiative expressed their goal as *"attaining universal access to prevention, treatment, care and support for all people of the SADC"* (SADC, 2006), and they hope to achieve this with a range of regional interventions focusing on leadership, co-ordinated programmes, and the provision of technical support. Interventions to be undertaken at a regional level include

"PSG brought uniformity among a large number of community based HBC projects in Southern Africa through standards, procedures and training. This had a huge regional impact far beyond the PSG projects and even on national government level".
(Regenesys report 2007)

• "Mobilising political, government and civil society leadership to provide strong, sustained and effective leadership and stewardship of national and regional responses to HIV and AIDS;
• Harmonising and coordinating policies, legislation, standards and guidance of evidence based interventions that facilitate scaled-up action across countries within the region;
• Strengthening the capacity of the SADC Secretariat and other regional institutions to provide advocacy, technical, advisory training and research support for national AIDS responses; and
• Strengthening country and regional surveillance, research, documentation and monitoring and evaluation, to improve knowledge and inform decision-making." (SADC, 2006)

PSG is committed to the ideals of the SADC initiative of creating a regional unification of communities affected by HIV towards a common goal. Through its regional network, the organisation is well positioned to participate in such interventions, and is already actively involved in project surveillance, MER activities, and disseminating knowledge and best practices on a regional basis.

PSG is also involved in various civil society forums created to add value to SADC's regional efforts and strategies. It is a member of the Regional AIDS Training Network (RATN) and participated in the founding of the Regional Association of AIDS NGO's (RAANGO), an organisation created to ensure representation by civil society on HIV and AIDS issues at regional level as well as in the SADC UNAIDS Partnership Forum.

RAANGO meeting, December 2007 Livingston, Zambia

PSG GRANT MANAGEMENT

The integration of specific intermediary grant management functions and responsibilities into the organisation's activities has been the hallmark of PSG's development over recent years.

PSG's grant management functions include:

- Identification and selection of project partners according to clearly defined criteria

- Disbursement and management of financial grants on behalf of donor organisations

- Central monitoring, evaluating and reporting to donor organisations on project activities and effectiveness

The establishment of PSG as an intermediary organisation managing on-grant activities on behalf of donors first began in 1998 when PSG submitted a proposal to NORAD, the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation. This role was significantly expanded from 1999 onwards with grants from the Royal Norwegian and Royal Netherlands governments, which enabled PSG to develop a regional network across Southern Africa currently standing at 42 partner organisations with over 400 community AIDS prevention and mitigation projects

An independent assessment of PSG (Regenesys report: 2007) recognised the organisation's grant management abilities, recording that all those interviewed had expressed appreciation for the healthy, respectful and collegial relationship which existed between the parties. This report highlighted criticism by interviewees towards the invasive and bureaucratic approach adopted by many donors, who lack understanding of the realities being faced by organisations servicing poor communities fighting the AIDS pandemic without government assistance. However this criticism was not aimed at PSG. Instead, some beneficiaries even suggested that the PSG partnership and grant management model be put forward as best practice as other donors and intermediary organisations would benefit from the application of the same model.

"An excellent, very efficient community owned project model where the dollar is getting to the grass root level with tangible proof of impact."
(Regenesys report, 2007)

A grant management presentation by PSG staff to representatives of the Royal Netherlands Embassy

All financial grants managed by PSG on behalf of its donors are contractually governed, and follow an agreed activity plan detailing objectives, outputs, impact indicators and means of verification.

Grant disbursements and their use are accounted for by way of quarterly/biannual narrative and financial progress reports which are verified through annual audited statements of account.

Similar financial and reporting controls are imposed by PSG on its own partners, and qualified through regular onsite visits by PSG personnel.

PSG & THE DONOR COMMUNITY

From a donor perspective, organisational impact and delivery of successful activities can be measured by the extent by which resources are properly channelled and correctly managed within specific communities, particularly those isolated, poor and vulnerable.

Independent assessments have confirmed the ability of PSG to properly identify and select appropriate regional partners, projects and activities, to effectively disburse and manage donor funds, and to provide proper financial and administrative accountability.

PSG has received its main support from the Netherlands and Norwegian governments since 1985 and 1993 respectively. In July 2001, PSG entered into a 5-year funding agreement with NORAD and a 3-year agreement with the Netherlands Government. In June 2002, at a joint meeting in Harare, it was agreed that the two grants be managed under a "basket funding" mechanism. This special agreement merged the two grants from the two embassies into one basket fund in order to increase the scope, coverage and impact of activities under the two programmes – prevention and mitigation. This combined annual grant from the basket fund since 2003 has amounted to approximately US$6.3million per annum.

PSG's funding agreement with RNE and the Swedish/Norwegian Regional HIV/AIDS Team was completed in December 2006, but extended to end-2008 to continue the work of PSG and partners and provide them sufficient time to develop alternative fundraising strategies

Commissions and grants have been received from global organisations such as USAIDS, PACT, Family Health International, Population Services International, Ford and Rockefeller Foundations, Red Cross Society, World Vision, Wellcome Trust, World Bank and the World Health Organisation, amongst others (refer pages 14-18). PSG has also received financial support from the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA), the Royal Netherlands and Royal Norwegian Governments, NORAD, the British Departments of International Development India and Southern Africa, CARE International and CARE Lesotho, and the German Agency for Technical Cooperation.

PSG's primary value to donors lies in its ability to provide

- A comprehensive network of regional partners and their external stakeholders comprising NGOs, CBOs, governments, municipalities, city councils, faith-based organisations, health, welfare and education departments; universities, research institutes, mines and businesses;
- Rapid implementation of carefully researched, tested and proven intervention programmes;
- Continuous programme implementation despite political and economic instability in the region;
- Cost-efficient service delivery mechanisms across multiple countries;
- Effective disbursement of funds with proper financial control and accountability;
- Tested data collection and analysis mechanisms;
- Comprehensive data records captured over many years of project monitoring;
- Flexible, innovative and adaptive responses to changing circumstances.

> *"It has not been possible to measure in clear quantifiable terms the significance of the PSG services in Southern Africa as an element of overall national responses to the epidemic. However, it is clear that the interventions reach or effect significant numbers of adults, youth, children and patients, and that these interventions are cost effective."*
> (Regenesys report, 2007)

Donor requirements over the past few years have restricted PSG's management and operational costs to 7.5% of total grant, which is significantly below internationally accepted parameters of 10% to 15%. While this has influenced the organisation's expansion plans and contributed to a change in vision and direction, particularly in the area of pure research, it has positively reduced operational expenses. As a result PSG can confidently claim to have one of the lowest income-to-expense ratios among NGOs in its field.

PSG RESEARCH

PSG's roots run deep into the Psychology Department at the University of Zimbabwe, and therefore research activities, which are focussed on identifying, describing and refining effective prevention and mitigation strategies, have been a core component of the work of the organisation.

Initially PSG was involved in evaluating large-scale, economical prevention projects using existing data sources. However in 1997 the organisation began its own research studies, employing then-popular random community trial methods and donor-driven evidence-based approaches. These studies were integral to PSG's work in developing prevention strategies which could be validated by medical institutions and other accredited organisations.

PSG's research activities can be divided into several categories;

- Multi-country baseline and follow-up surveys;
- Coverage studies to determine project implementation effectiveness;
- Behavioural data confirmation surveys;
- Quasi-experimental studies providing rapid results and comparative group data;
- Random community trials.

Over the years PSG has consulted to a number of international agencies, including the World Health Organisation, the World Bank, the British Department for International Development (DFID), USAID, European Community, Academy for Educational Development (AED), PSI, RATN, the Horizons Project, and Gauteng Department of Health, Multi-Sectorial AIDS Unit. The organisation has also undertaken a 3 country study for Population Council International, and a 5 country study for Family Health International and Bristol-Myers Squibb.

From 2004 PSG's research focus shifted to assessing activity outcomes and project impacts at community level. These surveys used research staff recruited from PSG partners, resulting in the up-scaling of their own participatory and qualitative research skills. During 2005 surveys were conducted at ten partner sites, comprising five mitigation and five prevention sites, including three control sites. In 2006 the annual partner surveys included four prevention sites and six mitigation sites, as well as four surveys at different project sites for the Gauteng Department of Health.

In 2007 one survey was conducted at hostels in Gauteng, while another compared behavioural changes between orphans, non-orphans and adults in Orange Farm, South Africa. In 2008 PSG was commissioned to conduct peer education implementation surveys at a number of Higher Education Institutions in Gauteng.

Of late, PSG's research work has been strongly aligned to measuring the effectiveness of monitoring and evaluation activities. Impact assessments are conducted on behalf of PSG partner projects as well as other organisations on a consultancy basis.

One such example is the 2006 baseline survey on palliative care conducted on behalf of Family Health International at four sites in the Limpopo and Northern Cape provinces of South Africa. Such studies continue to enhance the research, monitoring and evaluation status of PSG and its partners.

PSG conducting a survey in 2007 at Orange Farm in South Africa

PSG & UNIVERSITIES

PSG is renowned for its evidence-based intervention models which have been replicated by its partners and other non-PSG projects in every country in Southern Africa, as well some as far afield as Kenya.

Throughout its existence the organisation has maintained strong links to Universities, due largely to its own origins, as well as its recognition as a leader in building and training of effective intervention models

Collaborations between PSG and a number of local and international universities have guided and informed the development of their own programmes, and thereby influenced the nature of support offered to many grassroots organisations worldwide.

Throughout the history of the organisation, collaborations on research and development have been entered into with many local and international institutions, including the following:

- University of Pretoria (Centre for the Study of AIDS in Africa)
- University of Zimbabwe
- University of Zambia
- University of Botswana
- University of Mozambique
- University of South Africa
- University of Tulane
- University of Oslo
- Diakkonhjemmet University, Norway

One such example is the research collaboration progressing in Botswana between Matshelo Community Development Association (MCDA), one of PSG's anchor partners, and the Section for Medical Anthropology of the University of Oslo. This initiative has been funded by PSG since 2003, and is focussed on assisting the partner with qualitative quality assessment skills, documentation, and academic training.

Within its own network, PSG's role is to provide its partners an institutional scholar's perspective. This requires the organisation to act as a generator of new methodologies, assimilator of latest information, refiner of theories, disseminator of new knowledge, and implementer of new practices. This important link between theory and practice, which acknowledges both role players as contributors to new information on the pandemic, represents a valuable aspect of the PSG mission.

PSG staff and volunteers distributing food parcels

PSG TRAINING

PSG has pioneered the development of structured training programmes to address the AIDS pandemic in Southern Africa.

A feature of the PSG programmes has been the focus on mentorship between experienced and new staff, and interaction between partners through skills-building workshops, practical internships and field support visits.

Over the years, with the widening of its network and increase in partners, PSG has expanded its training from two to five courses to include Project Managers, Prevention Coordinators, Mitigation Coordinators, Peer Educators and Care Supporters.

PSG also introduced a standardised approach to peer education training, with uniform training modules, manuals and participatory approaches (including role plays, dramas, picture codes and participatory games). These are still in use and have been successfully replicated in various countries resulting in commendations from the World Bank, the World Health Organisations and various national governments.

Today PSG is renowned for its Peer Education Training Model which comprehensively addresses training needs of new organisations. The ten module course includes training in activities such as:

- Identifying a target community;
- Mobilizing community support for the programme;
- Creating internal community structures;
- Mapping a target community;
- Recruiting and training community volunteers;
- Developing low-cost health communication messages;
- Documenting outreach activities;
- Maintaining a peer education training programme.

Trainee peer educators undergoing team building exercises
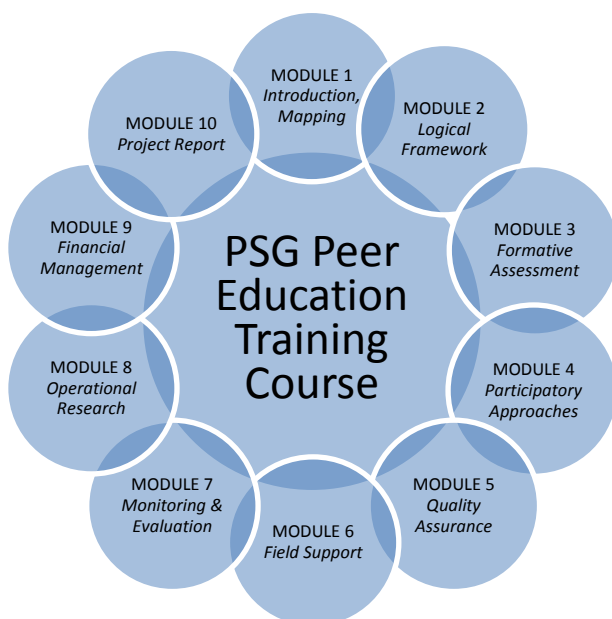
PSG is currently in the process of applying for accreditation of its Peer Education training course with the Health & Welfare Sector Education and Training Authority (HWSETA) of South Africa.

Such accreditation will mean that successful course participants acquire Level 4 NQF credits towards tertiary learning qualifications which are registered with the South African Qualifications Authority.

It is anticipated that this course accreditation process will be completed in 2009

PSG Research & Project Grants: 1986-2008

- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectorial AIDS Unit (2005-2008): Training and support to organisations implementing HIV peer education.
- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2008): Evaluating peer education using the PSG model at Higher Education Institutions in Gauteng.
- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2007): A Baseline Behavioural Monitoring Assessment of Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Orange Farm of Grow Bacha Project
- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2007): A Baseline Behavioural Monitoring Assessment of Gauteng Hostels African Culture Music Dance Association (ACUMDA)
- Family Health International (2007): Initial Evaluation of ICPC Pilot Model in Northern Cape and Limpopo
- Family Health International & Bristol Meyer Squibb (2005-2006): Secure the Future HIV/AIDS Community-based Treatment Support Program: Consisting In-depth interviews with PLWHA, Health Facility Assessments & Household Surveys: Comparison between Baseline (2005) and Follow-up (2006)
- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2006): A Baseline assessment for New Life Centre
- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2006): A Baseline assessment for OASIS Rover Crew
- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2006): A Baseline assessment for Westonaria Randfontein AIDS Project (WRAP)
- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2006): A Baseline assessment for South African Youth Alive Health Campaign Awareness Centre (SAYAC)
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Somebody Cares, Malawi
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Nazarene HIV/AIDS Task Force, Swaziland
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Masoyi HBC, South Africa
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Sibambeni AIDS Programme (Bulawayo Catholic Diocese), Zimbabwe
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Dedza, Malawi
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: LifeLine Zambia, Zambia
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Lake Kariba / Chirundu, Zimbabwe
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: HRT, Zambia
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Masvingo, Zimbabwe
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Ressano Garcia, Mozambique
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: East London High Transmission Area, South Africa
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Matshelo Community Development Association (MCDA), Botswana
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Centre for Positive Care (Farms), South Africa
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Centre for Positive Care (Workplaces), South Africa
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Hwange AIDS Project, Zimbabwe
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Hands@Work, Mozambique

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Mpatamatu HBC, Zambia
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Mangochi HBC, Malawi
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Semonkong, Lesotho
- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Thembalethu HBC, South Africa
- US Centres for Disease Control (2004) Perceptions and identified barriers to HIV VCT services and the Acceptability of a HBC VCT service in E-Manzini Township, Mpumalanga Province, South Africa.
- USAID/FHI (2003 to 2005): Implementing AIDS prevention and Care projects RHAP training
- Netherlands and Norwegian Governments (2002 to 2006): Regional collaboration to expand HIV/AIDS prevention and mitigation responses in Southern Africa
- SIDA (2002 to 2004): Regional partnership to expand HIV/AIDS prevention and mitigation responses among cross border migrant population in Southern Africa
- Norwegian Government (2002): Regional STI/HIV/AIDS prevention and mitigation programme
- Rockefeller Foundation (2001): Community randomised trial to evaluate adolescent sexual and reproductive health programmes in Southern Africa
- Population Services International (2001): Zimbabwe Corridors of Hope border HIV prevention programme
- Family Health International (2001): Southern Africa Regional situation analysis
- Population Services International (2000): Mozambique Southern Region situation analysis
- Netherlands Government (2001): Regional STI/HIV/AIDS prevention and mitigation programme
- SAT (2000): Regional AIDS training and capacity building
- Futures Group (2000): Regional STD/AIDS training
- Family Health International (2000): Southern Africa Regional situation analysis
- DFID (2000): Zambia workplace occupational health project
- Family Health International (1999): Regional situation analysis
- Wellcome Trust (1999): Targetted STI/HIV prevention study
- Wellcome Trust (1999): Adolescent sexual health study
- International Family Health (1999): Sexual health programme
- Population Council (1998): Community randomized STI trial
- Swedish International Development Agency (1998): Strategic AIDS fund
- World Bank (1997): Network for improved sexual health
- Ford Foundation (1997): Regional project support
- Netherlands Government (1997): HIV prevention in South Africa
- Netherlands Government (1996): Operations research/technical support to health projects
- NORAD: Regional project support (1998)
- NORAD: Operations research/technical support to health projects (1999)
- NORAD: Operations research/technical support to health projects (1997)
- NORAD: Operations research/technical support to health projects (1995)
- SAT: Operations research/technical support to health projects (1998)
- SAT: Operations research/technical support to health projects (1996)
- SAT: Operations research/technical support to health projects (1994)
- WHO: Validity of sex behaviour assessment (1992)
- Ford: Community AIDS project management guidelines (1994)
- AIDSTECH: Coverage, impact and cost-effectiveness of targeted interventions (1993)
- USAID/NIH/NIMR: Determinants of HIV preventive behaviour (1992)
- Swedish Agency for Research Cooperation (1991): Determinants of HIV preventive behaviour
- Ford (1986): Behavioural research on the sex industry in Zimbabwe
- University of Zimbabwe Research Board (1986): Psychosocial dimensions of HIV/AIDS
- University of Zimbabwe Research Board (1985): AIDS education
- Beit Trust (1986): Evaluation of computer education in Zimbabwe
- University of Zimbabwe Research Board (1986): computer-aided-learning
- WHO (1986): Development of substance use survey methodology

PSG Consultancies: 1986-2008

- Gauteng Department of Health (2006-2008). Training and support to 14 Gauteng organisations using the PSG peer education model.
- Academy for Educational Development (2004-2006). Baseline Assessment: Community-Based VCT Project.
- Options UK (2002): Preparation of Zambia DFID HIV/AIDS project, Zambia
- World Bank (2002): Multisectoral AIDS Programmes (MAP) monitoring and evaluation training facilitation, Mangoche, Malawi
- Development Alternatives International/Ebony Consulting International (2002). Health specialist for Greater Limpopo Transboundary natural resource management project, South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe
- World Bank (2002): Multisectoral AIDS Programmes (MAP) monitoring and evaluation training facilitation, Dakar, Senegal
- World Bank (2002): Design of Multisectoral AIDS Programmes (MAP) monitoring and evaluation plan in Cape Verde
- World Bank (2002): Joint USAID/World Bank Kenya mission to develop agreed monitoring and evaluation indicators
- World Bank (2002): Design of Multisectoral AIDS Programmes (MAP) monitoring and evaluation plan in Sirera Leone
- UNAIDS (2001): Planning and preparation of monitoring and evaluation technical resource group meeting
- Austral Consulting (2001): Technical assistance to Mozambique workplace behavioural surveillance survey
- World Bank (2001): Technical assistance to Multisectoral AIDS Programmes (MAP) monitoring and evaluation plan in Uganda
- Community Health and Development (2001): Employee assistance programme consultant
- Thusano School of Public Health (2001): Southern Africa regional STI/AIDS project management course
- World Bank (2001): Design of Multisectoral AIDS Programmes (MAP) monitoring and evaluation plan in Eritrea
- Design of Multisectoral AIDS Programmes (MAP) monitoring and evaluation plan in Senegal
- World Bank (2001): Design of Multisectoral AIDS Programmes (MAP) monitoring and evaluation plan in Cape Verde
- CARE International (2001): Review of Ghana Obousi sexual and reproductive health programme
- PSI/Gates Foundation (2001): Review of youth sexual and reproductive health programmes in Cameroon, Rwanda, Madagascar
- World Bank (2001): Review of monitoring and evaluation progress in Multisectoral AIDS Programmes (MAP) countries
- World Bank (2001): Design of Multisectoral AIDS Programmes (MAP) monitoring and evaluation plan in Sierra Leone
- World Bank (2001). Development of monitoring and evaluation manual for Multisectoral AIDS Programmes (MAP)
- World Bank (2001): Review of Multisectoral AIDS Programmes (MAP) in Kenya and Ethiopia
- World Bank (2001): Development of monitoring and evaluation approaches for World Bank AIDS programmes
- JSIUK (2001): Design phase for DFID Zimbabwe sexual heath project
- Catholic Relief Services (2001): Participatory monitoring and evaluation guidelines for AIDS care and orphan support programmes
- World Vision International-Mozambique (2001). Development of Mozambique AIDS intervention programme strategy
- Thusano School of Public Health (2001): Southern Africa regional STI/AIDS project management course
- World Bank/UNAIDS (2001): Development of project planning, management, monitoring and evaluation systems for Zimbabwe National AIDS Council
- South African Gauteng Provincial Government Health Department (2001): State of the art review of Gauteng and related behavioural research

- JSIUK (2001): Behaviour change communication specialist on successful DFID Zimbabwe sexual heath project bid
- USAID Southern Africa (2001): Southern Africa regional project monitoring and evaluation systems
- USAID Southern Africa (2001): Southern Africa regional project implementation course
- German Agency for Technical Cooperation (2001): Mozambique-South Africa baseline survey for SADCC transport sector AIDS programme
- German Agency for Technical Cooperation (2000): Development of SADCC transport sector Mozambique-South Africa AIDS programme
- British Department for International Development Southern Africa (2000): Review of DFID supported South African SFH social marketing programme
- Futures Group International (2000): Southern Africa regional STD/AIDS assessment, monitoring and evaluation training
- Thusano School of Public Health (2000): Southern Africa regional STI/AIDS project management course
- CARE Lesotho (2000): Review of Lesotho border sexual health proposal
- British Department for International Development Central Africa (2000): Development of Mozambique private sector AIDS programme
- Family Health International (2000): Nigeria targeted intervention situation assessment
- British Department for International Development India/JSIUK (2000): Support to India's Andrah Pradesh State AIDS Control Society
- Population Services International (2000). PSI Congo targeted intervention training
- German Agency for Technical Cooperation Southern Africa (2000): Development of SATTC transport sector Mozambique-South Africa AIDS programme
- British Department for International Development Southern Africa (2000): Review of DFID supported Care Lesotho sexual health programme
- CARE Lesotho (2000): Lesotho sexual health programme stakeholder review
- British Department for International Development Central Africa (2000): Review of DFID/USAID supported Zimbabwe PSI programme
- USAID Mozambique/PSI Mozambique (2000): Mozambique HIV/AIDS assessment
- Family Health International (2000) Mozambique-South Africa-Swaziland regional situational analysis
- British Department for International Development Central Africa (2000) Zambia occupational health programme
- German Agency for Technical Cooperation (2000): Review of Zimbabwe health systems research programme
- CARE International (2000): Review of SAPIMA Ghana sexual health programme
- Red Cross Society (2000) Design of Zimbabwe primary health care programme
- British Department for International Development India/JSIUK (1999): Design of DFID India healthy highways sexual health project
- Management Sciences for Health (1999-2000): Development of high transmission projects in the Eastern Cape, South Africa
- British Department for International Development India/JSIUK (1999): Evaluation of DFID India healthy highways sexual health programme
- British Department for International Development Southern Africa (1999): Review of DFID South Africa Society for Family Health programme
- British Department for International Development Southern Africa (1999): Review of Social Marketing Agency malaria social marketing programme
- Beit Trust (1999): Central Africa regional HIV/AIDS analysis and strategy
- Family Health International (1999): Regional "Corridors of Hope" situation analysis
- Family Health International (1999): Kenya peer education project management training
- Thusano School of Public Health (1999): Southern Africa regional STI/AIDS project management course
- Nottingham City University Business School (1999): Research methods and data management for Zimbabwe MBA students
- United Nations Fund for Population (1999): Development of global AIDS distance learning curriculum and materials
- Family Health International (1999): Kenya IMPACT project design

- Family Health International (1999): Technical support to World Vision International-Zambia HIV/AIDS prevention project in border sites
- British Department for International Development Southern Africa (1999): Review of Lesotho sexual health programme Consultant, FHI
- Family Health International (1999): Kenya country programme strategy development
- Family Health International (1999): Zambia targeted intervention review and country programme strategy development
- MX Health (1999): South African workplace AIDS prevention and management programme
- British Department for International Development India/IFH (1999): Management options review for West Bengal sexual health project
- Thusano School of Public Health, Pretoria, South Africa (1998): Southern Africa regional Infectious Disease Epidemiology course
- PACT Zimbabwe (1998): Organizational assessment of Island Hospice, Zimbabwe
- PACT Zimbabwe: (1998): Organizational assessment of Tsungirirai, Zimbabwe
- PACT Zimbabwe: (1998) Review of Zimbabwe organizational development tools
- PACT Zimbabwe (1998): Development of Zimbabwe organizational assessment tools
- International Family Health (1997): Development of Zambia maternal mortality programme
- German Agency for Technical Cooperation (1997): Review of Zimbabwe health education and family planning programme
- British Department for International Development (1997): South African National STI/AIDS programme review
- Population Services International (1997): Formative research to develop Zimbabwe social marketing programme
- United States Agency for International Development (1997): Zambia national AIDS programme review
- Red Cross Society (1996): Zimbabwe community health programme review
- European Union 1996): Review of Malawi STI/AIDS programme
- British Department for International Development (1995): South African mining industry STI/AIDS prevention programme development
- Norwegian Agency for International Development (1995): Zimbabwe NGO review
- United States Agency for International Development (1995): Zimbabwe health sector review
- Canadian International Development Agency (1995): Evaluation of University of Manitoba/University of Nairobi STI/AIDS programme
- United States Agency for International Development (1995): Review of Botswana workplace AIDS programme
- World Bank (1995): Facilitation of Southern Africa regional meeting on HIV/AIDS in the mining sector
- Family Health Trust (1994): Capacity building for Zambia youth programme staff
- UNICEF (1993-1994): Eastern and Southern Africa regional reproductive health advisor
- Ford Foundation (1993): Network of AIDS Researchers in Eastern and Southern AIDS project management trainer
- World Bank (1993): IEC for Zimbabwe sexually transmitted infections projects
- United States Agency for International Development (1993): Technical analysis for Zimbabwe AIDS programme
- Canadian Public Health Association (1992-1993): Southern Africa regional consultant and Advisor
- World Health Organization (1992-1993): Consultant and short-term advisor, Global Programme on AIDS
- United States Agency for International Development (1992): Review of Botswana workplace AIDS programme
- Family Health International (1992): Lesotho strategy development
- Ford Foundation (1992): Regional targetted intervention development
- Canadian International Development Agency (1990-1992): CPHA/SAT Programme monitor
- International Labour Organization (1990) Zimbabwe disability study

Appendix E

Interviews

Key informants:

1. Long serving board member: She was involved with the organisation since 1997 and still continues to play a role in one of the largest "daughter" partner organisations. Individual memory is important, but also directory of documentation and persons involved. The physical documents and records were moved to this organisation and are kept there. Interviewed face-to-face 27/01/2009
2. Previous staff member 1: She was involved in the organisation as Regional Program Manager from Jan 1995 to June 2006. Interviewed electronically 08/04/2010
3. Previous staff member 2: She was employed as Research Manager from April 2003 to May 2004. Interviewed electronically from Australia 02/02/2009
4. Previous staff member 3: He was employed as a Project Leader from April 2004 to March 2007. Interviewed electronically 04/11/2008
5. Previous staff member 4: She was employed as Research Manager from April 2006 to April 2007. Interviewed face-to-face 22/07/2008.
6. Previous staff member 5: He was acting as the CEO/General Manager from Jan 1995 to June 2006. Interviewed electronically 05/10/2010.
7. Close-out phase staff member 1: She was first employed in July 2004 as a housekeeper and then worked as a receptionists and trainer at closure of the organisation. Interviewed face-to-face 14/05/2008.
8. Close-out phase staff member 2: He worked on contract basis as a fieldwork supervisor and data capturer between March 2005 and the close of the organisation. Interviewed face-to-face 14/05/2008.
9. Close-out phase staff member 3: He was employed as an interim Financial Manager during March 2007 and assisted with finale closure. Interviewed face-to-face 14/05/2008.
10. Close-out phase staff member 4: She was the housekeeper during the close-out phase and was employed from October 2005. Interviewed face-to-face 14/05/2008.
11. Close-out phase staff member 5: She worked from November 2006 as a Regional Technical Advisor (prior to this known as a project leader). Face-to-face interview on 21/07/2008.
12. Long term consultant: He worked as an IT consultant on a retainer from 2004. Interviewed electronically 09/09/2008.

OM interview with beneficiary organisations:

1. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 1: Thembalethu: South Africa, Swaziland, Mozambique
2. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 2: PSASA: South Africa, Swaziland, Mozambique, Lesotho
3. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 3: East London HTA: South Africa
4. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 4: Hands@Work (Masoyi): South Africa
5. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 5: Nazarene: Swaziland
6. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 6: Chirundu: Zimbabwe
7. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 7: Simbambene: Zimbabwe
8. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 8: Chitingwiza: Zimbabwe
9. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 9: Dananai: Zimbabwe
10. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 10: City of Mutare: Zimbabwe
11. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 11: Renco: Zimbabwe
12. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 12: Kariba: Zimbabwe
13. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 13: MCDA: Botswana
14. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 14: Dedza: Malawi
15. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 15: HRT: Zambia
16. Beneficiary organisation OM interview 16: Zambia Catholic: Zambia

Surviving 2007 interview with beneficiary organisations:

1. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 1: East London HTA: South Africa
2. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 2: MCDA: Botswana
3. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 3: Dedza: Malawi
4. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 4: Ray of Hope: Malawi
5. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 5: Hands@Work Mozambique: Mozambique
6. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 6: PSASA: South Africa, Swaziland, Mozambique, Lesotho
7. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 7: Zambian Catholic Secretariat: Zambia
8. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 8: Sibambene: Zimbabwe
9. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 9: SACBC: South Africa, Swaziland
10. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 10: Thembalethu: South Africa, Swaziland, Mozambique
11. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 11: Mpatamatu: Zambia
12. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 12: LifeLine Zambia: Zambia

13. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 13: Hands@Work Zambia: Zambia
14. Surviving interview with beneficiary organisation 14: Nazarene: Swaziland

Other Regional NGOs (in Zimbabwe):

1. Related organisation member 1: M&E Program Officer at Umzingwane AIDS Network (3 years). Interviewed face-to-face 08/07/2010.
2. Related organisation member 2: Program Manager Bethany Project (3 years). Interviewed face-to-face 08/07/2010.
3. Related organisation member 3: Policy M&E Officer Family Support Trust (6 months). Interviewed face-to-face 08/07/2010.
4. Related organisation member 4: Field Officer for Sibambene AIDS Program (7 years). Interviewed face-to-face 08/07/2010.
5. Related organisation member 5: Program Officer for Insiza Godlwayo AIDS Council (4 years). Interviewed face-to-face 08/07/2010.

Appendix F

List of Beneficiary NGOs

This list attempts to be inclusive of all partner organisations supported by PSG. Some partners or portions of their activities were supported in combination with others and numbers do not in reality reflect separate entities in all cases. Some partners were only supported for shorter periods or to a lesser extent than others.

Botswana (1)
- MCDA

Lesotho (2)
- PSASA
- SACBC

Malawi (4)
- Dedza
- Mangochi
- Mzuzu
- Somebody Cares

Mozambique (3)
- Hands @ Work Mozambique
- PSASA
- Thembaletu Home Based Care

Namibia (1)
- Catholic AIDS Action

South Africa (7)

- Centre for Positive Care (CPC)
- East London HTA project
- Masoyi Home Based Care
- Port Elizabeth HTA project
- Project Support Association of South Africa (PSASA)
- Southern African Catholic Bishop's Conference (SACBC)
- Thembalethu Home Based Care

Swaziland (6)

- Alliance Church of Swaziland
- Caritas Swaziland
- Nazarene
- PSASA
- Southern African Catholic Bishop's Conference (SACBC)
- Thembalethu Home Based Care

Zambia (5)

- Hands @ Work Zambia
- Human Resources Trust
- LifeLine Zambia
- Mpatamatu/Kaniki Bible College
- Zambia Catholic Secretariat

Zimbabwe (29)

- Batsirayi
- Beitbridge Peer Education
- Bindura Peer Education
- Bulawayo CADEC / Sibambene
- Chegutu Chakari

- Chirundu/Nyamakati Peer Education
- Chisumbanje Estate
- Chitungwiza Peer Education
- Clearwater Estates
- Dananai Peer Education
- Dananai Home Based Care
- FACT (Family AIDS Care Trust) Cheredzi
- FACT (Family AIDS Care Trust) Mutare
- Gaths Mine
- Gwanda Peer Education
- Hwange/ Vic Falls AIDS Project
- Jersey Estates
- Kadoma Peer Education
- Kariba AIDS Project
- Masvingo
- Middle Sabi
- Mkwasine Estate
- Murambinda Mission Hospital
- Mutare Home Based care
- Mutare City Council
- Plumtree
- Renco mines
- Rusitu Shabanie Mine
- ZAPSO

Appendix G

List of research and consultancy outputs: 1986-2007

This list is not exhaustive, but includes those activities that were presented in the document review.

1. Research/project grants managed

- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectorial AIDS Unit (2005-2008): Training and support to organisations implementing HIV peer education.

- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2008): Evaluating peer education using the PSG model at Higher Education Institutions in Gauteng.

- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2007): A Baseline Behavioural Monitoring Assessment of Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Orange Farm of Grow Bacha Project

- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2007): A Baseline Behavioural Monitoring Assessment of Gauteng Hostels African Culture Music Dance Association (ACUMDA)

- Family Health International (2007): Initial Evaluation of ICPC Pilot Model in Northern Cape and Limpopo

- Family Health International and Bristol Meyer Squibb (2005-2006): Secure the Future HIV/AIDS Community-based Treatment Support Program: Consisting In-depth interviews with PLWHA, Health Facility Assessments and Household Surveys: Comparison between Baseline (2005) and Follow-up (2006)

- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2006): A Baseline assessment for New Life Centre

- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2006): A Baseline assessment for OASIS Rover Crew

- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2006): A Baseline assessment for Westonaria Randfontein AIDS Project (WRAP)

- Gauteng Department of Health Multi-Sectoral AIDS Unit (2006): A Baseline assessment for South African Youth Alive Health Campaign Awareness Centre (SAYAC)

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Somebody Cares, Malawi

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Nazarene HIV/AIDS Task Force, Swaziland

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Masoyi HBC, South Africa

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Sibambeni AIDS Programme (Bulawayo Catholic Diocese), Zimbabwe

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Dedza, Malawi

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: LifeLine Zambia, Zambia

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Lake Kariba / Chirundu, Zimbabwe

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: HRT, Zambia

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Masvingo, Zimbabwe

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2006): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Ressano Garcia, Mozambique

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: East London High Transmission Area, South Africa

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Matshelo Community Development Association (MCDA), Botswana

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Centre for Positive Care (Farms), South Africa

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Centre for Positive Care (Workplaces), South Africa

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Prevention Programme: Hwange AIDS Project, Zimbabwe

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Hands@Work, Mozambique

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Mpatamatu HBC, Zambia

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Mangochi HBC, Malawi

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Semonkong, Lesotho

- SIDA, Norwegian and Royal Dutch Embassies (2005): An assessment of the Regional Mitigation Programme: Thembalethu HBC, South Africa

- US Centres for Disease Control (2004) Perceptions and identified barriers to HIV VCT services and the Acceptability of a HBC VCT service in E-Manzini Township, Mpumalanga Province, South Africa.

- USAID/FHI (2003 to 2005): Implementing AIDS prevention and Care projects RHAP training

- Netherlands and Norwegian Governments (2002 to 2006): Regional collaboration to expand HIV/AIDS prevention and mitigation responses in Southern Africa

- SIDA (2002 to 2004): Regional partnership to expand HIV/AIDS prevention and mitigation responses among cross border migrant population in Southern Africa

- Norwegian Government (2002): Regional STI/HIV/AIDS prevention and mitigation programme

- Rockefeller Foundation (2001): Community randomised trial to evaluate adolescent sexual and reproductive health programmes in Southern Africa

- Population Services International (2001): Zimbabwe Corridors of Hope border HIV prevention programme

- Family Health International (2001): Southern Africa Regional situation analysis

- Population Services International (2000): Mozambique Southern Region situation analysis

- Netherlands Government (2001): Regional STI/HIV/AIDS prevention and mitigation programme

- SAT (2000): Regional AIDS training and capacity building

- Futures Group (2000): Regional STD/AIDS training

- Family Health International (2000): Southern Africa Regional situation analysis

- DFID (2000): Zambia workplace occupational health project

- Family Health International (1999): Regional situation analysis

- Wellcome Trust (1999): Targetted STI/HIV prevention study

- Wellcome Trust (1999): Adolescent sexual health study

- International Family Health (1999): Sexual health programme

- Population Council (1998): Community randomized STI trial

- Swedish International Development Agency (1998): Strategic AIDS fund

- World Bank (1997): Network for improved sexual health

- Ford Foundation (1997): Regional project support

- Netherlands Government (1997): HIV prevention in South Africa

- Netherlands Government (1996): Operations research/technical support to health projects

- NORAD: Regional project support (1998)

- NORAD: Operations research/technical support to health projects (1999)

- NORAD: Operations research/technical support to health projects (1997)

- NORAD: Operations research/technical support to health projects (1995)

- SAT: Operations research/technical support to health projects (1998)

- SAT: Operations research/technical support to health projects (1996)

- SAT: Operations research/technical support to health projects (1994)

- WHO: Validity of sex behaviour assessment (1992)

- Ford: Community AIDS project management guidelines (1994)

- AIDSTECH: Coverage, impact and cost-effectiveness of targeted interventions (1993)

- USAID/NIH/NIMR: Determinants of HIV preventive behaviour (1992)

- Swedish Agency for Research Cooperation (1991): Determinants of HIV preventive behaviour

- Ford (1986): Behavioural research on the sex industry in Zimbabwe

- University of Zimbabwe Research Board (1986): Psychosocial dimensions of HIV/AIDS

- University of Zimbabwe Research Board (1985): AIDS education

- Beit Trust (1986): Evaluation of computer education in Zimbabwe

- University of Zimbabwe Research Board (1986): computer-aided-learning

- WHO (1986): Development of substance use survey methodology

2. Consultancies carried out

- Gauteng Department of Health (2006-date). Training and support of various organisations using the PSG peer education model.

- Academy for Educational Development (2004-2006). Baseline Assessment: Community-Based VCT Project.

- Options UK (2002): Preparation of Zambia DFID HIV/AIDS project, Zambia

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- Canadian Public Health Association (1992-1993): Southern Africa regional consultant and Advisor

- World Health Organization (1992-1993): Consultant and short-term advisor, Global Programme on AIDS

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Appendix H

Interviewed Organisations for Surviving 2007 Study

Botswana:

- MCDA

Malawi:

- Dedza
- Ray of Hope

Mozambique

- Hands@Work Mozambique

South Africa:

- East London High Transmission Area
- PSASA
- SACBC
- Thembalethu

Swaziland:

- Nazarene

Zambia:

- Hands@Work Zambia
- LifeLine Zambia
- Mpatamatu
- Zambian Catholic Secretariat

Zimbabwe:

- Sibambene

Appendix 1

Listening to the partner voices

Summarised results of the 2008 survey to establish reasons and key organisational strengths of partner organisations surviving 2007 without funding from PSG.

Participating organisations: *Botswana:* MCDA; *Malawi:* Dedza, Ray of Hope; *Mozambique:* Hands@Work Mozambique, *South Africa:* East London High Transmission Area, PSASA, SACBC, Thembalethu; *Swaziland:* Nazarene, *Zambia:* Hands@Work Zambia, LifeLine Zambia, Mpatamatu, Zambian Catholic Secretariat; *Zimbabwe:* Sibambene.

Sustainability of beneficiary organisations

During 2007 delayed funding disbursements resulted in all the beneficiary organisations having to develop strategies to survive for a long period during 2007. A qualitative survey was conducted with 14 partner organisations to investigate the coping strategies that partners used and methods they employed to survive the challenges during 2007. The information gained provided evidence of the sustainability of projects. The impact of 22 years of technical support from PSG and the preparation for sustainability was clear. The key themes (strengths and positive outcomes) that emerged included (in order of importance):

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Networking and relationships

Partners tapped into networks and established relationships, e.g. government structures. Other networks included financial institutions such as banks. They also formed new relationships, especially with AIDS committees. Many project reported staff members or associated persons being recruited to serve on local and national bodies. Some examples include: a manager from Mutare became the National chairperson of the Zimbabwe AIDS Network. A project in Lusaka (Zambia) was involved in the District AIDS Task Force.

The networks were also used to develop new partnerships, share experiences and to provide referrals. Donor relationships were strengthened and new relationships established with smaller local to large international donors.

Sourcing Funding

Funding strategies included developing new strategies to use existing funding or credit facilities. Diversification of resources and of spending took place. Resources that could not be obtained due to lack of funding were sometimes obtained from different sources. For example: Catholic Relief Funding contributed to material needs and contributed so that training could continue. The World Food Programme contributed food to Zimbabwean and Zambian projects.

New donors included small local donors, businesses and larger donors. Income generating projects (including gardening, farming and other projects) were used to ensure food security and as a source of income.

Community involvement

Community involvement and commitment was often mentioned as a critical success factor. The community took ownership of the projects and community leaders became involved and supported projects. Partners noticed and acknowledged that communities

"know best". The communities they work in took ownership of the activities and generated new ideas that helped the projects survive. This involvement of the communities also allowed for diversity in solutions as new views were incorporated. In Mutare community members contributed to school fees for orphans and in many project community members offered services in exchange for a reduction of school fees for orphans. In some areas psycho-social support was offered and in some communities protection committees were formed. At some projects it was reported that decisions were made by the beneficiaries and new structures were developed.

Expansion of "community": It was expected that the coverage areas would become smaller. Most partners reported that they changed their perception of what and who their communities were. This included an expansion of the reach of the project, for example the Nkomazi Voice. This is a community publication of Thembalethu. It is distributed throughout the Nkomazi valley. During 2007 request came from various interested people who receive it in electronic format, probably due to the positive articles featured in the publication. The "community" reached by Thembalethu changed significantly to include national and international readers.

Staff and volunteers

In the same way the partners "rallied around" PSG and encouraged the team, project staff. Volunteers took ownership of the projects. This ownership led to "protection" of the projects and feelings of coherence in communities.

All the partners survived 2007. The partners reported that they survived due to commitment on all levels. This included commitment from board members, project staff and volunteers. Staff retention was high. There was also a true volunteer spirit and most volunteers remained with the projects despite receiving no monetary or material incentives. Volunteers started income generating projects or contributed from their own resources to help those in need, e.g. orphans.

The main motivation for working at an NGO was reinforced. Staff felt that they had a calling and passion to do the work. They relied on their faith and prayers to ensure the survival of the projects.

Internal focus

Innovation was used wider than for new funding strategies, and included project developments. There was a new focus on the organisation. There was a focus on quality rather than expansion, yet many partners reported a growth in services and target areas. Projects sites were given autonomy (trust was therefore build between the partners and their projects). Motivation of fellow partners and internal projects was regarded as essential. Partners were able to use skills in planning and prioritising activities. Challenges were seen as learning opportunities.

Transparency and open communication

Communication was strengthened not only between partners and PSG, but also between partner management and the project staff. This resulted in transparency not only about the challenges faced, but also improved communication on strategies and solutions. Partners decided to acknowledge the challenges and communicated the challenges and its implications openly to all stakeholders. This communication strategy ensured that resource opportunities were available early on.

Building on existing structures

Structures (including financial and monitoring systems) that were in place were relied on. The importance of documentation and reporting systems were emphasised. Management and leadership skills came in handy during the challenging times. Monitoring activities were crucial. The shift by projects to involve communities and beneficiaries had further implications. Communities and beneficiaries became interested in and participated in the implementation of activities. They also became involved in monitoring of project activities. Monitoring was used not only to satisfy PSG and donor needs, but to inform project activities.

Reputation

The reputation and credibility of organisations were built over many years. Many partners reported that they relied on their reputation and that they received acknowledgement from other organisations and were able to obtain credit and opportunities based on their reputation.

Advocacy and lobbying

Many partners reportedly took on advocacy roles. It seems that their experience made this transition possible and it contributed to fundraising activities (often with a wider impact that the partner organisation). Influential members of communities were taken on field trips to enlighten them on the plight of orphans. This also contributed to the community taking ownership of projects.

Selling services and capitalising on "Spin-offs"

There was a shift detect in the approach to funding. Previously funding was requested for activities to be done. Partners now tried to secure funding by "selling their services". There was a shift in the way of thinking about the services and how to promote achievements of the past instead of focusing on future activities. This was also evident in the networking going on and in the invitations some partners received to serve on councils and other institutions and invitations to special days and events.

Partners were capitalising on secondary and sometimes unpredictable by-products of their activities and programmes. For example: in Mutare Single Women Associations have been used as income generating projects. When the funding was depleted during 2007 the associations were told that there was no longer any funding available. However, the women continued the associations because they benefited more from the social support they received. In many instances products became valuable sources of income, not used as such previously.

Resources carried over

Some resources were carried over, such as experience and skills acquired during previous development and training. There was a concern as to how long this effect will have a benefit. Partner organisations could survive on the knowledge and skills gained previously for the short term. It is anticipated that skills will be lost when trained staff and volunteers leave projects.