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Capacity Development in Higher Education Institutions in Developing Countries

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Scoping Paper

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

HEI in developing countries face the requirement to increase performance and improve results to enlarge their contribution to socio-economic development and poverty reduction. Organizational capacity is considered a pre-requisite for this performance. Organizational capacity is enhanced by capacity development processes and activities. This paper is about capacity development in higher education institutions (HEI) in developing countries.
The introduction chapter of the paper first describes the objective of the paper and the method used to realize the objective. The chapter also includes a brief introduction on systems thinking, since concepts and ideas of systems thinking are frequently used in the paper. Finally, this chapter presents an outline of the paper.

1.2. Objective and method

The starting objective of the paper was to review literature on capacity development in HEI in developing countries and identify gaps for further research. However, a first and explorative literature search and review indicated the broadness of the concept capacity development and the rather limited amount of research on HEI in developing countries. Therefore, it was decided to change the paper's objective; the objective is to develop a framework for analysing capacity development in HEI in developing countries. The framework aims to describe concepts relevant for capacity development in HEI and the relations between the concepts.
The paper reviews literature in three relevant knowledge domains. First, capacity development is one of the topics studied in development studies, a multidisciplinary branch of social science which addresses issues of concern to developing countries and that has placed a particular focus on issues related to social and economic development. A large body of literature on capacity development exists and insights and ideas on how to pursue capacity development vary and change over time. Second, the subject organizational change and development within the knowledge domain of organizational theory is expected to be able to contribute to insights into capacity development. The third literature domain involves literature on HEI. A growing body of literature and research focuses on HEI in the developed world, especially in those countries with mature HE systems and relatively autonomous HEI (e.g. USA and UK) and dealing with aspects as leadership and management, administration and organization. Table 1.1 illustrates the relevance of each of the theoretical domains to the topic of the paper.

Table 1.1: Contribution of theoretical domains to literature review on capacity development in HEI in developing countries

Aspect of research topic	*Organizational and capacity development*	*HEI*	*Developing countries*
Theoretical domain			
Capacity development	++		++
Organizational theory	++		
HE		++	

1.3. Systems thinking

1.3.1. Brief introduction of the systems thinking perspective

Jackson (2003:3) describes a system as "a complex whole the functioning of which depends on its parts and the interaction between those parts." Different types of systems can be identified: e.g. physical systems (weather system), biological systems (living organisms) and social systems (involving humans). In social systems the parts are formed by human beings. Most social systems are characterised by openness to the environment and by being oriented towards certain goals including sustainability (Jackson, 2003; UNESCO, 2012).

Systems thinking is a way of looking at organizations from a holistic perspective. It puts the study of the whole before the study of the parts and refuses to accept simple solutions.. Jakcson (2003: xiv) illustrates: "Fundamentally, simple solutions fail because they are not holistic (...) enough. They are not holistic because they concentrate on the parts of the organization rather than on the whole. In doing so, they miss the crucial interactions between the parts. They fail to recognize that optimizing the performance of one part may have consequences elsewhere that are damaging for the whole. This fault is known as 'suboptimization'." Therefore, systems thinking claims to help in managing and understanding organizational complexity, change and diversity (Jackson, 2003:xiv).

1.3.2. Education systems

The World Bank (2011:29) translates the systems thinking perspective to the educational sector. An education system than encompasses "all learning opportunities in a given society, whether within or outside of formal education institutions. An education system consists of all parties who participate in the provision, financing, regulation, and use of learning services. In addition to national and local governments, participants include students and their families, communities, private providers, and non-state organizations. (...) The relationships, whether contractual or non-contractual, that connect them and their resources are what make the delivery of education services possible. In such a system, decision making does not reside with only one group; instead,

important decisions that affect learning outcomes are influenced by all off these stakeholders." More specifically, the education system includes (World Bank, 2010):

- The full range of formal and non-formal learning opportunities available to children, youth and adults in a given country whether they are provided and/or financed by state or non-state entities (organizations together with their teaching staff, non-academic personnel and administrators),
- Beneficiaries and stakeholders (students and trainees, their families and communities and employers) and
- Central and local governments and their core policy domains that keep the system running including laws, rules, regulations, policies, resources and financing mechanisms.

Applying systems thinking implies that functioning and performance of the total system and individual parts of the system, HEI in this case, are influenced by other parts of the system. The systems approach is expected to contribute to the effectiveness of international cooperation in education (UNESCO, 2012).

1.4. Outline of the paper

The next chapter describes and illustrates the needs for increased performance of HEI in developing countries. Chapter three and four respectively describe the results of the literature review of the development studies perspective on capacity development and of the organizational theory perspective on organizational development. Results of the literature review on HEI have been incorporated mainly in chapter four, because of similarities in concepts used. Chapter five compares the results of the previous chapters and integrates the findings into a framework describing concepts and relationships relevant for studying capacity development in HEI in developing countries.

2. REQUIREMENTS FOR INCREASED PERFORMANCE

2.1. Introduction

This chapter explains the need for increased performance and capacity development in HEI in developing countries. It does so by first describing the massification of HE and the growing socio-economic relevance of HE for both individuals and society. Than the areas where increased performance of HEI is required, are described. The chapter concludes with consequences for capacity development in HEI.

2.2. Massification of higher education

One of the key transformations in global HE is the rapid growth of the sector. Growth started in the last four or five decades of the 20th century and continues after the turn of the century. Worldwide the number of students in higher education has increased from 98 million in 2000 to over 150 million in 2007, implying a growth of over 50% in less than ten years. Worldwide gross enrolment ratios[2] in the same period show an increase from 19% to 26% (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2009). Almost all countries have dramatically increased enrolment in HE. However, large differences remain between more and less developed regions in the world. As illustrated in table 2.1, enrolment rates are lowest in the Sub-Saharan part of Africa. Also, enrolment rates in the Arab States, in Central Asia and in South & West Asia are below the world average.

According to Trow (2005) HE systems move from elite, through mass to universal HE. Elite systems are characterised by low enrolment rates (between 0 and 15%). In elite systems access to higher education is a privilege of birth or talent or both and the function of HE focuses on shaping the mind and character of the ruling class and preparation for elite roles. In systems of mass HE the main function of higher education is transmission of skills and preparation for a broader range of technical and economic elite roles. Access is a right for those with certain qualifications and enrolment rates vary between 16 and 50%. Finally, universal HE is characterised by enrolment rates larger than 50%. In these systems access to HE is perceived as an obligation for the middle and upper classes and the function of HE is related to adaptation of 'whole population' to rapid social and technological change.

It is expected that demand for HE will continue to growth, mainly in the developing countries (e.g. Altbach et al., 2009:166, World Bank, 2010: 27) and thereby also moving from elite to mass HE. HE is considered important to attain objectives of poverty reduction and increased socio-economic development. E.g., the World Bank (2000) concludes that "without more and better higher education developing countries will not be able to participate in

[2] Gross enrolment ratio is defined as the total enrolment in HE (regardless of age) expressed as a percentage of the eligible official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education in a given school year (Altbach et al., 2009:193).

the world wide knowledge economy in which knowledge supplants physical capital as the source of wealth. However, both tertiary and secondary education long have been neglected in developing countries, because investments and improvements in primary education were expected to contribute more to reducing poverty and increase socio-economic development" (World Bank, 2000:16). The renewed focus on HE and its socio-economic relevance relates to a change in the global context. The World Bank (2007:3) explains: "Unlike 20 years ago, when earnings of workers with secondary and tertiary education were low relative to those with primary education in many developing countries, earnings have now risen substantially, particularly for workers with tertiary education but also, in some countries, for those with secondary education".

Table 2.1: Growth in GER and number of students between 2000 and 2007

	GER		*Number of students *1000*	
Region	*2000*	*2007*	*2000*	*2007*
Arab States	20	22	5,546	7,146
Central & Eastern Europe	41	62	13,521	20,750
Central Asia	20	24	1,328	1,994
East Asia & the Pacific	15	26	24,467	46,451
Latin America & the Caribbean	23	34	11,316	17,757
North America & Western Europe	60	70	27,723	34,009
South & West Asia	9	11	12,060	18,409
Sub-Saharan Africa	4	6	2,432	4,140
World	19	26	98,304	150,656

Source: Altbach et al., 2009.

2.3. Relevance of higher education

Investments in HE contribute both to individual and societal socio-economic development as illustrated below and thereby leading to rising social aspirations of larger groups of the population.

2.3.1. Private gains of HE

Research indicates the private gains of investments in HE. Data from the OECD's Education at a Glance 2011 offer the following insights (OECD, 2012a). "First, education is generally good insurance against unemployment and for staying employed during difficult economic times. On average across OECD countries, unemployment rates of people with tertiary-level education have stayed at or below 5% between 1997 and 2009 while unemployment rates of those who have not attained an upper secondary education have surpasses 10% several times during that period. This general trend remained true even during the depths of the global downturn in 2009. During that year, the average unemployment rate across OECD countries stood at 4.4% for people with a tertiary education, 6.8% for those with an upper secondary education, and 11.5% for those who had not attained an upper secondary education. In addition, a higher proportion of people with a tertiary degree generally tend to be in full-time, rather than part-time work. Data show that the proportion of individuals working full-time is 10% higher among those

with a tertiary education than among those without an upper secondary education. Not only are higher-educated workers more likely to be working and less likely to be unemployed, they are also more likely to be paid more for the work they do. Tertiary education brings substantial financial rewards to individuals, both in the short term and over a lifetime. A person with a tertiary education can expect to earn over 50% more than a person with an upper secondary or postsecondary, non-tertiary degree." Furthermore, research indicates that additional years of education contribute to maintaining people's health (Groot & Maassen van den Brink, 2007).

2.3.2. Public gains of HE

Also society as whole benefits from investments in higher education. Higher earnings of individuals lead to higher tax revenues from higher educated people as well as savings from the lower level of social transfers these persons typically receive. Based on Education at a Glance 2011, the OECD concludes that the net return on the public costs to support a man in tertiary education is more than $ 91.000, on average across OECD countries – more than three times the amount of the public investment. The net return on the public costs to support a woman in higher education is somewhat lower – $ 55.000, on average (OECD, 2012b). Also, higher education is considered crucial "for economies that want to move up the value chain beyond simple production processes and products. In particular, today's globalizing economy requires countries to nurture pools of well-educated workers who are able to adapt rapidly to their changing environment and the evolving needs of the production system" (World Economic Forum, 2010:5). Enrolments in and quality of higher education are the fifth pillar used by the World Economic Forum in calculating the competitive index of countries. Furthermore, research suggests increased research output contributes to economic growth (Inglesi-Lotz. & Pouris, 2012).

2.4. Demands for increased performance

Rising social aspirations, changing demographics, growing socio-economic relevance and massification of HE contribute to the transformation from elite HE systems to mass HE systems in developing countries. This leading to demands for increased performance of HEI in one or more of the following interrelated areas:

- Supply of educational services to a growing number of students,
- Supply of educational services to a more diversified student body,
- Increase the labour market relevance of education,
- Increase the amount of relevant research,
- Growing autonomy and accountability and
- Larger, more complex and more diversified HEI.

The sections below briefly discuss each of the above mentioned.

2.4.1. Supply of educational services to a growing number of students

A growing demand for higher educations requires on the supply side a balanced growth in staff, both academic and administrative, and in facilities and infrastructure. However, growth in the supply of HE often is hampered by competition on the labour market for qualified personnel. Ashcroft and Rayner (2011) e.g. indicate that especially graduates with higher degrees are also in demand by the private and government sector. Often, not enough qualified lecturers are available leading to situations in which lecturers with only a bachelor degree are teaching courses in higher education institutions (Altbach, 2011a). The situation is aggravated when, as often is the case, the income is not keeping pace with the growth in student numbers. Without sufficient investments in facilities and infrastructure, institutions are left with "inadequate resources for books and journals, equipment, computers and telecommunications" (Johnstone, 2011:177). Furthermore, lack of funding leads to an increase in student staff ratios creating situations in which "students literally are unable to find room in classes (Altbach, 2011a:2). High student staff ratios affect teaching quality by leading to disproportionally high teaching loads and to less time for personal interaction with students and for professional development. And, as a consequence of high student staff ratios, lecturing as a profession becomes less attractive eventually leading to qualified staff leaving HE. Both figure 2.1 and table 2.2 are included as illustrations of deteriorated student staff ratios. Figure 2 shows the relation between the change in the number of HE students and in HE expenditure in two groups of African countries illustrating the seriousness of the situation in African low-income countries. It may come as no surprise this situation leads to concerns regarding the quality of the education (SARUA, 2012).

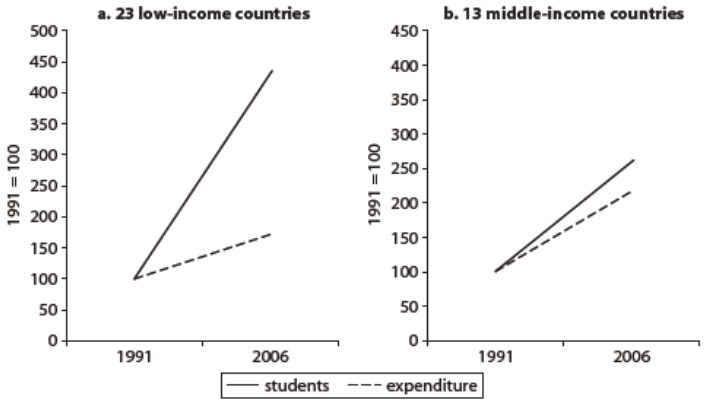

Figure 2.1: Change in number of higher education students and expenditure on higher education in two groups of African countries (source: World Bank, 2010:18)

Table 2.2 illustrates the East-Asian situation where as a result of the past decade's rapid expansion in tertiary enrolments and less faster growth in faculty members, student staff ratios are high in lower and middle-income countries. Most low- and middle-income countries in East Asia have much higher student-to-faculty ratios than the OECD average of 15 to 1.

Table 2.2: Student staff ratio in tertiary education in East-Asian countries compared to OECD-average, 2007

Country	*Student staff ratio*
Cambodia	23:1
China	19:1
Indonesia	15:1
Korea rep.	16:1
Lao DPR	25:1
Malaysia	20:1
Mongolia	29:1
Philippines	23:1
Singapore	13:1
Thailand	37:1
Vietnam	30:1
OECD average	15:1

Source: World Bank, 2012

2.4.2. Supply of educational services to a more diversified student body

Massification, internationalisation of HE and the importance of equal access lead to a more diversified student body. It is expected "the mix of the student population will become more varied, with greater numbers of international students, part-time students, and other types" (Altbach et al., 2009:2). New groups of school-leavers entering higher education might be less well-prepared (Johnstone, 2011). Altbach et al. (2009:45) mention the example of Argentina, where all secondary school graduates have free and open access to public universities. The completion rate (based on the ratio of graduating to entering students) in Argentina is less than 24 per cent. Less qualified students entering higher education require universities "to provide remedial teaching to address gaps in school-level education and to develop basic literacy and numeracy skills, increasing the teaching burden on staff" (Ashcroft & Rayner, 2011:67). Furthermore, different forms of teaching and / or other support mechanisms might be needed to increase the completion rate requiring different pedagogical and didactical qualifications of academic staff. Open and distance learning probably will access of adult learners (Ashcorft & Rayner, 2011:95), also requiring new qualifications of staff.

2.4.3. Increase the labour market relevance of education

The increased economic relevance of HE urges the need for graduates qualified for the labour market. However, numerous reports indicate mismatches between supply and demand of graduates[3]. The Southern African Regional Universities Association (SARUA, 2012) concludes e.g. that "the majority of registrations in HE are in the

[3] This is again confirmed by an article on University World News on 6th January 2013 referring to reports and others messages on this topic (http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20130103154436919).

humanities and social sciences, followed by registrations in business, management and other commercial fields. Registrations in the field of science, engineering and technology, fields which are of critical importance to national development, are comparatively low." Also low- and middle-income countries in East-Asia have an uneven distribution of students across disciplines (see figure 2.2). These countries clearly have an extremely large share of tertiary students pursuing degrees in social sciences, business, and law or humanities and arts. Far fewer students are in other fields, especially in the field of science, technology, engineering and math (STEM). This lack of diversification is expected to have implications for the responsiveness of education systems to new labour market demands since research e.g. indicates that in countries with more engineering students, the economy grows faster than in countries with more lawyers (Hanushek & Wössman, 2007). Besides offering STEM courses, HEI are expected to engage in and strengthen entrepreneurship education in order to contribute to economic development (Altbach et al., 2009:159; Ashcroft & Rayner, 2011).

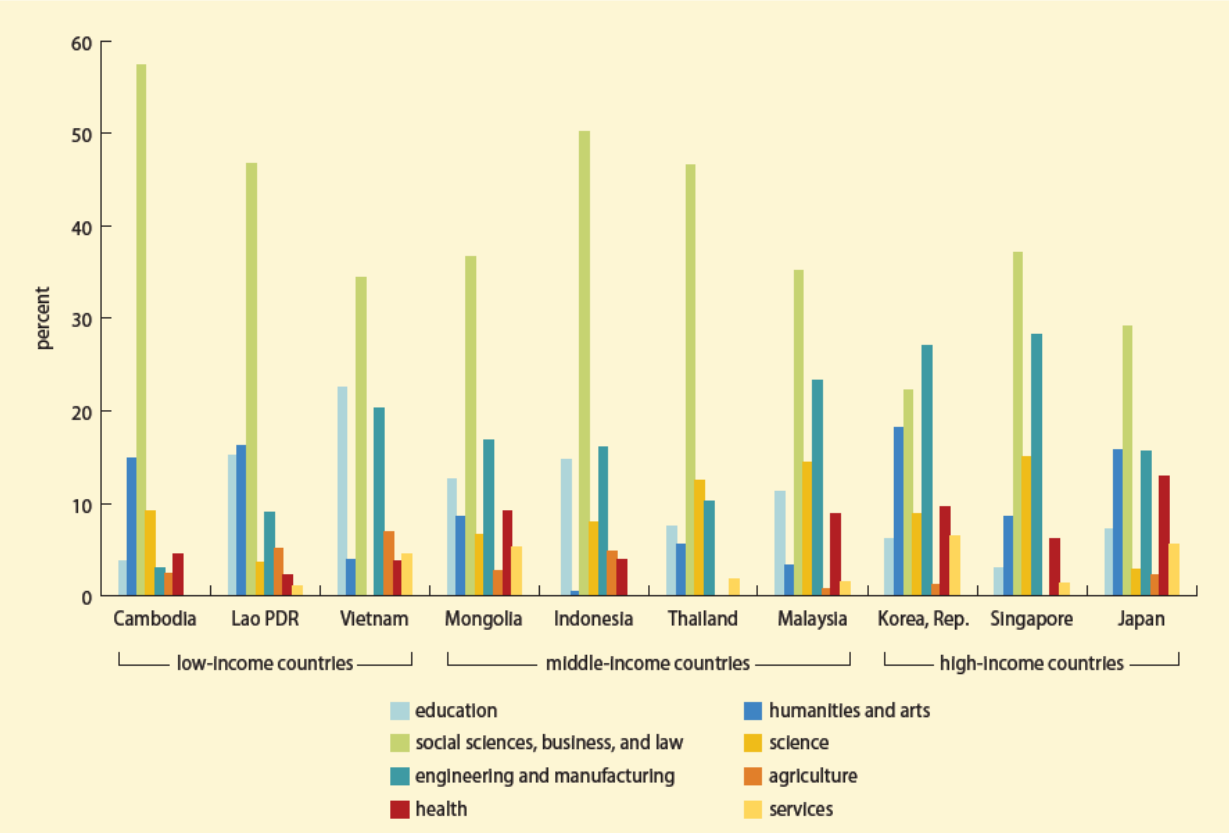

Figure 2.2: Proportion of tertiary student enrolments by field of study, 2008 (Source: World Bank, 2012).

Besides the mismatch in field of study, a problem often exists in the curricula lacking the transfer of up-to-date knowledge and the training of relevant skills. Employers need graduates in the possession of skills as problem solving, team work, creative thinking, communication, writing, ICT, negotiation, leadership and the ability to work independently (Wang, 2012). Furthermore, employers expect graduates to have up-to-date knowledge in their

field of study. This increased demand for labour market related education poses challenges for higher education institutions in several areas:

- The need for new and updated curricula reflecting the needs of the labour market. Curricula should not only address up-to-date and relevant knowledge but also include new forms of teaching and learning aiming at training professional skills and attitudes, e.g. competence based or project based learning.
- The need for procedures to maintain curricula to reflect recent developments in science and in practice and to include state-of-the-art knowledge.
- The need to build and maintain relationships with organizations in the labour market in order to learn about employers needs, about required qualifications and about employers and graduates satisfaction with qualifications achieved.
- Academic staff needs to have time and the attitude to pay attention to professional development.
- Furthermore, academic staff needs to learn and use new forms of teaching as included in the new curricula.
- The increased economic relevance of HE leads to new, economic values entering HEI that (partly) conflict with HEI traditional academic and cultural values and objectives and require the need for a balance.

2.4.4. Increase the amount of relevant research

Besides teaching and learning, research is a core function of HE, although probably not all HEI will be engaged in actually conducting research (see the next section for explanation). A well developed system for research and knowledge generation "is of increasing importance within the emerging knowledge economy, allowing a country not only to generate new knowledge, but also to engage in scholarly and scientific commerce with other nations" (World Bank, 2000:42). Ashcroft and Rayner (2011:220) agree by arguing that "it is important that some universities are able to generate knowledge to provide society and the economy with relevant solutions that ensure development, address problems at the grassroots level, and contribute to poverty alleviation". The important role of research for economic development is illustrated by Chinese policies that define the core missions of research universities as teaching, research and commercialization of technology (World Bank, 2012:79).

Strengthening of research output and relevance requires first qualified staff. However, many developing countries have very low ratios of faculty holding doctorates degrees (SARUA, 2012:10; World Bank, 2012:79). Second, to spread results of research and appreciate the understanding and role of research, a stronger relationship between teaching and research seems necessary (Altbach et al., 2009:139; SARUA, 2012: 10; World Bank, 2012:81). Both in HEI with and without a research function, research is expected to be in the curriculum. Third, the availability of an adequate infrastructure and supportive funding is a prerequisite for increasing research output (Ascroft & Rayner, 2011:214; SARUA, 2012:18). And fourth, building and strengthening university – industry linkages is a prerequisite for industry relevant research. These might take one or more of the following forms: consulting, technical

assistance, sharing of equipment and laboratory space, development and delivery of training programs, contracts for technology service, industry funded research, patent licensing and sales and university-affiliated enterprises, also known as start-ups / spin-offs (Altbach et al., 2009; World Bank, 2012). Increased university – industry linkages are expected to contribute both to increased relevant research output and to additional funding for HEI. However, faculty should have a minimum level of understanding and appreciation of business and entrepreneurship (World Bank, 2012:79). Furthermore, increased knowledge on writing grant proposals is a prerequisite to help building the HEI funding.

2.4.5. Larger, more diversified, more connected and more complex HEI

Growth in student number leads to HEI as larger organizations with more employees and larger budgets. However, it is expected the pool of HEI will become more heterogeneous. While still an overemphasis exists on the traditional research university form (Johnstone, 2011:178), many expect a more diversified landscape in the HE system in order to enable the system to cope with the demands posed on education and research in the tertiary education sector as described in this paper (e.g. Altbach et al, 2009:167; Trow, 2005; World Bank, 2009). The World Bank (2000:48) states: "A diverse system, with a variety of institutions pursuing different goals and student audiences, is best able to serve individual and national goals. Recognizing the nature and legitimacy of this diversity helps ensure there are fewer gaps in what the system can provide, while preventing duplication of effort." An effective HE system is expected to consist of a combination of different kinds of HEI[4] - either public or private - such as (Altbach et al., 2009; Ashcroft & Rayner, 2011; World Bank, 2000):

- Research universities aimed at achieving research excellence and providing high quality education.
- Provincial or regional universities focussing predominantly on producing large numbers of graduates, especially those who can meet local skills requirements.
- Professional schools provide training in fields such as law, medicine, business, and teaching, as well as other areas outside the jurisdiction of traditional arts and sciences faculties.
- Vocational schools, comparable to professional schools but at a different level. They may be part of the secondary or of the post-secondary system.
- Virtual universities and distance learning having the ability to reach students in remote areas and adult learners.
- Undergraduate colleges focussing on undergraduate tertiary education.
- Graduate institutes aimed at postgraduate education.
- Polytechnics or institutes of technology with the majority of programs or degrees focussing on education regarding applied technology.

[4] No generally accepted categorization and terminology exists for HEI in diversified HE systems. Diversification differs per system and new forms of HEI emerge all the time.

– Comprehensive universities encompassing a number of different teaching programs and research activities.

Besides growth and diversification, HEI need to become more interconnected with organizations in the labour market, with industry, with other HEI and with other 'suppliers in the HE supply chain" (a.o. Ashcroft & Rayner, 2011:80; World Bank 2012:82). Growing interconnectedness is one of the reasons for increased complexity of HEI. Other factors contributing to more complex organizations are the emergence of new and more diversified forms of teaching, learning and student support and the increased autonomy and accountability (as described in the section below). Finally, changes affecting HEI as mentioned in this section lead to 'universities as corporations' searching for a balance between traditional academic values and new values as required by the HE environment (Altbach, 2011b).

"The increased size of HEI in a system undergoing massification has important implications for the management and governance of HEI themselves." (Ashcroft & Rayner, 2011:103). Strengthening managerial and leadership capacity and skills at different levels of the organization is required in order to contribute to long term strategic planning and to more short term planning and control. Furthermore, organizational structures have to be adjusted and built and systems and procedures have to be designed to meet the growing demand for education and research.

2.4.6. Growing autonomy and accountability

"As HE systems expand, it becomes increasingly difficult for centralized bodies such as Ministries of Education to be involved in the day-to-day management of each university. (...) As a consequence, there is a movement throughout the world toward HEI being granted more management and academic freedom and institutional autonomy. In most case, this autonomy is tempered with increased accountability to the stakeholders of the institution." (Ashcroft & Rayner, 2011:58). This trend of growing autonomy and accountability introduces new tasks in HEI and influences the work of leaders and managers and of academic and supportive staff. Higher autonomy, lump sum budgets and formal quality assurance systems require new ways of working: planning, decision making, designing policies and procedures, reporting and monitoring. This often leads to the introduction of new functions and departments. Also, these new tasks require an organizational culture characterised by transparency and responsibility.

2.5. Requirements for capacity development

Based on the analysis as described in this paragraph it can be concluded that society expects improved HEI performance in various performance area's of HEI. Without meaning to be exhaustive, the following can be mentioned.

- Teaching and learning: new forms of teaching and learning for new learners and for new learning goals, new curricula, relations with employing organizations and supplying schools.
- Students and students experience
- Research and community service: industry – university linkages, student participation in research.
- Quality assurance: policies, structures, procedures and culture to meet and maintain internal and external quality standards.
- Human resources: more and better qualified staff - both academic and supportive – resulting from increased performance in recruiting, developing and retaining staff.
- Facilities and infrastructure: e.g. class rooms, libraries, laboratories, ICT-infrastructure needed to support developments in research, teaching and learning.
- Financial resources: new HEI initiatives on funding both research and teaching and learning, planning and control.
- Governance, leadership and management: policies, structures, procedures and culture to ensure transparent balance between interests of different stakeholders, creation of vision of future direction of HEI related to external demands and build, enable, lead and manage the organization in line with this vision.

Increased HEI performance asks for increased organizational capacity. The next chapter explores capacity and capacity development from a development from a development studies perspective.

3. THE DEVELOPMENT STUDIES PERSPECTIVE ON CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT

3.1. Introduction

The first part of the literature review focuses on the concepts capacity and capacity development from the development studies perspective. Development studies is a multidisciplinary branch of social science which addresses issues of concern to developing countries and has placed a particular focus on issues related to social and economic development (Wikipedia, 2012). Capacity development is one of the topics studied in development studies and a large body of literature is available from this perspective. Starting point for this literature review was the ECDPM - report on capacity development (Baser & Morgan, 2008:13). This chapter elaborates on the concepts of capacity, performance and results, on modeling of capacity, on capacity development, on the context of capacity development and on monitoring and evaluation. The chapter concludes with a number of conclusions specifically related to capacity and capacity development in HEI.

3.2. Capacity, performance and results

Capacity is a quality or characteristic of human systems. Capacity can be more or less compared to other systems or over a period of time. Capacity is invisible; it is a latent phenomenon that becomes apparent when actors use it to achieve results (Brinkerhoff & Morgan, 2010:3). Perhaps it is this invisibility that leads to a situation in which no generally accepted definition of capacity exists. However, Ubels, Acquaye-Baddoo and Fowler (2010:3) argue that the variety in definitions reflects the politics and positioning of institutions concerned (e.g. World Bank, United Nations Development Program and International Development Research Centre) and that this variety is "actually valuable by illustrating the fact that – like the idea of organization – the images or frameworks employed for capacity development are up for discussion. And this helps mitigate against the dominance of a monolithic 'truth', thus inviting continual enquiry and testing".
Since no generally accepted definition exists, this subparagraph first describes several of the definitions used. Than, levels of capacity are identified and the relationship between capacity and results is described.

3.2.1. Definition of capacity

Baser and Morgan (2008:34) describe capacity as "the emergent combination of individual competencies and collective capabilities that enables a human system to create value". This definition is based on the following analysis. "We use the term capacity to refer to the overall ability of an organization or system to create public value. The system must have competent people committed to generating development results. The system must

have the collective embedded capabilities it needs to create the developmental value that outside groups want. It must have the support structure it needs to manage and sustain its capabilities. (...) it must be able to find the resources and support in the wider context that allows the system to survive and grow. And it must be able to pull these aspects together with some sort of integration, synthesis and coherence." Brinkerhoff and Morgan (2010:3) slightly adjust this definition to capacity as "the evolving combination of attributes, capabilities, and relationships that enables a system to exist, adapt and perform". Ubels et al. (2010:4) use the following working definition: "Capacity is the ability of a human system to perform, sustain itself and self-renew". "Capacity is a multi-faceted phenomena dealing with real-life issues and results, with tangible and intangible aspects and with a relational and political character" (Ubels, et al., 2010:298). The performance aspect is also covered in the definition of the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) and in the definition of the South African Centre for Higher Education (CHE). UNDP (2010:2) defines capacity as "the ability of individuals, institutions, and societies to perform functions, solve problems, and set and achieve objectives in a sustainable manner". CHE (2005:22) states capacity has to do with "both human and institutional abilities to 'think' (identify problems, set objectives, design strategies and solutions, analyse experience) and to 'act' (perform functions, acquire and apply skills and techniques, implement policies and programs, change policy and practice)". Furthermore, De Grauwe (2009:42) means organizational capacity encompasses resources (human, intellectual, financial, physical, infrastructural, and so on) and other organizational characteristics (structure, mandate, management, leadership, and so on) that influence an organization's performance. It may be noted that this definition of capacity explicitly encompasses resources which is not the case in other definitions. E.g. UNDP (2008:5) sees capacity as a necessary but not as a sufficient condition for performance and results. In this perspective a lack of capacity leads to underperformance. However, having capacity does not automatically lead to improvement of performance and better results. Appropriate incentives and resources needed for performance might be absent. It is like a car having all the capacity needed to ride, but not without fuel and a driver.

3.2.2. Levels of capacity

In general it seems accepted that capacity can be defined at three levels (CHE, 2005:20; Baser & Morgan, 2008:13). First, the micro level, where capacity is a characteristic of individuals. Second, capacity can be defined at a meso level referring to organizations and small systems. For this level of capacity, Simister and Smith (2010:3) use the following definition: "the capability of an organization to achieve effectively what it sets out to do". The third level, the macro level, refers to the level of state and/or public sector, also called the enabling environment. FTI (2008) quotes DFID to further explain the distinction between the organizational level and the institutional level or enabling environment: "If institutions can be defined as the rules of the game, organizations are how we structure ourselves to play. The key distinction between institutions and organizations is that between rules and players."

3.2.3. Performance and results

No doubt, capacity is related to performance and performance shows itself in results contributing to societal value. Capacity and changes and results at different levels can be described by using the ripple model (Simister & Smith, 2010). The analogy is that of a stone thrown into the water. It causes ripples that spread outwards. Capacity development is like the stone; it causes effects that spread out into several levels. However, different authors use (slightly) different concepts in describing this so-called chain of results usually to be found in both the planning and the monitoring and evaluation of capacity development efforts. Baser and Morgan (2008:86) use the concept of performance to refer to "the ways in which organizations or systems apply their capabilities in daily use. (...) Performance is about execution and implementation, or the application and use of capacity. It is capacity in motion." Results than are described as "the substantive development outcomes that represent improvements in human welfare, such as gains in health and education." Simister and Smith (2010:9) distinguish between output, outcomes and impact. Outputs relate to the activities and outputs of the capacity development process, outcomes relate to changes in capacity of the client organization and impact relates to wider impact on civil society and long term changes in the client organization. The same concepts are used by UNDP (2010:4) illustrating that e.g. Millennium Development Goals 2 (achieve universal primary education) can be a desired impact. This might require outcomes from the educational sector in the form of free and compulsory primary education and improved quality of primary education. It is stressed that there can be several levels of outcomes leading ultimately to the desired impact. The Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFAN, 2011:80) uses the concepts in a slightly different way. Outputs relate to the actual output of an organization, e.g. the number of patients treated or, in the case of higher education, the number of students graduated. Outcomes refer to contributions made by the organization to societal changes. Capacity characteristics such as the numbers of doctors and nurses available in hospitals (or, in the case of higher education, the number of qualified lecturers) are referring to the results of capacity development.

3.3. Breakdown and modelling of capacity

3.3.1. Kaplan's six elements

Kaplan (1999:7) sees capacity as six hierarchically ordered elements that must be present and coherent for an organization to have capacity. Box 3.1 describes these six elements.

Box 3.1: Kaplan's six elements of capacity (derived from Kaplan, 1999).

Context and Conceptual Framework.
The first requirement for an organization with capacity, the "prerequisite" on which all other capacity is built, is the development of a conceptual framework which reflects the organization's understanding of its world. This is a coherent frame of reference, a set of concepts which allows the organization to make sense of the world around it, to locate itself within that world, and to make decisions in relation to it. This framework is not a particular ideology or theory, it is not necessarily correct, and it is not impervious to critique and change. It is not a precious, fragile thing, but a robust attempt to keep pace conceptually with the (organizational and contextual) developments and challenges facing the organization. The organization which does not have a competent working understanding of its world can be said to be incapacitated, regardless of how many other skills and competencies it may have. Together with an understanding of its context - which also implies having sufficient information regarding that context - goes a particular organizational "attitude" towards that context. An organization needs to build its confidence to act in and on the world in a way that it believes can be effective and have an impact. Put another way, it has to shift from "playing the victim" to exerting some control, to believing in its own capacity to affect its circumstances. Another aspect of "attitude" is accepting responsibility for the social and physical conditions "out there", in spite of whatever the organization faces in the world. This implies a shift from a demand or blame-focused mentality to a more inclusive acceptance of the responsibilities which go with the recognition of human rights. Whatever the history of oppression, marginalisation or simply nasty circumstances which an individual or organization has had to suffer, these "attitudes" are the basis for effective action in the world. This is not a question of morality, of fairness or justice; it is simply the way things work.

Vision
With clarity of understanding and a sense of confidence and responsibility comes the possibility of developing organizational vision. Understanding and responsibility lead to a sense of purpose in which the organization does not lurch from one problem to the next, but manages to plan and implement a programme of action, and is able to adapt the programme in a rational and considered manner. Organizational vision is developed, really, through an interplay between internal and external constraints and possibilities. There is a reality out there which must be responded to, and there is an inner inspiration which must be harnessed and focused. No two organizations will choose to respond to the same external situation in the same way; every organization must get in touch with its own driving force, must identify its own particular abilities and strengths, in order to be most effective. It must focus on the possibilities of its unique contribution. At the same time, every organization will be in a unique relationship with its context, thus no two contexts will ever be quite the same. This interaction between understanding of particular context and appreciation of particular responsibility yields organizational vision.

Strategy
Organizational vision yields an understanding of *what* the organization intends to do; strategy is a translation into *how* the organization intends to realise its vision. Strategy entails the development of particular methodologies of practice, coupled with the adaptation of those methodologies to particular circumstances. Strategic thinking gives effect to vision; it operationalizes a general direction. It involves choosing, prioritising, certain activities and approaches over others. It involves marshalling and coordinating scarce resources in the service of its chosen priorities. It involves differentiating between disparate activities, deciding which are primary and which are designed to support others. It involves the building of a coherent methodology of practice, and designing the organization around that methodology. The development and refinement of strategy is achieved through the constant interplay between doing, planning and evaluation. The organization has to act, has to go beyond whatever is given, has to try new ways of giving effect to its vision, of impacting on its context. It has to monitor its actions, learn from its successes and failures, even learn what it means by success and failure - these things are not given at the outset. It has both to see what works and what does not work as well as to reflect in depth about what it means by its discernible impact, and what - perhaps unforeseen - consequences this impact releases. Given such evaluation, it has to rethink, replan, restrategise; improve and adapt its methodology as well as its understanding of its context, its vision, and its relationships with others.

Culture
We mentioned before the concept of organizational attitude. An important dimension of organizational attitude is that of organizational culture. By culture we understand the norms and values which are practised in an organization; the way of life in the organization; the way things are done in the organization. Without changing the culture of an organization, any other changes are likely to be short-lived and ineffectual. Many of the cultural aspects of organizations exist and operate unconsciously: what people *say* they value and believe in and what is *practised* in the organization are often very different. Trying to make the culture of an organization conscious for itself is very important if that organization is going to be in a position to make conscious choices about how it wishes to operate in the future. Over time every organization will develop particular ways of doing things - habits, norms, routines, mindsets. These things will begin to 'go without saying', they become natural grooves within which organizational thinking and practice begins to revolve. They become unconscious in the sense that the organization loses awareness of them; and they begin to exert a tremendous power and force over the functioning of the organization precisely because they are hidden and unobserved. They are the aspects of organizational functioning which are not spoken of but which therefore exert much more power than the more readily observable realities of structure and procedure, of resources and skills. The organization's culture is a reservoir of incredible power and consequence. Unobserved, it holds the organization checked, within its grasp. The organization which makes it conscious however, which becomes aware of its own dynamics, and makes its values transparent and collective, is able to use that power as a source of liberation, creativity and energy.

Structure.
Although these elements are not gained entirely sequentially, we may say that once organizational aims, strategy and culture are clear it becomes possible to structure the organization in such a way that roles and functions are clearly defined and differentiated, lines of communication and accountability untangled, and decision-making procedures transparent and functional. Put slightly differently, 'form follows function' - if one tries to do this the other way around the organization becomes incapacitated. This is a point which is almost invariably

misunderstood. Too many attempts to intervene in organizational functioning take structure and procedure as their starting point, partly because this element is easily observable, partly because it can be more directly accessed and manipulated, and partly because it *seems* to be the cause of so much malfunctioning. And often it is. But simple realignment of such structures and procedures is not the ready answer which it presents itself as, for if purpose, strategy and culture are impaired, then tampering with structure will not grant the organization a reprieve with respect to its lack of capacity. More than this, in the capacitated organization structures are put in place to *protect*, to support, to *enable* chosen vision, strategy and culture. They cannot replace them, but they can either protect or confuse them. When structural thinking becomes paramount in an organization, or in an organizational intervention, then the organization becomes *bureaucratic* in a very particular sense. It becomes informed by a *structural* perspective - the need to accommodate the organization to its own internal anomalies - rather than by a *strategic* perspective, which would be governed by a focused intention to impact on its context in an effective and purposeful fashion. The departure point then will not have been an attempt to understand and act on the needs and opportunities presented by its context, but will instead have been a reactive organizational stance intended to comply with internal organizational pressures as seamlessly as possible. The capacitated organization understands what it is about, and structures itself accordingly; it does not begin by looking to its structure, but structures itself by looking to its purpose and strategy, and attempting to enable these to be managed.

Skills.
The next step in the march towards organizational capacity, in terms of priority and sequence, is the growth and extension of individual skills, abilities and competencies - the traditional terrain of training courses. Of course skills feature earlier; they can, in and of themselves, generate confidence and a sense of control. Development cannot be viewed simplistically; these phases overlap. Yet what emerges clearly from extensive experience is that there is a sequence, a hierarchy, an order. Unless organizational capacity has been developed sufficiently to harness training and the acquisition of new skills, training courses do not 'take', and skills do not adhere. The organization which does not know where it is going and why; which has a poorly developed sense of responsibility for itself; and which is inadequately structured, cannot make use of training courses and skills acquisition.

Material resources.
Finally, an organization needs material resources: finances, equipment, office space, and so on. Without an appropriate level of these, the organization will always remain, in an important sense, incapacitated. However, the effects of resource deprivation can be countered through appropriate organizational 'attitude'. That is, where resources are lacking, their judicious utilisation becomes capacitating, while simple lament becomes profoundly incapacitating. Once again it is worthwhile to note the common misunderstanding displayed by incapacitated organizations - the thought that they would become capacitated if only they had access to sufficient material resources. Yet experience has shown that, by and large, those organizations which complain about their lack of material resources, which attribute their failures to this organizational feature, lack the ability to counter these problems, while those organizations which accept their own incapacities and attempt to remedy them gain the ability to overcome or compensate for outer constraints.

3.3.2. ECDPM's 5c-model

ECDPM's 5c-model (Baser & Morgan, 2008; Brinkerhoff and Morgan, 2010; Keijzer, Spierings, Phlix & Fowler, 2011) describes five core capabilities that contribute to system capacity performance (see box 3.2). Analysing sixteen case studies on capacity development led to the discovery of the 5 c's. The 5-c model is considered a more generic model allowing organizations for "the development of sub-areas (statements or indicators) that are specific to different types of organizations at different stages of development in different sectors and countries" (Simister & Smith, 2010:14). Organizational capabilities can be considered as smaller sub-components of capacity (Ubels et al., 2010: 4). Other sub-components are competencies: specific abilities, skills, motivations, behaviours, energy and influence of individuals (Baser & Morgan, 2008:26; Morgan, 2006:7; Ubels et al., 2010:4) and foundational components such as financial resources, structure, information, culture and location (Morgan, 2006:7). The 5c-model clearly reflects the systemic perspective on capacity. E.g. the capability to commit and engage, the capability to relate and the capability to adapt and self-renew respectively refer to the purposefulness and openness of social systems (Jackson, 2003). Recently, the model has attracted quite some attention. Specifically in the area of HE, the 5c-model has been used by Ramboll (2012) to evaluate Dutch capacity development support initiatives stressing the importance of a holistic approach to capacity development in HE. Furthermore, it is

worthwhile noting that the 5c-model seems to become of greater importance in the Dutch development cooperation in HE.

Box 3.2 ECDPM's 5c-model[5] (derived from Brinkerhoff & Morgan, 2010)

5 core capabilities for systems capacity performance

Capability to commit and engage
Actors are able to
- Mobilize resources (financial, human, organizational)
- Create space and autonomy for independent action
- Motivate unwilling or unresponsive partners
- Plan, decide and engage collectively to exercise their other capabilities

Capability to carry out technical, service delivery and logistical tasks
Actors are able to
- Produce acceptable levels of performance
- Generate substantive outputs and outcomes
- Sustain production over time
- Add value for their clients, beneficiaries, citizens etc

Capability to relate and attract support
Actors can
- Establish and manage linkages, alliances, and/or partnerships with others to leverage resources and actions
- Build legitimacy in the eyes of key stakeholders
- Deal effectively with competition, politics and power differentials

Capability to adapt and self-renew
Actors are able to
- Adapt and modify plans and operations based on monitoring of progress and outcomes
- Proactively anticipate change and new challenges
- Learn by doing
- Cope with changing contexts and develop resiliency

Capability to balance diversity and coherence
Actors can
- Develop shared short- and long-term strategies and visions
- Balance control, flexibility and consistency
- Integrate and harmonize plans and actions in complex, multi-actor settings
- Cope with cycles of stability and change

3.3.3. United Nations Development Program capacity assessment framework

UNDP (2008a) uses a capacity assessment framework consisting of three dimensions: level of capacity, functional and technical capacities, and core issues. The first dimension refers to the three levels of capacity as mentioned before: individual, organizational and enabling environment. The second dimension is made up of the functional and technical capacities (see box 3.3). "Generally speaking, the functional capacities underpin or support the technical capacities needed in a certain sector or thematic context." (UNDP,2008c: 25). Technical capacities in HEI are curriculum review, development of educational programs, teaching, coaching students, research, quality

[5] It should be noted that in different publications on the 5c-model different illustrative indicators are used of which the presented example is only one.

assurance etc. The third dimension relates to the so-called drivers of capacity[6]. UNDP (2008a:11) uses for core issues: institutional arrangements, leadership, knowledge and accountability (see box 3.4) and states ".. these four areas and domains are were capacity change happens most frequently. They can also drive the formulation of a capacity development response."

Box 3.3: UNDP general and functional capabilities (cited from UNDP 2008a:13)

Two types of capacities: inter-related yet distinct.

Functional capacities are 'cross-cutting' capacities that are relevant across various levels and are not associated with one particular sector or theme. They are the management capacities needed to formulate, implement, and review policies, strategies, programmes and projects. Since they focus on 'getting things done', they are of key importance for successful capacity development regardless of the situation. The five functional capacities UNDP emphasizes are:

Capacity to engage stakeholders
- Identify, motivate and mobilize stakeholders
- Create partnerships and networks
- Promote engagement of civil society and the private sector
- Manage large group processes and open dialogue
- Mediate divergent interests
- Establish collaborative mechanisms

Capacity to assess a situation and define a vision and mandate
- Access, gather and disaggregate data and information
- Analyse and synthesize data and information
- Articulate capacity assets and needs
- Translate information into a vision and/or a mandate

Capacity to formulate policies and strategies
- Explore different perspectives
- Set objectives
- Elaborate sectoral and cross-sectoral policies
- Manage priority-setting mechanisms

Capacity to budget, manage and implement
- Formulate, plan, manage and implement projects and programmes, including the capacity to prepare a budget and to estimate capacity development costs
- Manage human and financial resources and procurement
- Set indicators for monitoring and monitor progress

Capacity to evaluate
- Measure results and collect feedback to adjust policies
- Codify lessons and promote learning
- Ensure accountability to all relevant stakeholders

Technical capacities are those associated with particular areas of expertise and practice in specific sectors or themes, such as climate change, HIV/AIDS, legal empowerment or elections. As such, they are closely related to the sector or organization in focus.

[6] Conceptually, these core issues seem to relate more to interventions for capacity development as described in one of the following sub-paragraphs than to the concept of capacity as described previously.

Box 3.4 UNDP's core issues in capacity assessment (derived/copied from UNDP, 2008a:11)

Core issues in capacity assessment

Institutional arrangements
These refer to policies, procedures and processes that countries have in place to legislate, plan, and manage the execution of development, rule of law, measure change and such other functions of state. By its nature, the issue of institutional arrangements shows up in every aspect of development and public sector management. Whether these are ministries, offices or whole sectors.

Leadership
Leadership is the ability to influence, inspire and motivate people, organizations, and societies to achieve – and go beyond - their goals. Leadership is not synonymous with a position of formal authority; it can also be informal and manifest itself in many ways at many levels. A key determinant of leadership is whether it is able to rally others around a common goal. Does it have the capacities to create a vision and manage the implementation of this vision?

Knowledge
Knowledge refers to the creation, absorption and diffusion of information and expertise towards effective development solutions. While the growth of knowledge is primarily fostered at the level of the individual, it can also be stimulated at the organizational level, for example, through a knowledge management system or an organizational learning strategy.

Accountability
Accountability exists when two parties adhere to a set of rules and procedures that govern their interactions and that are based on a mutual agreement or understanding of their roles and responsibilities vis-à-vis each other. This manifests itself in day-to-day engagements between for example a teacher and a student and between an employer and an employee. Accountability is important because it allows organizations to monitor, learn, self-regulate and adjust their behaviour in interaction with those to whom they are accountable. It provides legitimacy to decision-making, increase transparency and helps reduce the influence of vested interests.

3.4. Capacity development

Where capacity refers to an organizational state, capacity development refers to changes in capacity. This paragraph starts with a description of endogenous and exogenous capacity development. Than the difference between capacity development and capacity building is discussed. This is followed by a description of different paradigms in capacity development, closely related to the concepts of exogenous and endogenous capacity development and the history of capacity development. Afterwards, based on the research by Baser and Morgan (2008) different approaches to capacity development objectives and strategies are introduced. Capacity development strategies are made up of processes and interventions; these then are described in the last subparagraph, differentiating between internally driven and externally driven processes.

3.4.1. Endogenous and exogenous capacity development

Capacity development is about changes in capacity. Endogenous capacity development is a "continuous / spontaneous process. Because no context is static, the capacity of any entity will always evolve in interaction with its environment, for good and for ill" (Ubels et al., 2010:4). Endogenous capacity development is about "the energies, strategies and behaviours of country groups and organizations in response to a variety in pressures and

influences" (Baser & Morgan, 2008:9). Endogenous capacity development seems closely related to learning. Capacity development should than be distinguished from capacity development support: "deliberate efforts to make capacities grow, (...), the purposeful approaches and the professional repertoire used to deliberately stimulate, guide, strengthen, unleash, nurture, and grow capacities beyond the existing condition" (Ubels et al., 2010:4). Capacity development support is about exogenous capacity development that focuses on what outsiders (usually international agencies) can do to induce capacity development (Baser & Morgan, 2008:7). Box 3.5 and 3.6 have been included as illustrations of respectively a more exogenous and a more endogenous perspective on capacity development.

Box 3.5: Capacity development as building a winning football team (copied from UNDP, 2009:8).

TELLING CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT AS A STORY:
HOW TO BUILD A WINNING TEAM FOR THE WORLD CUP

Imagine a situation where a new coach is tasked with transforming a perennially poor-performing national women football team, which has never qualified for the World Cup, into a winning squad that earns a spot in the 2011 tournament in Germany. There are many things that s/he can do. The coach may begin by taking stock. What types of players are on the team—age, speed, strength, agility, ball-handling skills, etc.? By global standards, it is an average team. The players are relatively young and fast, and they are good at dribbling, passing, trapping and shooting the ball. They also have a sound knowledge and understanding of the game and league rules. By building on existing technical skills—through individual and group drills—and strengthening tactical ones—through daily practices that enhance teamwork, the coach can therefore improve the team's ability to win.

Talent alone, however, is not enough to win games Why? Because there a number of other key factors that must also be in place to create a competitive team. For example, the coach must ensure that her/his players know and are happy with their respective roles and responsibilities on the field. The rules of the game and referee decisions must also be lucid and fairly implemented. Another area that the coach must focus on is whether the right incentives are in place. This could include a system of awards and bonuses connected to team results—and not individual performance, transparent and commonly agreed upon principles dictating how players join and leave the team, access to physical fitness and training facilities, and medical support as needed. Furthermore, it is vital to develop and agree on a game plan or strategy for each opponent, which includes clearly defined roles and expectations for all team members. Combined, these constitute the institutional arrangement, which ultimately determines the team's performance and ability to win.

Apart from the institutional arrangement, the coach must analyze the leadership structure of her/his football squad. A winning team needs a focused and motivated captain who not only inspires when the team is losing by a goal, but who also maintains the momentum and continues to fight even when the team is ahead. In addition to the captain, it is important that other players assume leadership roles as needed. For instance, when facing a corner kick or a free kick, is the goalkeeper able to effectively position her teammates to defend? Are there clear lines of communication between the coach and the captain, the coach and the players on the field, the captain and the players? And what if the captain is suddenly injured?

Accountability is yet another critical element in building a winning team. Are feedback mechanisms in place among the players, management and fans and supporters? Do they all have a voice in the major decisions that affect the team, such as resource allocation, picking new players, developing younger players, and supporting community events? Within the team itself, it is imperative that the coach establish a system to gather feedback and suggestions from the players and act on those.

This brief scenario has outlined some of the core issues that impact the success of a football team. Of course, beyond the control of the coach and players or fans are contextual issues such as injuries, weather, field conditions, 'magical' moves, etc. that might affect the outcome of a given game. However, within a reasonable timeframe that enables these basic changes to take root, the coach has a much better chance to see her/his team in Germany for the World Cup.

Box 3.6: Capacity development as transformation from cocoon to butterfly (copied from Kaplan, 1999)

Poem by Nikos Kazantzakis, *Zorba de Greek*

'I remember one morning when I discovered a cocoon in the bark of a tree, just as the butterfly was making a hole in its case and preparing to come out. I waited a while, but it was too long appearing and I was impatient. I bent over it and breathed on it to warm it. I warmed it as quickly as I could and the miracle began to happen before my eyes, faster than life. The case opened, the butterfly started slowly crawling out and I shall never forget my horror when I saw how its wings were folded back and crumpled; the wretched butterfly tried with its whole trembling body to unfold them. Bending over it, I tried to help it with my breath. In vain. It needed to be hatched out patiently and the unfolding of the wings should be a gradual process in the sun. Now it was too late. My breath had forced the butterfly to appear, all crumpled, before its time. It struggled desperately and, a few seconds later, died in the palm of my hand.'

3.4.2. Capacity development and capacity building

From the developmental aid perspective both terms capacity building and capacity development are used, however capacity building seems to be "the older and still more widely used term, while capacity development has emerged more recently and is gradually superseding the earlier term. Its emergence tends to be linked to development models that see capacity as cornerstone of sustainable development, and that focus on the process of capacity development, rather than purely outcomes"' (CHE,2005:16) (see also box 3.7) on the history of capacity development viewpoints). Also UNDP (2008:5) refers to the difference between capacity building and capacity development, be it with a slightly different perspective. In their view, capacity development is a process driven from the inside and starting from existing national capacity assets. Capacity development refers to improving and extending already existing capacities. Capacity building in this perspective refers to a process that supports only the initial stages of building capacity in a situation with no existing capacities to start from. It perceives the development situation as 'tabula rasa'. Yet another interpretation of the difference is described by Simister and Smith (2010:3). They refer to capacity development as "an internal process that involves the main actors taking primary responsibility for change processes; it is a complex human process based on values, emotions and beliefs; it involves changes in relationships between different actors and involves shifts in power and identity; and it is both uncertain and, to a degree, unpredictable. " Capacity building on the other hand is related to purposeful, external interventions aimed at strengthening capacity over time. Furthermore, Simister and Smith (2010:5) separate technical capacity building from general capacity development. The first aims at addressing specific issues concerning organizations activities. HEI technical capacity e.g. deals with curriculum design, project-based learning or quality assurance. General capacity development aims at developing organizational capacity to better fulfil their core functions, achieve their own mission; to improve the overall performance and the ability to adapt to changing situations. General capacity development involves reflections on culture, values and vision.

Box 3.7 History of perspectives on capacity development (copied from CHE, 2005: 17)

Capacity building and capacity development have been part of the developmental aid literature since the 1950's. In the decades lying behind the concept has undergone transformations.

50'and 60's. Focus on institutional building with minimal attention paid to political or cultural context of activities. The focus of institution building was on individual organizations: establishing public sector organizations, designing functioning organizations and transplanting models from the North. In later years the understanding of institutional building has become more nuanced.

Late 60's and early 70's. Capacity building is associated with institutional strengthening, mainly through improvement of the internal functioning of individual structures and organizations, and providing tools to improve performance.

70's. Focus op development management for delivery systems of public programs, with a greater awareness of political and strategic issues than earlier models and a tendency to research neglected target groups.

80's. Institutional development with a focus on organizational effectiveness as an outcome of the interaction between internal management and external environment, and emphasizing links between sectoral and macro-policy issues, and the role of networks.

Late 80's and early 90's. Recognition of philosophy that capacity building is central in attempts to attain sustainable development. An initial focus on technical assistance programs evolved into an increased preoccupation with human resource and professional development, while today the concept of capacity building tends to combine a focus on human capacities, organizational and managerial skills and institutional arrangements. In addition, attention is increasingly drawn to the fact that capacity development must be embedded in the social, economic and political environment in which programs are being implemented.

Since mid 90's. The international development community has sought to conceptualize and implement knowledge-based aid and associated forms of capacity development. The following broad features can be associated with the knowledge-based aid concept can be delineated. First, culture and context are acknowledged as critical factors in approaching development. Second, greater emphasis is put on national ownership of development and development partnerships, on the participation of 'recipients' in development and on the value of indigenous or existing knowledge and processes of mutual knowledge construction. Third, expanded knowledge needs are acknowledged and techniques of knowledge management are sought, within aid agencies, communities of practice, help desks etc. Fourth, in a knowledge based aid environment greater emphasis has been given to learning and capacity as part of a broader knowledge strategy, and there is a shift towards building knowledge at different levels (system, institutional, organization, individual).

3.4.3. Paradigms in capacity development support

Reviewing the literature on capacity development two paradigms can be distinguished, named by Watson (2010) as reductionism and systems thinking paradigm. The reductionist approach focuses mainly on exogenous factors in realizing capacity development. "The dominant capacity 'paradigm' adopted by donors to date posits a linear connection between the various aspects of capacity development initiatives: from the provision of inputs (technical assistance and equipment, for example) to the delivery of outputs (e.g. more able, competent individuals or service units). Based on certain assumptions, these inputs and outputs are expected to lead to better performance (for example improved health service delivery) and ultimately achievement of development goals (improved health in a population). The project framework or logical framework enshrines this logic of cause and effect relationships between inputs, outputs, performance and development goals, and is often used to focus on delivery of pre-defined outputs. This is also the basis of the results based management approach. This methodological tool is often used to assess the need for, to design in detail, and to monitor progress of development programmes. Achieving improvements in public sector organizational performance is often a major priority objective for donors. Indeed, performance tends to be seen as a proxy for capacity (if an organization is by some measure performing better, it is assumed to have improved its capacity). These approaches have been termed technocratic and reductionist (i.e. they see organizations as machines, amenable to discrete fixes; they reduce complex problems and systems to their constituent components). The project framework's indicators of progress in relation to objectives become the yardsticks for the purposes of monitoring over time." (Watson, 2010:241).

Watson (2010:241) refers to the ECDPM study to illustrate the systems thinking approach seeing capacity development as a result from both endogenous and exogenous influences. "But the ECDPM study further concluded that, given the multi-dimensional nature of capacity, efforts to enhance organizational capacities were not amenable to linear and neat if this, then that thinking. The nature of the organizations studied was more akin to that of living organisms. This perspective has been conceptualized in a body of management literature known as complex adaptive systems (CAS) thinking. This school of thought sees capacity as being associated with multiple

causes, solutions and effects, some of them unintended. Interaction between stakeholders over time matters a lot: yet these dynamics are often not necessarily controllable and potentially quite unpredictable. Detailed performance- (or capacity-) improvement plans are less easy to make, seen from this perspective. The study observed that capacity tends to emerge over time, affected by many factors. Thus in the jargon – it is an emergent property. Critics of the planning- and control-oriented reductionist approaches also argue that preoccupation with monitoring progress in relation to pre-determined indicators detracts attention from less tangible and more relational/attitudinal dimensions of capacity and from broader learning from experience. In many cases unanticipated results or insights may prove more important to development effectiveness than what was planned."

3.4.4. Approaches to capacity development regarding objectives and strategies

In general it is concluded (Baser & Morgan, 2008) that capacity development has a need for some sort of strategic thinking and acting, dealing with objectives and strategies aimed at realizing these objectives. Objectives can aim at results or at capacity. In the first situation capacity is seen as a means to an end and the focus is on the chain of results; in the second situation capacity is seen as an end in itself. Characteristics of the two approaches are summarized in table 3.1. Baser & Morgan (2008:90) argue that the challenge for both local organizations and donor agencies lies in balancing and integrating the two approaches; the challenge is to blend product and process. Combining the two approaches leads to deep change, whereas a strong focus on results leads to superficial change and a strong focus on capacity leads to a situation characterised by 'change for the sake of change'.

Table 3.1: Two approaches to change (copied from Baser & Morgan, 2008:90)

Aspects of change	**Focus on results**	**Focus on capacity development**
Purpose	Maximising development results	Developing capacity
Approach to capacity issues	Capacity development as means	Capacity seen as an end in itself
Leadership	More directive and top-down	More participatory and inclusive
Main focus	Structure, systems, incentives, demand pressures	Individual and collective skills, culture, mindset
Planning	Systematic and solution-driven	Emergent and more incremental
Application	Standardised and uniform	Responsive and varied
Tangibles and intangibles	More emphasis on the tangibles	More emphasis on intangibles
Motivation	Incentives lead	Incentives lag
Learning and experimentation	Modest	Critical
Monitoring and evaluation	Focuses on results	Focuses on capacity
Use of external technical assistance	Intensive, focused on task achievement	Less intensive, focused on process / facilitation

An alternative categorization of capacity development approaches as planned, incremental and emergents is illustrated in table 3.2. However, in practice, to be effective, usually approaches had to be combined in some way. No code of recipe for effective capacity development was found. However, it is clear that a mismatch between approach and context does not work effectively (Baser & Morgan, 2008:81; Brinkerhoff & Morgan, 2010). The role of context in capacity development will be discussed in a separate paragraph in this chapter.

Table 3.2 Approaches to planning capacity development and applicability (based on Baser & Morgan, 2008; Brinkerhoff & Morgan, 2010)

	Description	**Applicability**
Planned	Planning and design can be used to generate shifts in capacity in organization or system from one state to another. Relies on prediction, goal setting, hierarchical structures and top-down strategy. Control and intentionality are key factors in making capacity development happen.	Works best under following conditions: shared consensus about policy and direction, available resources to pay for support systems, more tangible objectives especially technical and functional, the possibility of control from senior managers, the need to start on the supply side, an opportunity to quantify means and ends and a focus on the formal and the programmable.
Incremental	Based on principles of adaptiveness and flexibility in implementation. In practice it is about capability to make changes within a structured process of capacity development. Adjustments and small interventions. Small experiments. Relies on learning and adjustment.	Tended to work best in situations where the context was unstable and the choice of strategy was difficult to clarify. In practice, this approach was preferred approach especially in multi-sectoral, multi-actor systems whose loose-coupling and sometimes conflicting interests and attitudes did not lend themselves to planned change as a strategy.
Emergent	Driving force for change is relationships, interactions and systems energy. Emergence needs a shared sense of meaning and values, some sort of collective identity and a system boundary, some fungible resources, some basic rules of conduct and a protected space that allowed for some freedom of action. Frequently a messy process of change, ad hoc efforts. Evident in cases where capacity development was not donor funded or designed.	Functions best in complex situations. Does not function in situations of intense conflicts and politicization, when a specific task has to be accomplished within a short period of time, in large public sector organizations, needs space and freedom and therefore does not match with ideological constraints.

Illustration of planned approach

As an illustration of the planned approach the UNDP five-stage process for capacity development is described (UNDP, 2008c). The first step deals with engaging stakeholders in order to build political commitment and sponsorship. “It is imperative that all relevant actors are consulted and their support and buy-in secured, thereby making the process self-sustaining and internally driven. (...) unless stakeholders perceive that they own the process and have contributed to shaping it, it is unlikely that the process will sustain in the medium to long term. So, while engaging stakeholders is depicted as the first step of the capacity development process, it is inherent in every step.” Second, capacity assets and needs are assessed using indicators for capacity levels, core issues and capacities (UNDP, 2008b:40). “A capacity assessment is defined as an analysis of desired capacities against existing capacities and offers a systematic way of gathering critical knowledge and information on capacity assets and needs. Its findings provide the basis for formulating a capacity development response that addresses those capacities that could be strengthened, or that optimizes existing capacities that are already strong and well placed.” Capacity assessment addresses the objectives or goals of capacity development (‘capacity for why?’), the subjects of capacity (‘capacity for whom?’) and the capacities (both functional and technical) and core issues to be developed (‘capacity for what?’). The assessment is followed by the third step; define a capacity development response. “This is an integrated set of deliberate and sequenced actions embedded in a programme or project to address the three guiding questions.” Included in this step are also the defining of indicators of progress, the output and the costing of the capacity development response. Fourth is the implementation of the planned capacity development response including the monitoring of the process. UNDP strongly advises to stick to the

process, even under difficult circumstances (UNDP,2008c:7). Fifth and last is the evaluation of the capacity development process. It focuses on how the capacity development outputs relate to the increase in outcomes (see also the paragraph on monitoring and evaluation).

Illustration of a more incremental / emergent approach

A more incremental or emergent approach is illustrated by Ashcroft and Rayner (2011:2): "... we have noticed some slower-burning initiatives, initiated through a development intervention that have apparently sunk without trace and yet some time later re-emerge within various contexts, having undergone a 'sea change': the ideas, techniques and knowledge that have been applied in the longer term have almost invariably been 'Africanized', look far different from those originally presented, and seem to have a greater change of taking root and effecting longer-term change."

3.4.5. Interventions for capacity development

A capacity development response or strategy consists of a combination of interventions or actions aimed at improving capacity. A wide variety on methods and interventions exist. However, "in the past, there has been an almost exclusive focus on training as the prime capacity building method" (James & Wrigley, 2007) because of its simplicity in planning and funding. Other more conventional forms of capacity development interventions are: technical advice, support to project management and support to lobby and advocacy work (Datta et al., 2012). Currently, it is recognized that capacity development efforts focusing on single entities are more limited in their impact because they do not sufficiently take into account the systemic perspective and the relevance of other actors and relationships in creating effective results (Ubels et al., 2010:298). The multi-actor perspective leads to interventions such as accountability, value chains, micro-macro linkages and knowledge networking. Also, this multi-actor perspective leads to another lesson in capacity development: involvement of multiple actors leads to situations in which 'sudden changes pop up' or in which factors, that were not thought to be very relevant, seem to be very relevant. In fact this situations require interventions aimed at 'learning in action', not solely focused on training but also containing methods such as action learning, experimentation, mentoring, coaching and advice (Datta et al., 2012; James & Wrigley, 2007; Ubels et al., 2010). Ashcroft and Rayner (2011) specifically write about capacity development in higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa and propose a process of critical inquiry using an action research methodology (as illustrated in box 3.8). Critical inquiry "takes account of people and their thoughts, feelings and attitudes rather than creating a spurious logic about 'what should work'". (Ashcroft & Rayner, 2011:13).

Box 3.8: A simplified action research cycle for the process of critical inquiry (source: Ashcroft & Rayner, 2011:10-12)

Steps in a simplified action research cycle for capacity development in higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa

Survey the field of action
Find out all you can about the context for any interventions.

Identify the problem
A crucial stage in the cycle is analyzing the problem. Collect the views of these within the situation. Make an analysis of what underlying problems or issues are. See these as preliminary hypotheses that might be modified in each of the stages below as you add to your understanding.

Collect and analyze information
Look for evidence to the underlying causes of the problems and for what might be suitable interventions. Evidence can be retrieved from 'objective' sources, but also by 'soft' data validated by triangulation.

Discuss action
Discuss plans for intervention and request feedback to their appropriateness and their feasibility.

Implement action
Remain flexible, also in this phase so that together you can adapt plans to the reality that you will face. Adaptation is often crucial to success and depends upon getting continuous feedback from your partners in the field of action.

Evaluate action
Evaluation is important for learning. Not only focus on intended results and things that succeeded. Also look at unintended consequences, failures and partial failures.

Reassess the problem, until eventually:

Desirable change happens and can be sustained.

This more holistic, systemic perspective is also signaled by Baser and Morgan (2008:56): "Most analyses of capacity development have focused on the 'how' issues – i.e. the structural, the technical, the functional, the procedural and the instrumental – or on the capability to carry out technical tasks. In recent years, this narrow scope has widened to include political and economic issues."

Besides the multi-actor perspective, it has become clear that capacity development is not only as an 'inside-out' process, but also as an 'outside-in' process in which external forces, pressures or demands also may be influential enabling factors in capacity development (Baser & Morgan, 2008; Ubels et al., 2010). The ECDPM-report (Baser & Morgan, 2008) gives an extensive overview of processes and methods contributing to capacity development, divided into internally and externally driven processes as described in the sections below.

Internally driven processes

- Organizational development aimed at creating confidence, cohesion, communication, creativity and initiative by means of teambuilding, participation, cultural change and external facilitation. These organizational development approaches are more useful at the micro and meso level than on the macro level and need to be combined with other methods.

- Incentives, rewards and sanctions such as salary supplements and performance-based incentives seem to account for some of the capacity development behavior,
- But in practice a variety of other motivators (non-financial, national pride, faith-based, values-driven, loyalty to colleagues) were also influential. Emergence of capacity at a deeper level has to do with adhering to a set of accepted values as a convincing answer to the 'why' of the capacity development; a reason for capacity development that goes beyond organizational self-interest, personal advantage or greater efficiency.
- Awareness, understanding and learning covering a wide array of methods including academic and professional courses, action learning, coaching, mentoring, benchmarking, self-reflection and group discussions. Individual participants seem to favor action-oriented learning or on-the-job training through peer-to-peer contacts and technical assistance. Effective learning arises more out of experimentation, dialogue and discovery than out of absorbing pre-selected materials. Figuring out what to learn seems an important aspect of capacity development. On-site coaching, special courses, supported replication, relationship building and local knowledge creation and dissemination are favored methods. To be effective, learning requires explicit focus, space, encouragement and protection.
- Structure and systems, both formal and informal, shape capacity in helping to install specialization and coordination that lays at the heart of effective capabilities. Furthermore, these structures are instrumental in reaching out to knowledge and resources in the wider society.
- Assets, resources and financial flows as such do not contribute to capacity development but often are requirements for implementing other capacity development efforts.
- Ownership, commitment and motivation. It is conventional wisdom that capacity development depends critically on the level of ownership, commitment and motivation of country actors. However, it has to be realized that these concepts are of a complex and dynamic character. It can differ from one place in the organization to the other. It can change over time. And it can exist for one issue, but not for another issue.
- Leadership, management and entrepreneurship. The interrelationships between leadership, capacity and capacity development have gained little attention in the development studies perspective and therefore remain poorly understood. From their analysis, Baser and Morgan (2008) conclude that a strategic mindset is a key contribution of leadership to capacity development. Furthermore, the period of time leaders stay in a position influences their impact on capacity development.
- The organizational characteristics readiness and absorptive capacity seem to contribute to capacity development processes and are shaped by other issues as commitment, confidence, intervention characteristics, risk perception, politics and understanding of the intervention and attitudes of other stakeholders and external groups.
- Coherence. "Achieving coherence is one of the keys to forming capacity. Individual competences have to be combined into collective capabilities which, in turn, have to be balanced to produce a capable system or

organization. (...) It has also acquired greater importance as development interventions have become more complex and diverse." (Baser & Morgan, 2008:66).

- Finally, resilience contributes to capacity development. Resilience seems to be a combination of organizational character, formal structures and informal network and alliances.

Externally driven processes

- Institutions set the rules of the game in which organizations are the players. Changing the rules requires players to develop new capacities.
- Pressure or demands from external parties (e.g. clients, funders, citizens, auditors, regulators, politicians, watch dog groups, media) is expected to 'pull' capacity and performance out of the system or organization.
- Power and control. Is capacity development supported by influential groups? Does capacity development pose a threat to other parties with vested interests? Can any sort of workable consensus be reached to support capacity development?
- Legitimacy from the perspective of stakeholders contributes to capacity development of organizations.
- Creation and protection of operating space, being a "protected area within which participants can make decisions, experiment and establish an identity. Such a space can be physical, organizational, financial, institutional, intellectual, psychological or political. (Baser & Morgan, 2008:74).

3.5. Capacity development and its context

The literature reviewed clearly acknowledges the importance of the context in which capacity development takes place, as is frequently illustrated in the paragraphs above. Two different aspects of context are mentioned: characteristics of the change situation and the environment in which the change takes place.

First, characteristics of the change situation influence the effectiveness of capacity development approaches as illustrated in table 3.2. Planned and linear changes work best in stable situations and relatively small changes, while more complex situations and larger changers require more incremental or emergent strategies (Baser & Morgan, 2008). Therefore, profound understanding of the change context is of critical importance (Ashcroft & Rayner, 2011; De Grauwe, 2008).

The other aspect of context as mentioned in the literature reviewed classifies the environment on the continuum enabling / supportive versus hostile / constraining. Baser and Morgan (2008:49) state that "current thinking about capacity issues gives more attention to context, i.e. relating any interventions, internal or external, to the history, structure and pattern of the context. (...) would emphasize the complexity and the paradoxes of many context-actor relationships that do not do not conform to a linear pattern of cause and effect." Ashcroft and Rayner (2011:4) explicitly mention the strength of inhibiting factors for capacity development in higher education in Sub-

Saharan Africa such as "historical conflicts, a legacy of colonialism, trade and other imbalances with the rest of the world, cultural attitudes inimical to innovation, the challenges created by poor infrastructure and the history of authoritarianism and centralized control of many aspects of the economy and public sectors institutions." Other factors influencing capacity development are to be found in the cultural, political, demographic and economic context in Sub-Saharan Africa leading to a number of problematic issues in capacity development in higher education (Ashcroft and Rayner, 2011:17): autonomy and accountability, ethical issues, sustainability, managing people and promoting an enabling culture, dilemma's relating to inputs, processes and outputs, stakeholder perspectives, access and equality and HIV/AIDS challenges

Furthermore, it should be noted that in development studies the capacity development studied takes place in a context in which donors and clients can be explicitly recognized as actors having a relationship. Of course, the availability of donor funding creates additional opportunities for capacity development, but on the other hand it may that it contributes to the complexity of the development situation, specifically regarding the accountability of the client organization towards the donor. Also, Ashcroft and Rayner (2011) refer to many critiques of the development process, suggesting that interventions might be more based on self-interest of donors and development workers than on the real needs of those receiving the aid. The next paragraph on monitoring and evaluation shows some of these complexities.

3.6. Monitoring and evaluation

Capacity is a complex, abstract, multi-layered and multi-faceted construct. Also, capacity development processes are complex processes with a large variety of characteristics. No wonder, monitoring and evaluation in capacity development is a complex issue. This paragraph describes the most common and frequently mentioned issues as encountered in the literature on capacity development. James (2009) summarizes these issues in two fundamental questions: 'who is it for' and 'how should it be done'. Despite all the issues surrounding monitoring and evaluation, Sinister and Smith (2010:6) state: "Good monitoring and evaluation is dependent on good planning. In turn, good planning may depend on a clear vision of what an organization is trying to achieve. If organizations lack adequate theories outlining why capacity building is carried out, and what the eventual results might in in terms of both organizational and societal change, it is not surprising that so many struggle to effectively monitor and evaluate capacity development and capacity building work."

3.6.1. Monitoring and evaluation for whom and for what?

From the development studies perspective on capacity development parties monitoring and evaluation is or should be relevant both for donors and for beneficiary organizations. For donors, the accountability function of

monitoring and evaluation is important to be accountable to governments, politics and the public in the donor country. Watson (2010:245) calls this exogenous accountability and states: "There is evidence that donors face accountability pressures from their domestic 'constituencies' (ministers, parliaments, audit bodies, press and indeed public opinion). They must accordingly demonstrate 'results' from development programs they fund." On the other hand endogenous accountability refers to accountability of organizations to "their own clients, local politicians, members or users of its services. This might be called 'endogenous' accountability."

Furthermore, two functions of monitoring and evaluation can be distinguished. The first is related to accountability to external parties as mentioned above. A second function of monitoring and evaluation relates to organizational learning. Ortiz and Taylor (2009:12) emphasize the complex and rich nature of capacity and capacity development and state: "Monitoring and evaluation are fundamentally about measurement, which we look to in order to help decipher this complex puzzle of capacity development. What needs to be defined in order to improve capacity development design, implementation, learning, performance and impact is when, what and how to measure. What can or should monitoring and evaluation contribute to ensure capacity development is understood better and more effective? For monitoring and evaluation to be useful for capacity development, it has to tell us something about what works, what doesn't and why that matters." However, James (2009:4) warns for being too optimistic in looking for evidence of capacity building efforts. "We need to appreciate the complexity of organizational change. This helps us to be more circumspect (even humble) about the part that capacity building plays in it. Rather than accept donor requests to provide evidence that 'attributes' change to capacity building inputs, we must be clear that the best we can provide is evidence of a 'plausible association'. We can only provide evidence of contribution, not attribution."

Ideally, systems for monitoring and evaluation are able to fulfil both requirements for learning and for accountability, both exogenous and endogenous. This requires careful balancing between accountability and learning; whereby to much monitoring from an accountability perspective inhibits organizational learning (Ramboll, 2012:ii).

3.6.2. Monitoring and evaluation: how should it be done?

Systems for monitoring and evaluation can differ on several aspects. Review of the literature shows the following aspects (ECDPM, 2008; James, 2009; Sinister & Smith, 2010).

- Systems differ in balance between learning and endogenous and exogenous accountability objectives as described above.
- Systems for monitoring and evaluation can be simple or complex. Complex systems might contribute to a better understanding, but might on the other hand be harmful or unworkable. A simple pragmatic system has a higher chance of being implemented.

- Capacity, performance and results are connected in a 'ripple model' as described before. Measurements for monitoring and evaluation can focus on improvements in capacity, and / or performance and results. Furthermore, measurement can also be done at the level of capacity development efforts. Watson (2006:15) found that in the literature only very few examples of capacity monitoring could be found. Monitoring of performance seems to be adopted as a way of formulating conclusions on capacity developed.
- Measuring change can make use of quantitative and / or qualitative indicators for measuring the intended variables.
- Standard tools for organizational assessment or tailored facilitation can be used.
- Monitoring and evaluation can be based on self-assessment, peer-assessment, external assessment or a combination.
- Gathering data for monitoring and evaluation can be based on participatory approaches (including self-assessment) and / or on more formal and independent assessments against recognised standards.
- Monitoring and evaluation can aim at tangible outputs and outcomes and / or on less tangible aspects of system change.
- Also, it can aim at short-term and / or long-term results.
- Perspectives on change can differ from different stakeholder perspectives; systems for monitoring and evaluation can use one or more stakeholder perspectives.
- And monitoring and evaluation can be limited to measurement, but can also or mainly use illustrations of changes.

3.6.3. Tools for monitoring and evaluation

Simister and Smith (2010) distinguish four groups of tools used for monitoring and evaluation in capacity development. Each group is described below. Ideally, monitoring and evaluation is done using triangulating methods combining several methods (Simister & Smith (2010:18).

Organizational assessment tools

Organizational assessment (OA) tools, also known as organizational capacity assessment tools (OCAT) are designed to assess capacity, and plan capacity development. They help organizations in identifying strengths and weaknesses used as input for development plans. OCAT's also can used to monitor capacity development; this requires repetition at discrete intervals (Simister & Smith, 2010:11). The value of OA tools depends for a great deal on how and why they are used (James, 2009:6; Simister & Smith, 2010:13). When used in a participatory and non-threatening manner, they can be very useful for example in helping organizations to develop its self-understanding. The biggest concern seems to be that they are inclined to encourage a blueprint approach for organizational development, not recognising contextual differences within organizations or their environment and

oversimplifying and standardising unique change processes. Most of the OCAT work in a similar way as illustrated in box 3.9.

Box 3.9 How organizational capacity assessment tools wor.? (derived from Simister & Smith, 2010:12)

Organizational Capacity Assessment Tools

STEP 1: Breaking capacity into manageable areas
- Capacity is divided into a number of discrete areas, e.g. internal management, relational management, ability to carry out functions, human resources etc.
- These areas are often further broken down into more detailed statements (sometimes called indicators) each addressing a different aspect of capacity.

STEP 2: Developing a ranking or rating system
- One option is to use a rating system with a sliding scale such as a scale of 1 tot 10.
- Another option is to use a set of pre-defined ranks or grades (e.g. "this area of work needs some improvement").
- Yet another possibility is the use of different pre-defined statements for ranking each indicator or area.

STEP 3: Develop a process for ranking or rating capacity
- There are many ways of doing this. It always concerns questions of who will be involved and which method will be used. E.g., organizations can attempt to reach consensus or can rate or rank themselves using a show of hands or majority voting or can use surveys.
- Where external stakeholders are involved, a key decision to make is whether the ranking or rating should be done exclusively by the organization (self-evaluation), or whether stakeholders also should have some input.

STEP 4: Analysing the results and taking action
- The value of many OA tools lies in the discussion and analysis itself, and they are considered worthwhile simply to help people critically analyse and reflect on internal capacity and developing an action plan to address weaknesses and / or build on strengths.
- In some cases an organizational assessment is repeated at regular intervals, and changes analysed to show what has changed, how and why.

Numerous different types of OCAT are available, designed for different situations and objectives (see e.g. annex 3 in Simister & Smith, 2010; CADRI, 2007). Some of these tools are closely related to capacity models as described previously in this chapter. The 5c-model recently has been used as OCAT for a diverse group of capacity development efforts (MFAN, 2011) and specifically for measuring impact of capacity development support in HE (Ramboll, 2012).

Planning tools

Planning tools relate to capacity development plans with time related objectives and indicators to show and monitor expected progress. These results-based management approaches are widely applied in international development cooperation (Baser & Morgan, 2008:91). They quote the Asian Development Bank: "Results-based management involves identifying the impact of an intervention, formulating its outcome, specifying inputs and outputs, identifying performance indicators, setting targets, monitoring and reporting results, evaluating results and using the information to improve performance." The logical framework planning matrix is a frequently used tool in this category (Sinister & Smith, 2010). Results-based management is most effective in circumstances "such as a relatively stable environment, a short-term horizon, clear boundaries in terms of time and resources, the absence of political conflict over means and ends, and technical and logistical objectives that could be specified

relatively easy." An alternative for the logical framework tool and results-based management, is outcome mapping, focussing on behavioural change exhibited by secondary beneficiaries (Sinister & Smith, 2010:15).

Stories of change

Stories of change are tools able to capture the richness and complexity of individual, organizational or societal change (Simister & Smith, 2010:16). Some of the methodologies used are the following: most significant change, random sampling and tracer study.

Other tools for monitoring and evaluation

The group other planning and evaluation tools includes tools not specifically designed with capacity development in mind. For example, individual and group interviews, focus group discussions, questionnaires and surveys, direct or participatory observation, use of scrapbooks or diaries to collect regular evidence of change and appreciative inquiry (Simister & Smith, 2010:17). Furthermore, measuring client satisfaction is one of the key principles of participatory monitoring and evaluation.

3.7. General principles guiding capacity development

Literature reviewed often contains a list of do's and don'ts in capacity development. Annex I shows an overview of some of these lists. Analyzing these lists suggests the following general principles on capacity development:

- Local ownership and local leadership
- Relate to national priorities and systems
- Role of external support is about facilitation, about identifying of and investing in local leadership
- Knowledge and profound understanding of local context
- No standard recipe exists for capacity development: adapt to local situation using open discussions
- Take a long term perspective, but don't forget short term action plans and interventions
- Take a comprehensive, system wide approach taking into account environment, organization and individuals
- Be prepared for changing needs and flexibility
- Mutual trust and relational approach
- Relevance of systems for monitoring and evaluation

3.8. Summary and conclusions

The literature on capacity development from a development studies perspective focuses on capacity development in general. However, assuming the content also applies to HEI, some conclusion seem reasonable.

First, the development studies perspective uses the ripple model to describe the relationship between capacity development support and results for society (see figure 3.1 for illustration). For HEI, the societal requirements for increased performance have been illustrated in chapter two of this paper. The ripple model or results chain indicates that increased performance of HEI requires increased capacity of HEI through a process of capacity development initiated by capacity development support. Capacity even could be perceived as a predictor for performance.

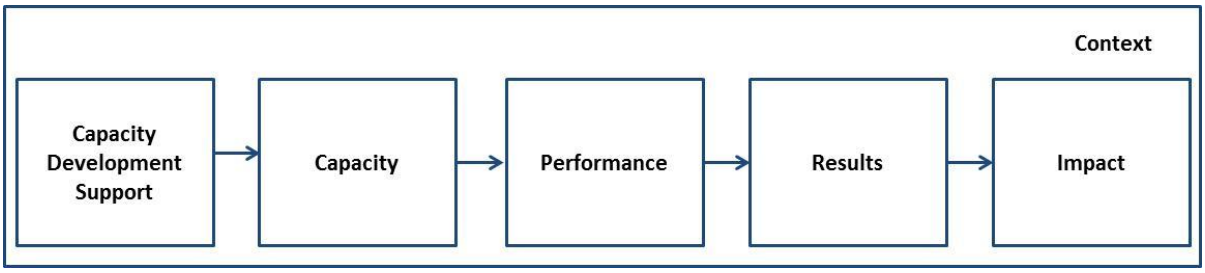

Figure 3.1. Ripple chain: from capacity development support to national results and impact

Second, from the contents of this chapter it can be concluded that capacity is an abstract construct to describe the organizations ability to perform. There is no general agreement on definition, content, underlying elements and how to assess or measure. However, it seems fair to conclude that capacity, also for HEI, relates to concepts as leadership, strategy, management, competences and organizational arrangements, flexibility, adaptability and external relationships. Dutch developmental support for capacity development in HE shows an increasing interest in the 5-c model indicating that capacity consists of five underlying capacities.

Third, capacity development in the development studies perspective mainly relates to exogenous capacity development relying on deliberate efforts to increase capacity via capacity development support activities. In undertaking capacity development two paradigms can be perceived, strongly related to perceptions or images of organizations as described in the next chapter. The reductionist perspective leads to strategies relying on linear planning of actions and results for increasing capacity in organizations perceived as machines. The systemic perspective on the other hand sees organizations as organisms and capacity development as more incremental and emergent: unforeseen factors and influences lead to adjustments of objectives and strategies or can lead to emergence of capacity not foreseen. Describing their experiences with HEI in Sub-Saharan Africa, Ashcroft and Rayner (2011) seem to refer to a more systemic perspective on HEI organizations and capacity development.

Fourth, monitoring and evaluation of capacity development is relevant both for external accountability and for organizational learning. Many options exist to monitor capacity development, partly reflecting the paradigms as mentioned above. Most widely used seem to be organizational assessment tools and planning tools.
Furthermore, in the design of capacity development strategies and in managing capacity development processes an thorough understanding of the context is of crucial importance. This reflects the systemic perspective on HEI as presented in previous chapters.

Capacity development from the development studies perspective has no sector specific focus; however it seems fair to conclude that the issues mentioned in this chapter also apply for capacity development in HEI. The next chapter explores the related concept organizational development from an organizational theory perspective.

4. THE ORGANIZATIONAL PERSPECTIVE ON DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE

4.1. Introduction

The second part of the literature review focuses on organizational development and change from organizational theory and organizational behavior perspective. Organizational theory encompasses aspects of organizations as design, structures, relationship of the organization with the external environment and management while organizational behavior focuses more on "the actions and interactions of individuals and groups in organizations" (Daft & Noe, 2001:4). No clear demarcation lines exist between these two domains and both are interdisciplinary approaches making use of disciplines as psychology, sociology, management theory and economics. Both also deal with aspects as decision making, leadership, individual behavior, teams, communication, power and politics, conflict management, organizational structure, job design, organizational culture and organizational change and development.

This chapter elaborates on organizational change and organizations as the context for change, on planned change approaches and strategies and on monitoring and evaluation. The capacity concept is not regularly used in organizational theory. Here, the strategic management literature was consulted. The chapter concludes with a number of conclusions relating the content of the chapter to capacity development in HEI.

4.2. Organizational change, organizational development and the change idea

Organizational change, organizational development and change management are related, but also distinct concepts. They have in common the idea of organizational change but differ in scope and approach.

Change idea

Organizations have to change to remain successful in changing environments. Triggers for change can lie in the external environment, like changes in the political, economic, technological or socio-cultural environment (Senior & Swailes, 2010) or like changing behaviors of suppliers, customers or competitors (Daft & Noe, 2001). Also internal triggers for change exist, specifically the power of big ideas (Senior & Swails, 2010). The change idea is a central concept in organizational change and organizational development. Change ideas are notions about required or intended outcomes of the change process. Change ideas can refer to a broad range of aspects and different authors use different labels to categorize change outcomes. Based on literature review and practical experience, Caluwé and Vermaak (2003,2006) categorize a large number and most frequently occurring change ideas in five (interrelated) groups:

- Products and services characteristics (e.g. productivity, quality, innovativeness, profitability),

- Characteristics of interaction (e.g. inspiration, openness, collective ambition, initiative, learning ability),
- Process characteristics (improvement of primary and / or secondary processess),
- People characteristics (e.g. knowledge, skills, empowerment) and
- Organizational and managerial characteristics (e.g. strategy, structure, systems, culture, leadership and management style). .

Other authors use a rather limited set of desired outcomes. Daft and Noe (2001) e.g. mention three types of planned change: strategy and structure change, culture change and changes in work processes and the work environment. The change idea is not necessarily fixed: desired outcomes can become more concrete during the change process or can be adjusted due to renewed insights gained while working on the change process. However, having some idea of desired outcomes at the start of the change process is necessary to guide the planning of the change process.

Organizational change and organizational development

Organizational change can be defined as "the adoption of a new idea or a new behavior by an organization (Daft & Noe, 2001:620). Organizational change is a broadly focused concept and applies to any kind of change, ranging from technical and managerial innovations to organization decline and from organizational strategic redirection to entering new markets. Organizational development is a specific form of organizational change. Cummings and Worley (2009:1) define organizational development as "a system-wide application and transfer of behavioral science knowledge to the planned development, improvement, and reinforcement of the strategies, structures, and processes that lead to organizational effectiveness." Some distinguishing characteristics of the organizational development approach to change are (Cummings & Worley, 2001:2; Senior & Swailes, 2010:316):

- Emphasis on goals and processes (including organizational learning) as a means of improving an organizations capacity to change,
- Dealing with change over medium to long term, that is, change needs to be sustainable and subsequently reinforced,
- Comprehensive perspective involving the organization as a whole as well as its parts,
- Participative nature, making use of theories and practices of behavioral sciences including concepts as leadership, group dynamics, work design, strategy, organization design and relations,
- Top management support and involvement,
- Involvement of a facilitator as change agent and
- Concentration on planned change, however not as a rigid blueprint for change but as an adaptive process of planning and implementation including flexibility and adjustment.

Both organizational change and organizational development "address the effective implementation of planned change. They are both concerned with the sequence of activities, processes and leadership issues that produce organization improvements. They differ, however, in their underlying value orientation. Organizational

development's behavioral foundation supports values of human potential, participation and development in addition to performance and competitive advantage. Change management focuses more narrowly on values of cost, quality and schedule. As a result, organizational development's distinguishing feature is it's concern with the transfer of knowledge and skill so that the system is more able to manage change in the future. In short, all organizational development involves change management, but change management may not involve organizational development." (Cummings & Worley, 2009:3).

4.3. Organizations

An organization is "a social entity that is goal directed and deliberately structured. To say that an organization is a social entity means it consists of two or more people. This entity is by definition goal directed, meaning people set it up to achieve a given outcome, such as making a profit, providing a service or meeting a public need. The organization is also deliberately structured; tasks are divided up among the members, with each member of the organization responsible for certain activities" (Daft & Noe, 2001:4). Organizational change takes place within organizations. Understanding organizations therefore is relevant for diagnosing change situations and for planning and managing change. This paragraph first describes organizational characteristics and processes, followed by a brief introduction of the systemic perspective on organizations. Organizations are abstract constructs. Metaphors of organizations and organizational typologies aim to improve understanding of organizations and their functioning. The third sub-paragraph illustrates organizational metaphors. The final part of the paragraph focuses on organizational typologies in general and of HEI specifically.

4.3.1. Organizational characteristics and processes

Organizational characteristics

With the objective of describing, discussing and understanding organizations, characteristics of organization can be identified such as:

- Organizational structure describing the horizontal and vertical division of labor, the departmentalization, the hierarchy and the centralization and decentralization.
- Organizational culture referring tot key values, assumptions, beliefs, understandings and norms that members of an organization share.
- The strategy of the organization that indicates the long-term objectives and goals of the organization and the plans to reach these objectives.
- Leadership within the organization: leadership behavior, formal and informal leadership roles.

- Staff: kind of work and job design (including tasks and responsibilities), required competences, human resources management, number of employees.
- Systems: policies, procedures, communication, supporting systems, planning and control, performance measurement.
- Environment and stakeholders: external forces influencing actions and performance of organizations.

These elements can be grouped into two main subsystems, the formal and the informal organizational subsystem (Senior & Swailes, 2010). The formal organization is the organization as it designed and meant to function, containing elements as structure, work division, reporting lines, strategy, products, finance, management, rules and procedures. The informal organization draws attention to other, more intangible elements of the organization as political behavior, patterns of communication, friendships, organizational culture, psychological needs, emotional feelings, perceptions, conflicts and informal leadership. The actual functioning of an organization is the result of the working of both subsystems and their interactions.

Specifically, the aspect organizational culture seems relevant from the change management perspective. Organizational culture is the context in which change takes place and can range from supportive to defensive. Also, organizational culture can be the object of organizational change. Knowing and understanding an organizational culture therefore is considered important in planning and managing changes (Eckel & Kezar, 2003; Senior & Swailes, 2010). Many models exist to describe organizational culture. Specifically for HEI Tierney (1988) proposes six dimensions to describe organizational culture as illustrated in table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Dimensions of higher education institutions organizational culture (Tierney, 1988)

Dimension	Indicators
Environment	How does the organization define its environment?
	What is the attitude towards the environment (Hostile? Friendly?)
Mission	How is it defined? How is it articulated?
	Is it used as a basis for decisions? How much agreement is there?
Socialization	How do new members become socialized?
	What do we need to know to survive / excell in this organization?
Information	What constitutes information? Who has it?
	How is it disseminated?
Strategy	How are decisions arrived at? Which strategy is used?
	Who makes decisions? What is the penalty for bad decisions?
Leadership	What does the organization expect from its leaders?
	Who are the leaders? Are there formal and informal leaders?

Organizational processes

Organizations are goal-oriented, meaning they have to perform activities to realize their goal. Organizational activities are performed in various organizational processes transforming inputs into outputs. There are three types of organizational processes (Hadjano & Bakker, 2006; Schieman, Huijgen & Gosselink, 2002):

- Primary processes, processes that constitute the core business and create the primary value stream; primary processes in HEI are teaching and learning, research and community service,

- Secondary or supporting processes, processes supporting primary processes, such as human resource management, financial management, students administration and facilities management and
- Managerial processes, the processes that govern the operation of a system; planning and control (including quality assurance), governance and organization and leadership and change.

4.3.2. Systemic perspective of organizations

As mentioned before, organizations are goal-directed. However, from a systemic perspective, organizations as social systems are not only goal-directed or purposive, but also purposeful. This means that "the parts of social systems – human beings – can generate their own purposes from inside the system, and these might not correspond at all to any purposes described by managers or outsiders. Social and organizational systems, therefore, have multiple purposes: they are purposeful" (Jackson, 2003:9). This complexity is clearly illustrated in the context of loosely coupled educational organizations by Karl Weick (1976) (see box 4.1).

Box 4.1 Educational organizations as loosely coupled systems (copied from Weick, 1976)

"Imagine you are either the referee, coach, player or spectator at an unconventional soccer match: the field for the game is round; there are several goals scattered haphazardly around the circular field; people can enter and leave the game whenever they want to; they can throw balls in whenever they want; they can say "that's my goal" whenever they want to, as many times as they want to, and for as many goals as they want to; the entire game takes place on a sloped field; and the game is played as if it makes sense.
If you substitute in the example above principles for referees, teachers for coaches, students for players, parents for spectators and schooling for soccer, you have an equally unconventional depiction of school organizations. The beauty of this depiction is that it captures a different set of realities within educational organizations than are caught when these same organizations are viewed though the tenets of bureaucratic theory."

In loosely coupled systems, the relationships between parts of the system and between parts of the system and (parts of) its environment are of a probabilistic nature. Connections between subsystems are infrequent, circumscribed, and weak in mutual effects, unimportant or slow to respond (Birnbaum, 1988; Weick, 1976). Loosely coupled systems can be seen as the extreme end of a continuum with on the other end tightly coupled, more predictable systems. "In general, loose coupling makes coordination of activities problematic and makes it difficult to use administrative processes to effect change" (Birnbaum, 1988:40). Caluwé and Vermaak (2006) refer in this aspect the ambiguity of organizations: ambiguous objectives, ambiguous work processes and ambiguous participation.

The systemic perspective also refuses the idea of organizational members as one single group. Instead, the concept of stakeholder is introduced, referring to "any group with an interest in what the system is doing" (Jackson, 2003:10). Also, people have different roles related to the organization (e.g. decision makers, owners, actors or clients) and based on their roles they can have different mental models of the organization they are related to.

4.3.3. Images of organizations

Using metaphors can help to understand different perspectives and get a better understanding of organizations. Morgan (2006) "has done some very interesting work on different images of organizations that have proved insightful to managers. He selects some familiar metaphors (e.g. organizations as machines), some newer ones (e.g. organizations as flux and transformation) and some that are challenging (e.g. organizations as psychic prisons) with which to explore issues of management. For each metaphor, Morgan describes the salient characteristics that allow us to gain a greater insight into organizations and their problems, and indicates also its limitations – for all metaphors are limited and offer ways of not seeing as well as ways of seeing" (Jackson, 2003:33). Table 4.2 describes Morgan´s organizational metaphors and the main characteristics of each metaphor. Different metaphors lead to different perspectives on planning and managing organizational change.

Table 4.2: Morgan metaphors of organizations (based on Morgan, 2006 and Jackson, 2003)

Organizational metaphor	Main characteristics
Machine	Organization as rational instrument designed to achieve purpose of owners and managers. Breaking down the work in parts, makes it able to govern by rules and hierarchy.
Organism	Organization consists of interrelated parts that function is such a way to ensure survival. Organizations are open systems responding to external changes.
Brain	Organizations as information processing and active learning brains.
Flux and transformation	Organizations as expressions of deeper processes of transformation and change.
Culture	Organizations as mini societies with their own values, beliefs, rituals and ideologies.
Political system	Organizations are political arena´s with competing interests, with conflicts, with power plays and political behavior
Psychic prison	Organizations hinder the free development of thinking by e.g. group think and limited perceptions.
Instrument of domination	Organizations as systems that exploit employees, the natural environment and global economy for their own ends.

4.3.4. Organizational typologies

Organizational typologies classify organization based on a number of interrelated organizational characteristics. One of the most widely used typologies is Mintzberg's (1983) typology describing five different organizational forms, each best suited for a specific situation (see table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Mintzberg's organizational types (based on Mintzberg, 1983)

Organizational type	Main characteristics
Simple structure	Young and small organization in a dynamic environment. Centralized decision making and organic structure with limited formalization and structuring. Flexible.
Machine bureaucracy	Usually large and old organizations in a stable environment. Large formal structure, including standardization of processes and job specialization, functional grouping, large operating units and vertical centralization with limited horizontal decentralization. Not flexible.
Professional bureaucracy	Organizations functioning in a stable environment with complex work executed by professionals. Horizontal job specialization and decentralization of decision making to professionals. Not innovative.
Divisionalized form	Large organization serving diversified markets. Divisions controlled by performance control system and with limited vertical decentralization. Works best with machine bureaucracy in the divisions.
Adhocracy	Organization functioning in a dynamic environment requiring highly educated staff. Organic structure, flexible, innovation oriented, relies on liaison devices.

Teaching, research and community service are considered as professional work. HEI therefore are assumed to show characteristics of the professional bureaucracy, one of them being the considerable control professionals have over their own work[7]. Regarding change in the professional bureaucracy, Mintzberg (1983:213) states: "Change in the professional bureaucracy does not sweep in from new administrators taking office to announce new reforms, nor from government technostructures intent on bringing the professionals under their control. Rather, change seeps in by the slow process of changing the professional – changing who can enter the profession, what they learn in its professional schools (norms as well as skills and knowledge), and thereafter how willing they are to upgrade their skills."

Specifically in the area of higher education institutions, organizational typologies have been described by Birnbaum (1988), Bergquist and Pawlak (2008) and McNay (1995), partly overlapping, partly additional to each other.

Birnbaum's models of HEI functioning

In his classical writing on academic organizations and leadership 'How colleges work', Birnbaum (1988) describes four models of college and university governance, organization and leadership. He presents his theory as a contingency theory, just like Mintzberg's typology, thereby indicating that not one best way of organizing exists. Instead, some ways of organizing are better than others, given specific characteristics of the colleges' environment and its technical system (Birnbaum, 1998:42). Some colleges are confronted with a rather stable environment that looks much the same year to year. Other colleges are confronted with a more turbulent environment in which constantly new and unexpected problems arise that have to be dealt with. Furthermore, technologies used by colleges can differ based on e.g. how institutions allocate the tasks of teaching, research and community service this leading to different levels of complexity, predictability and interdependence. Both environmental and technological characteristics influence the shape of organizations and its leadership leading to four different types of institutions: collegial, bureaucratic, political and anarchical.

Collegial intuitions usually are relatively small organizations with an emphasis on consensus and shared power. The community minimizes status inequalities, while faculty and administrators interact as equals. The collegial organization is characterized by a shared sense of leadership and values among a community of equals. Face to face contact in the collegial organization provides its members with opportunities to share culture and traditions that allow for the development of a coherent campus culture. A successful leader will conform to and model the values and expectations of the community at large and show a democratic leadership style. One drawback is the extended length of time it takes to make major decisions because this is generally done by consensus (Birnbaum, 1988).

A bureaucratic institution revolves around systems and processes put into place as a result of rational, analytical decision making. This culture places a great deal of emphasis on written job descriptions as opposed to the

[7] However, in case of greater external control, e.g. due to the history of authoritarianism and centralized control of public sector institutions in a number of Sub-Saharan African countries (Ashcroft & Rayner, 2011) professional organizations acquire more characteristics of a machine bureaucracy.

unwritten standards preferred in the collegial organization. A successful leader needs to fulfill the role of rational analyst and be able to design effective systems of control. The bureaucratic organization has been described as an organization where rationalizing structures and decision-making give a sense of stability. Bureaucratic organizations are generally rigid and unchanging. Most bureaucratic colleges and universities are public institutions, because they are embedded in bureaucratic systems of local and state government. Vertical lines connecting offices are readily apparent in the organizational charts depicting most bureaucratic colleges and universities. These depict a systematic division of labor, rights and responsibilities of those employed in the organization (Birnbaum, 1988).

Political institutions tend to be larger and decentralized. They are made up of smaller, heterogeneous groups that have different and often competing goals. Leaders from many groups are then in competition for the influence and resources they need and want in order to advance their group's agenda. A successful leader in a political organization focuses less on data and analytical reports and more on an informal and personal style of collecting information about each group's needs. It is vital for this leader to build relationships and connections with many different people of influence within the organization at large and act as a facilitator in clarifying group values and helping the community resolve issues within itself. In the political organization, power comes neither from norms nor rules, but is negotiated. A super coalition of sub coalitions with diverse interests, preferences and goals is in existence. Most individuals, in the political organization, are not concerned with most issues all of the time. Groups acquire, develop and use power to obtain their preferred outcomes. A large number of individuals or groups in the political organization operate autonomously, but are interdependent. Social exchange and mutual dependence is also a characteristic of the political organization in higher education (Birnbaum, 1988).

The anarchical institution questions all ideas of what an organization is. An anarchical institution consists of a group of autonomous individuals and lacks a broadly accepted organization goal that is leading for actions of organizations members. In fact, the direction of the organizations seems to be the result of choices made by individual members. Furthermore, participation in these organizations is often fluid. People who sit on a committee one year are likely to be replaced the next year by new players. Individual freedom is a dominant value in this organizational type. A successful leader in this type of organization must have the ability to speak to and relate to a wide variety of audiences, while projecting the image of a competent, reliable leader to each one (Birnbaum, 1988).

HEI cultural types: Bergquist and Pawlak

Orignially, Bergquist identified four higher education institution cultures, based on Tierney's six dimensions of organizational culture (as described previously in paragraph 4.3):

- The collegial culture bears resemblance to the collegial organizations type as described above. The collegial culture was mostly shaped by the British and especially the German model of configuration. This cultural orientation values scholarship and research, sometimes to the determent of teaching. It further emphasizes

rationality and the autonomy of one's work, as well as long term relationships, non hierarchical structures and informal relationships. The leadership of collegial universities is based on committee or group relationships with, as indicated before, an emphasis on research and scholarly work (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008).

- The managerial culture mostly emerged from the influence of Catholic colleges and community colleges in the United States. The emergence of the managerial culture was mainly due to the emphasis that was placed on management competence (like planning, goal setting, structuring, etc.) by the Catholic and community colleges. Community colleges also grew from the elementary and secondary school system and faculty members were mostly teachers, rather than scholars and academics. (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008).
- The developmental culture originated during the student movements of the United States of the 1960's. The developmental culture finds meaning in the programs and activities that further the growth of all members associated with the higher education fraternity. It values openness and service as well as institutional research and curricular planning culminating in the cognitive, affective and behavioral maturation of students, faculty administrators and staff. (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008).
- The advocacy culture had its inception in Northern American higher education institutions in the 1970's. This type of cultural orientation mainly emerged due to the inability of the managerial culture to meet the needs of faculty members and staff culminating in the increased unionization of universities. This included collective bargaining agreements about salary, job security and working conditions. It was further advocated that universities should consider economic accountability and civic responsibility in especially dealing with the resources allocated (like physical resources and funding) to them (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008).

Later, two additional cultural types were added due to developments in higher education institutions.

- The virtual culture is mostly a culmination of the increased accessibility to technology (like the internet) and restraints on the financial situations of many universities in the United States. The virtual culture is basically an open system and has no physical presence, structures or borders and involves mostly the internet and related technologies. This transcended into a virtual classroom situation in the form of on-line course work, internet based education and distance education. The virtual culture symbolizes the post-modern world, especially with the notion of knowledge and the ever-changing nature of knowledge. As the virtual culture support global access to a university it broadens student access and learning, setting it apart from the previous four cultural orientations (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008).
- The tangible culture typifies universities in the 21st century. It interesting enough incorporates the values of pre-modern universities This culture orientation is rooted in its community, with a spiritual grounding that is rather religious than secular. It further values face-to-face education at a specific locality and sees the value of traditional values being incorporated into the functioning of the university. It tends to be more parochial. The influence of this cultural type is evident due to a reemphasis on standards (quality) and the alignment of a university with a particular religious doctrine or set of values. This is evident in aspects like environmental preservation and holistic health (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008).

McNay: changing cultures in HEI

The evolvement of institutional cultures is also reflected in the perspective of McNay (1995). Taking as a starting point the classical collegial organization with "a relative lack of coordination, a relative absence of regulations, little linkages between the concerns of senior staff as managers and those involved in the key processes of teaching and learning, a lack of congruence between structure and activity, differences in methods, aims and even missions among different departments, little lateral interdependence among departments, infrequent inspection and the invisibility of much that happens" (McNay, 1995:105). This type of organization is characterized by loose definition of policy for the organization as a whole and loose control over activities and implementation. These two dimensions are the starting point for a model of four organizational types (see figure 4.X), all co-existing in universities but with different balances among them. Differences are due to e.g. mission, leadership, environmental characteristics and traditions. The collegium type of organization is comparable to the ones described above. In the bureaucracy regulation is important. This leading to consistency, equality and efficiency, but also to a lack of innovation. It is a model suited for stable environments without rapid changes. The corporation is characterized by a strong executive exercising authority, with the vice-chancellor as the chief executive. The model is also political: processes or bargaining and negotiation exist, with senior staff building alliances and influencing decision making. The risk in this model is a too large distinction between staff and managers, with too limited communications and mutual understanding. It is not a culture for continuity, but for crisis. Finally, it is in the enterprise organization characterized by professionalism, where the knowledge and skills of experts meet the needs and wishes of those seeking their service. A well defined policy framework exists guiding the decision making located close to the client so the benefit of the client can be the leading criterion in making decision. McNay (1995) expresses the belief the enterprise culture will develop further; already embryonic models exist in university companies and science / business parks.

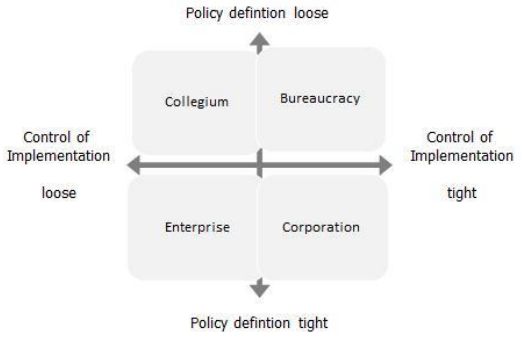

Figure 4.1 Models of universities as organizations (McNay, 1995).

4.4. Diagnosing the change situation characteristics and context

Planning and managing organizational change requires diagnosing the change situation. Organizational characteristics (as described in the previous paragraph) are one element of the change situation. Other elements are described in this paragraph: scope of the change, complexity of the change situation and external context of the change situation.

4.4.1. Scope of the change

Senior and Swailes (2010) refer to the four types of change situations as put forward by Dunphy and Stace (1993). In the first situation, called fine tuning, change is rather limited. In fact, organizational change is more like an ongoing process whereby the organization constantly adapts to relatively minor changes in the environment. These efforts typically occur at departmental level. The second type of change situation is characterized as incremental adjustment whereby the organization also adjusts to changes in the environment involving distinct modifications (but not to radical) to corporate strategies, structures and management processes. In the third situation, called modular transformation, the change is no longer incremental but transformational at a departmental or divisional level. Fourth, in the situation of corporate transformation, organizational change is corporation wide with radical shifts in business strategies and revolutionary changes throughout the whole organization. Similarly, Cummings and Worley (2001:25) indicate "planned change efforts can be characterized as falling along a continuum ranging from incremental changes that involve fine-tuning the organization to quantum changes that entail fundamentally altering how it operates. Incremental changes tend to involve limited dimensions and levels of the organization, such as the decision making processes of workgroups. They occur within the context of the organization's existing business strategy, structure and culture and are aimed at improving the status quo. Quantum changes, on the other hand, are directed at significantly altering how the organization operates. They tend to involve several organizational dimensions, including structure, culture, reward systems, information processes and work design. They also involve changing multiple levels of the organization, from top-level management through departments and work groups to individual jobs."

In the context of higher education, Eckel and Kezar (2003) introduce the concept transformational change to describe the magnitude or scope of the change. Transformational change in HEI is characterized by:

- Change aimed at changing institutional culture,
- Change affects the whole organization and is deep and pervasive,
- Change is intentional and
- Change occurs over time, it is evolutionary and not revolutionary.

To identify whether organizational change in HEI is transformational or not, both structural and cultural evidence is required. Structural markers of transformational change are e.g. changes to the curriculum, changes in pedagogies, changes in student learning and assessment practices, changes in policies, changes in budgets, new departments and institutional structures and new decision making structures. Cultural evidence of transformational change is reflected in changes in the ways groups or individuals interact with one another, changes in the language the campus used to talk about itself, changes in the types of conversation, old arguments abandoned and new relationships with stakeholders (Eckel & Kezar, 2003).

4.4.2. Complexity of change situation

Change situations not only differ in scope and magnitude of desired outcomes, but also in complexity. Paton and McCalman (2008) developed the TROPICS-test to diagnose the complexity of change situations taking into account the following characteristics:

- Timescales: clearly defined / short to medium term or ill defined / medium to long term
- Resources needed for the change: clearly identified and reasonably fixed or unclear and variable
- Objectives: objective and quantifiable or subjective and visionary
- Perceptions: shared by those affected or create conflict of interest
- Interest: limited and well-defined or widespread and ill-defined
- Control: within the managing group or shared with people outside the managing group
- Source: originates internally or originates externally

Based on this test, change situations can be located at a continuum with on the one end hard / mechanistic change situations and on the other end soft / complex change situations. Senior and Swailes (2010) refer to the Open University (1985) and Ackoff (1993) in labeling problems on a likewise spectrum ranging from 'difficulties' to 'messes' with characteristics comparable to the TROPICS-test.

From a systemic perspective problem contexts or problem situations can be described using two dimensions as illustrated in figure 4.2: complexity of the system and participants interested in the problem situation (Jackson, 2003:18). "The vertical axis expresses a continuum of system types conceptualized at one extreme as very simple, at the other extreme complex. Simple systems can be characterized as having a few subsystems that are involved in only a small number of highly structured interactions. They tend not to change much over time, being relatively unaffected by the independent actions of their parts or by environmental influences. Extremely complex systems, at the other hand of the spectrum, can be characterized as having a large number of subsystems that are involved in many more loosely structured interactions, the outcome of which is not pre-determined. Such systems adapt and evolve over time as they are affected by their own purposeful parts and by the turbulent environments in which they exist. The horizontal axis classifies the relationships that can exist between those concerned with the problem context – the participants – in three types: 'unitary', 'pluralist' and 'coercive'. Participants defined as

being in a unitary relationship have similar values, beliefs and interests. They share common purposes and are all involved, in one way or another, in decision-making about how to realize their agreed objectives. Those defined as being in a pluralist relationship differ in that, although their basic interests are compatible, they do not share the same values and beliefs. Space needs to be made available within which debate, disagreement, even conflict, can take place. If this is done, and all feel they have been involved in decision making, then accommodations and compromises can be found. Participants will come to agree, at least temporarily, on productive ways forward and will act accordingly. Those participants defined as being in coercive relationships have few interests in common and, if free to express them, would hold conflicting values and beliefs. Compromise is not possible and so no agreed objectives direct action. Decisions are taken on the basis of who has most power and various forms of coercion employed to ensure adherence to commands."

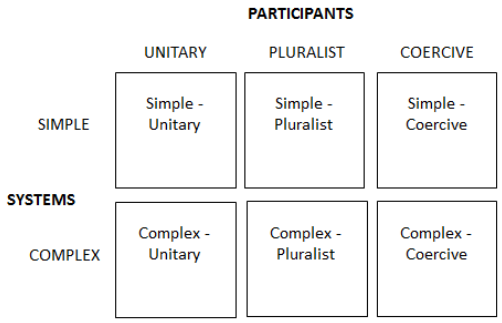

Figure 4.2 Systemic perspective on complexity of change situation (Jackson, 2003: XX)

4.4.3. External context of the change situation

Àlso characteristics of the external environment can influence the change process. Caluwé and Vermaak (2003,2006) indicate the importance of understanding the social, competitive and cultural environment in planning and managing change. Similarly, Cummings and Worley (2001,2009) identify two key elements influencing the success of OD practices: economic development and cultural context. It is assumed that "OD interventions need to be responsive to the cultural values and organizational customs of the home country if the changes are to produce the kinds of positive results shown in the United States" (Cummings & Worley, 2009:616). Also Senior and Swailes (2010) indicate that national culture influences organizational culture and management practices. National culture can be described using the Hofstede cultural values model (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkow, 2010) as illustrated in table 4.4. Unfortunately, little empirical evidence exists on how different approaches to change fit within national cultures.

Table 4.4: National cultural values (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkow, 2010)

Value	Description
Power distance	Extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. This represents inequality (more versus less), but defined from below, not from above.
Uncertainty avoidance	Refers to a society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity. It reflects the extent to which members of a society attempt to cope with anxiety by minimizing uncertainty. People in cultures with high uncertainty avoidance tend to be more emotional. They try to minimize the occurrence of unknown and unusual circumstances and to proceed with careful changes step by step by planning and by implementing rules, laws and regulations. In contrast, low uncertainty avoidance cultures accept and feel comfortable in unstructured situations or changeable environments and try to have as few rules as possible. People in these cultures tend to be more pragmatic, they are more tolerant of change.
Masculinity – femininity	Refers to the distribution of emotional roles between the genders. Masculine cultures value competitiveness, assertiveness, materialism, ambition and power, whereas feminine cultures place more value on relationships and quality of life. In masculine cultures, the differences between gender roles are more dramatic and less fluid than in feminine cultures where men and women have the same values emphasizing modesty and caring.
Individualism- collectivism	Degree to which individuals are integrated into groups. In individualist societies the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after him/herself and his/her immediate family. In collectivist societies people are from birth onwards integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, often extended families (with uncles, aunts and grandparents) which continue protecting them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty.
Long term – short term orientation	Describes societies' time horizon. Long term oriented societies attach more importance to the future. They foster pragmatic values oriented towards rewards, including persistence, saving and capacity for adaptation. In short term oriented societies, values promoted are related to the past and the present, including steadiness, respect for tradition, preservation of one's face, reciprocation and fulfilling social obligations.

Global social change

A country's level of industrial and economic development is another important factor affecting OD success internationally. Practice of traditional OD techniques seems to be most relevant in organizations in industrializing economies (e.g. South Africa, the Philippines, Brazil and China) and in industrial economies (e.g. Scandinavia, Japan, France and United States). OD in subsistence economies (like Pakistan, Nigeria, Uganda and Rwanda) focus on creating conditions for sustainable social and economic progress and are referred to as global social change (Cummings & Worley, 2009). Cummings and Worley (2009:639) indicate that the newest applications of OD in international settings are occurring in global social change organizations (GSCO's). "These organizations generally are not for profit and nongovernmental. They typically are created at the grassroots level to help communities and societies address such important problems as underemployment, race relations, sustainable development, homelessness, hunger, disease, and political instability. In international settings, GSCO's are heavily involved in the developing nations." GSCO's differ in from traditional for-profit firms on a number of dimensions: their mission advocates social change, the mission is supported by a network structure, GSCO's are driven by strong values that motivate organization behavior, and they interact with a many external and often conflicting institutions often leading to organizational conflict. Planned change in GSCO is aimed at increasing and developing the organizational capacity making use of a process of participatory action research in which the OD practitioner is heavily involved. Also, many stakeholders are encouraged and expected to participate and technologies of empowerment are used. Cummings and Worly (2009:641) indicate "planned change in GSCO's typically involves three types of activities:

building local organization effectiveness, creating bridges and linkages with other relevant organizations, and developing vertical linkages with policy makers."

4.5. Planned change approaches

This paragraph describes approaches to planned change. First, the hard systems and soft systems approach to planned change are explained. Also, the three approaches of Bennis are introduced. The paragraph ends with an explanation of five 'colored' approaches to organizational change.

4.5.1. Hard systems and soft systems methods of change

In the systemic thinking on organizational change, the hard systems approach can be distinguished from the soft systems approach.

Hard systems

Based on several authors (a.o. Paton & McCalman, 2008) Senior and Swailes (2010:286) describe the hard systems method of change (HSMC): "The HSMC is a method that has been developed for designing and managing change. Its roots lie in methods of analysis and change associated with systems engineering, operational research and project management, that is, where there is an emphasis on means and ends – in other words, on the means with which particular set goals are to be achieved. HSMC is especially useful when dealing with situations that lie towards the 'hard' end of the hard – soft continuum of change situations. It provides a rigorous and systemic way of determining objectives (or goals) for change; this is followed by the generation of a range of options for action; the last step is testing those options against a set of explicit criteria. (...) The process can be thought of as falling into three overlapping phases. The description phase (describing and diagnosing the situation, understanding what is involved, setting the objectives for change), the options phase (generating options for change, selecting the most appropriate option, thinking about what might be done) and the implementation phase (putting feasible plans into action and monitoring the results)." Senior and Swailes (2010:308) conclude that the HSMC "provides a practical approach designed to be applied to situations of low to medium complexity (difficulties). It is particularly useful when an area of the organization may need to be changed but may not infringe on other areas and when choices based on rational decision making can be made."

Soft systems approach

Not all change situations allow for a HSMC approach. Cummings and Worley (2001:28) refer to critics that have argued that this view of change as a rationally controlled and orderly process is misleading. Often, planned change is characterized by e.g. shifting goals, discontinuous activities, surprising events and unexpected effects and

combinations of changes. Conceptions of change need to capture these realities. From a systemic perspective different forms of systems thinking try to cope with these complexities as illustrated in figure 4.2. System dynamics, organizational cybernetics and complexity theory are systems approaches taking into account the nature of complex adaptive systems (vertical axis in figure 4.2). These approaches are concerned with ensuring how systems are designed to have a capacity for goal seeking and remaining viable in turbulent environments (Jackson, 2003:21). Also, along the horizontal axis of the figure progress has been made and has led to the development of soft systems thinking, dealing with pluralist contexts characterized by multiple values, beliefs and interests. "Instead, attention had to be given to ensuring sufficient accommodation between different and sometimes conflicting world views in order that temporarily coalitions could be fashioned in support of particular changes. (...) Systems models expressing different viewpoints, and making explicit their various implications, are constructed so that alternative perspectives can be explored systematically, compared and contrasted. The aim is to generate a systemic learning process in which the participants in the problem situation came to appreciate more fully alternative world views, and the possibilities for change they offer, and as a result an accommodation, however temporary, becomes possible between those who started with and may still hold divergent values and beliefs" (Jackson, 2003:22). Senior and Swailes (2010:314) argue that "most of the change models associated with 'soft' situations and systems (i.e. those characterized by soft complexity) imply a need for redesigning systems at many levels of the organization. These include issues associated with individuals and the groupings they form, as well as with organizational strategy structure and processes. This means not only an emphasis on the *content* and *control* of change (as the hard systems models of change dictate), but also an emphasis on the *process* by which change comes about. (...) The consequence of this are that designing change in messy situations must also include issues such as problem ownership, the role of communication and the participation and commitment of the people involved in the change process itself."

Organizational development as soft systems approach

The OD-approach, with its focus on people in organizations, can be characterized as a soft systems approach. Many OD models are used for phasing the planned change process. The unfreezing – changing – freezing model of Kurt Lewin (1951) is one of the oldest and frequently cited (see also box 4.2) and clearly reflects the behavioral aspects of OD.

Box 4.2: Kurt Lewin's model of planned change (derived from Daft & Noe, 2001:633).

Unfreezing – Changing – Freezing

Unfreezing
In the first stage, unfreezing, employees are made aware of the problems and the need for change. This stage creates the motivation for people to modify their attitudes and behavior. Unfreezing is often begun by providing employees with information that shows discrepancies between desired behaviors or performance and the current state of affairs.

Changing
The second state of Lewin's model, changing, shifts attitudes and behavior toward the new, desired state. This is the learning part of the change process and involves providing employees with new information, new models of behavior and new ways of thinking. This stage may involve a specific plan for training managers and employees in the new way of doing things. In addition, employees experiment with new ideas and behaviors and may modify them during the learning process.

Refreezing
During the refreezing stage change is stabilized. Employees integrate the new attitudes, skills and behaviors and are rewarded by the organization for doing so. The impact of new behaviors is evaluated and reinforced. Change managers may present analyses that show positive results of the change and top executives provide positive reinforcement to support new behaviors In addition, employees participate in refresher courses or additional training to maintain the desired skills and behaviors.

Figure 4.3 illustrates a more recent OD approach to organizational change (Senior & Swailes, 2010). The first phase of the process is about creating a shared perspective on the present and the future situation; two intertwined processes, with each process feeding the other until some idea about the desired future state is found. Participation of relevant stakeholders is relevant in this phase and even more in the second phase, gaining commitment to the vision and the need for change. It is in this phase where discussion, negotiation and active participations of those likely to be involved in the change, are needed. It is about 'listening' to the organization to avoid alienation and to deal with resistance. Gaining and maintaining commitment is also important in the next phases of the OD process.

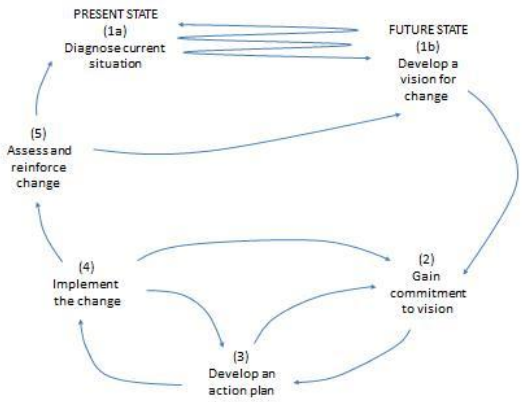

Figure 4.3: The OD model for change (Senior & Swailes, 2010:328)

4.5.2. Three strategies for planned change

Bennis et al. (1985) mention three main approaches for realizing change. First, in power-coercive approaches change is forced through from a position of power, either legitimate or not. Change is generally enforced top-down and it is assumed that presence of power and threat of sanctions are necessary to make change happen. The underlying perspective or metaphor is that of an organization as a political system. Second, empirical-rational approaches of change are based on the assumption that employees are rational human beings and think and act accordingly. Change is based on rational planning, objective information and experts' inputs. This approach clearly relates to the metaphor of organizations as machines. Finally, the third approach aims at supporting and stimulating people to generate change themselves. This so-called normative-reeducative approach is more a bottom-up approach and based on the assumption that people are intrinsically motivated and willing to learn comparable to the brain and organism metaphor of organizations.

4.5.3. 'Colored' approaches of change

Based on literature review (including the above mentioned strategies of Bennis et al.), Caluwé and Vermaak (2003,2006) list five ways of thinking about change. Each perspective differs in the assumption about why and how people and things change. This again leads to differences in e.g. interventions and steering in the planned change process. Each way of thinking is labeled with a color. The first perspective, yellow, is based on socio-political concepts of organizations in which power, interests and conflict are important concepts. In this perspective people will change if e.g. interests of important can be united or win-win situations can be created. Second, the blue-print thinking is based on the assumption of rationalism with project-based working as a clear-cut example. In this perspective, change occurs when goals are formulated on beforehand, when a clear plan exists to move from A to B and when these steps are monitored well and adjusted acoordingly. The red-print thinking clearly bears the human resources management perspective. It intends to change the soft aspects of the organization and has to do with the development of people to create optimal synergie between employees and organization. Fourth, the green color has its roots in action-learning theory and relies on thinking on 'learning organizations'. Therefore, in this perspective, change and learning are closely related. From the green perspective, change will occur when people become aware of new insights or own shortcomings, when they can be motivated to see new things and to learn and when a suitable (collective) learning situation can be created allowing peolple the ownership of the learning process. Finally, the white print thinking is based on theories perceiving organizations as living and complex systems, with limited predictability (e.g. complex adaptive systems). In this view, change is autonomous and will start from people's drives, desires and strength and can be increased if it adds meaning to what people are going through. Change management according to the white print is about diagnosing and understanding complexity and dynamics, giving free reign to people's energy, removing obstacles and making use of symbols and

rituals. However, it is recognized in this perspective, that outside influence can be of only limited effect. Besides the five colors based on literature review, Caluwé and Vermaak (2003) refer to other perspectives actually found in organiations and society. E.g. the steel-print of change relies on violence, repression, manipulation, threat and infusing hate and fear. Or the silver-print where change is in the circumstances like the wheather or the hand of God.

4.6. Planned change strategies

The change strategy describes the roadmap needed to realize the change idea taking into account characteristics of the change situation such as organizational characteristics, scope of the change, complexity of the change situation and external factors. Following Caluwé and Vermaak (2003), a planned change strategy is made up of three interrelated elements: actors, phases and communication.

4.6.1. Actors

The actor part of the change strategy identifies the necessary roles in a change process by distinguishing various actors, each with a different role. It is assumed to be a undisputed element of change processes. Several roles can be identified as described by Caluwé and Vermaak (2003:84)[8]. "Typically the change process starts when *initiators* have a change idea. They put the change idea on the agenda. Initiators look for *sponsors* who will use their formal and informal powers to help legitimize the intended change or at least ensure that it is tolerated. They will search for *orchestrators* (...). Orchestrators set up the change, stimulate its implementation, and monitor its progress (often all the way from start to finish). They share their responsibility at the earliest possible opportunity with *supporters*, and (...) with *champions*. The difference between these two roles lies in their degree of responsibility. Supporters have no formal responsibility and give their informal support (...). Conversely, a champion shares the formal responsibility for drawing up and coordinating the intervention plan. Together, they gradually involve a larger number of people in the change: *implementers* who realize (parts of) the interventions, and *change subjects* who realize the change on the shop floor (or just *change victims* who jut undergo these changes). Categorizing the roles in this way puts them into a certain sequence and illustrates that the number of people involved generally grows as the change processes."

[8] Italic by author of this document. Not in the original text.

4.6.2. Phases

A planned change process consists of several phases logically sequenced. Phasing the process improves the chance of a successful change. Previously, the model of Kurt Lewin and the OD model for change were mentioned. Here, the more general model as presented by Caluwé and Vermaak (2003, 2006) will be used. The model identifies four phases to plan and manage the change process: diagnosing, choosing a change approach, drawing up an intervention plan and implementing the intervention plan (eventually in subsequent sub-phases). Phasing is related to the actor element in such a way that in subsequent phases more actors and different actor roles become involved.

Diagnosing the situation

The first phase of the change process is concerned with finding out what is going on. Data gathering is an important activity in this phase and can take

- A research approach (objective perspective),
- An action approach (more subjective and participative, taking into account also subjective information and feelings) or
- A combined approach.

Typically, information is gathered on different levels: environment, organization, group and individual and taking into account business, organization and change aspects. A number of models are available to support this phase (see e.g. chapter 5 in Caluwé & Vermaak, 2003; chapters 5 and 6 in Cummings & Worley, 2009).

Analyzing the diagnostic data needs to focus on a number of subsequent questions. The first question deals with the outcome of the change or the change idea (as previously described). Second, the diagnosis should indicate what the present situation is (including organizational characteristics as culture and typologies as described and complexity of change situations). The third question deals with identifying the scope and the magnitude of the required change ranging from minor improvement to complete transformation (see paragraph 4.4 in this document). Fourth, the question has to be answered as to how the organization and its members are expected to react towards the proposed change. Is there resistance and opposition or motivation and energy? Knowing the resistance is crucial in designing a change strategy. Basic question five deals with change agents' characteristics; more specifically initiator and orchestrator characteristics and their assumptions about organizations and change. "Both players will be inclined to suggest change strategies that they have come to believe in and depend on, that will not create a role conflict between the both of them, or with the rest of the organization, and that they feel suits them" (Caluwé & Vermaak, 2003:129). Finally, it has to be assessed whether the change is really feasible.

Choosing a change approach

Choosing a change approach is about finding a central idea behind the intervention plan to be developed. The hard and soft systems approaches to organizational change as such can be perceived as change strategies. Here,

following the reasoning of Caluwé and Vermaak (2003), the color print thinking about organizational change is presented as a model to distinguish between different approaches to planned change. Workable strategies are to be based on the dominance of one leading color print approach, however these dominance may be limited in time (e.g. restricted to one phase) or in space (e.g. restricted to one part of the organization). Answers to the five basic questions strongly influence the choice of the dominant approach.

Developing an intervention plan and implementing interventions

"The change strategy is flashed out in an intervention plan, which can be defined as an integral, consistent, feasible and relevant plan for interventions in an organization aimed at the actual implementation of the intended outcomes of a change"(Caluwé & Vermaak, 2003:136). An intervention is "one or a series of planned change activities intended to help an organization increase its effectiveness" (Caluwé & Vermaak, 2003:141). Many interventions exist, differing in nature, type and scope. Interventions can be categorized using several dimensions. Color of the change strategy is one of these dimensions. Another dimension is the level the intervention focuses on: individual, group or the whole organization. Cummings and Worley (2009) furthermore classify interventions along organizational issues using five categories: human process issues, techno-structural issues, human resource issues, strategic issues and trans-organizational issues. Table 4.5 presents an overview of intervention in each of these categories.

Table 4.5: Types of interventions (Cummings & Worley, 2009)

Human process interventions	Interpersonal and group process approaches - Process consultation interventions - Third party interventions and conflict resolution interventions - Team building interventions Organization process approaches - Organization confrontation meeting - Intergroup relations interventions - Large group interventions
Techno-structural interventions	Restructuring organizations - Structural design - Downsizing - Re-engineering Employee involvement - Parallel structures - High involvement organization - Total quality management Work design - Motivational approach / job enrichment - Sociotechnical systems approach / self- managed work teams
Human resource management interventions	Performance management - Goal setting - Performance appraisal - Reward systems Developing talent - Coaching and mentoring - Career planning and development interventions - Management and leadership development interventions Managing workforce diversity and wellness - Workforce diversity interventions - Employee stress and wellness interventions

Strategic change interventions	Transformational change - Integrated strategic change - Organizational design - Culture change Continuous change - Self-designing organization - Learning organization - Built-to-change organization
Trans-organizational change	Mergers and acquisitions Strategic alliance interventions Network interventions

It can be noted that the scope and level of detail of interventions varies greatly whereby 'larger, higher level, macro' interventions are made up of a number of (multi-layered) 'smaller' or 'lower level' or 'micro' interventions ('interventions within interventions'). Also, an intervention plan can vary considerable in size and in scope, depending on characteristics of the change situation. Furthermore, it may be expected that intervention plans change during implementation based on actual experiences of the change agents and results of the change process.

4.6.3. Communication and sense-making

Communication and sense-making need to be an integral part of the intervention plan and should be managed even before the intervention plan is created. Two kinds of communication and sense-making exist. Communication *about* the change process aims at increasing peoples understanding of the process and their new roles and behavior, at managing positive and negative expectations and at addressing resistance and increasing commitment (Caluwé & Vermaak, 2003). Communication *within* the change process is about creating a new reality that then expresses itself in new ways of thinking and new behavior of organizational members. Communication within the change process is about sense-making and contributes to the effectiveness of the change process. It is about leadership influencing people's mindsets and ideas. Ford and Ford (1995) distinguish four types of conversations. Initiative conversations focus people's attention on problematic situations calling for action. These are followed by conversations for understanding used for exchange of arguments, ideas and information. Choices are explained and discussed. Conversations for performance initiate concrete action and are about results tasks and time limits. Finally, conversations for closure mark the end of the change process. Communication activities, both about and within the change process, are partly phase linked. In the beginning of the change process demonstrating urgency, soap box speeches, organizing participation, disseminating information, using slogans and a ritual kick-off are feasible. Later on, activities as e.g. newsletters, open door policy for consultation, looking elsewhere, introducing new ways of thinking and pointing out typical examples can support the change process (Caluwé & Vermaak, 2003). Box 4.3 describes the results of a study on transformational change in higher education institutions illustrating the importance of communication and sensemaking as part of the change process. Also, research into success factors of world class universities (e.g. Salmi, 2011b) suggests the importance of inspiring and persistent

leaders and a strong strategic vision of where the institution is going. Salmi (2011a:333) quotes a Hong Kong university president about the qualities and motivation of his academic staff members, "they had talent, they had ability, but in the end what brought them here was their hearts."

Box 4.3 Transformation in higher education institutions

Eckel and Kezar (2003) studied successful transformational organizational change at higher education institutions in the United States. Transformational change is distinguished from other kinds of change processes and characterized as affecting institutional cultures, as deep and pervasive, as intentional and as occurring over time. It is a particular kind of change and its implementation is associated with a unique cluster of activities. The study indicated five main activities or interventions contributing to successful change: senior administrative support, collaborative leadership, flexible vision, staff development and visible action. Furthermore, fifteen secondary interventions were identified supporting the main interventions: putting issues in a broader context, setting expectations and holding people accountable, persuasive and effective communication, invited participation, opportunities to influence results, new interactions, changes in administrative and governance processes, moderated momentum, supportive structures, financial resources, incentives, connections and synergy, external factors, outside perspectives and long term orientations. Both primary and secondary interventions are used in different combinations, whereby some combinations seem more logical than others and whereby alignment with specific cultural characteristics of the institution is of significant importance. The study suggests that transformational organizational change in higher education institutions is about construction of new meanings, about organizational sensemaking. It is a process that is difficult, complex and messy and not linear and straightforward. It is a process comprised of activities that are interconnected and occur simultaneously. Based on the findings it is suggested to prepare transformational change by following a few initial steps: "1) ask a set of key questions, 2) create a collaborative process, possibly through campus reading groups, 3) develop strategies for understanding campus culture and 4) provide criteria and a process for charting transformation" (Eckel & Kezar, 2003:165).

4.6.4. 'Colors of change'

Different perspectives on organizations and organizational change are used by change agents to design change strategies. Table 4.5 summarizes the five strategies of color thinking og organizational change.

Table 4.5: Five colors at a glance (based on Caluwé and Vermaak; 2003,2006)

	Yellow	Blue	Red	Green	White
Something changes when you ...	Bring common interest together	Think first and than act according to a plan	Stimulate people in the right way	Create settings for collective learning	Create space for spontaneous evolution
In a/an ...	Power game	Rational process	Exchange exercise	Learning process	Dynamic process
And create ...	A feasible solution, a win-win situation	The best solution, a brave new world	A motivating solution, the best fit	A solution that people develop themselves	A solution that releases energy
Interventions sucs as...	Forming coalitions, changing top structures, policy making	Project management, strategic analysis, auditing	Assessment and reward, social gatherings, situational leadership	Training and coacing, open systems planning, gaming	Open space meetings, self-steering teams, appreciative inquiry
By ...	Facilitators who use their own power base	Experts in the field	Procedure experts who elicit involvement	Facilitators who create settings for learning	Personalities who use their being as instrument
Who have ...	A good sense for power balances and mediation	Analytical and planning skills	HRM knowledge and motivational skills	OD knowledge and feedback skills	An ability to discern and create new meanings
And focus on...	Positions and context	Knowledge and results	Procedures and working climate	The setting and communication	Patterns and responses
Result is ...	Partly unknown and shifting	Described and guaranteed	Outlined but not guranteed	Envisioned but not guaranteed	Unpredictable at a practical level
Safeguarded by ...	Decision documents and power balances	Benchmarking and ISO-systems	HRM-systems	A learning organization	Self-management
The pitfalls lie in ...	Dreaming and losoe-loose	Ignoring external and irrational aspects	Ignoring power and smothering brilliance	Excluding no-one and lack of action	Superficial understanding and laissez-faire

4.7. Monitoring and evaluation

Cummings and Worley (2001:122) use a monitoring and evaluation approach that combines during-implementation monitoring (whether interventions are actually being implemented) and after-implementation evaluation (whether they are producing expected results). The monitoring and evaluation system in use should therefore provide both implementation and evaluation feedback that relate to different phases in the planned change process. Implementation feedback consists of measures of features of the intervention and serves as feedback-input during the implementation phase of the process. These data are collected repeatedly and at short intervals and as such provide, in a cyclical way, a series of snapshots about how the intervention is processing. Evaluation feedback provides measures of long-term effects and only takes place after intervention is sufficiently in place. Evaluation feedback is concerned with the overall impact of the intervention and typically includes a broad array of outcome measures such as performance, job satisfaction, absenteeism and turnover. This feedback points to the diagnoses as starting point of the change process.

Caluwé and Vermaak (2006:132) see monitoring and evaluation as an inseparable part of a larger planning and control cycle consisting of four steps: implementation (of next phase), measure progress and outcomes, evaluate progress and outcomes and (re)plan the implementation process. This cycle can be used at several layers of interventions (as mentioned in paragraph XX). They advice to design in advance this cycle, whereby the monitoring part should provide answers to the following questions:

- What is used as indicator for progress?
- How is it measured and by whom?
- What is the frequency and timing of measurement?
- How is agreement obtained on the (interpretation of the) measurements?

Monitoring and evaluation systems in their perspectives can take several forms related to different 'colors' or different forms of systems thinking. A hard-systems, rational, blue approach focuses on control by using objective measurements, involves a client – contractor relationship, uses predefined measures and norms and preferably (external) benchmarks. A more soft-systems, white approach focuses on learning and is characterized by subjective measurements done by participants themselves, making use of subjective criteria.

The literature reviewed on organizational change only presents very limited information on monitoring and evaluation of organizational change and development. Cummings and Worley (2009:42) state: "The relationship between planned change and organizational effectiveness and performance is not well understood. OD traditionally has had problems assessing whether interventions are producing observed results. The complexity of the change situation, the lack of sophisticated analyses, and the long time periods for producing results all have contributed to weak evaluation of OD efforts. Moreover, managers often have accounted for OD efforts with post hoc testimonials, reports of possible future benefits and calls to support OD as the right thing to do. In the absence

of rigorous assessment and measurement, it is difficult to make resource allocation decisions about change programs and to know which interventions are most effective in certain situations." Richter (2010) refers to Bradford and Burke (2005) in mentioning the relationship between OD interventions and effectiveness as a critical question for the OD field. OD practitioners need to be more rigorous in evaluating change processes and their outcomes.

4.8. Organizational capacity

The capacity concept is almost absent in the organizational development and change literature consulted. However, the concepts capacity and capabilities have a central role in part of the literature on strategic management. The central question in the field of strategic management is how firms achieve and sustain competitive advantage. Within strategic management, the resource based perspective assumes the firms' internal resources are helpful in explaining firms' performance (e.g. Bhatt, 2000; Teece, Shipano & Shuen, 1997). Diffenent authors use slightly different concepts and definitions; here, the ideas of Helfat and Peteraf (2003:999) will be used. "The resource based view not only extends to assets of an organization, but also to its capabilities. (...), we define organizational resources and capabilities as follows. A resource or asset refers to an asset or input to production (tangible or intangible) that an organization owns, controls, or has access to on a semi-permanent basis. An organizational capability refers to the ability of an organization to perform a coordinated set of tasks, utilizing organizational resources, for the purpose of achieving a particular end result. Both assets and capabilities may evolve and change over time in important ways. (...) We also classify capabilities as either operational or dynamic, (...). An operational capability generally involves performing an activity, such as manufacturing a particular product, using a collection of routines to execute and coordinate the variety of tasks required to perform the activity. Dynamic capabilities (as defined by Teece *et al.* (1997), do not involve production of a good or provision of a marketable service. Instead, dynamic capabilities build, integrate, or reconfigure operational capabilities. Dynamic capabilities do not directly affect output for the firm in which they reside, but indirectly contribute to the output of the firm through an impact on operational capabilities." Dynamic capabilities than can be subject of managerial strategies, aimed at developing new capabilities or strengthening existing capabilities to gain competitive advantage. Issues as skill acquisition, the management of know-how and learning become fundamental strategic issues (Teece et al., 1997).

Although the resource based perspective on strategic management origins from business environments with a strong focus on competition and competitive advantage, it has recently gained attention for use in the public sector. Casebeer, Reay, Dewald and Pablo (2010) state: "Strategic approaches based on dynamic capabilities are grounded in a resource based view of the firm, and seem to be particularly relevant for the public sector because they focus on internal resources rather than competitive market behavior. From this perspective, strategy is about using available resources in a way that improves organizational performance, however defined, in the face of

rapidly changing environments. But even though strategic approaches based on the use of internal resources (especially dynamic capabilities) hold potential for the public sector, there has been little attention to this issue in the literature to date. There is little information about how public sector organizations attempt to use their internal resources to improve organizational performance. Similarly, other than our previous study (Pablo et al., 2007), there has been no research that we know of regarding how an organization identifies appropriate dynamic capabilities and makes them part of a strategic approach."

In the area of higher education Toma (2010) introduces and illustrate a different strategic management approach for building organizational capacity in HEI. He defines organizational capacity is defined as the administrative foundation, essential for establishing and sustaining initiatives to realize the institutional vision (Huisman, 2011). Toma's framework for organizational capacity is rooted in the systems thinking approach to management and is made up of eight elements: culture, structure, governance, purposes, infrastructure, policies, information and processes. Purposes, encompassing the mission and the institution's aspirations have a central place in the framework, because this element is the starting-point for any consideration of a strategic change management project is the institution's ambitions. The eight elements of the framework need to be in place and balanced to realize and sustain ambitions.

It is expected that the concepts capacity and capability as found in the strategic management literature could very well be part of the change idea as described in the organizational development and change literature.

4.9. Organizational capacity assessment

The literature reviewed on organizational change and development is rather limited in discussing and using integral organizational capacity assessment. Where it is presented if focuses on using models for the diagnostic phase. Caluwé and Vermaak (2006) mention for diagnosis on the organizational level the following models: balanced scorecard, portfolio analysis, activity based costing, cultural types, Mintzberg's structural types, organizational iceberg, organizational clock (comparable to Greiner's model of organizational growth), adaption of new idea's (early adapters etc.) and two change forces. Cummings and Worley (2009) present an integral diagnosis model for measuring the fit between input, design components and outputs at three levels: organizational, group and individual level (without any specific reference to organizational capacity assessment).

From a performance management perspective organizational (capacity) assessment is used to learn about differences in organizational performance (e.g. de Waal, 2011, 2012). Specifically in the area of HEI, Cameron (1978) developed an assessment tool for organizational effectiveness made up of nine dimensions: student educational satisfaction, student academic development, student career development, student personal development, faculty and administrator employment satisfaction, professional development and quality of the faculty, system openness and community interaction, ability to acquire resources and organizational health (including benevolence, vitality and viability in the internal processes and practices in the institutions).

Furthermore, the growing interest in quality assurance in higher education has led to the use of quality management models to assess organizations. For example, the model of the European Foundation of Quality Management (Bisschop Boele, Burgler & Kuiper, 2008) provides a tool to assess organization inputs (leadership, strategy, resources, personnel and processes) and outputs (stakeholders satisfaction an overall performance). The same goes for the Baldrigde model (e.g. Badri *et al.,* 2006) assessing on the organizational side: leadership, strategic planning, faculty and staff focus, student, stakeholder and market focus, process management, measurement, analysis and knowledge management.

4.10. Summary and conclusion

The literature reviewed has a strong focus on the western, developed world and only limited information is available on organizational change and development in emerging markets and the developing countries in general and HEI specifically. However, based on the literature reviewed, it seems fair to summarize and conclude on capacity development in HEI.

The first conclusion refers to characteristics of HEI as professional organizations. Compared to the working force in many other organizations, professionals have a relatively high level of autonomy and are better educated, making them 'less manageable'. Organizational change in HEI doesn't seem feasible without change in professionals' behavior and attitudes.

Second, planned organizational change and development is a phased process, starting with diagnosing the organization and developing the change idea. After that, one chooses a change approach and designs and implements the intervention plan. Monitoring and evaluation systems are designed to monitor the progress of the change process and the outcomes of the change process.

Third, based on images and perspectives of organizations, different change approaches can be identified.

Fourth, there is not one standard best way to approach organizational development and change. HEI characteristics in general and specifically its culture, magnitude of the change, complexity of the change situation and characteristics of actors in the change process all should be taken into account when crafting a change strategy. This should be done in the diagnostic phase of the change process.

Fifth, the change idea and intervention plans are not fixed. They may become more concrete and be adjusted based on renewed insights gained during the change process. There should be room for flexibility and learning. Probably, this is more relevant for large change situations with a high level of complexity, than for small, simple and more predictable change situations

Sixth, communication and sense-making should be an integrated part of the intervention plan. This is relevant for all organizations, but probably even more for HEI because of the specific position and role of professionals.

Communication and sense-making refer to the leadership role in organizations aimed at creating and discussing visions of the future.

The last conclusion refers to the capacity and capability concepts. These are not regularly used in the change management literature. It could be valuable to make them part of the change idea and have some strategic thinking on capabilities as linking concept between performance required from HEI and organizational characteristics.

In general, figure 4.4 illustrates the relationship between concepts as deducted from the organization theory literature.

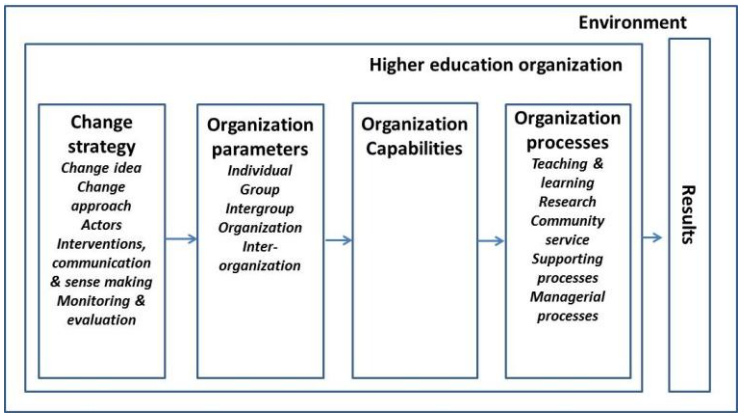

Fig 4.4: Relationship between main concepts

5. CONCLUSIONS AND INTEGRATION

5.1. Introduction

In previous chapters capacity and organizational development, in general and for HEI specifically, have been described from the development studies perspective and organizational theory perspective. This chapter confronts and integrates the findings of the two previous chapters. The confrontation, in the next paragraph, describes the similarities and differences of both perspectives. Then, an integrated framework is presented indicating concepts and relationships relevant for organizational capacity development. The chapter ends with options for future research.

5.2. Confronting the two perspectives on organizational capacity development

This paragraph presents the most striking similarities and differences resulting from analyzing the development studies perspective on capacity development and the organizational theory perspective on organizational development and change.

5.2.1. Similarities

A number of similarities between both perspectives have been found. First, both perspectives focus on effectiveness of processes aimed at enhancing organizational capacity and / or performance. In both perspectives, one of the central questions is about what works in what situation and what doesn't work. Second, different approaches to organizational capacity development can be identified within both perspectives. The reductionist approach as mentioned in the development studies perspectives bears resemblance to the hard systems approach as mentioned in the organizational theory perspective. Similarly, the systemic approach from development studies resembles the soft systems approach from organizational theory. Third, both perspectives accept a contingency idea indicating that no standard recipe exists for effective organizational capacity development. Effectiveness of approaches and strategies depends on characteristics of the organization and characteristics of the change situation such as scope and complexity of the change situation and environmental factors. In simple situations a more 'hard' approach of the change might probably work better while in complex situations a 'soft' approach is likely to be more effective. Fourth, realizing change requires some kind of strategic thinking about the change process including vision of the future, the change idea and how to arrive at the needed change. Finally, in both perspectives the development process is subdivided in phases to facilitate management of the change process.

5.2.2. Differences

Nest to the overlap, also differences between the two perspectives are identified. First, theories and research from the development studies perspective focus on change processes in developing countries, while the organizational theory literature (including the organizational theory HEI literature) has its roots in the developed (Anglo-Saxon) (business) world. Second, typically the change situations studied from the development studies perspective, include a donor-client relationship in which the donor provides funding and / or knowledge supporting (part of) the development process and creating some kind of shared, mixed or divided ownership between two (or more) organizations. In most cases, also public accountability of donor-funding is relevant and subject to political motives. Ownership in organizational development is less confusing: it remains within one organization and public accountability to stakeholders is more about the overall performance of the organization that about the change processes; usually, they remain 'within' the organization. Third, monitoring and evaluation has received much more attention in development studies than in organizational theory. It is assumed that this relates to the existence of the donor-client relationship in development projects and the resulting public accountability of donor organizations. Fourth, while the capacity concept is central to development studies the concept does not show up in organizational development studies. Finally, organizational development seems to accept more the possibility of adjusting the change strategy during the change process leaving room for learning experiences and flexibility. However, from a development studies perspective the incremental approach seems to indicate that this is changing.

5.2.3. Conclusion

In line with previous writing (Cummings & Worley, 2009; Richter, 2010) it is concluded that both perspectives seem mutually reinforcing. Many similarities are shared between both perspectives and the differences suggest options for improvements of both perspectives in such a way that one perspective can learn from the other perspective and vice versa. It may even be concluded that both perspectives can be integrated to one perspective encompassing elements from both perspectives.

It is also concluded that organizational capacity development in HEI is not conceptually different from organizational capacity development in general. HEI differ from other organizations and as such impact effectiveness of change processes, but concepts and relationships seem similar.

5.3. Integrating framework for analyzing capacity development

This paragraph presents a framework for analyzing organizational capacity development in HEI based on findings from both the development studies perspective and the organizational theory perspective. The framework is illustrated in figure 5.1. Since for many concepts no generally accepted definitions exist, concepts and relationships as meant in the framework are described below.

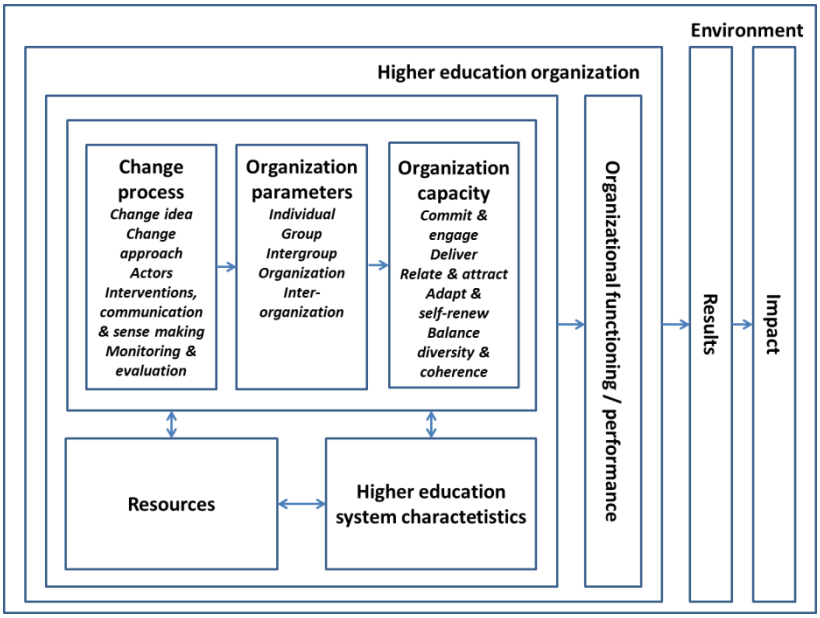

Fig 5.1: Integrating framework organizational capacity development in HEI

Results and impact

Results of HEI are described as the quantitative and qualitative output of HEI such as e.g. number of students, quality and relevance of education, research and community service. As indicated in chapter two, HEI in developing countries are expected to deliver education to a growing and diversified student body, to increase the labor market relevance of education and to increase the amount of relevant research. Impact then refers to the contribution of the HEI result to national socio-economic development.

Organizational functioning / performance

Organizational performance refers to processes taking place in HEI leading to results. Figure 5.2 illustrates primary (i.e. teaching and learning, research and community service), supporting and managerial processes and their

relations. Organizational performance is "capacity in motion" (Baser & Morgan, 2008:86). Organizational capacity is a prerequisite for organizational performance.

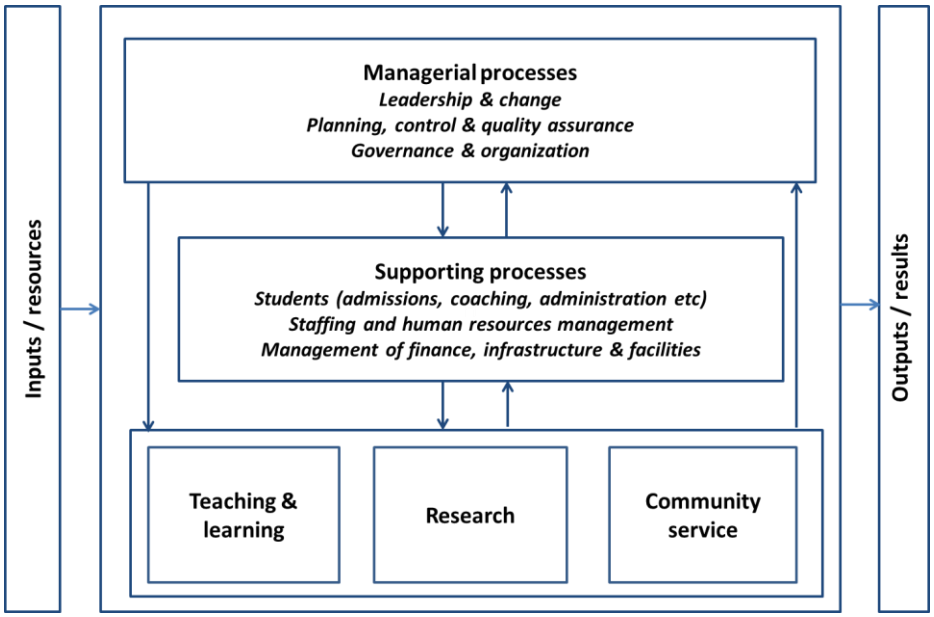

Fig 5.2: HEI processes

Organizational capacity

Organizational capacity is an organizational characteristic describing the ability to perform, to sustain and to adapt and self-renew. Capacity is an abstract, non-tangible concept. To operationalize it is broken down, following the 5c-model, into five capabilities. Organizational capacity is a result of the combination of all organizational parameters. Following the capacity development literature and the strategic management literature it seems relevant to include this concept in organizational capacity development.

Organizational parameters

Organizational parameters are organizational characteristics contributing to organizational capacity and performance. Parameters are identified at five levels:

- Individual: knowledge, motivation etc.,
- Group: cohesion, leadership, knowledge etc.,
- Intergroup: mutual understanding, cooperation, competition etc.,
- Organization: structure, culture, strategy etc. and
- Inter-organization: networks, alliances etc.

Some parameters (e.g. organizational structure, individual knowledge) are easier to change than other parameters (e.g. organizational culture, motivation).

Change process

The change process contributes to development of organizational parameters to enhance organizational capacity and organizational performance. It consists of:

- Intended outcomes of the change process in terms of results, performance and or capacity and a analysis of the scope and complexity of the change situation
- Change approach (e.g. more hard or soft)
- Actors involved in the change process
- Interventions chosen to realize the change idea including interventions aimed at communication and sense-making and
- Methods used for monitoring and evaluation.

HEI

The HEI is the context in which the change process takes place. HEI characteristics influence effectiveness of change strategies.

HE system characteristics

Following the systemic perspective on education, HEI results, performance, capacity and organizational characteristics are influenced by the national HEI system. Preferably, higher education systems have the following characteristics contributing to effective and efficient functioning (Worldbank, 2000; Ashcorft & Rayner, 2011):

- A stratified or diversified HE system consists of a range of different forms of institutions, each with its own specific contribution to the needs of the country and its related missions. “A mature system would be likely to have different institutions that each make special contributions to fulfilling some (but not all) of the following: national requirements for knowledge creation and transfer; the provision of each of full-time and part-time sub degree, undergraduate and postgraduate programs; open and distance learning programs; regional foci including continuing professional development for local people; specialist expertise in science, technology, arts and humanities; professional discipline training; research focused activity; vocational training; and links with commerce and industry through consultancy. Together, the higher education system would meet all of these needs, but each institution, whether a university, a specialist institute, or a higher education college, would develop expertise in certain key aspects and make their contribution to these aspects.“ (Ashcroft & Rayner, 2011:76).
- Ideally, the contributions of the different kinds of institutions are related to a national qualification framework indicating well defined standards for each kind of program and institution and for progression of students from one kind of institution to another kind of institution.

- Collaboration between HEI and linkages to other (educational) sectors is a prerequisite for an effective higher education system.
- Adequate and stable long-term funding is a necessary requirement for HEI to develop and execute plans for improved performance.
- Competition between similar institutions for students and staff is expected to contribute to increased performance.
- Effective higher education systems are flexible and can adapt to changing levels of enrollment and changing demands from the labor market and society.
- Higher education systems only can be effective if they are insulated from political manipulation and political interests and if a supportive legal and regulatory structure exists.
- Furthermore, state involvement in effective higher education systems is less direct and executed making use of alternative structures dealing with quality control, performance monitoring, policy development, training and / or distribution of funding.[9]

The relevance of higher education systems is illustrated in box 5.1.

Box 5.1. Building world class universities and the role of the tertiary education system (Salmi, 2009, 2011a, 2011b)

World class universities are identified by three characteristics: highly sought after graduates, leading-edge research and dynamic technology transfer. Next to concentration of talent (both students and staff) and abundant resources, the tertiary education ecosystem strongly influences the shaping of world-class universities. This system includes the following elements: 1) macro-environment including governance or higher education institutions (e.g. academic freedom and funding), 2) leadership at the national level (vision, strategic plan and reform capacity), 3) governance and regulatory framework determining degree of autonomy and mechanisms of accountability, 4) quality assurance framework, 5) financial resources and incentives and how the are allocated to various institutions, 6) relations between tertiary education and previous schooling, 7) location and its facilities (influencing the ability to attract staff and students) and 8) digital and telecommunications infrastructure.

Resources

HEIs use resources (such as financial and human) to perform and deliver results. Performance and results are influenced by available resources. However, organizational capacity and performance also impact the amount of resources.

Environment

The external environment refers to the environment of the HEI and the HE system. It's characteristics influence both the HE system, the availability of resources, the request for results and impact and HEI itself, including capacity and effectiveness of change strategies.

[9] Currently, a research is undertaken (http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20130214161345475) by Herna into roles and functions of higher education councils in eight African countries: Botswana, Ghana, Kenya, Mauritius, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania and Uganda.

5.3.1. Planning and emergency

The framework takes into account both planned and emergent effects of change processes. Planned effects refer to those objectives described in change ideas and change ideas. Planned effect can be identified at several levels of the ripple chain: organizational parameters, organizational capacity, organizational performance, results and impact. Emergent effects refer to effects not foreseen, planned or expected. They can either support or hinder the change objectives. Also, the emergent effects can be in different places of the ripple chain.

5.3.2. Organizational assessment

Organizational assessment can take place at several levels of the ripple chain: parameters, capacity, performance, results and impact. It also can combine assessment at several levels.

5.4. Options for empirical research

To be filled in.

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Annex I Perspectives on principles guiding capacity development as summarized in paragraph 3.7

Lopes & Theison (2003)	**James & Wrigley (2007)**	**ECDPM (2008)**	**FTI (2008)**	**UNDP (2008)**	**De Grauwe (2008)**	**MFAN (2011)**	
Ownership and leadership	Inspiring common purpose and direction	External interveners can only facilitate capacity development by providing access to new resources, ideas, connections and opportunities. They cannot substitute for local leadership.	Strong long-term commitment and consistent leadership	National ownership and motivation as a driver for change	Need for internal leadership and ownership. External support needs to identify internal actors, invest in change leaders.	Design: Carefully address power issues	
Don't rush (longer timeframe)	Developing client ownership and responsibility	Ownership is key, however it can shift. Good understanding of local context is important.	Broad ownership and inclusiveness of the capacity development process	Power relations, mindsets and behavior change are important	Strategies must be context-relevant and context-specific. Profound understanding of the context.	Design: Consider context and adapt the approach to capacity development accordingly	
Respect the value system and foster self-esteem	Taking a people-centered and relational approach	Open discussion in order to craft shared strategy for change: capacity assessment, strengths and weaknesses and interventions	An informed debate on capacities	Capacity development is a long term process and it requires sticking to the process.	Integrated set of complementary interventions, though implementation may need to proceed in steps.	Design: Consider the changing needs of beneficiaries and adapt outputs if needed	
Scan locally and globally: reinvent locally (learning is essential)	Use a variety of methods that fit the purpose	No recipe exists. Partners should think of different strategic approaches.	Establish a baseline for capacity development and analyze the institutional context: change processes and constraints	Comprehensiveness: linking enabling environment to organizations and individuals. Focus on individual skills and training is not sufficient.	Commitment to a long term investment in capacity development, while working towards short-term achievements.	Design: Consider the wider system in which an organization is operating, and seek complementary with other actors	

Challenge mindsets and power differentials	Respond appropriately to culture and context	Toolbox should include: supply of resources, tangible assets, negotiation, accommodation.	Embed education sector capacity development into the framework of broader reforms	Use national systems	Before any outside intervention, assess its impact on national capacities at individual, organizational and institutional level.	SP (Southern partners) should ensure, that inspiring leadership is in place	
Think and act in terms of sustainable capacity outcomes	Communicate in culturally sensitive and relevant ways	Situations need to be read carefully.	Use key areas for capacity gap analysis: human resources, material, management, financial, planning, monitoring and evaluation.	Adapt to local conditions. No blueprints exist.		SP express request for capacity development support on the basis of their plans and request only support that fits their priority needs and make claer how capacity development will contribute to better outcome	
Establish positive incentives	Provide an enabling environment	Balance between large scale approaches and smaller interventions; balance between long term and quick wins.	Mobilize domestic resources and involve technical and financial partners in designing capacity development strategy	Link to broader reforms		SP use flexible strategies to obtain desired outcomes	
Integrate external inputs into national priorities, processes and systems	Capacity building providers should enable organizations to develop themselves	Monitoring & evaluation should aim at both organizational learning and external accountability.	Formulate a strategy based on priority trade-offs	Systematically measure capacity development		Mutual trust and peer-to-peer dimension to the relationship	
Build on existing capacities rather than creating new ones	Donors should catalyze and back capacity building	Pay more attention to existing capacity than to gaps	Combine long term plans with 1 to 2 year action plans				
Stay engaged under difficult circumstances	Evaluate using narratives and numbers	Encourage effective leadership to help groups work together.	Set up monitoring and evaluations modalities				

Remain accountable to ultimate beneficiaries	Providers should use a situational approach	Emphasize learning and adaptation					
		Think more about the potential of using indirect approaches					
		Put more emphasis on understanding country context, identifying appropriate partners and building relationships.					
		Develop the capabilities required to address capacity isssues					