

FAO CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT

LM 4 LEARNING MODULE 4

ORGANIZATION ANALYSIS AND DEVELOPMENT



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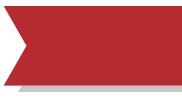


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FOREWORD

Effective organizations are critical for sustainable development and particularly important for food security and agriculture. For instance, by organizing themselves through producer organizations, smallholder farmers can improve their access to markets, technology and resources and overcome the constraints they face as small-scale individual producers. This, in turn, will help contribute to greater food security.

The effectiveness of organizations depends on many factors, but it all starts with careful design and good process involving all stakeholders. This learning module offers tools, concepts, and advice from best practices in order to help its users obtain a better understanding of how rural organizations can be developed to perform effectively. It aims to reach all actors committed to the eradication of hunger and to sustainable agriculture and rural development.

This module focuses on strengthening organizations to empower smallholder and family farmers to become agents of change to create better and more sustainable livelihoods for themselves, their community and their societies. To achieve this it is also important to ensure there is an enabling environment for rural organizations to thrive, which requires that there are also good functioning government institutions, private businesses and market organizations.

For these reasons, this learning module is essential to the fulfillment of FAO's mandate. It is the fourth in the FAO Capacity Development Series as part of FAO's corporate strategy. We hope it will serve as a key resource to development practitioners and improve their capacities in addressing food security and rural development challenges through effective organizational development approaches.

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OVERVIEW AND OBJECTIVES

Organization development (OD) is an important area of capacity development practice to improve food and nutrition security, reduce poverty and promote sustainable development. OD is a powerful instrument that helps to analyse and engage in complex situations or contexts and discover effective ways to promote processes of organizational change.

Learning Module 4 is the fourth in the FAO capacity development series. It aims to create a basic understanding of OD and system thinking approaches, as even a basic understanding can cultivate a new way of working. It reflects the learning experience, constructive inputs and wealth of exchanges from the OD seminar series which was held in FAO between March and November 2012¹.

BOX 1: LEARNING MODULES (LM) FOR CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT IN FAO

- LM 1: Enhancing FAO's practices for supporting Capacity Development of Member Countries
- LM 2: FAO approaches to Capacity Development in programming: processes and tools
- LM 3: FAO Good Learning Practices for effective Capacity Development
- LM 4: Organization analysis and development

This module is suggested for development practitioners as well as for FAO technical officers, field officers, programme officers and consultants who are involved in capacity development for organizations, with a particular focus on public service agencies, producer organizations and public-private bodies such as extension and research agencies. It will cover the following areas:

- > understanding organization analysis and development;
- > supporting the design of change processes;
- > engaging in effective multistakeholders' processes; and
- > measuring organizational change.

For each area, this learning module proposes selected OD tools and presents practical cases derived from the experiences of FAO and other organizations.

¹ Please see http://intranet.fao.org/departments/idwgcd/task_groups/inst_bldg/ to know more on the topics and resource teams and to access the material and videos that were shared with the seminar participants.

INTRODUCTION

Why are organizations important?

One of the main pillars underpinning FAO's efforts to reduce poverty and food insecurity is the empowerment of small-scale producers, men and women to participate in rural development. Small-scale producers, being marginalized and dispersed, are typically unable to seize economic opportunities in the marketplace or influence policies that could affect them. In particular, asymmetric asset endowment and unbalanced power with other actors, as well as a lack of information and communication, cause small-scale producers to be excluded from markets, social choices and, in a broader way, development opportunities. However, when rural producers organize themselves into producer organizations and benefit from high-performing public-service organizations, they can become active in shaping their path out of poverty and making their voices heard. Well-functioning organizations are therefore critical for rural people to address the complex challenges they face.

Making such organizations work better is one of the most persistent and difficult challenges for development practitioners. At the country level, FAO's counterpart organizations and implementing partners can be the greatest assets or the greatest risk in delivering projects and programmes. These organizations can determine:

- > whether FAO's support succeeds in achieving results;
- > who benefits from projects and programmes;
- > whether a government or farmer groups can sustain a programme/project after support ends; and
- > the cost and adoption rate of support efforts.

As a result, improving the capabilities of FAO staff and other development practitioners in understanding how such organizations function is critical to the effectiveness and relevance of any intervention. To paraphrase Amartya Sen, we can affirm that individuals live and operate in a world of organizations. Future opportunities and prospects depend crucially on which organizations exist and how they function (Sen, 2001: 142).

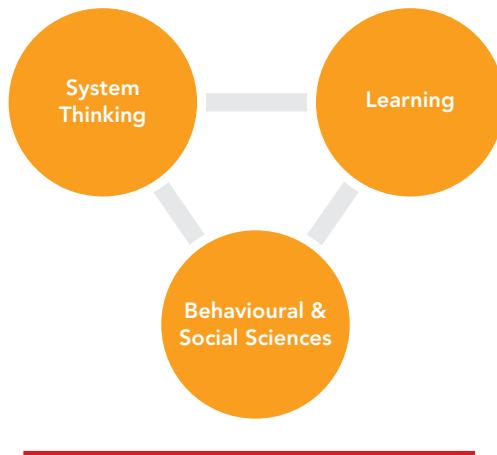
This learning module presents the process by which public and private non-profit organizations can be supported to assess their performance and the factors that promote or hinder it.

What is organization development?

It is necessary first to define what we mean by an organization. **Organizations** are “groups of individuals bound by some common purpose to achieve objectives” (North, 1990: 5). Organizations happen when people work together to accomplish some desired end state or goal. They happen through intentionally designed activities, in some cases through forms of spontaneous improvisation, or a combination of the two, but they always depend upon coordinated effort (adapted from Hatch, 2011).

Organization development (OD) is a body of knowledge and practice that enhances organizational performance. It views organizations as complex systems made of subsystems, each of which has its own attributes and degrees of alignment².

The three underlying pillars of OD are shown in Diagram 1.



[Figure 1] Underlying pillars of organization development

The influence of system thinking, behavioural and social sciences

OD practitioners use system thinking³ perspectives, behavioural and social sciences methodologies and research to understand how organizations and individuals work. This means looking at an organization as a system comprised of different parts, or subsystems. It is particularly important to look at what happens below the surface of an organization – how different internal systems, processes and practices interact, what are the hidden obstacles, how organizational culture can influence behaviour, attitudes and mindsets and how the external environment may affect the organization's performance. OD is a well-established discipline with a considerable body of knowledge and experience born out of the need to affect organizational results. Different strands of psychology and social sciences have influenced it.⁴

² Adapted from Matt Minahan, MM & Associates, Silver Spring, Maryland in <http://www.odnetwork.org/?page=WhatIsOD>.

³ “The essence of the discipline of system thinking lies in a shift on mind seeing interrelationships rather than cause-effects chains and seeing processes of change rather than snapshots.” (Senge, P., 1990. *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*. New York: Doubleday Currency. pg. 73)

⁴ For further reading, refer to an interesting article by Ingrid Richter on the evolution of OD thinking, “Organization development as a source. Riding the pendulum between ‘clocks’ and ‘clouds’: The history of OD and its relation to CD”, in Ubels, J., Acquaye-Baddoo, NA& Fowler, A. 2010. *Capacity development in practice*, London Washington, DC.Earthscan.

The importance of learning for organization development

OD theories view organizations as dynamic systems in a state of continuous adaptation and improvement. Argyris and Schön⁵ researched the relations of people and organizations and how organizations learn and act. Senge defined 'learning organizations' as those organizations "where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to see the whole together."⁶ He argues that only those organizations which are able to adapt quickly and effectively will be able to excel in their field. A learning organization must have two conditions present at all times: first, it must have the ability to design itself consistent with its desired goals, and second, it must be able to recognize when its initial direction is different from its desired goal and follow the necessary steps to correct this mismatch.

Briefly, organizations are complex living systems which are capable of thinking, learning and actually adapting to environmental or contextual shifts. OD will lead to change in the nature and quality of relationships within an organization and among organizations. Understanding organizations as human systems comprising formal and informal arrangements is critical to understand how change can happen. In order to do this, it is important to analyse carefully the organization design and to map stakeholders and their relationships. Using OD means assessing internal strengths and weaknesses, as well as external opportunities and threats, to design appropriate interventions to help the organization perform better. Such interventions may be comprehensive (e.g. restructuring a ministry or improving the performance of a producer organization, including women and youth organizations/associations) or more limited (e.g. adjusting internal procedures or creating collaboration and consultation mechanisms among different organizations).

In line with FAO's Strategy on Capacity Development,⁷ this learning module defines **organization development interventions** as follows:

"Organization development interventions refer to the measures made to enhance organizational performance (OP). OP is rooted in the capacity and motivation of organizations to achieve their goals, to better fulfil their mission.

Organizations are embedded in their environment. As a result of this, organization development interventions also refer to the actions taken to influence the enabling environment (legal frameworks, policies, rules and norms) in which organizations operate, and the relations existing among organizations.

Organizations are composed by individuals (men, women, youth); therefore, organization development also includes the interventions aimed at individual development to improve their performance in an organizational context."⁸

⁵ Argyris.C. & Schon, D. A. 1996. "Organizational learning II", Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.

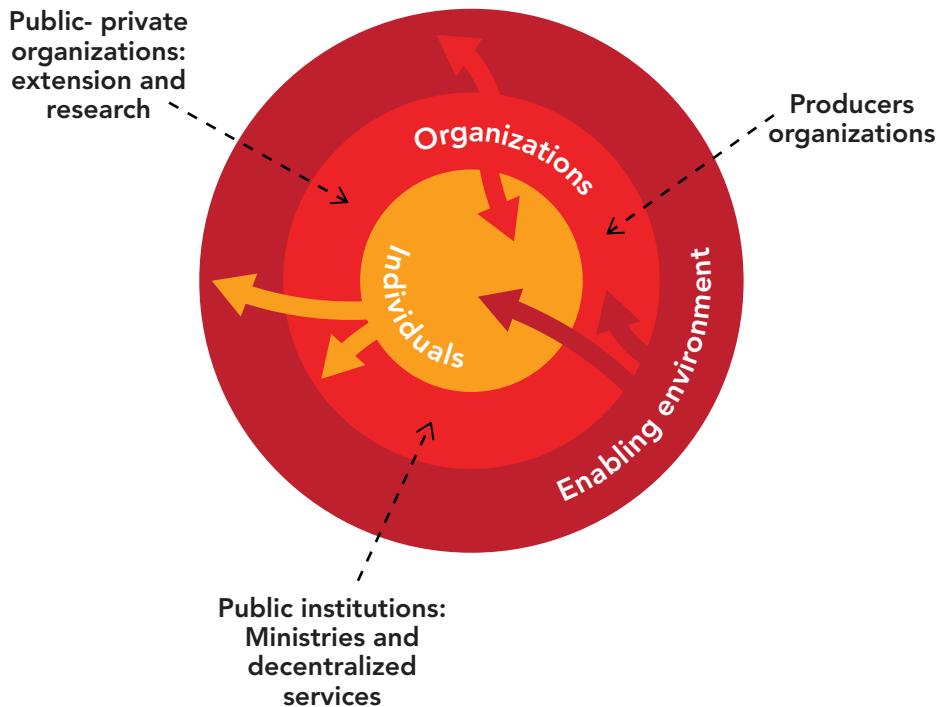
⁶ Senge, P. 1990. "The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization. New York: Doubleday Currency.

⁷ In FAO's Corporate Strategy on Capacity Development (2010), capacity development is defined as "the process whereby individuals, organizations and society as a whole unleash, strengthen, create, adapt and maintain capacity over time".

⁸ Adapted from Haneberg, L., 2005 and Lusthaus et al., 2002.

Figure 2 illustrates FAO's capacity development dimensions and the type of organization that is the focus of this learning module.

Special focus of LM4



[Figure 2] Focus of Learning Module 4

The challenges

There are a number of challenges⁹ that FAO and development practitioners must address in OD work.

First, organizations are context-specific, and so their size, membership, mandates, longevity and experiences are very diverse. It is a challenge to offer simple and flexible tools that can be applied across this diversity and complexity.

Second, FAO's new approach to capacity development requires moving from focusing on leading and implementing to facilitating change processes that are country-driven. This is something that practitioners who work on OD have long understood. It requires a shift in mindset for many people within FAO and with whom FAO works.

Third, because the time scale for organizational development is often longer than the time scale for FAO projects or funding windows, it can be challenging to determine how to support organizations effectively and in a sustainable manner.

Fourth, development agencies, including FAO, are now working towards results, rather than around activities, projects or interventions. How do we know when our OD efforts have been successful? How can we ensure that OD efforts do not become an unending black hole of repeated support, but rather a pathway to organizational autonomy and effectiveness? These are the questions that this learning module attempts to answer.

⁹ Adapted from a personal communication from Eve Crowley, Deputy Regional Representative of FAO's Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean (RLC).

HOW TO USE THIS LEARNING MODULE

This learning module aims to provide a better understanding of what an organization is and what it should be doing to improve its performance. It looks first at organizations as single entities, and then expands to multistakeholder processes (MSPs) because organizations need capacities to relate to and collaborate with other organizations. To this aim, the text is organized progressively, whereby each chapter builds on the previous ones. A second aim is to provide a toolbox (chapter 5), offering a variety of tools, examples and exercises that can support the user's work.

This learning module encompasses five chapters. The first four chapters include theories, concepts and concrete experiences from FAO and other organizations, and the fifth chapter is a toolbox:

- > Chapter 1 proposes a systematic framework to analyse organizations.
- > Chapter 2 describes approaches to support the design and implementation of organizational change processes for various types of organizations. It focuses on two OD intervention typologies (i.e. strategic and functional interventions) and offers a phased model with clear steps to follow.
- > Chapter 3 describes principles for effective design and management of multi-actor processes.
- > Chapter 4 takes a pragmatic look at measurement approaches and their applications.
- > Chapter 5 includes a toolbox proposing tools, exercise sheets and examples covering all the themes addressed in the four chapters.

An appendix and a glossary of key terms contain additional information. Appendix 1 shows the most common models of organization analysis and design with benefits and limitations. A glossary is provided to clarify some special terms used in the learning module.

Icons throughout this module help the user identify key elements in the text:



This icon identifies the learning objectives at the beginning of each Chapter and can be used to find areas of interest.



This icon identifies theories or concepts that form the foundations of OD.



This icon identifies tips that are derived from direct experience which may be helpful in applying certain approaches, instruments or methodologies.

Finally, this learning module provides a systematic framework to engage in organization analysis and development. Examples and concrete experiences relate mainly to public-service organizations, extension agencies, research institutes and producer organizations, however, the proposed methodologies and approaches can be applied to any type of structured organization. Moreover, while the main target audience is FAO staff and consultants, the suggested methodologies and approaches can also be useful to staff of other public and private-sector organizations.



CHAPTER 1 ORGANIZATION ANALYSIS

The relatively easy part of capacity development is providing the human capacity, the education, the skills and the knowledge required for development. The hard part... is the development of the organizational and social capital.

(Stiglitz, 1998: 22)

By the end of this chapter, the user will be able to:



- > define the rationale for organization analysis;
- > describe the basic framework for organization analysis; and
- > identify the key steps to carry out an organization analysis.



Over the course of their lives, organizations face various internal crises and external shocks. For instance:

- > An organization in its pioneering stage often has a family atmosphere and can be quite informal. At this stage, it is usually very flexible and full of energy. It is strongly influenced by its leader and does not have formal systems or processes in place. However, it can reach a chaotic and disorganized stage where new levels of planning and governance are required.
- > Later-emerging organizations rationalize and formalize their governance. They start expanding in size and complexity, formalizing vision and mission, systems and division of labour. However, they can become too rigid, lacking capacities to adapt to their new environment or to sudden external pressures.
- > Finally, mature organizations can lack energy and ideas to renew themselves as they are fixed in established structures and processes.

In order to face internal crises and protect themselves from external shocks, leaders and members of an organization need to regularly assess their internal weaknesses and strengths, external challenges and opportunities; misunderstanding these factors is the source of most organizational failures. Results of an organization analysis can allow an organization to prepare strategically and plan long- and short-term objectives, allowing it to adapt to a changing environment because "no organization today -- large or small, local or global -- is immune to change." (Kotter, 1998: 1)

Understanding the source of organizational failure and learning from successes requires a framework for systematic analysis. This chapter presents and develops this framework.

1.1 THE BASIC FRAMEWORK FOR ORGANIZATION ANALYSIS

Organization analysis is a diagnostic process that helps to better understand the performance of an organization. It can be undertaken after an initial capacity assessment¹⁰ to obtain deeper knowledge about the causes of organizational weaknesses and to identify emerging opportunities. The organizational assessment that is proposed in this chapter includes performance variables that generally are not considered in a capacity assessment.

Two different levels of analysis can be conducted:

1. an analysis of **the internal organizational capacity and motivation**; and
2. an analysis of the **external environment** which is comprised of the **factors ("rules of the game")** and the **actors (stakeholders)** that influence the work of an organization and its relationships.

The results of these analyses will provide the basis for realigning the different elements of an organization to better respond to the development challenges that FAO seeks to address in the area of food and nutrition security, poverty reduction and sustainable development.

Organization analysis can take place for a department of a ministry, a whole ministry, a producer organization (including women's associations or youth associations), a research or extension organization or a sector where we try to understand the relations and communication channels that exist among the various organizations responsible for the sector. The scope of the analysis might be broad or limited, but it always requires the active involvement of stakeholders and an assessment of their readiness to be involved in an analytic process.

¹⁰ To read more on FAO's methodology on Capacity Assessments, refer to Learning Module 2 "FAO approaches to capacity development in programming: processes and tools", Chapter 2 and Tool 5.

1.2 ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT (OPA) FRAMEWORK

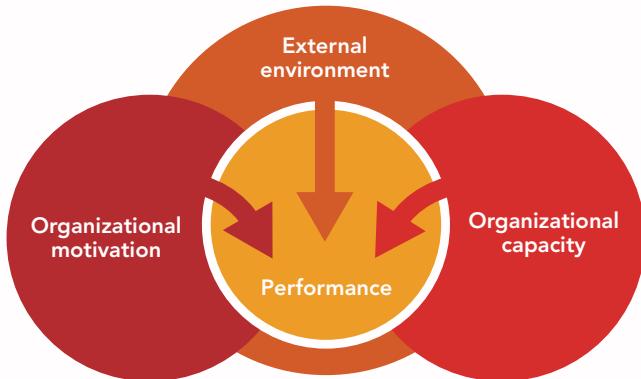
The Organizational Performance Assessment (OPA) framework is a model¹¹ that can be applied to describe, analyse and evaluate organizations. The OPA, like all models, is a simplification of reality; however, it is very comprehensive and can be applied to any type of organization. It was developed by Universalia/ IDRC (Lusthaus C. et al. ,2002). Figure 3 illustrates the OPA framework.



The idea inspiring the OPA framework is that any **organization is a system** that is:

- > goal- or objective-oriented;
- > influenced by its external environment; and
- > comprised of various internal subsystems or elements, which continuously interact.

Analysing the system means focusing on its elements, their interactions and their relationship with the external environment. It is a multidimensional approach requiring consideration of all the elements, including the quality of the linkages among them.



[Figure 3] Organizational Performance Assessment framework

Figure 3 shows that organizational performance is a function of organizational capacities, organizational motivation and the external environment. The following sections will explain these four areas in detail.

¹¹ Appendix 1 will show other common models of organization analysis and design with benefits and limitations.

1.2.1 ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE

Organizational change efforts are designed to improve the performance of organizations and the people who work in them. For private business-oriented organizations, the concept of profit is primarily used to gauge performance, while for public or private¹² non-profit organizations, the criteria normally used to assess performance are: relevance, effectiveness, efficiency and sustainability. Chapter 4 will describe in greater detail the indicators for measuring organizational performance.



CRITERIA FOR MEASURING ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE	DEFINITIONS
Relevance	The extent to which an organization responds to the needs of its stakeholders
Effectiveness	The extent to which an organization is able to fulfil its goals
Efficiency	The comparison of the organizational outputs and the costs incurred to obtain those outputs
Sustainability	The ability of an organization to continue to adapt to its evolving environment and adequately manage its resources

¹² Here reference is made to producer organizations, cooperatives and associations which are private organizations created mainly to meet members'needs. Profit is only instrumental to their development.

1.2.2 ORGANIZATIONAL CAPACITIES

Organizational capacities refer to an organization's endowment of resources and to the systems and processes used for managing these resources to perform effectively. There are two areas of organizational capacities: those that relate to resources and those that relate to systems and processes (see Box 2). Detailed checklists for the subcomponents of each of these areas are included in Chapter 5. However, a few points regarding leadership and organizational structures are worth mentioning here because they are critical in key areas of FAO's work.



BOX 2: COMPONENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CAPACITIES

Organizational capacities can be grouped into two categories: resources and systems and processes.

The **resources** that an organization possesses and the processes used to manage them, include:

- > human resources (i.e. planning, staffing, developing and rewarding human capital);
- > capital resources (i.e. financial planning, financial accountability, financial statements and systems); and
- > infrastructures (i.e. facility and technology management).

The **systems and processes** employed by an organization include:

- > strategic leadership (i.e. leadership, strategic planning, strategic management);
- > organizational structure (i.e. governance structure, operational structure);
- > process management (i.e. problem-solving, decision-making, communication, monitoring and evaluation); and
- > programme management (i.e. designing, implementing and monitoring programmes and projects).

In business theory and practice, leadership and organizational structures are often regarded as the governance¹³ aspects of an organization. The power and politics of the organization reside here. At this governance level, conflicts of interest may be resolved, policy issues may be addressed and budgets may be approved.

In public-sector organizations (e.g. ministries), governance is implemented to benefit the people of the country through government and the ministry responsible for a specific issue. The civil servants manage the rules or the bureaucracy and link public policy with bureaucratic action. In non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and producer organizations, the board provides an oversight function and takes action for its members or for the public interest.

¹³ The management study guide reports: "Corporate governance refers to the way a corporation is governed. It is the technique by which companies are directed and managed" at <http://www.managementstudyguide.com/corporate-governance.htm>. It means aligning the interests of those who manage an organization with the interests of those who are responsible for organizational results, the organization's owners and outsiders who have a stake in the organization ...". In the new FAO Strategic Framework, governance "relates to formal and informal rules and processes through which public and private actors articulate their interests and decisions are made, implemented and sustained".

Two issues related to women and youth participation/staffing in organizations also need to be pointed out. In the case of youth¹⁴ -only organizations, which are typically new, small and informal with few resources, strong leaders generally take all strategic decisions for the organization. In organizations that have both young and old members, transitional leadership is problematic. As leaders of an organization grow older, they often don't make space for younger members, for a variety of reasons. First, youth sometimes lack the confidence to take up leadership roles. Second, because there are no retirement structures in place, leaders tend to cling to their roles in the organization which provide them with an honorific position and potentially financial advantages. Third, leaders who have established an organization may be especially attached to it and do not want to give up their position. As for women and young girls, in general they do not have the same access and opportunities to reach leadership roles within organizations. In order to acquire them, they need to develop confidence and leadership skills. These issues need to be carefully considered when analysing organizational capacities, as they can be the source of internal tensions or weaknesses.

An organization's operating structure should be analysed to determine whether individuals or units are accountable for their work and whether they understand their roles in the organization and have the authority to carry them out. The operating structure of an organization involves a division of labour (including roles, responsibility and authority) and the coordination of labour into units. Analysis of operating structures also should examine coordination issues among different units. For areas where interdisciplinary work is a competitive advantage (e.g. food security, climate change), it is crucial to form networks or linkages where concerned units collectively discuss difficult issues, contributing their own special perspective and expertise.

Another important structural consideration is the manner in which power is shared. Organizations can range from being centralized to decentralized, and from highly participatory to extremely hierarchical. Today, government organizations are particularly interested in ways to decentralize authority and increase participation.

Box 3 highlights FAO's experience in supporting an organizational assessment involving producers' organizations in Cameroon. This new approach mainly looks at the internal capacity of producers' organizations and some aspects of the external environment.

¹⁴ FAO, IFAD, CTA: *Programming youth development (in the course of publication)*.

BOX 3: FAO'S ORGANIZATIONAL ASSESSMENT EXPERIENCE: TESTING GAIN IN CAMEROON

The Trade and Market Division of FAO was engaged in a EU-ACP (African Caribbean and Pacific) funded project aimed at developing the capacities of African, Caribbean and Pacific countries in the elaboration and implementation of strategies to strengthen agricultural commodity value chains. As part of this project, FAO developed an approach (GAIN) to support African producer organizations in OD.

The GAIN approach is based on four principles: Governance, Autonomy, Integrated approach and Needs-based. Governance relates to the sharing of responsibilities among the members of the organization. Autonomy is about the level of empowerment of the organization and of its members. Needs-based refers to the capacity of the organization to respond to the needs of its members. Integrated approach is the sum of the three principles and looks at the living conditions of its members. Using GAIN, producer organizations can engage in a self-assessment of their internal organizational capacities and their linkages with economic and institutional actors and then develop an action plan delineating steps for change.

The GAIN approach follows three main steps: 1. A diagnostic workshop; 2. Consultation with external partners; and 3. Elaboration of an action plan. During the diagnostic workshop, the organization analyses its functions and activities (e.g. its internal governance, management functions and internal resource mobilization capacities) and the partners with whom it engages. It also elaborates an initial action plan.

This approach was tested with common interest groups (Union de Groupements d'Interet Comun-GICs) in the Noun district of Cameroon. The analysis with 15 local producer organizations revealed a need to formalize the relationships among the various groups, with the aim of creating a more consolidated organizational structure that would be better able to respond to producers' needs. This diagnosis resulted in an action plan delineating steps for a change process.

Since the GAIN workshop in July 2011, and thanks to the support of the local NGO, AGRO-PME, the union of GICs in the Noun district have formed a formal cooperative. In addition to the 15 groups that attended the workshop, 75 more groups have joined the newly formed cooperative following an awareness-raising campaign. The new cooperative will specialize in group purchases of inputs and group sales of certain products, to better leverage market opportunities and economies of scale.

Source: FAO OD Seminar 4 by Elbehri A. and a publication by Elbehri A. et al., 2012.

Chapter 5 includes detailed checklists to assess all the components of organizational capacity.

1.2.3 ORGANIZATIONAL MOTIVATION

Over time, some organizations prosper while others stagnate or disappear. Some organizations seem to thrive under very difficult circumstances and with scarce resources. What are the underlying reasons why some organizations function well while others fail despite having enough resources?

Beyond the quality of the processes employed by an organization to achieve its goals and objectives (organizational capacity), its performance results largely from its motivation. Organizational motivation refers to the ability of an organization to mobilize its internal energy to achieve its goals. It is a function of the organization's vision and mission; culture; history; and incentives.



BOX 4: COMPONENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL MOTIVATION

Motivation stimulates the desire, efforts and energy of the members and staff to be continually interested and committed to their jobs and roles and to strive to achieve the common goals. It results from the interaction of both conscious and unconscious factors: vision and mission, culture, history and incentives.

Vision and mission

A **vision** refers to a compelling statement that describes what an organization aspires to be or to accomplish in the mid- or long-term. For example, in March 2013, FAO carried out a mission in Burkina Faso to strengthen the sunflower value chain. As part of that activity, participants at a multistakeholder workshop expressed their vision as follows:

"In 2023, the sunflower actors of the value chain – government and other economic and institutional stakeholders – have developed a performing value chain:

- > contributing to national food security for the oil sector and for the animal proteins;
- > providing valuable incomes;
- > relying on strong and autonomous producer organizations; and
- > supporting sustainable and effective family farming" (Herbel D. et al., 2013).

A **mission** is a statement of an organization's core purpose. A properly crafted mission statement defines what is important from what is not. It expresses the basic goals, characteristics and values that shape an organization, and it communicates a sense of its intended direction to all of its members or staff. A mission differs from a vision in that the former is the cause and the latter is the effect. A mission is something to be accomplished, whereas a vision is something to be pursued by that accomplishment.

Clear vision and mission statements directing an organization are essential for a change effort to succeed. "Whenever you cannot describe the vision driving a change initiative in five minutes or less and get a reaction that signifies both understanding and interest, you are in for trouble" (Kotter, 1998: 6). Moreover, acceptance of a change in public-sector organizations is likely to be increased when the change is tied to a noble mission that points out how the change would help the organization improve the welfare of its members or clients, contribute to society and boost staff job satisfaction (Ingstrup & Crookall, 1998). However, regardless of the level of acceptance, change initiatives will lose credibility if managers do not live up to the organization's mission.

In the public sector, ministries have begun to see their role in terms of services offered to the public and have developed vision and mission statements to support such ideas. For producer organizations, the mission is born from a common vision that members develop together; the mission thus responds to small producers' felt needs. For example, in pursuit of their mission to reduce their exposure to price fluctuations, Kenya's peri-urban vegetable farmers in Nairobi's traditional markets organized themselves into producer groups to penetrate a new market by supplying African leafy vegetables (ALV) to supermarkets. (Herbel D. et al., 2012. Good practice n. 12)

The benefits of a shared mission need not be monetary, however (Herbel D. et al., 2012. Good practice n.7). In Nepal, for example, the desire to exchange knowledge and preserve cultural and natural heritage was the main motivation for farmers to create more organized groups which ultimately improved their farm-management practices and increased productivity. It is also common for a mission to change over time. For instance, small-scale producers may begin to work together on a single activity, but they expand their mission to address other needs as they become more successful. Herders in northern Benin initially created a group to organize cattle markets to improve their income; after several successful years they expanded their mission to provide cattle vaccinations, pasture seeds and other goods and services to their members. More recently, they have diversified further by creating a milk-processing plant. (Herbel D. et al., 2012. Good practice n.3)

Analysing the vision and mission of an organization offers insight into the organization itself. Vision and mission statements can be written detailed descriptions of the future, slogans or single statements. Chapter 5 includes a checklist with questions to assess an organization's vision and mission.



When doing an organizational assessment, it is important to determine the degree to which the formal mission statement is understood and internalized by its members to see if individual perception coincides with formal statements. For producer organizations, it is important to understand if the mission was developed as a collective or participatory exercise reflecting members' interests and viewpoints.

Organizational culture

The second subcomponent of organizational motivation is organizational culture, which refers to the common identity, shared values and beliefs of an organization. Theories depict organizational culture as an iceberg with evident and hidden aspects; the evident aspects reside in the mission statements and policies of an organization, while the hidden ones relate to the beliefs, feelings, perceptions and behaviours of the people. Values and behaviours contribute to the unique internal environment of an organization, which creates bonds among its members/staff.

Organizational culture is mirrored in :

- > the way an organization conducts its business and treats its members/employees, clients and the wider community;
- > the extent to which employees/members have autonomy and freedom in making decisions, developing new ideas and demonstrating personal expression. Generally, organizations with a high degree of autonomy create a greater sense of responsibility and job satisfaction among its employees;
- > the extent to which information flows through its hierarchy; and
- > the employees'/members' values and beliefs.

A strong shared identity can motivate members of an organization to cooperate and work effectively in an organized group (Bijman, et al., 2007). Organization identity is often based on common values, shared behaviours and adherence to rules that often derive from a shared history and geographical space. As an example, Banerjee and Duflo (Banerjee,A. and Duflo E., 2011: 169) concluded that the main factor contributing to the high performance of the staff in a microfinance organization was "the enthusiastic efforts of their staff, largely based on the belief that microcredit is better than other ways to help the poor". In India, the main mission of the Self-employed Women's Association (SEWA) is to render women autonomous and self-reliant, individually and collectively, both economically and in terms of their decision-making capacities. This association embodies a set of Gandhian values as its guiding force. Members follow the principles of Satya (truth), Ahimsa (non-violence), Sarvadharma (integrating all faiths, all people) and Khadi (propagation of local employment). These values are reaffirmed many times a day, before and after every group meeting through a ritual of songs, and these behaviours help to reinforce leader and member commitments to their common cause. (Herbel D., Nanavaty R. , 2011, and Elbehri, A. & Lee M., 2011).

Analysing organizational culture can be a very difficult and sensitive task. Chapter 5 provides an adaptation of an organizational culture assessment framework developed by Kim Cameron and Robert Quinn, 2011.

Organization history

The third subcomponent of organizational motivation is the **history of an organization**. A variety of different theories exist to describe the changing characteristics of organizations in different phases of their lives.¹⁵ As an organization moves through the developmental stages of its life cycle, changes in the nature and number of requirements, opportunities, and threats exert pressure for change on the organizational goals.

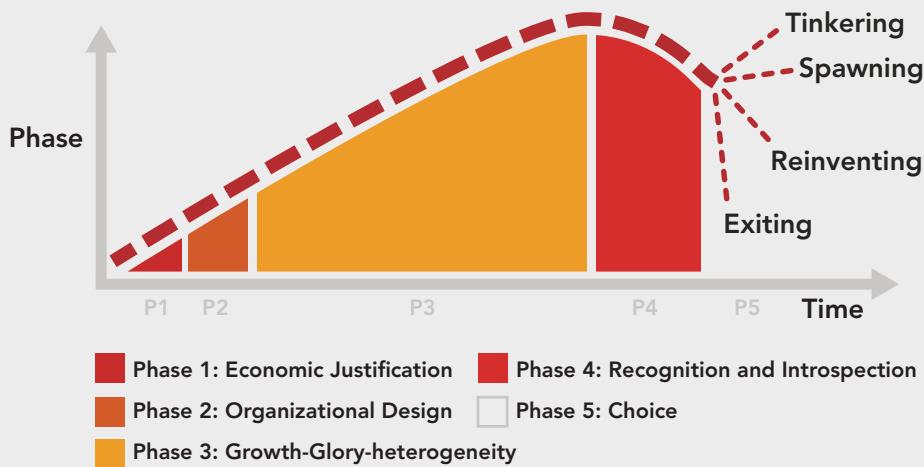
Box 5 illustrates this concept as applied to cooperative organizations. It shows how an organization's evolution can offer insights into its life cycle position and personality. The toolbox in Chapter 5 includes a checklist of questions to assess an organization's history and an exercise to develop an organizational biography.

BOX 5: COOPERATIVE LIFE-CYCLE FRAMEWORK (CLC)

The Cooperative life cycle is a framework developed by Michael Cook (University of Missouri) for analysing organizations to better inform decision-makers about when to use OD tools to help avoid gridlock and organizational failure.

Organizational evolution progresses sequentially and becomes increasingly complex over time. Path "dependency" explains how the issues that an organization faces at any given phase is limited by the decisions it has made in the preceding phases. Thus, managerial challenges are specific to each life cycle phase.

The cooperative life cycle



¹⁵ Similar concepts of organizational life cycles have been described by A.D. Chandler in 1962; Lievegoed, 1969/Glasl, 1993. Other concepts can be found in B. R. Scott, 1971; J. Child ,1977; L. Greiner, 1972; C. Puempkin / J. Prange,1991 and K. Bleicher,1991; and M. Cook, 2009.

Phase 1: Economic justification

Cooperatives emerge to improve farmers' socio-economic position in the absence of a competitive market. Market power through collective action within their cooperative provides them with strong motivation. This phase is characterized by strong cohesion and bonding based on members' enthusiasm, shared identity and interests aligned around a common goal.

Phase 2: Organization design (formalization step)

A set of operational procedures emerge to coordinate tasks and communication. Organizational design should ensure flexibility and adaptability to a changing environment as well as recognizing the members' heterogeneity facilitates the entrance into the growth phase.

An efficient organization design addresses:

- > the profile of the members
- > how capital is acquired
- > the sanctions and enforcement mechanisms
- > members' equity or residual rights

Phase 3: Growth, glory and heterogeneity

Cooperatives become complex with growth increasing transaction costs and market power, but growth brings risks of organizational failure. A successful cooperative attracts new members and expands its provision of products and services which may impact members differently and create groups with divergent interests that may even compete. The common goal held by major stakeholders diminishes as a cooperative grows, and cohesion based on bonding relations among members disappears.

Making sure that producer-owners understand the worthiness of their organization and its collective action is critical to effective cooperative performance. As the cooperative grows, its members may tend to forge these things.

Phase 4: Recognition and introspection

Following phase 3, it becomes necessary to realign members' interests through organizational change. In this phase, members recognize conflicts and undertake introspection and self-analysis. They need to discuss ownership, control rights and capital structure.

Phase 5: Choice

Cooperatives then have four different choices:

- > Tinkering: reshape the organization design and/or its governance mechanisms to align members' preferences and incentives;
- > Spawning: create a separate organization often linked with the old cooperative;
- > Reinventing: create a hybrid with shared ownership rights with members and investors;
- > Exiting: The ownership rights of the organization are no longer based on patronage. They can liquidate, merge with other cooperatives or privatize.

The CLC framework guides organization development for cooperatives and improves the abilities of leaders and managers to make efficient decisions and adoption of strategic measures.

Source: Cook M.L. & Burress M.J., 2009.

Incentives

Finally, the **incentive system** of an organization also shapes its personality. Incentives are the rewards that serve as a motivational “device” for a desired action or behaviour. They may include tangible benefits (e.g. salary and benefits, opportunities for learning and advancements) or less tangible benefits (e.g. freedom, openness to innovation, job security, life-work balance, satisfaction at work).

In the public sector, tangible incentives such as salary and benefits are normally centralized and beyond the control of government agency managers, and thus difficult to change. However, less tangible ones (satisfaction at work, learning opportunities) can be influenced by managers and make the working environment more conducive to good performance.

For producer organizations, the financial contributions that small-scale producers can bring as equity capital to the organization are an important incentive to keep members engaged in activities consistent with their own aspirations (Stringfellow et al., 1997; Crowley et al., 2007). For instance, in Benin, members' financial contributions were one of the main reasons for strong cohesion in equipment-sharing cooperatives. By purchasing shares, members contributed 20-40 percent of the capital needed when the cooperative was created. (Herbel D. et al., 2012. Good practice n.10).

When analysing the incentive structure, it is important to identify the specific aspects of the system that either support or discourage the organization to perform effectively. Box 6 presents a concrete example of how poor incentives and an extremely hierarchical culture impeded good performance in the public sector in India.

BOX 6: FOREST EMPLOYEE PERSPECTIVES ON ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE IN INDIA

A qualitative study on the perspectives of Forest Department employees involved in India's Joint Forest Management Programme was conducted in 2004 in Tamil Nadu. The findings revealed that the effective implementation of the Joint Forest Management Programme required a major transformation of the Forest Department from a regulatory authority to a facilitative service that would ensure participatory management of forest resources.

However, this major transformation faced several hurdles because of internal factors such as capacity and motivation of the Forest Department. First, rigid rules and regulations prevented the needed flexibility for site-specific problem-solving. Second, the hierarchical, top-down style of communication prevented senior staff from learning about and becoming close to the communities involved in the programme. Third, the absence of appropriate incentives for timely recognition and reward of the staff's additional workload contributed to their low morale. The culture of the Department also proved to be a major barrier, as the relationships among the different ranks of employees were dominated by a culture of punishment and fear.

The study suggested that a transformation begin by changing the attitude of senior staff to set an example by applying participatory processes internally before trying to use them with external communities.

Source: Matta J.R. et al., 2005.

Chapter 5 includes a checklist with questions to assess the incentive structure of an organization.

1.2.4 THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT¹⁶

Any effort to analyse and improve the performance of organizations requires an understanding of the forces and factors affecting the organization in its environment. According to North's analogy, an organization's external environment consists of two levels: the "rules of the game" and the actors or "players".¹⁷



BOX 7: COMPONENTS OF THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT

An organization's external environment is comprised of the stakeholder context as well as forces that are: (1) political, administrative or legal; (2) economic; (3) sociocultural; and (4) technological.

Rules of the game

The "rules of the game" (i.e. the enabling environment) are comprised of:

- > political rules, the policy context and administrative and legal frameworks;
- > economic factors;
- > sociocultural factors; and
- > technological factors.

The overall **policy context** includes the policies themselves, the way in which those policies are generated, the mechanisms by which they are implemented, the feedback mechanisms that allow us to understand their impacts and the degree to which conflict or coherence exists among policies in different sectors. The policy context is generally complex and its boundaries are difficult to define; however, a brief analysis of the most obvious linkages can help place organizations in a specific policy context and clarify the processes that might affect an organization.

¹⁶ To support the analysis of the external environment, please refer to Learning Module 2, FAO approaches to capacity development in programming: processes and tools. In particular, see Tool 6: Institutional and Political Economy Scanning and Tool 8: Drivers of Change.

¹⁷ "What must be clearly differentiated are the rules from the players. The purpose of the rules is to define the way the game is played. But the objective of the team without that set of rules is to win the game" (D. North, 1990, p.4).

Political and administrative rules are embedded in national laws, including statutory and customary laws. In analysing the political and legal landscape, it is important to understand a country's constitution and laws to determine who has the power to influence and change them. For example, the administrative and political rules that the government establishes for a ministry outlines immediately the relationship that other organizations may have with that ministry. A country's legislation also can facilitate or constrain the establishment and development of producer organizations. In addition, different laws (e.g. laws related to competition, labour, contracts, land and inheritance) may affect the functioning of producer organizations.

Economic rules and their enforcement play a significant role in determining the structure of organizations in an economy. Normally, these economic variables are based on laws, embedded in contracts or partnership agreements and include financial and fiscal incentives. It is also important that these rules are formulated taking into consideration the conditions, needs and priorities of all members, women and men, to ensure equal access to benefits and income.

Sociocultural beliefs and behaviours in a society can have profound influences on the way organizations conduct their work and on what kinds of results they value. They influence the subjective construction of the sociocultural models that determine choices in an organization. Sociocultural forces are the values that influence what people and institutional actors regard as important and the priorities they have for change.

Culture and tradition establish norms that are accepted throughout society. For instance, sociocultural norms can affect real youth¹⁸ and women participation and leadership roles in organizations. Most societies in developing countries are characterized by hierarchical relationships where youth are expected to obey and respect the older generations and women – young and poor – find difficulties in becoming members and being involved in organizations. Listening to youth and women including them in decision-making processes is seldom part of these traditional societies where older people and mostly men dominate decision-making at all levels. In addition, in certain African countries, customary rules on land tenure have a significant impact on the way legislation is implemented. Differentiation based on gender, age and other attributes can affect an organization's operations and its capacity to innovate.

Technology and innovation stimulate the creation of new products and processes. When innovation comes from inside the organization, it generates new opportunities for the organization to grow by reducing costs, improving quality to meet clients' needs and developing new markets. On the contrary, when innovation comes from competitors, it may constitute a threat. To ensure that organizations fully benefit from technology and innovation, it is important to include gender aspects in the ways technologies are developed and deployed so that both men and women members can benefit equally and equitably.

Chapter 5 includes a detailed checklist to support the assessment of all these levels of the external environment. In addition, an adaptation of the PEST (political, economic, social and technological) analysis also is proposed.

¹⁸ The Farmers' Forum Youth session, 18 February 2012.

FAO, IFAD & MIJARC. Summary of the findings of the project implemented by MIJARC in collaboration with FAO and IFAD: 'Facilitating access of rural youth to agricultural activities'.

The actors

Understanding the quality of an organization's relations with other actors is extremely important to support the design of effective change processes. It is important to know who is doing what, who communicates with whom and who delivers services to whom.

The stakeholders' context is comprised of all organizations – public and private – and their relationships that influence the internal functioning and performance of the target organization at different levels. Stakeholder groups can have complementary activities or they may have conflicting interests. They may compete for the same resources or the same outlets. In order to develop an intervention to strengthen an organization and build on its existing potential, certain basic questions must be answered, such as:

- > Which organizations perform activities in the area of focus? What opportunities and threats do they represent?
- > What relations (e.g. linking, bridging, cooperation) exist with our target organization?

For effective interventions, it is crucial to assess the linking and bridging relations of the targeted organization (see Box 8).

BOX 8: BRIDGING AND LINKING RELATIONS FOR PRODUCER ORGANIZATIONS

Linking relations allow producer organizations to connect with other entities ("vertical ties") which are generally actors in socially, politically and economically influential positions. The FAO/IFAD publication "Good practices in building rural institutions" suggests that strong and balanced linking relations are critical in enabling producer organizations to (1) access markets under fair conditions; (2) develop capacities to influence policy processes; (3) develop the ability to alter the conditions of a transaction (i.e. bargaining power); and (4) exert influence over other actors (i.e. negotiating power).

Bridging relations are intergroup relations which typically connect different producer organizations at the local, national and regional levels. The creation of bridges among similar organizations belonging to producer apex organizations and networks allows them to better accomplish their mission, overcome constraints, communicate needs and offer a broader range of services than they would as individual smaller-scale organizations. By bridging with others, they pool resources and build assets and competencies. With a larger market share and with more information, small-scale producers can modify transaction conditions, such as price and timing, and can exert influence over other actors, thereby gaining market and negotiating power.

Finally, producers' organizations may need to establish **cooperative** relations with development actors such as NGOs and development and government agencies in order to strengthen their capacity before they can engage effectively with market actors and policy-makers. Partnership, alliance and networking with these organizations can enhance their assets and competencies and improve their negotiating power within advocacy coalitions.

Source: Herbel D. et al., 2012.

Often, FAO manages projects or programmes in which the main responsibility lies within governmental organizations. This has the advantage of having one clear interlocutor and clear leadership, which helps to make the intervention more efficient and manageable. However, this also can create sustainability problems in sectors which are multidisciplinary and pluralistic, where collaboration among actors at different levels is the only means to achieve sustainable results (e.g. management of natural resources, climate change, food and nutrition security).

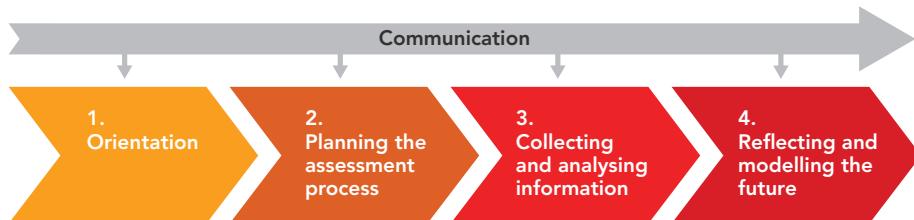
Assessing actors and their relations in an area of focus helps to:

- > understand the complexity of the external environment;
- > include relevant organizations or actors from the very beginning when planning and designing a change process; and
- > realize that other organizations may deliver services or products in the same field, offering opportunities for cooperation and cross-fertilization.

Chapter 5 proposes instruments for conducting stakeholders' mapping, which are helpful for this analysis. Moreover, it proposes the 4-Rs tool (i.e. rights, responsibilities, revenues and relationships) which is used in natural resource management as a diagnostic and negotiation tool to understand roles and power differences in a multistakeholder context.

1.3 THE PROCESS FOR ORGANIZATION ANALYSIS

Organization analysis needs to be conceived from the beginning as a participatory process; it can be summarized in four phases as shown in Diagram 4.



[Figure 4] Process for organization analysis

Phase 1: Orientation

This phase is also known as the entry phase where the relationship between the organization and the external actor or facilitator starts. It involves having a preliminary conversation about the desired state and a potential change initiative. The activities of this phase form the foundation of the change process.

In this phase, the facilitator should: determine which organizational unit wants to change; gauge commitment for change; understand the change that is sought in broad terms; and develop a relationship with the "client" organization. Hypotheses are built and the process for organization analysis and design is discussed.

Two key questions require careful consideration:

- > Why is an organization analysis needed?
- > Is the organization ready for an organization analysis?

Providing answers to these questions, through a brainstorming meeting with the concerned organization, can help all parties understand and reflect on the inner motivation for change. The facilitator and the client organization work together to assess the organization's readiness for change, the overall priority of the change effort and how the organization can address it. In this phase, the facilitator should have some key skills: interviewing, listening, non-verbal communication, questioning and building trust.

Certain techniques, such as brainstorming and use of Socratic questions, are useful in this step. Chapter 5 offers an explanation of these techniques as well as an exercise to help understand the organization's readiness for change.

If this "exploratory" analysis results in a decision to proceed with an organizational assessment, then the next step is to plan it.

Phase 2: Planning the assessment process

An important consideration in planning an organization analysis is to decide who will conduct the assessment: the organization itself (i.e. a self-assessment), an external actor or a combination of the two. Each approach has potential advantages and limitations (see Box 9).

Self-assessment implies that the organization has a lot of control over the analysis process and results. External actors like FAO can provide inputs into a self-assessment process, but answering key questions, collecting data, analysing and reporting are done under the management of the organization.

An external or independent analysis can be driven by an external actor responsible for the overall management of the process. Both the external actor and the organization define the basic issues and questions to be explored, but the external actor manages the data collection, analysis and reporting.

BOX 9: STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF SELF VERSUS EXTERNAL ASSESSMENTS

SELF ASSESSMENT	
STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<p>Encourages ownership and learning</p> <p>Offers easy access to data</p> <p>Enhances dignity and self-respect</p> <p>Increases perception of the fairness of the process</p> <p>Increases acceptance of feedback because it promotes self-reflection</p> <p>Increases commitments to recommendations</p> <p>Reduces background research</p> <p>Does not require time-consuming procurement negotiations</p>	<p>Objectivity of the analysis may be questionable and findings may be distorted</p> <p>Hard or sensitive issues will probably not be tackled</p> <p>Requires a great deal of managerial time</p> <p>Sensitivities can be strong because the players are involved with the content of the assessment and have some stake in the organization. A clear definition of the roles and of the process can help alleviate tensions.</p> <p>The notion of self-assessment is not accepted in all cultures, and group discussions may not be accepted in some cultures.</p>
EXTERNAL ASSESSMENT	
STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<p>Viewed as more objective and independent</p> <p>Allows a broader range of issues to be assessed</p> <p>The external actor can:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > focus only on the assessment and not be distracted by the organization's work > help save time and handle very sensitive issues > may bring a fresh perspective and state-of-the-art knowledge <p>A mixed team (i.e. an external actor with local consultants) can obtain a better sense of the issues at the local level, adapt tools to the context and lower the cost of the process</p>	<p>Fewer opportunities for the organization to develop leadership/ownership of the process and its results</p> <p>Requires more time for contract negotiation, orientation and supervision</p> <p>Time spent on-site may be limited by costs</p> <p>The external actor may :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > need time to get to know the organization, its policies and procedures or to get the available information > be perceived negatively and generate unnecessary anxiety > not be aware of constraints on the feasibility of recommendations and may not be contracted to follow up on them <p>Requires that the organization invest time in supporting the external actor during the process</p>

Source: Adapted from Rojas, K. & Lusthaus, C., 2012.

A combination of these two approaches is ideal because it can offer the benefits of the self-assessment (i.e. buy-in, active participation, acceptance and ownership of findings) and the benefits of an external assessor (i.e. someone who is independent, objective, able to address sensitive issues and able to broaden perspectives). In addition, it is important to note that organizations should also assess the obstacles, challenges and opportunities that specific groups, such as women and youth, face as members of organizations. This would help to create and promote enabling and inclusive environments for all women and men. FAO is increasingly involved in facilitating assessments through multistakeholder consultations where similar organizations participate, self-evaluate and compare their "present situation".

Box 10 highlights the experience of a management consulting firm supporting a self-evaluation process in 12 research centres in Asia.

BOX 10: A SELF-EVALUATION EXERCISE FOR 12 RESEARCH CENTRES IN SOUTHEAST ASIA

Universalia, a management consulting firm specializing in monitoring and evaluation and in organizational performance assessment, supported a self-evaluation process in 12 research and education centres in Southeast Asia that were part of the Southeast Asian Ministry of Education Organization (SEAMEO). This self-evaluation was part of a larger evaluation of a development project. One aspect of it was to strengthen the organizational capacity of SEAMEO centres through institutional linkages which supplied technical assistance, training, etc. Given the limited time and budget to carry out an assessment, a self-evaluation process was conducted.

The first step was to develop a self-assessment guide that provided the OPA framework and clear steps to follow to assist the centres in conducting a thorough self-assessment of their capacity and performance. The draft guide was then discussed with the selected centre directors and adapted to be more usable in the SEMEAO context.

The next step was a two-stage process in which centres conducted their data collection and analysis and then submitted their results to Universalia, which reacted, raised questions and provided inputs. Then at their Annual Meeting, Centre Directors met individually with Universalia team members to discuss the self-assessment results.

After the Annual Meeting, the Centre Directors took the summaries and short analysis from Universalia back to their assessment teams for review. Follow-up communications with the centres helped ensure that the final analysis was correct and acceptable to the centres. As a result of this process, the Centres learned a lot about their organizations in terms of future directions and needs. In addition, the assessment was seen to complement the ongoing strategic planning process for their organizations. One of the centres made the self-assessment exercise part of their regular monitoring activities.

Source: Universalia, 1997.

In any case, the people responsible for coordinating the design and implementation of the organization analysis should endeavor to design a participatory process that allows all interested stakeholders the opportunity to learn and develop ownership and commitment to the process and its results from the very beginning. An important underlying hypothesis of a successful analysis is that an organization's members should be interested in using the analysis results to improve the performance of their organization.

The first step in actually planning the assessment involves **identifying priority issues and areas of concern** for the target organization in relation to its organizational capacity, motivation and external environment. Chapter 5 provides two exercise sheets to help identify these performance priorities or areas of concern, as well as their causes in relation to the three performance factors. Other tools also are included that can¹⁹ support a preliminary analysis of contextual problems affecting organizational performance:

- > the SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) analysis, which can be an alternative tool for strategic analysis;
- > the PEST (political, economic, social and technological) analysis, which is designed to assess the external factors that can impact organizational performance; and
- > a stakeholder mapping process to obtain an overview of the stakeholder landscape, which includes a needs and fears mapping tool.

Second, it is important to **create internal support for the process**. A working group or task force can be established to be responsible for planning and implementing the assessment process. Participants should be representative of the organization's staff or membership (e.g. men and women and people from different teams, services and levels of responsibility in the organization).

The third step involves **developing an assessment plan** that describes the methodology, schedule and team profile and provides an estimate of the resources required.

The final step is **developing the right assessment questions** based on the priority issues identified at the beginning of step 1. The OPA checklists in Chapter 5 can be helpful in doing this.

Phase 3: Collecting and analysing information

The assessment plan developed in Phase 2 guides this phase, which encompasses activities related to identifying data sources and a suitable methodology for collecting and analysing the data. Chapter 5 includes tools that can support a deeper assessment if discussions with the target organization indicate that such an analysis is desired.

Box 11 presents an overview of the most common data collection methods.

¹⁹ The Problem Tree can also be a helpful tool to illustrate the linkages between complex issues contributing to organizational problems and their underlying causes. To know more about the Problem Tree, please refer to FAO. 2012. Learning Module 2: FAO approaches to capacity development in programming processes and tools. Rome.

BOX 11: MOST COMMON DATA COLLECTION METHODS

DATA COLLECTION METHODS	
<p>USE A QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY WHEN:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">> the target groups are large.> the team needs to incorporate the views of key people(i.e. elite interviews).> the team requires a large amount of categorical data.> quantitative data are preferred.> the team wants to see the different responses of designated subgroups (e.g. women, men and youth).> the team wants to see the different responses of sub-groups within organizations (leaders, staff, members, etc).> the team wants to clarify your team's objectives by involving them in a questionnaire development exercise.> the target population is geographically dispersed.> there is access to people who can process and analyse this type of data accurately.	<p>USE INTERVIEWS WHEN:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">> it is necessary to incorporate the views of key people (e.g. key informants) or groups (e.g. women and youth).> the target population is small.> there is a need for depth of information rather than breadth.> there are reasons to believe that people will not return a questionnaire.> the target population is geographically dispersed and telephone interviews are feasible.
<p>USE FOCUS GROUPS WHEN:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">> the team needs rich descriptions to understand client needs.> the team believes that the group dynamic is key to uncovering underlying feelings.> the team has access to a skilled focus group leader and data recorder.> the team wants to learn what the stakeholders want through the power of group observation (e.g. one-way mirror or video).	<p>USE DOCUMENT REVIEWS WHEN:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">> the relevant documents exist and are accessible.> the team needs an historical perspective on the issue.> the team is not familiar with the organization's history.> the team needs hard data on some elements of the organization.

Source: Adapted from *Universalia*, 2000.

Whichever method is used, the collection of qualitative and quantitative data should be carried out disaggregating data by sex, age, ethnicity, caste, education, employment, and rural or urban location. Monitoring gender is important to assess whether the organization's activities are also taking into consideration gender aspects and what can be learned and fed back into further efforts.

The toolbox offers a range of tools that can be used to collect and analyse information such as:

- > 4Rs which allows the user to analyse the roles and, indirectly, the power relationships among different stakeholders;
- > OPA checklists to assess performance criteria, organizational capacity, motivation and the external environment; and
- > the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) which allows the user to assess the predominant culture in an organization and the desire for change.

Phase 4: Reflecting and modelling the future

In this phase, the organization reflects on:

- > the meaning of the results generated in Phase 3;
- > the increased awareness and motivation of its staff; and
- > the potential implications for change.

Reflection takes place before any decisions are made as a result of the organization analysis. In addition, a separate planning process is undertaken to model the future and implementation plans. Chapter 2 will further expand on this topic.

IN A NUTSHELL

Strengthening organizations requires understanding them and recognizing the sources of their failure and success. This chapter lays out a systematic framework for organizational analysis. It illustrates the content of this framework which considers organizational performance as the result of continuous interaction between internal and external factors. The internal factors relate to organizational capacity and motivation. The external factors concern the "rules of the game" and the stakeholder context.

Chapter 5 offers a wide range of tools to engage in organization analysis. Toolset 1 presents a light and an in-depth version of the OPA Framework; Tools 2, 3 offer respectively the SWOT analysis and the PEST analysis; Tools 4, 5 and 6, provide various tools to analyse stakeholders, roles and responsibilities and needs and fears. Finally, Tool 7 offers the OCAI, a tool to assess organizational culture.

CHAPTER 1 ORGANIZATION ANALYSIS



CHAPTER 2 ORGANIZATION DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

It must be considered that there is nothing more difficult to carry out, nor more doubtful of success, nor more dangerous to handle, than to initiate a new order of things. For the reformer has enemies in all those who profit by the old order, and only lukewarm defenders in all those who would profit by the new order, this lukewarmness arising partly from fear of their adversaries, who have the laws in their favour; and partly from the incredulity of mankind, who do not truly believe in anything new until they have had the actual experience of it.

Niccolò Machiavelli (Niccolò Machiavelli, 1950: 21)

By the end of this chapter, the user will be able to:



- > describe the main concepts of organization design;
- > identify types of organization design interventions; and
- > identify steps to engage in organization design and implementation.



2.1 WHAT IS ORGANIZATION DESIGN?

Organization design is a formal and "guided" process composed of a series of activities to align all the components and subcomponents of an organization towards the achievement of an agreed organizational goal. (Stanford N., 2007). This definition means that organization design is a conscious process to match the form of a new or existing organization as closely as possible to the purpose the organization seeks to achieve. It is the outcome of strategy and careful planning, followed by a well-managed implementation process.

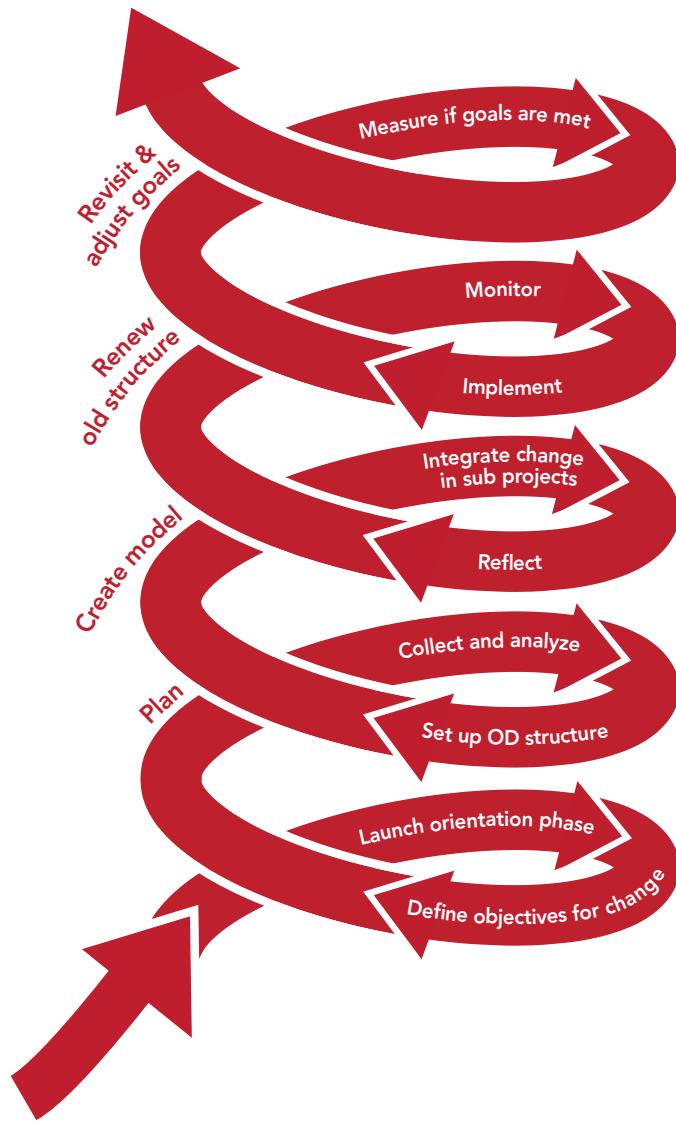
Planning organization design involves:

- > evaluating whether the organization is ready to assess the problems or issues that it is facing (refer to Chapter 1);
- > defining clear objectives in order to develop a detailed plan;
- > getting internal support for the implementation so that the transition is easier;
- > implementing the OD plan;
- > monitoring the new design with appropriate measures that enable correction.

Ideally, an organization design process has a beginning, a middle and an end. Each step has to be carefully initiated, structured and thought through. The process of organization design is iterative, and one step can merge with the other (see Figure 5). OD literature highlights the following critical success factors for organizational analysis, design and implementation: leadership support, stakeholder²⁰ engagement, change readiness and communication. The process can take a few weeks or years, depending on the complexity (i.e. scope and scale) of the change and the approach that is used.

Organization design requires that an organization and its members or staff be motivated and ready for change. After that, a series of steps needs to be followed: orientation; planning and analysis; reflecting and modelling the future; setting up the process structure for OD; implementing subprojects; and integrating the changes into the organization.

²⁰ Stakeholder refers to any group or individual who is internal to an organization (e.g. managers, employees, members).



[Figure 5] Organization design and implementation process

Source: FAO Organization Development Seminar by Urban K.. Adapted from MCV Phased Model.



Participation of staff/members in the organization design process is critical for the success of the change effort.

2.2 WHAT ARE THE MOST COMMON INTERVENTIONS?

The field of OD uses a variety of processes, approaches and techniques to address organizational issues and increase organizational performance; these are often integrated when providing support for organizational change. FAO's support to organization design interventions is focused and tends to favour strategic interventions. However, given the limited capacities of FAO and other organizations in implementation activities, FAO increasingly engages in partnerships with key actors on the ground, who can closely monitor implementation.



The ability to suggest an appropriate intervention often depends on the degree to which people were honest and participative during the consultation or orientation phase and on how learning was enabled.



Literature (Cummings T. and Worley C., 2001; Carnall C., 2007) generally distinguishes between two different types of organizational change interventions:

- > **strategic interventions** focusing on the organization and its interactions with its external environment; and
- > **operational interventions** focusing on the extent to which the organization's management, structure, staff and procedures are functioning effectively and efficiently in meeting their stated objectives. The main operational interventions are:
 - *functional interventions*²¹, focusing on modifying procedures, roles and structures within the organization;
 - *human resource process interventions*, focusing on enhancing individual and group capacities and interactions. Examples of activities are: coaching, counselling, delegating, leading, mentoring, motivating, conflict-management, dialoguing, group facilitation, group learning and team building;²² and
 - *human resource management interventions*, focusing on enhancing the performance of individuals and groups within an organization. Activities include establishing performance plans, observing and providing feedback, evaluating performance, rewarding performance and creating career development, employee wellness and diversity management programmes.

²¹ FAO adopts the term "functional" though literature- Cummings, T. & Worley, C. (2001), Kormanik (2005), Carnall C., (2007)etc.. generally use terms such as "techno-structural" or "structural" interventions.

²² FAO Learning Module 3 – Good learning practices for effective capacity development – expands on coaching and mentoring methods. See especially toolbox 4 and 5.

The OPA framework proposed in Chapter 1 creates a base for strategic and operational interventions. This chapter will present examples of strategic and functional interventions, as these represent FAO's major focus areas in organizational strengthening. FAO does not generally intervene with the human resource management processes of other organizations. In addition, the human resource process interventions supported by FAO are generally targeted at the individual, rather than the organizational level.

2.2.1 STRATEGIC INTERVENTIONS

Strategic interventions help organizations better understand their current state and external environment and better plan how to compete or collaborate with other actors. Under the umbrella of strategic interventions, literature includes:

- > strategic planning and goal setting; and
- > culture change.

Strategic planning is an organization's process to define its overall priorities by clarifying its direction and making decisions about allocating resources to pursue its strategy. The key components of strategic planning include an understanding of the organization's vision, mission, values and strategies. Chapter 1 already elaborated on these aspects. Here, it is crucial to emphasize that the vision outlines what the organization wants to be or how it wants the external environment in which it operates to be; it is an idealized long-term view of the future. It can be emotional and is a source of inspiration for organization members and staff.

The typical process that is followed for strategic planning involves: (1) analysing the situation; (2) defining goals; and (3) developing a road map to the goals/objectives. Among the most useful tools for strategic planning are the SWOT analysis, the OPA and the Balanced Scorecard, which can be found in Chapter 5.

Box 12 highlights FAO's recent experience in facilitating an analysis to define goals and a roadmap to improve performance, equity and governance of producer organizations in Niger.

BOX 12: FACILITATING AN ANALYSIS AND AN ELABORATION OF A ROADMAP FOR SMALL PRODUCER DEVELOPMENT IN NIGER

The CoOPequity project is part of the EU/FAO Programme on Global Governance for Hunger Reduction. It supports countries in their efforts to enable the development of effective producer organizations that integrate principles of equity and good governance to improve food security and livelihoods of small-scale producers. To achieve this objective, FAO facilitated a three-day workshop in November 2012 where participants were invited to engage in an analysis and in the development of a roadmap to improve the performance of producer organizations, with a special focus on their ability to respond to the needs and interests of all their members – men, women and youth. The workshop involved POs (grassroots organizations, unions, apex and platform), NGOs, key Ministries and para-statal bodies (MoG, MoA, MoL, the Initiative 3N, Chamber of Agriculture), the agricultural research institute and development partners. The workshop methodology was based on an adaptation of the Organizational Performance Assessment Framework (Chapter 1), of a methodology used by SNV Mali/Oxfam with CSOs and of FAO capacity needs assessment tools²³ (LM2). The adapted methodology focused on three criteria of organizational performance: relevance, effectiveness and financial viability. The basic assumption was that if organizations were effective, financially viable and relevant to members (men, women and youth) they were performing well. It further looked closely at four main factors that strengthened or constrained the ability of producers to perform well: a) motivation; b) organizational structure and governance; c) capacities and skills within the organizations; and d) enabling environment. The analysis showed important information and communication gaps within and between different levels of POs, and between POs and Government strongly limiting PO's capacity to influence relevant policy and law making processes at national and local level. A lack of common identity and motivation, low women and youth participation in the decision-making bodies and processes, coupled with insufficient negotiation, management and leadership skills. The workshop offered space to discuss the results of this analysis and to develop a roadmap for the first two years, prioritizing activities and defining roles and responsibilities of relevant stakeholders.

Source: Djeddah C. and Bojic D., 2012.

A culture change programme is a strategic intervention that addresses an organization's internal culture (i.e. the way we do business here) in order to create a plan for improvement and change. Engaging in cultural change programmes can be extremely challenging and time consuming. Strategic planning or visioning processes can kick off organizational change; however cultural elements may pose hidden dangers that can impede achieving the vision and the designed "path" for change. According to E. Schein, "Culture matters. It matters because decisions made without awareness of the operative cultural forces may have unanticipated or undesirable consequences". (Schein, E.H., 1999). The OPA framework described in Chapter 1 includes culture as one of the pillars for organizational analysis. Chapter 5 includes the OPA checklist to assess culture and offers an adaptation of the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) as well.

Box 13 describes FAO's experience supporting Serbia's Forestry Directorate in engaging in a self-assessment of its organizational culture.

²³ FAO Learning Module 2, 2012.

BOX 13: USING THE OCAL IN SERBIA

In December 2011, FAO and the Forestry Directorate of Serbia organized a national workshop in Belgrade to support the organizational development of the Forest Directorate and improve its linkages with other institutions with jurisdiction over forestry matters. Participants included staff from the Forestry Directorate, Ministry of Agriculture, public forest enterprises, private forest owners, private owner associations, research institutes and universities.

One of the workshop sessions focused on **organizational culture**, which influences employee behaviours, satisfaction, reputation and retention.

The workshop participants used the OCAL to evaluate their organization and compare it to the type of organization in which they would prefer to work.

The exercise revealed that participants felt their current organizational culture emphasized its hierarchical nature and focused on stability, procedures and consistency over other characteristics. Participants also concluded that organizational effectiveness would increase if the emphasis on control would shift to give more space to innovation and collaboration. The results of the assessment were used in the workshop to: (1) provide a visual representation of the current culture; (2) initiate a discussion on organizational culture and its impact on employee morale and motivation; (3) see whether differences exist between how employees and external stakeholders see the organization (there were no detectable differences); and (4) identify and prioritize which concrete steps could be taken to make the organization more innovative and collaborative and less hierarchical.

Source: Boscolo M., 2013.

2.2.2 FUNCTIONAL INTERVENTIONS

For organizations to develop, they often must undergo significant changes in their structures, technologies, operational processes, procedures, role and positions. Certain structural changes may be linked to a particular developmental phase in an organization's life cycle.

According to Cummings and Worley (2001), functional²⁴ interventions focus on improving structures (e.g. division of labour and hierarchy) and organizational processes (e.g. organizing tasks, job design). They may involve activities such as:

- > business process re-engineering; and
- > redesigning organizational structures.

Business process re-engineering aims to analyse an organization's workflows and processes to help it fundamentally reassess its operations in order to cut costs, improve competitiveness and increase relevance. According to Davenport (1990), a business process is a set of logically related tasks performed to achieve a defined organizational outcome which is business-oriented. Business process re-engineering is also known as business process redesign, business transformation, or business process change management. Chapter 5 includes Tool 12 which highlights the major steps involved in business process re-engineering.

Redesigning organizational structures begins by examining the way an organization is constructed – in terms of departments, units or sections – its tasks, responsibilities, authorities and way of working and the way people are coordinated to accomplish tasks. Organizational theory presents various organizational models which consider different organizational structures. Scientific management²⁵ was based on functional structures, systems theory²⁶ focuses more on divisional and matrix/process structures and complexity²⁷ theory concentrates more on network and cluster structures. Table 1 provides information regarding the main features of these organizational structures.

²⁴ See footnote 21.

²⁵ Taylor F., 1911. *The principles of scientific management*. New York, NY, USA and London, UK: Harper & Brothers.

²⁶ McKinsey 7-S Model, Galbraith's Star Model, Nadler's Congruence Model, etc.

²⁷ Nadler's Updated Congruence Model, Kilmann Model, etc.

	FUNCTIONAL	DIVISIONAL/ PRODUCT/PROCESS OR GEOGRAPHICAL STRUCTURE	MATRIX	NETWORK	CLUSTER
MAJOR FEATURES	Activities are grouped into departments Hierarchical focus Works through standards Typical of ministries	Activities are run independently by business units Typical of the private sector	Activities are run by teams Core work is project-based Typical of the private sector	Activities are organized around team and unit delivery Typical of the private sector	Activities are organized around team and unit delivery which are flexible, capable to innovate and change rapidly Typical of the private sector
DIVISION OF LABOUR	By inputs	By outputs	By inputs and outputs	By knowledge	By skills and knowledge
COORDINATION MECHANISM	Hierarchical supervision, plans and procedures	Division General manager and corporate staff	Dual reporting relationships	Cross-functional teams	Centralized hub coordinating across partner organizations
DECISION RIGHTS	Highly centralized	Separation of strategy and execution	Shared	Highly decentralized	Within each contributing organization
BASIS OF AUTHORITY	Positional and functional expertise	General management responsibility and resources	Negotiating skills and resources	Knowledge and resources	Expertise, resources and position in the marketplace
ADAPTABILITY	Poor	Good	Moderate	Good	Good
ACCOUNTABILITY	Good	Excellent	Moderate	Moderate	Good
STRATEGY FOR WHICH BEST SUITED	Stable	Diversified	Responsive	Innovative	Competitive

Source: Adapted from Stanford, N. , 2007.

[Table 1] Comparing organizational structures

Making changes to organizational structures requires:

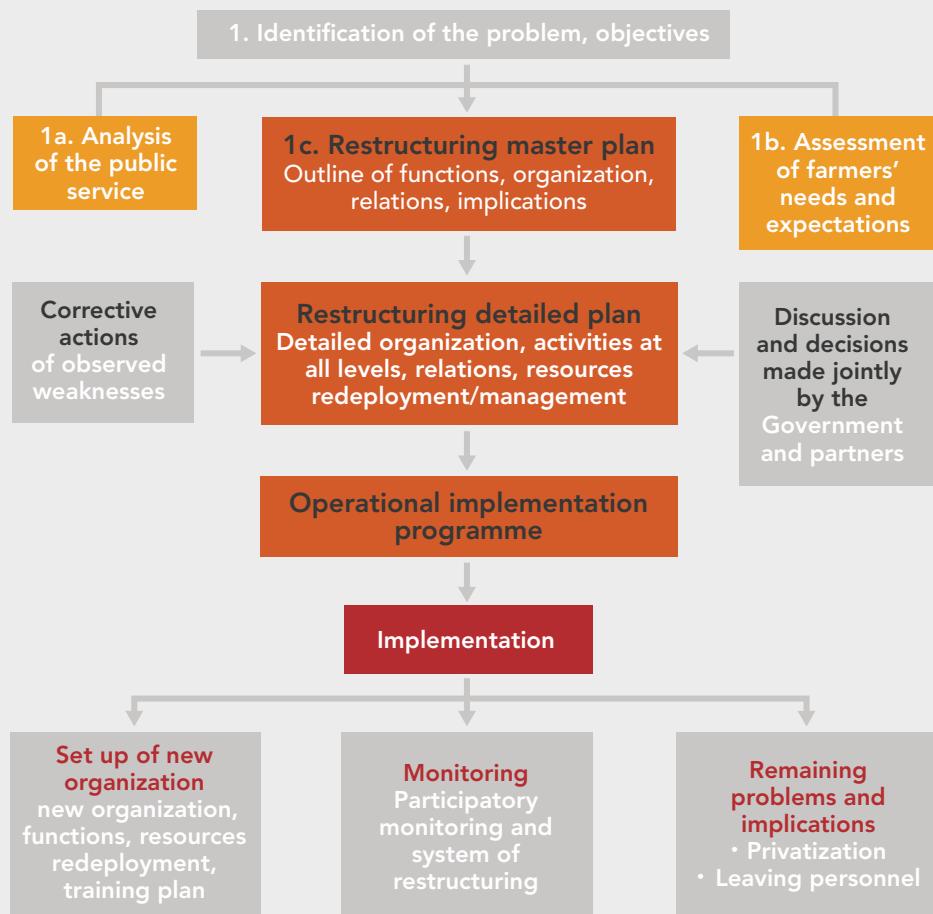
- > analysing the current structure;
- > reflecting on how a new structure can best support the organizational goals and respond to clients' or members' needs; and
- > considering various internal and external factors that will affect the type of structure chosen.

Box 14 illustrates a methodology for restructuring agricultural public institutions that was applied by FAO in several countries between 1989 and 2002.

BOX 14: RESTRUCTURING MINISTRIES AND PUBLIC RURAL INSTITUTIONS IN BENIN

The economic and financial deterioration of the late 1980s led Benin close to bankruptcy and to the acceptance of Structural Adjustment Programmes. Between 1989 and 1990, with technical assistance from FAO and financial contributions from the World Bank and the United Nations Development Programme, Benin restructured its Ministry of Rural Development and Cooperative Action (MDRAC) and the Regional Center of Rural Development Action (CARDER). The main steps used in restructuring MDRAC and CARDER are shown below.

Main steps in restructuring agricultural public institutions



The analysis began at the field level to better understand the perceptions of producers' organizations regarding the services provided by CARDER and MDRAC; it was then extended to the regional and central levels. The master plan identified:

- > major functions and attributions of MDRAC and CARDER;
- > typologies of organizational structures to carry out activities;
- > relationships; and
- > an initial assessment of human and financial implications.

Once the master plan was presented and discussed at every level of MDRAC and CARDER by the staff and representatives of the population groups, a detailed plan for restructuring was prepared reflecting the inputs from all stakeholders. The detailed plan encompassed:

- > organization set-up and activities at centralized and decentralized levels;
- > working methods and internal and external relations in accordance with decentralization and participation of farmers in the decision-making process;
- > resource redeployment and job descriptions; and
- > human, material and financial assessments.

Finally, for each involved service or unit, an operational implementation plan defined the concrete actions to be carried out and the relations with other services and units at each stage of the process.

The restructuring programme reduced the number of services and simplified the organizational structures of the central and regional services of MDRAC. It refocused MDRAC's activities, delegating trade and production functions to private actors and farmer associations, except for cotton, wood and cereals. The staff of the central services and of CARDER was reduced about 63 percent (from 6900 employees to 2600). CARDER was restructured according to four main functions: (1)technical advice to farmers; (2) rural engineering and equipment; (3) programming, monitoring and evaluation; and (4) implementation of regulations.

The process of analysis, discussion and agreement on the restructuring intervention took two years. It was considered a success as Benin took all the necessary steps to proceed with implementation. A four-year World Bank project followed up the implementation process.

Source: FAO OD Seminar 5, "Restructuring ministries: Lessons from experience" by Tayeb N.

While structures can be a relevant component of organization design, it is also important to engage in a thorough analysis to understand if the organizational problem is really related to the structure of the organization, organizational motivation (e.g. staff motivation, organizational culture) or the context in which the organization operates.

Below are some lessons learned from FAO's experience in restructuring public organizations:

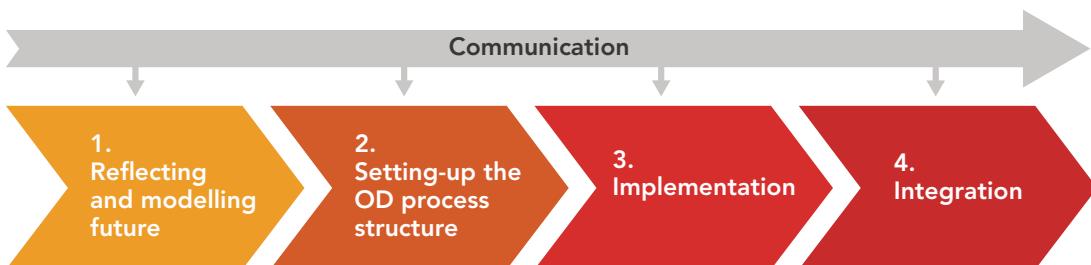


Start by obtaining the necessary engagement and commitment of the internal and external **stakeholders** before and during the change process.

- > Conduct a deep **transformation** – not just a rearrangement of units/people – to rationalize functions and workflows and adapt the organization to respond more effectively to demands.
- > Address **human resources** as a key factor in improving organizational effectiveness, aiming to evolve mentalities and behaviours and foster team spirit, participation, gender equality and initiative.
- > Enhance **performance** by adopting modern working processes and effective use of resources and accountability mechanisms and ensuring the probity of those in managerial or leadership positions.
- > Follow a **staged implementation** that provides enough time for the establishment and functioning of new structures, and that includes measures to strengthen the capacities of units in their new roles.
- > Include a well-structured **communication plan** with bulletins and meetings at every level to keep staff informed about the objectives, progress and outcomes of the restructuring.

2.3 PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTING AN ORGANIZATION CHANGE PROCESS

Figure 6 shows the four phases of an organization design and implementation process. These phases embrace the critical success factors needed throughout the process (i.e. leadership support, stakeholder²⁶ engagement, change readiness and communication) as well as the key components and subcomponents of the OPA framework (i.e. organizational capacity, organizational motivation and the external environment) that need to be aligned during the design process.



[Figure 6] Process for planning and implementing organization design

²⁶ The word stakeholder here refers to any group or individual who is internal to an organization (e.g. managers, employees, shareholders).

Phase 1: Reflecting and modelling the future

After a comprehensive or more focused analysis of an organization has been conducted, meetings need to be facilitated by an internal or external facilitator. The facilitator will stimulate discussions to develop shared and credible models or scenarios for the future. This is a discovery process, and typically appreciative inquiry techniques and visioning exercises are used to reveal the vision, needs and wishes of the people in the organization.

Visioning is based on individual and collective aspirations, hopes, and expectations; it seeks to create consensus and commitment among all members of an organization about their vision for the future, their goals and values. This is critical to building support for change among members within the organization. According to Roberts and Magrab (1999), "Sharing a view of the future represents the most important context for affecting change".

Box 15 describes a new partnership initiative that FAO is facilitating in Burkina Faso to strengthen the sunflower value chain.

BOX 15: FACILITATING A SELF-ASSESSMENT AND VISIONING EXERCISE FOR THE SUNFLOWER VALUE CHAIN IN BURKINA FASO

In June 2012, the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security (MASA) in Burkina Faso asked FAO to support the development of a national programme for the production and commercialization of sunflower oil. In a fragile rural economy dominated by cotton production, this programme responds to the needs of the country to mitigate its economic vulnerability through agriculture intensification and diversification.

To support the actors in building a common vision to strengthen the sunflower value chain, FAO facilitated a consultation, self-assessment and visioning exercise in March 2013 with all concerned actors. All interested parties – grassroot and apex producer organizations, institutional and economic partners – met for three days in Ouagadougou. They shared ideas and analysed experiences around three main areas and five modules through presentations, plenary discussions and group exercises:

Area 1 - Rebuilding the past to understand the present situation

The different stakeholders shared information and conducted a self-assessment of the sector:

- > Module 1: Information was shared on the present status of the sunflower value chain in Burkina Faso, including: a) an evaluation of three years of activities carried out by the CPF (Confédération Paysanne du Faso) on the production of sunflower oil and Agropol (an NGO created by French producer organizations of the vegetable oil chain); b) a presentation from the Ministry of Scientific Research and Innovation about local seed production; and c) a presentation from the Ministry of Agriculture on the government-supported activities for sunflower development. A debate was encouraged and facilitated on the introduced topics.

- > Module 2: Information was shared regarding the experience of French producers on the development of the oilseed value chain in France and participants engaged in a structured discussion through thematic groups. The historical evolution of the French oilseed value chain and its key phases was presented as well as its motivation, identity, systems and structures, its capacity to create relations with actors at different levels and the importance of a conducive enabling environment that made it a success.
- > Module 3: Participants conducted a SWOT analysis of the Burkina Faso sunflower value chain through three thematic groups: (1) Agriculture production and grassroot organizations; (2) producer organizations; and (3) the enabling environment. The group discussion centred around questions related to organizational motivation, capacity and the external environment as well as the rules of the game and stakeholders' relations. Each group reported and discussed the results of its analysis through plenary sessions.

Area 2 – Building the vision of the future

The group created common goals by drawing the vision of the future:

- > Module 4: The thematic groups engaged in a "structured dreaming" for the value chain and for their organizations. The visioning exercise expressed the ambition and aspirations of the different actors for the future of the sunflower value chain and for their organization within it.

Area 3 – Developing the bridge between present and future

Finally, the participants developed a roadmap:

- > Module 5: The actors agreed on an action plan outlining the short-, medium- and long-term changes needed for the sunflower value chain to achieve the vision.

The consultation showed a strong readiness for change among the sunflower value chain actors to shift from the current experimental phase to a development one. MASA and the MRSI (Ministry of Scientific Research and Innovation) have shown clear political will to promote the value chain development. MASA committed to include the theme of sunflower development in the next National Programme for the Development of the Rural Sector and in the Regional Agriculture Sector Policy. The Burkina Faso producers recognized a very important role for the CPF and advocated for the creation of a dynamic multi-actor platform for dialogue. Agropol, oilseed processors, microcredit organizations, banks, seed producers and private input suppliers underlined their commitment to support the value chain actors in strengthening their organizational and technical capacities. The validated Plan of Action details a series of responsibilities and actions to be accomplished in the short, medium and long term by the different actors.

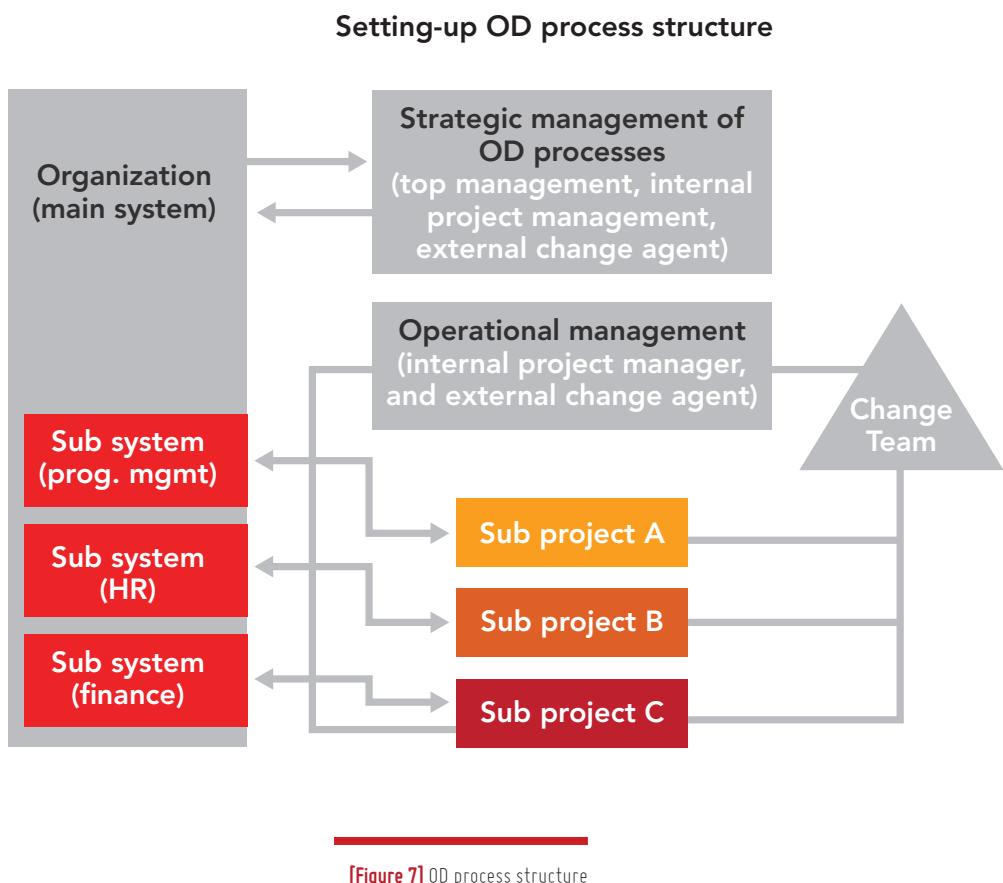
Source: Herbel D., Rocchigiani M., Kiemtoré C., Sanwidi M., 2013.

Chapter 5 includes practical exercises on appreciative inquiry, visioning and scenario building. For further references, the Knowledge sharing toolkit²⁹ and the Information Management Resource- IMARK Kit e-learning module on Knowledge Sharing for Development can also be used to complement the range of tools proposed in this learning module.

²⁹ <http://www.kstoolkit.org>

Phase 2: Setting-up the OD process structure

Whatever the degree of complexity of the change process, it is important to involve a range of perspectives to determine whether the organization is making progress towards achieving its change objectives. An OD process structure should be created to manage the OD process effectively, and it should comprise representatives of the organization under review. Figure 7 below depicts an ideal structure with two major functions: strategic management, which focuses on getting and keeping high-level support for the change process, and operational management, which functions as part of the change team.



The change team

Strategic management should take responsibility for selecting the initial change team which is a small group of people belonging to the organization who will be working on the organization design and implementation. The role of the change team is to identify organizational weaknesses or barriers to change and to align all stakeholders' interests and components of the organization during implementation.

The change team has two primary responsibilities: (1) to select improvement projects and (2) to strategically assign the projects, including the change leader. The change leader mobilizes the team, helps to identify needs and inspires collective action around a common vision. He/she is able to interact with all levels of the organization, communicate effectively, delegate and employ excellent organizational skills.



The composition of the change team may change as implementation proceeds. It is crucial to choose the right people who must not only be capable but also be seen as capable; they must have sufficient experience and be fully committed to the change process.

Phase 3: Implementation

Generally, the organization design is implemented through subprojects or initiatives that deal with specific change areas – such as business processes (organizational capacity), job profiles (organizational capacity) or culture (organizational motivation) – and detail activities, roles and functions, units and timeline.

As the organization design is implemented, all the components that contribute to it (i.e. organizational capacity, motivation, external environment) must be monitored and measured, along with the risks, successes, milestones and lessons learned. Without an adequate tracking system, it is impossible to keep the initiative moving in the right direction. Because organization design activities inevitably involve people's reactions and resistance to change, qualitative aspects of the process must be monitored as well. Chapter 4 discusses measures and monitoring in more detail.

Phase 4: Integration

The extent to which the new design is integrated in the organization is really rooted in the earlier phases. If there has been a true realignment of the various organizational components and subcomponents with effective participation, the integration is straightforward; the process is as important as the result. However, reviews at regular intervals are necessary to make any necessary adjustments.

2.3.1 THE IMPORTANCE OF PARTICIPATION AND COMMUNICATION

The preliminary step to securing organizational change involves embedding the planning and implementing processes in a participatory approach that engages and motivates members/staff of the organization through dialogue. This approach is one of the most effective means of mitigating resistance to change. People (women, men, youth) need to understand their situation and initiate action with their own creativity. Through mobilization, people can organize themselves to act collectively by defining their needs and preferences, choosing their own agenda and developing their vision and strategy rather than having these things imposed upon them from the outside. Table 2 defines key aspects of participatory approaches used in organization design processes.

PARTICIPATORY APPROACHES	
FACILITATING AND COACHING	External support staff coaches members to collect and analyse information to establish a self-assessment of the actual situation in order to facilitate an internal learning process.
DEMAND-LED ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE	Clients/members define their needs, preferences and agenda to design the organization's common vision and mission.
MEMBERS' ACTIVE INVOLVEMENT	Organization members identify issues and discover solutions by developing a roadmap to bridge the present and the future.

[Table 2] Participatory approaches used in organization design processes

Although this learning module focuses mainly on producer organizations and public-service organizations, it is important to keep in mind that OD processes in rural isolated and socio-economically marginalized areas must also include special efforts to target excluded people. Social mobilization will ensure that the most vulnerable people, in particular women and youth, can join, create and fully participate in the design of formal organizations. These efforts should focus on participatory and gender-sensitive approaches, such as the Dimitra participatory communication methodology, notably the Community Listeners' Clubs.³⁰ This social mobilization and empowerment tool is crucial to improve rural populations' capacities to form efficient and equitable organizations, build leadership skills and take collective action. This approach is based on the principle that the process of building stronger organizations can only start if people have been empowered and feel they can be actors of their own development.

Many change initiatives underestimate the need for and value of communication. Early and effective communication paves the way to build trust and prevents eventual resistance. One of the most difficult aspects of a change process is dealing with resistance to change. To this end, it is useful to analyse the type of resistance that can be expected. There are three main reasons for resistance (see Box 16).

³⁰ For more information on the FAO Dimitra Project and the Dimitra Community Listeners' Clubs, see <http://www.fao.org/dimitra/en/>

BOX 16: REASONS FOR RESISTANCE

- > **Uncertainty and instability regarding the process.** Not knowing where or how to arrive, not knowing how to control or contribute to the process or being taken by surprise can generate frustration and resistance.
- > **Conflicting interests with the organizational change.** Fear of losing power or work, fear of getting too much work, fear of losing benefits or of being incapable of handling new tasks and fear of simply a different view on the problem analysis or solution can generate a lot of opposition to the change process.
- > **Psychological responses to the leaders or supporters of the change process.** Resistance can be created among those who distrust the initiator or supporters of the process as well as by those who feel resentment for being neglected, uninformed or uninvolved in the process.

A communication plan should be developed and put into effect in all phases of an intervention – analysis, design, implementation and monitoring. Communication experts typically describe a change curve comprised of several stages:

- > awareness and understanding;
- > buy-in; and
- > adoption and use.

At the awareness stage, communication efforts involve marketing the organizational change to the appropriate stakeholders, highlighting the specific benefits to them. In addition, communications aim to increase understanding and solicit inputs.

At the buy-in stage, communications are important to encourage and support stakeholders to embrace the change programme.

During the adoption stage, the focus is on rewarding the use of the organization change programme.

During the final stage – which focuses on use of the change – regular and consistent communication messages are used to report successes, reviews, lessons learned and milestones.

The following good communication practices have been learned from the experiences of FAO and other organizations:



- > **Plan participation carefully** by informing people in time, involving the right people and choosing the most appropriate people to lead and guide.
- > **Listen** to all parties and make sure to arrive at consensus.
- > **Take the time** to take small steps and prepare people in advance.
- > **Value the past** by honouring people for their past accomplishments. At the same time, be flexible and ensure that people feel prepared and capable for the future. Do not make sudden changes.
- > **Address complaints** and any past resentment..

IN A NUTSHELL

This chapter highlights the process for aligning all the components and subcomponents of an organization toward its goals. The steps involved in organization design and implementation cannot be rigidly predetermined. Rather, they are processes that emerge from an in-depth analysis of an organization and its context.

The following points are important to remember:

- > The OD process is based on a series of activities that may be repeated through the proposed intervention; reflecting on the existing situation, modelling the future, setting up the OD process structure and implementing change are key activities that may be revisited and adjusted during the change process.
- > Good organization design and implementation aim to find the best method of achieving the organizational goals by aligning the various parts of the organization.
- > Good organization design and implementation are based on participatory approaches that focus on leadership support, stakeholder engagement, change readiness, active participation, communication and meticulous planning.

Chapter 5 proposes a series of tools to support these processes: Tool 2 SWOT, Tool 8 Brainstorming, Tool 9 Appreciative inquiry, Tool 10 Visioning, Tool 11 Scenario building, Tool 12 Business process reengineering and Tool 13 Force field analysis.

CHAPTER 2

ORGANIZATION DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION



CHAPTER 3 ENGAGING IN MULTISTAKEHOLDER PROCESSES

“The concept of MSP as an instrument for achieving development goals is sound, particularly when stakeholders with unique complementary strengths or core competencies add value to development efforts and pool their resources and assets in solving problems. But while many laud the virtues of MSPs, most are struggling to make them work.”

Rinalia Abdul Rahim
Executive Director, Global Knowledge Partnership Secretariat
Kuala Lumpur
Malaysia

By the end of this chapter, the user will be able to:



- > define the rationale for multistakeholder processes (MSPs);
- > describe the basic principles to guide the design of MSPs; and
- > identify the steps that can generate an effective MSP.



In the agriculture and rural development domain, a single organization often cannot achieve complex development goals on its own while also being efficient and cost-effective. It necessarily needs to engage in a process with multiple stakeholders to take effective actions and make efficient use of resources.

Multistakeholder processes (MSPs) are an important part of any capacity development intervention. When done well, they develop organizational as well as individual capacities and may enhance the quality of policies and regulations through effective mobilization of stakeholders at different levels.

Generally, an MSP multiplies organizational capacities by:

- > providing access to more resources by drawing on the full range of technical, human, knowledge, physical and financial capital existing within the various organizations;
- > enhancing mutual understanding of values and attributes of each actor, thus creating more stable relations and trust;
- > encouraging coordination of activities, resulting in synergies;
- > bringing innovation to the challenges of sustainable development;
- > stimulating the creation of networks and mutual learning;
- > offering the possibility to access channels for engagement and partnerships with actors at different levels; and
- > bringing about changes in policies through regular dialogue and advocacy.

MSPs are participatory and encourage ownership of interventions. Their participatory nature is not only a matter of the number and type of stakeholders involved, but also of the scope and extent of their involvement in the process and their ability to bring about effective change.

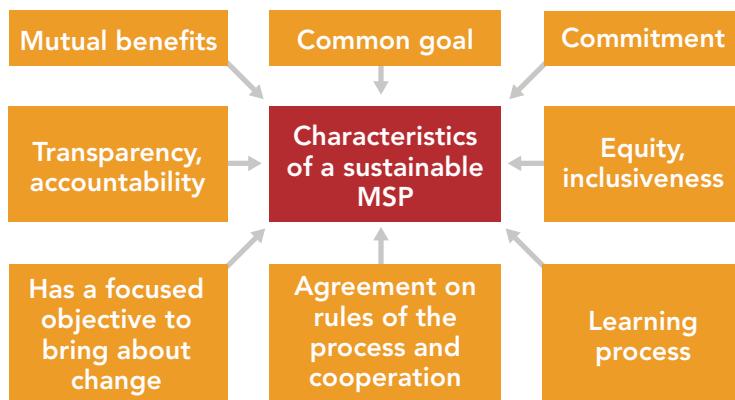
3.1 WHAT IS A MULTISTAKEHOLDER PROCESS?

An MSP is a process in which diverse actors (e.g. government agencies, producer organizations, NGOs, private actors, donors and others) collaborate to achieve a common goal.³¹ They are designed for actions, initiatives or programmes that require cooperation among different stakeholders. Some MSPs can be seen as bridging relations when they connect similar organizations or actors with the same interests, level of resources and power (i.e. intergroup relations). An example of this would be various farmer grassroots groups creating a producer organization, such as a cooperative, or various cooperatives creating a union. Other MSPs can be seen as linking relations when they connect groups of actors with different natures, interests, levels of resources and power (i.e. extragroup relations). An example of this would be small producer organizations connecting with other actors in more influential positions, such as within an interprofessional association with processors or within consultative forums with policy-makers.

³¹ This definition has been adapted from Wageningen MSP Resource Portal. <http://www.wageningenportals.nl/msp/>

MSPs can contribute to bring about economic change and social transformation; however, stakeholders can have different motivations. For example, governments are interested in consulting with civil society and producer organizations to formulate effective rural development and food security policies correcting asymmetries of information. The private sector can improve its image and reputation by engaging in MSPs and assuming its social corporate responsibility. NGOs can form an advocacy alliance with producer organizations and influence the formulation of policies through MSPs. It is important to investigate the motivation of all stakeholders in order to implement MSPs efficiently and effectively.

MSPs need to be conceived and tailored according to the context of each situation. However, they share key principles that can guide the design and implementation of effective processes. In an MSP, the principles of equity, transparency and mutual benefit allow the creation of a base of respect, trust and sustainability (see Figure 8).



[Figure 8] Key principles for successful MSPs



A number of good practices have been developed by FAO and others working with MSPs³², such as the following:

- > To bring about **change**, stakeholders need to work towards a **common goal**.
- > Stakeholders should **benefit** from the process through win-win agreements.
- > Stakeholders can **learn** from each other during the process.
- > The process should involve agreement on rules and cooperation to ensure **transparency and accountability**.
- > MSPs need to consciously deal with issues of power and conflict to ensure **equity and inclusiveness** for all stakeholders.
- > Success depends on the **commitment** of each stakeholder.

³² A key source for information about facilitating MSPs is the MSP Resource Portal of Wageningen University, accessible at <http://portals.wi.wur.nl/msp/index.php?page=1186>.

3.2 TYPES OF MULTISTAKEHOLDER PROCESSES

There are many types of MSPs which differ according to their:

- > **composition:** various actors (e.g. public or private organizations, business-oriented organizations, non-profit organizations, research institutions) can be part of the same process with a different logic, history, culture or structure;
- > **purpose:** these may include policy formulation or revision, project or programme design, knowledge-sharing, partnership-building or value chain development;
- > **topic:** they may address, for example, food and nutrition security, climate change, investment planning, rural development or natural resource management;
- > **scale:** operations may occur on local, national, regional, global, or subsectoral levels; and
- > **time-horizon:** they may occur over the long, medium or short term.

The exact nature of a given MSP will depend on the issues to be covered, the specific objectives, the available expertise, the participants and the amount of time and other resources. MSPs range from simpler processes, like consultations, to more complex or advanced ones like stakeholder networks and platforms, alliances and partnerships. The following section provides brief descriptions and examples of these types:

Consultations involve a two-way flow of information and opinions that usually occur during meetings, workshops or specific events. They allow deliberations, discussions or decision-making (see Box 17).

BOX 17: LIVESTOCK CONSULTATION PROCESSES

FAO has organized livestock consultations to foster interaction among the stakeholders of a specific livestock production chain so that they can identify constraints, viable interventions and policy options for the sustainable development of the sector. The approach has been applied in different geographical regions (e.g. the Ethiopian dairy chain, the Moroccan small ruminant chain, the Vietnamese pork chain and the Mauritanian dromedaries chain).

The consultations are two-day events that bring together a wide spectrum of stakeholders (e.g. government, private actors, farmers, processors, service providers, abattoirs, consumers and scientific experts). The first day focuses on constraints affecting the identification of opportunities for different groups of stakeholders and on options to remove such constraints. Discussions on the second day address animal and zoonotic priority diseases which may vary for different stakeholders. For instance, diseases that have an impact on production and sales may be more important for farmers, while the veterinary service may be most concerned about transboundary diseases.

During these consultations, dialogue among different stakeholders is encouraged and awareness is raised about each other's concerns. The consultations are followed by the elaboration of an action plan where stakeholders' roles and responsibilities are identified for the implementation of the recommendations.

Source: FAO Veterinary Public Health Livestock consultation tool, 2011.

Consultative fora are ad-hoc mechanisms that bring together different stakeholders (e.g. government and producers' apex organizations in which rural people express their needs to policy-makers to jointly define viable approaches that can tackle problems of common concern). Such fora create space for dialogue and facilitate collaboration because they offer the opportunity to reduce information asymmetries and build trust among actors (see Box 18).

BOX 18: CONTRIBUTING TO AGRICULTURE POLICY-MAKING IN WEST AFRICA WITH CONSULTATIVE FORA

In West Africa, the process of formulating the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) Agricultural Policy (ECOWAP) offers a good illustration of how small-producer organizations can shape the enabling environment through effective linking relations with national and regional fora.

In 2001, the Network of West African Producer Organizations (Réseau des organisations paysannes et des producteurs agricoles de l'Afrique de l'Ouest - ROPPA), a regional apex farmer organization from ten west African countries (i.e. Benin, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, the Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Niger, Senegal and Togo), negotiated with ECOWAS and succeeded in having producer organizations participate in the regional task force responsible for formulating the regional agricultural policy. ROPPA organized consultations with national platforms in ECOWAS member countries, provided tools and resources for studies on the role of small-scale farming in rural development and supplied methodological and technical expertise. The process enabled farmer representatives to gain a better understanding of agricultural policy. It also enabled each national farmer organization to develop a proposal outlining its perspectives on key roles of the different stakeholders.

Under the umbrella of ROPPA, these proposals were presented to national governments and at the regional level. In the process, ROPPA became both an acknowledged and trusted source of information for ECOWAS and a more legitimate representative body for members of national farmer organizations. ROPPA built its credibility with its constituency through:

- > ensuring that national farmer organizations participate in documenting the national agricultural situations by organizing local and national meetings;
- > raising awareness among national and regional policy-makers on the advantages of small-producer participation in policy-making;
- > strengthening members' technical and negotiation skills with support from expert farmer organizations charged with conducting analyses; and
- > conducting a communication campaign with media to sensitize public opinion in the West Africa region.

ECOWAP was adopted on 19 January 2005, setting out a vision which included small producers' interests, especially related to family farming and food sovereignty. Later, in 2009, the head of states and governments of ECOWAS established a regional partnership for the implementation of ECOWAP and the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme. By cosigning this agreement with ROPPA, ECOWAS acknowledged it to be a reliable interlocutor, capable of producing a common proposal and synthesizing different national farmer platforms. Although it was a tremendous challenge, ROPPA demonstrated its capacity, know-how and credibility as a regional policy partner throughout the ECOWAP formulation process.

Source : Herbel et al., 2012 (Good Practice No. 32)

Multistakeholder platforms are regular mechanisms which bring together actors (e.g. research and extension agencies, producer umbrella organizations and other state and private agencies). They foster knowledge exchange and promote joint decision-making and collaboration in a continuously evolving way. Such mechanisms also can be part of broader processes for societal change. Box 19 highlights FAO's experience in Honduras, where a broad process of change was possible through an MSP which facilitated the emergence of submunicipal institutions capable of balancing the power of local elites.

BOX 19: SOCIETAL CHANGE THROUGH MSPS AT LOCAL AND COMMUNITY LEVELS

FAO's experience in Lempira Sur, Honduras provides an example of how strengthening a local organization through an MSP can enact societal change in a context of elite capture.

In 1998, the Lempira Sur district was experiencing severe and widespread famine. Years of slash-and-burn agriculture had eroded the natural resource base and the vegetable cover of the tropical hills, jeopardizing the local population's food security and the resilience of its food systems. FAO's objective was to support Lempira Sur in transitioning from slash-and-burn agriculture to more sustainable natural resource management and more resilient food systems.

However, organizational and power issues represented major obstacles to this shift. Local elites resisted the move away from slash-and-burn practices and exerted their influence over the municipalities of Lempira Sur. They influenced mayors, the municipal development councils (responsible for distribution of public resources) and the patronatos (the lowest level of local government). This meant that the elite's influence permeated almost all municipal institutions, creating a gap between citizens and their local government. It was therefore critically important to foster citizen organizations which could balance co-opted municipal institutions. In addition, the diversification of leadership through promotion of new community leaders and the creation of new alliances with the local church proved to be powerful tactics in balancing the power of local elites.

FAO facilitated participatory rural appraisals and participatory diagnosis workshops, which strengthened the capacities of the local communities. As a result, the communities began to identify the problems they faced every day. Groups were formed around specific issues such as the need for lighting, sanitation, agricultural extension services and water provision. Representatives volunteered or were elected to head these groups which were known as Sectoral Commissions. The leaders of the Sectoral Commissions then went on to form Community Development Committees, which represented a wide variety of issues and needs of citizens, households and local producers. The Community Development Committees became a platform which could exert its influence and gain bargaining power with the patronatos.

Sectoral Commissions and Community Development Committees became very popular, and as their influence increased they had representatives in the Municipal Development Council, an organization responsible for the distribution of public resources which had traditionally been under the influence of local elites. The Council eventually changed its name to the Enlarged Municipal Development Council, which consisted of five members appointed by the mayor (and local elites) and five members appointed by the Community Development Councils.

After submunicipal institutions managed to gain bargaining power in decision-making processes, FAO was able to facilitate the shift from slash-and-burn practices to sustainable natural resource management and sustainable agriculture. This change was made possible by facilitating the emergence of institutions which were not under the direct influence of local elites and which were more representational, particularly in terms of age and gender.

Source: FAO OD Seminar 7 by Tomas Lindeman and Giulio Caperchi and Herbel et al., 2012.

Alliances are coalitions of actors created to provide mutual support for influencing policy formulation and programme implementation. For instance, alliances between civil society movements and the media have increased the negotiating power of small-producer apex organizations to influence policy-making and induce legislative change (see Box 20).

BOX 20: INFLUENCING POLICY THROUGH A STRONG ALLIANCE IN THE PHILIPPINES

In 2007, the Sumilao farmers, a group of landless farmers from southern Philippines, organized a sustained campaign and a "long march" of 1 700 km over 72 days to the capital, Manila. The march was aimed primarily at reversing the government's earlier decision to reallocate 144 ha of small-scale farmers' land to the San Miguel Corporation (SMC). More generally, the protest aimed at pressurizing the government to enact agrarian reform.

Professional community organizers trained 55 marchers to become effective spokespersons able to cite legal and moral arguments in support of their cause. The campaign was supported by a broad coalition of farmer federations, NGOs, churches, schools, media, political parties, networks of competent and dedicated lawyers and fundraisers. Public pressure and media involvement were crucial in influencing policy-makers. The media, in particular, provided platforms and venues in which the voices of marginal groups, such as the Sumilao farmers, could be heard locally, nationally and internationally.

As a result of the efforts, on 8 August 2009 the head of state signed a new law extending and introducing 36 reform measures and allotting US\$3 billion to ensure that the "Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Programme" was implemented faster and in a fairer and more meaningful way over the next five years. The farmers were able to obtain 144 ha of land, some of which were donated by SMC and some of which were purchased by SMC from neighbouring landholdings for sale to the Sumilao farmers under the government's Voluntary Offer to Sell scheme (Good Practice No. 29).

The Sumilao case study shows that small-scale producers may need to act collectively to build alliances with civil society organizations in order to be heard.

Source : Herbel et al., 2012.

Partnerships are agreements among different actors to achieve a common goal (e.g. a public-private partnership built on the different roles and expertise of each actor to reach a common objective with shared resources, risks and rewards). A successful partnership enhances the impact and effectiveness of the action through combined and more efficient use of resources. It can promote innovation and is distinguished by a strong commitment of all involved parties.

Box 21 focuses on the International Partnership for Cooperation on Child Labour in Agriculture and emphasizes how the persistent problem of child labour in agriculture can be addressed through concerted action.

BOX 21: THE INTERNATIONAL PARTNERSHIP FOR COOPERATION ON CHILD LABOUR IN AGRICULTURE

The International Partnership for Cooperation on Child Labour in Agriculture was launched in 2007 with the signature of a Declaration of Intent among the International Labour Organization, FAO, the International Fund for Agricultural Development and the International Food Policy Research Institute on behalf of CGIAR (Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research), IFAP (International Federation of Agricultural Producers, until 2010) and the International Union of Foodworkers. The objectives of this Partnership are to:

- > promote cooperation and programme and policy coherence on child labour in agriculture among the different partners and especially in countries;
- > mainstream child labour issues into the activities of agricultural organizations and help raise awareness on how child labour elimination contributes to achieving organizational mandates of agricultural organizations;
- > promote action and cooperation to improve rural livelihoods and income-generating activities;
- > ensure that children do not carry out hazardous work in agriculture; and
- > promote opportunities for decent youth employment in agriculture and rural areas.

This Partnership involves very different partners and types of organizations that all perceive the high prevalence (60 percent) of child labour in agriculture as an obstacle to reaching their organizational goals. The Partnership has many concrete achievements, such as the following:

- > The Cambodian Fisheries Administration has integrated child labour targets into its 10-year strategic planning framework and the Cambodian Code of Conduct for Responsible fisheries. Fishing communities in Cambodia also have committed to tackling child labour at the local level as part of the sustainable management of small-scale fisheries.
- > In Mali, the Ministries of Agriculture and Labour are working together to identify alternatives to child labour and are training Farmer Field School facilitators on the subject.
- > The President of Malawi and the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security have committed to mainstream child labour in agricultural development strategies and in the ministry as a crosscutting issue.
- > At the global level, the Partnership has raised awareness on child labour in agriculture, including on pesticides and in fisheries and livestock.

Several factors contributed to the success of the Partnership and its results:

- > continuous and active interaction among the various partners through regular meetings, staff exchanges and open sessions with colleagues of the hosting partner;
- > trust and building relationships among partners facilitated the sharing of partners' experience and an understanding of each other's structures and mandates;
- > coordination insured by an active secretariat, defined work plan and joint missions;
- > results orientation (i.e. responsibilities and lead roles were attributed according to partners' comparative advantages, context needs and results to be achieved); and
- > flexibility from all partners in re-adjusting targets and roles.

Source: Adapted from FAO and the partnering initiative: A case study: The International Partnership for Cooperation on Child Labour in Agriculture-IPCLA (2012).

Interprofessional associations are private multistakeholder bodies which bring together different professional organizations in the same commodity value chain. They represent the interests of the sector as a whole. Such bodies elaborate alternative contractual policies for members to increase the competitiveness of the sector and defend their interests. Box 22 presents the case of the Tomato Interprofessional Association in Senegal and shows how effective coordination can be addressed through concerted action.

BOX 22: THE TOMATO INTERPROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATION IN SENEGAL

In Senegal, the Interprofessional Association (Comité national de concertation de la filière tomate industrielle – CNCFTI) is an association that brings together different stakeholder organizations including farmers, tomato processors, traders and service providers. Producers and the agro-industry are the most active stakeholders.

CNCFTI contributes greatly to improving the marketing conditions for producers and has helped improve producers' access to quality seeds, credit, outlets and guaranteed prices. It coordinates and facilitates the organization of the cropping season among all stakeholders, including planning cropping patterns, setting prices for fresh tomatoes and providing inputs. Contracts are set up annually between producer groups and the private tomato company. Producers are committed to delivering a certain volume of quality produce on time, and the tomato company is committed to purchasing all production within 24 hours and providing producers with access to short-term credit through the National Rural Banks (Caisse nationale de crédit agricole du Sénégal – CNCAS).

The CNCFTI system secures incomes for 12 000 small-scale tomato producers in the districts of Podor and Dagana in the Senegal River delta. Since the creation of CNCFTI, there has been a steady increase in the number of loans to producers, the area planted to tomatoes and the produce delivered to processors. The price paid to producers for fresh tomatoes has also risen.

Source : Herbel *et al.*, 2012.

3.3 SETTING UP AN MSP

This section provides an overview of the key phases needed for a successful MSP (see Figure 9). It draws on and combines various FAO experiences and the process model developed by the Wageningen University, which is based on the action learning cycle of planning, acting and reflecting.



[Figure 9] Phases for creating a virtuous MSP

Phase 1: Initiate the process

During this first phase, objectives and direction are explored and initial decisions are made. Sometimes, the importance of a proper initiation phase can be underestimated because of the pressures to respond to urgent issues or time and resource constraints. The following are key actions to build a base for a successful MSP:

- > Be clear about the common objectives.
- > Undertake the initial situation analysis (i.e. stakeholders, interests, fears, expectations, issues, power relationships and politics).
- > Establish a coordination body to get things started.
- > Build stakeholder support.
- > Negotiate rules for engagement.
- > Jointly define the scale, scope and mandate of the initiative.
- > Outline the process and its milestones.
- > Clarify roles and tasks of the various actors.

All actors need to understand the potential risks and rewards for their organization and partner organizations in order to commit themselves to a multistakeholder initiative with genuine collaboration based upon 'mutual benefit'.

Risks may arise in any of the following areas:

- > conflicting interests: Multistakeholder commitments can give rise to conflicting feelings and uncomfortable compromises at strategic or operational levels.
- > loss of autonomy: Working in collaboration inevitably means a certain dependency for each organization in the areas of joint work.
- > reputation impact: All organizations value their reputation and may be concerned about whether their reputations will be damaged, either by the collaboration itself or by any failure of the MSP.

An exploratory workshop with all key stakeholders can be useful in creating space for dialogue and initiating the MSP. Afterwards, follow-up meetings and regular exchanges on the initiative are needed. Chapter 5 includes a selection of methodologies derived from the Knowledge-sharing Toolkit³³ and the IMARK e-learning module on Knowledge-sharing for Development. The tools proposed in Chapter 5 include Open Space, World Café and Collaboration meetings, which can support the creation of a proper space for dialogue.

Building stakeholder support is a key area of engagement. The following tips are helpful in this area.



- > Choose the right set of actors to be involved in the initiative, as the composition will influence the outcomes of the process. Ensure that the people involved in the discussions are at the right level to commit the organization they represent.
- > Involve stakeholders at the earliest opportunity to enable them to influence the objectives and activities of the process. Actively welcome contributions and comments.
- > Communicate and publicize widely the MSP's objectives so that participants can have informed discussions from the very beginning.
- > Organize true participation and interaction. Listen to stakeholders and incorporate feedback. Ensure that everyone feels there is space for their ideas and concerns to be heard and taken on board.
- > Manage expectations and keep them realistic.
- > Review the process with stakeholders regularly and make changes to overcome emerging problems.
- > Consider an array of means to keep people informed.
- > Ensure well-facilitated processes with achievable objectives.

Tools for stakeholder analysis and mapping can support this phase. Moreover, the toolbox provides other useful instruments for this initiation phase:

- > Tool 5: Needs and fears mapping – to stimulate discussion by clarifying stakeholders' interests and needs,
- > Tool 6: 4Rs – to analyse roles, responsibilities, revenues and relationships of different stakeholders,
- > Tool 16: Use of Socratic questions – to develop effective dialogue skills.

³³ <http://www.kstoolkit.org>

Phase 2: Build sustainable collaboration

This phase is about gaining participation, ownership and support, it includes the following steps to build sustainable collaboration:

- > Create understanding and trust by sharing each other's values, motivations, concerns and interests.
- > Conduct a full analysis of the situation, particularly issues of power and conflict.
- > Generate visions for the future.
- > Identify issues or opportunities.
- > Agree on strategies for change.
- > Identify actions and responsibilities.
- > Communicate outcomes.

While some of these steps already have been elaborated in the previous chapters, it is important to emphasize here the point about "creating understanding and trust".

Any MSP includes groups with diverse aspirations. Working together with other actors requires achieving a shared vision and understanding and accepting others' motivations. Having a shared understanding and trust of each other's values, motivations, concerns and interests also renders decisions easier and less threatening. The following questions can help generate open discussions on motivation:

- > What is important to your organization/others?
- > What principles guide your organization/others?
- > What are the values that inspire thinking, reasoning and action of your organization?

Once, this understanding is gained, it is important to acknowledge the various aspirations and interests of the concerned stakeholders and discuss ways to ensure continued motivation in the process.

It is also critical for all MSP participants to understand issues of power and conflict. Among diverse stakeholders, there may be underlying causes of opposition or possible conflicts. Reasons for these may include: (1) competing needs and interests over access to resources, outlets or benefits; (2) differences of opinion over facts or disputes over data; or (3) conflicts in relationships or personality. A significant shift in power relations is often required to bring about change and tackle the underlying issues that have led to the need for the MSP. For example, it may be necessary to empower less-influential stakeholder groups to achieve greater change.

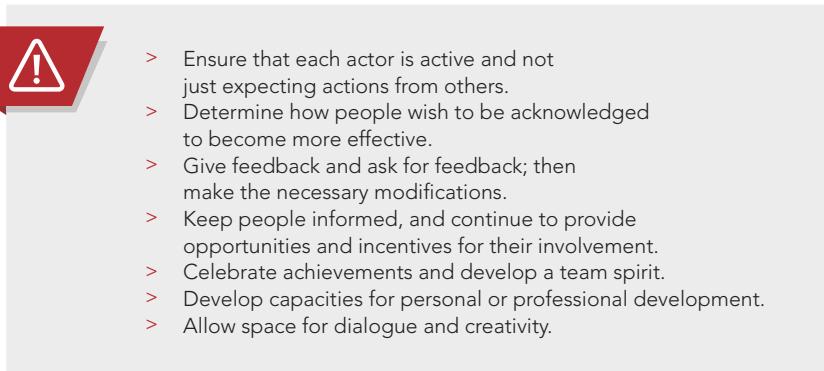
Tools 5, 10 and 11 (Needs and Fears mapping, Visioning and Scenario-building) can support this phase.

Phase 3: Manage collaboration

The activities of this phase will vary with the type of MSP. In many instances, MSPs engage stakeholders in implementing strategies and plans identified during previous phases, and an investment of resources, time and activities are required. The following key actions support effective management of the MSP:

- > Develop detailed action plans.
- > Secure resources and support.
- > Develop capacities and build on the existing talents of each actor.
- > Establish management mechanisms (with built-in conflict-resolution mechanisms).
- > Maintain stakeholders' commitment.

While the first four actions above have already been elaborated in previous chapters, some emphasis needs to be given to "maintaining stakeholders' commitment", which is what make an MSP successful. Maintaining commitment requires time and effort. Below are key tips derived from experience:



- > Ensure that each actor is active and not just expecting actions from others.
- > Determine how people wish to be acknowledged to become more effective.
- > Give feedback and ask for feedback; then make the necessary modifications.
- > Keep people informed, and continue to provide opportunities and incentives for their involvement.
- > Celebrate achievements and develop a team spirit.
- > Develop capacities for personal or professional development.
- > Allow space for dialogue and creativity.

FAO has designed MSPs to assess and renovate the national extension systems³⁴ in Lebanon, Mauritania and Niger (see Box 23). In all three countries, the governments, with FAO's support, designed a pluralistic, integrated approach that included all actors and advisory service providers which were active in extension. The following lessons were learned from the comparative analysis of the three country experiences:

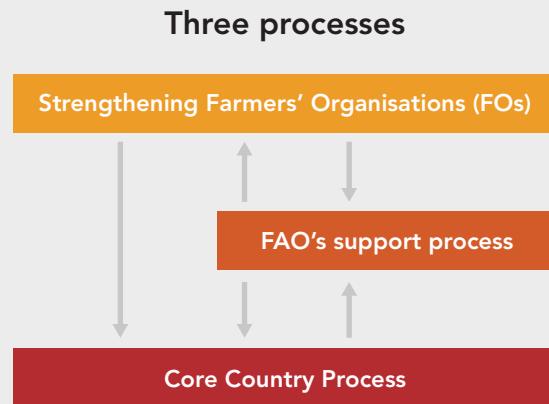
- > MSPs do not just happen; they need to be designed and facilitated which requires time and resources.
- > It is critical to encourage stakeholders' commitment to change.
- > Stakeholders must be open to collaborating with different actors across sectors and levels.
- > National leadership of the process is fundamental. However, there needs to be a balance between high-level involvement and representation and adequate delegation of authority to relevant technical and executive levels according to the needs.
- > Active participation of all stakeholders is crucial to ensure ownership of the process and its outcome, relevance of the outcome and commitment to its implementation.
- > Stakeholders' capacities can limit their contribution and influence in a multi-actor process, especially for small-scale producers, women's groups and less advantaged actors. Specific measures need to be included to strengthen their capacity.
- > Political stability and consistency of the government's interest are essential for the success of an MSP aimed at influencing the enabling environment of a country.

³⁴ The agriculture extension service encompasses the entire set of organizations that support and facilitate all the actors involved in agricultural production to solve problems and obtain information, skills and technologies to improve their livelihoods and well-being. Extension systems are usually national programmes built on agricultural research and agricultural and rural advisory services.

BOX 23: ENGAGING AN MSP FOR EXTENSION REFORM IN NIGER

Niger's top-down agricultural extension system declined following the end of the "Training and Visit (T&V) Programme"³⁵ funded by the World Bank until 1998. In 2006, within the framework of the Rural Development Strategy, a participatory advisory system was among the priorities for public action. The Government requested that FAO provide technical support to develop a new integrated advisory system for rural development. The MSP was designed around three main processes, as shown in the figure below:

Three MSPs in Niger



The Core Country Process encompassed all the activities led by stakeholders in the country to assess and define the new advisory system. It involved extensive consultations and regional workshops with farmers to gather the required information. This mechanism allowed farmer organizations to express their needs and negotiate the demand for key services.

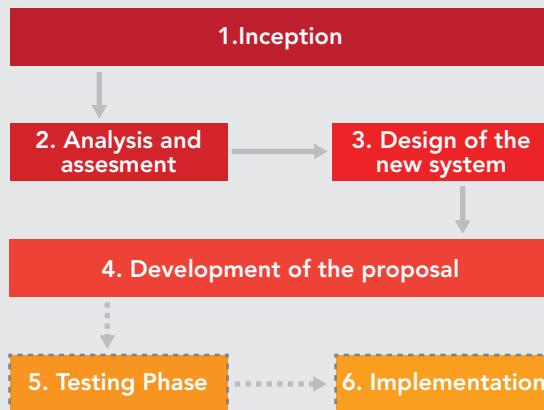
The Strengthening of Farmers' Organizations included all the activities aimed to strengthen the participation and role of farmers in defining the new advisory system. A farmer leader accompanied this process to support the active participation of producers in the core process.

FAO'S support process consisted of technical and methodological advice as well as advocacy for a pluralistic and demand-led advisory system and process facilitation.

³⁵ According to a World Bank Policy Research Working Paper, the T&V model was a top-down and prescriptive approach where extension agents provided solutions to farmers. This approach removed farmers' sense of responsibility. The lack of basic stakeholders' analysis and field research led to the adoption of inappropriate technical solutions for agriculture development. The extension work training and face-to-face advocacy were ineffective due to the lack of basic data about the knowledge and practices of stakeholders and beneficiaries. Briefly, there was a complete absence of any process of consultation among researchers, fieldwork and farmers, and there was no feedback and no opportunity to adapt service delivery to the needs of beneficiaries. (Anderson J., Feder G. and Ganguly S., 2006)

The main phases of the MSP in Niger are shown below:

Main phases of the process



1. *Inception*. The inception phase set up the beginning of the process, which involved exploring purpose, focus and direction and reaching agreement on the process. A National Steering Committee (NSC) was established, composed of all stakeholders (i.e. the Ministries of Agriculture and others; NGOs; farmer organizations; donors and private providers) and chaired by the SDR (Secretariat for Rural Development). This allowed more effective planning and avoided questioning of next phases. National consultants were identified from the public sector, NGO community and farmer organizations to lead Phase 2 and support the implementation of Phases 3 and 4.

2. *Analysis and assessment*. Before the new system was designed, the existing system was analysed to explore how change could occur and why groups and individuals had a particular perspective. The following steps were taken:

- > training the national consultants (representing the main stakeholders) to strengthen their capacities in carrying out assessments in their respective areas;
- > designing assessment tools with the national consultants to analyse the main organizational goals, functions, resources, methodologies and linkages of public and non-public providers of the current extension system at national and field levels;
- > conducting the assessments, which was done by the national consultants who drafted the assessment reports and led five regional workshops to communicate the assessment results; and
- > ensuring the review of the assessment report by all stakeholders and approval by the NSC (National Steering Committee).

3. *Design*. The regional workshops were used to collect proposals and ideas for the design of the new system with a farmer leader accompanying the process. A summary report gathering all proposals was developed and discussed by all stakeholders and validated by the government.

4. *Development of the proposal*. The NSC developed the proposal for the new advisory system, with a focus on smallholders in the various agricultural zones with budget and an operational plan.

All four phases were developed and approved from the very beginning by the NSC to insure involvement of the various actors including farmer organizations.

Source: FAO OD Seminar 6 on "Engaging in MSP for extension reform" by Magdalena Blum and May Hani.

IN A NUTSHELL

This chapter focuses on the importance of effective MSPs and outlines key steps for executing them. MSPs permit single organizations to collaborate and improve their performance by leveraging their capacities. There are many types of such processes, which differ according to their composition, purpose, topic, scale and time horizon. A series of experiences in such processes are highlighted in the chapter.

Key principles can guide the design of such processes; however, they can be tricky and sensitive. To be sustainable, MSPs need to be built upon a clear “win-win” agreement where no one wins at some else’s expense. Reaching a compromise can be very cumbersome. Each party needs to understand the motivations, fears and interests of the others and also the risks and the rewards brought by such collaboration.

Chapter 5 proposes a series of tools to support these processes: Tool 5: Needs and Fear Mapping; Tool 8: Brainstorming; Tool 14: Open Space; Tool 15: World Café; Tool 16: Using Socratic questions; Tool 17: Collaboration, planning, problem-solving meetings.

CHAPTER 3 ENGAGING IN MULTISTAKEHOLDER PROCESSES



CHAPTER 4 MEASURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

“When a man does not know what harbor he is making for, no wind is the right wind.”

Seneca

By the end of this chapter, the user will be able to:



- > identify criteria to measure organizational performance;
- > identify indicators for those criteria to monitor and evaluate organizational performance; and
- > identify steps and methods for measuring.



There is general interest in measurement approaches for all types of organizations. Throughout the world, governments seek new ways to improve public management and accountability systems to show results for their citizens. FAO is increasingly moving towards result-based approaches in its programme of work and projects by designing measurement systems that can track the results produced by its interventions.

Projects or programmes with strong capacity development components can encourage organizational change. A result framework can help to answer the fundamental question of whether results were achieved and outcomes³⁶ were sustained. It can help to :

- > focus attention on achieving outcomes that are important to the organization and its stakeholders;
- > acquire crucial information from a managerial point of view on whether the strategy guiding the intervention is appropriate, correct and adequate to the changes being sought through the intervention; and
- > encourage organizational learning. This happens specifically if participatory methods are applied, where actors are encouraged to think critically about their own work and look for ways to improve it.

4.1 WHAT LEVEL OF CHANGE ARE WE TARGETING?

This chapter expands on Chapter 3 of FAO's Learning Module 2 – "FAO capacity development in programming: Processes and tools" – by taking a pragmatic look at measurement approaches and their applications. In the context of OD, building a result framework means engaging in formal activities to assess, monitor and evaluate changes in the performance of organizations and MSPs.

First, it is important to define the level of change that an intervention aims to encourage. These may include the following levels:

- > individual (i.e. changes in attitudes, skills and knowledge for the people working for an organization);
- > group or team (i.e. changes in group or team effectiveness);
- > organization (i.e. changes in organizational performance); or
- > MSPs (i.e. changes obtained through joint initiatives with other organizations).

Learning Module 3 – "FAO good learning practices for effective capacity development" – offers detailed guidance, examples and tools to assess change at the individual level. This chapter will focus mainly on how to assess change in the performance of organizations and MSPs. In addition, the proposed criteria can be applied to measure the performance of groups and teams.

In general, assessing, monitoring and evaluating organizational performance may be conducted at three points in time: ex-ante (prior to implementing a change intervention); during the intervention; and ex-post (after implementing a change intervention). The OPA framework, described in Chapter 1, provides the theoretical basis for identifying indicators for these purposes and can be used to carry out an ex-ante or a baseline assessment. The following section looks closely at organizational performance indicators which are normally used ex-post to evaluate intervention results.

³⁶ Outcomes are medium- to long-term results achieved from a project or programme. For example, an outcome can entail a behavioural change for individuals, an improvement in organizational performance or the implementation of a policy reform.

4.2 MEASURING PERFORMANCE³⁷ IN A TARGET ORGANIZATION

The term performance refers to the accomplishment of a certain mission and is measured against four main criteria: relevance, effectiveness, efficiency and sustainability (particularly financial viability) of an organization. Box 24 provides definitions for these terms.



BOX 24: PERFORMANCE CRITERIA AND DEFINITIONS

CRITERIA FOR MEASURING ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE	DEFINITIONS
Relevance	The extent to which an organization responds to the needs of its stakeholders
Effectiveness	The extent to which an organization is able to fulfil its goals
Efficiency	The comparison of the organizational outputs and the costs incurred to obtain those outputs
Sustainability	The ability of an organization to continue to adapt to its evolving environment and adequately manage its resources

Relevance

Organizations must be relevant to their key stakeholders (i.e. members, beneficiaries, clients, funders and donors). Relevance refers to an organization's ability to align its mission, goals, programmes and activities with the evolving needs of its stakeholders. Assessing relevance means determining the level of satisfaction of an organization's stakeholders and resolving any problems identified. The key question in assessing relevance is: "Does the organization still provide the services or products that its members or clients expect?"

³⁷ This section mainly draws from the work carried out by the International Development Research Centre and Universalia Management Group.

BOX 25: BASIC INDICATORS FOR ASSESSING RELEVANCE

- > Stakeholders' satisfaction
- > Changes in partner attitudes
- > Changes in funders (quality and quantity)
- > Changes in reputation among peer organizations/stakeholders
- > Changes in roles, mandates or priorities
- > Stakeholders acceptance of programmes and services
- > Changes in services and programmes related to the changing client systems

Box 26 offers an example of how FAO engaged to measure results from a client perspective through the combination of quantitative and qualitative evaluation techniques.

BOX 26: MEASURING CLIENT SATISFACTION WITH FAO CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

FAO developed and implemented a methodology to assess countries' satisfaction with FAO capacity development support for investment. The methodology was designed to assess the results of FAO's engagement to "improve public and private sector organizations' capacity to plan, implement and enhance the sustainability of food and agriculture and rural development investment operations" at the outcome level. The capacity development support ranged from one-day workshops, multiple-day training courses, SSC and on-the-job training, to technical coaching in-country and via email, and covered a spectrum of investment themes.

The methodology builds upon the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development's standard evaluation criteria, aspects of relevance, efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability, and combines quantitative and qualitative elements. At the heart of the methodology stands the assessment by the Manager/Supervisor of participants in FAO-organized capacity development interventions. Managers were chosen as key informants as they were in the best position to assess the strategic importance and results of the capacity development support provided.

The assessment was organized in two steps. The first step was the implementation of **Focus Groups following an interview guide** to encourage discussions about the relevance, effectiveness and efficiency of a particular FAO-organized learning event. This was to understand to what extent the participants could use and share the knowledge acquired within their organization. The result of this step informed the following one, i.e. the **interview with the respective managers**, who were asked to score from 1-10 the relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, sustainability and overall satisfaction with a particular FAO-organized learning activity. This score should be based on the observable change/improvement of participants following FAO's intervention, e.g. application of new techniques/knowledge, better implementation and management skills. The collected information was then analysed calculating weighted averages of managers' satisfaction scores based on duration and number/intensity of these learning events. This methodology has been applied in nine countries. It revealed that satisfaction at country level is high – reaching 80 percent -- and that FAO CD for investment support is considered highly relevant to the context of partner institutions, efficient, effective and largely sustainable. The toolbox includes the interview guide used for the focus groups and the rating sheet for the managers' interview. In addition to the quantitative findings of this assessment, the qualitative information has been used to adapt and improve FAO's service delivery.

Source: FAO OD Seminar 9 by Astrid Agostini and Jennifer Braun

Effectiveness

Effectiveness is the extent to which an organization is able to fulfil its goals. Therefore, it is important to first understand the organization's functional objective (e.g. the goal of the Ministry of Agriculture is to regulate and monitor agricultural programmes and the goal of producer organizations is to provide a range of services to their members, including technical and managerial advice, practical research and access to information, competencies, productive assets and markets). Sometimes, an organization's perception of its functions differs from that of its stakeholders; however, goals and functions of producer organizations and research institutes, for example, typically are stated explicitly in organizational documents such as charters, organizational plans and strategies. Furthermore, legislation normally specifies the goals of government departments or ministries.

Effectiveness responds to the basic question: "How effective is the organization in working towards its mission/goal?" Box 27 provides a list of basic indicators to assess organizational effectiveness.

BOX 27: BASIC INDICATORS OF EFFECTIVENESS

- > Achievement of goals (quantitative or qualitative)
- > Number (or percentage) of clients served
- > Quality of services and products through users' perceptions
- > Service access and usage
- > Knowledge generation and utilization
- > Quality of life changes (quantitative or qualitative)
- > Demand for services and products
- > Increase in coverage of programmes, number and types of services, number of clients (and level of funding)

Box 28 provides an example of measuring the effectiveness of farmers' advocacy organizations in influencing agricultural policies.

BOX 28: MEASURING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF FARMER ADVOCACY ORGANIZATIONS

Maître D'Hotel and Bosc (Maître d'Hotel E., Bosc P.M., 2011: 469-485) carried out a comparative study to assess the influence of farmer organizations on policy-making processes in three major farm sectors in Costa Rica: coffee, milk and beans. The authors collected data through interviews with representatives of farmer organizations, producers, representatives of public authorities and private firms. They were asked to describe the history of their organization, the challenges and the opportunities, as well as to describe their farming strategies (production, commercialization, intensification and/or diversification). The information collected was triangulated with bibliographic sources and direct observation. The effectiveness of farmer advocacy organizations relies upon the negotiating power of the farmer organization. The study shows that farmer organizations can play a key role in shaping the policies of their sector. However, the outcome that emerges depends on the degree of concentration/integration of such organizations and on the resource endowments of farmers' organization. In each of the three cases studied, the policy-making process involves a series of proposals and decisions. In the milk case and, to a lesser extent, the coffee case, the final decision negotiated with the policy makers largely reflects the proposal secured through the advocacy of farmer organizations. This is not the case in the bean sector, where the interests of processing and importing firms tend to prevail during policy negotiations. The authors explain such differences based on three factors:

- > The types of organizations: fully integrated in the milk sector, highly concentrated in the coffee sector and fragmented in the bean sector. The bargaining power of an organization is likely to be higher the larger and more unified it is.
- > The resource endowments: economic power (market shares, financial resources), information access, expertise and knowledge, social capital; the capacity to access the right political space where the final decision is taken.
- > The history of the organization: In the coffee and milk sectors, producer organizations have deep roots and have constructed strong coordination mechanisms with private and public actors. These coordination mechanisms enable them to protect their interests. In the case of bean producer organizations, the organizations have been formed only recently and still lack the strategic capacity to defend their interests.

Sector	Influence of farmer organizations in policy negotiations	Factors influencing effectiveness of advocacy producer organizations				
		Integration-concentration	Expertise	Economic power	Policy networks	History
Coffee	62%	Highly concentrated 3 major actors	High	High	Very high	70 years
Milk	100%	Fully integrated 1 major organization Very high	Very high	Very high	Very high	40 years
Beans	33%	Fragmented 16 organizations	Low	Very low	Low	10 years

Source: Adapted from Maître D'Hotel E. and Bosc P.M., 2011.

Efficiency

Organizations are generally under pressure to produce more results with fewer resources, i.e. to use their resources efficiently. Efficiency is defined as the ratio between the outputs accomplished by an organization and the costs incurred to accomplish those outputs. Understanding efficiency may be easier with product-oriented organizations than with politically influenced systems or service-oriented organizations. For instance, in some countries, government bodies employ civil servants who should be loyal and supportive to the government regardless of their productivity. The efficiency of a research institute can be captured by considering the number of papers written by each researcher as well as whether they have been published in reputable journals.

The basic question related to efficiency is: "How efficiently does your organization use its human, financial and physical resources?" Box 29 shows a list of basic indicators to assess organizational efficiency.

BOX 29: BASIC INDICATORS OF EFFICIENCY

- > Cost per service or programme provided (and change in cost over time)
- > Total service or programme cost
- > Outputs per staff
- > Cost per client served
- > Timeliness of service delivery
- > Program completion rate
- > Turnover rate
- > Absenteeism rate

Sustainability

Sustainability refers to an organization's ability to continue its operational activities over time by adapting to a changing and evolving context. This ability may depend on a number of factors, such as continued relevance of the organization, its capacity to innovate through new insight and knowledge, its continuity of effective management (e.g. in terms of strategic direction, management oversight) and its financial viability.

Financial viability refers to an organization's ability to generate the resources it requires to cover its costs and reinvest in the medium and long term. This indicator is a critical measure for producer organizations because their survival requires that their inflow of funds be greater than their outflow. This factor is comparatively less important for public-sector organizations because many of them (e.g. ministries) have a regular inflow of funds from government budget allocations.

An important means of organizational self-financing comes from charging member fees for the services provided by the organization. In producer organizations, financial contributions from members encourage greater participation and responsibility. It gives members a sense of involvement and ownership and a reason to demand accountability from their leaders. For example, in Benin, the District Union of Livestock Producer Organizations of Bourgou and Alibori (*Union Départementale des Organisations Professionnelles d'Eleveurs de Ruminants du Borgou et de l'Alibori*) generates its income by providing veterinary products and vaccination services to its members and selling cattle in their self-managed markets. Free services can lead small-scale producers to relinquish initiatives and responsibility, encouraging dependence rather than self-confidence. For these reasons, organizations that provide adequate and affordable services to their members, and charge for these services, are generally better positioned to increase their financial resources and autonomy to become sustainable.

Whether an organization has diverse sources of funding is also another indicator of its well-being. The starting point in assessing the financial viability of an organization is to review its financial statements (e.g. balance sheet and cash flow statement) over time.

The key question related to sustainability is: "Is your organization able to meet its present needs without compromising its future?"

BOX 30: BASIC INDICATORS OF SUSTAINABILITY AND FINANCIAL VIABILITY

- > Number of new programmes and services responding to emerging client/member needs
- > Level of innovation
- > Regular reviews/approval of strategic documents, operational plans
- > Managerial turnover rate
- > Number of years the organization has survived after the phase out of donor/external support (for producer organizations)
- > Ratio of internal funding to external budget support (for producer organizations)
- > Changes over three years to net operating capital
- > Ratio of largest funder to overall revenues
- > Ratio of cash to deferred revenue
- > Ratio of total assets to total liabilities
- > Ratio of current assets to current liabilities
- > Increase in number of funders, amount of resources mobilized, assets, capital and revenues
- > Level of diversification of funding
- > Partners hired to provide services on a regular basis

BOX 31: ASSESSMENT OF THE PERFORMANCE OF THE FORESTRY SECTOR IN UGANDA

In Uganda, a forestry sector reform process was implemented between 1998 and 2004. The reform process resulted in a framework for the forestry sector consisting of: (1) a new Forestry Policy (2001); (2) a new law – the National Forestry and Tree Planting Act (2003); (3) a comprehensive National Forest Plan (2002); and (4) the creation of three agencies i.e. the Forestry Sector Support Department (FSSD), the National Forestry Authority (NFA) and the District Forestry Service (DFS) which replaced the Forestry Department.

In 2010, the Ministry of Water and Environment (MoWE), Directorate of the Environment Affairs commissioned LTS International Ltd. to conduct a review of the performance of these institutions. The assessment also examined the 2001 policy and the 2003 law which created the new enabling environment to improve the performance of the forestry sector. The OPA framework was used as the methodology for the assessment.

The assessment process for each agency was mainly qualitative. Performance criteria and their causes were discussed with staff and other stakeholders. The assessment process also involved literature reviews, analysis of plans and progress reports, individual interviews, focus groups and broad consultative meetings with the sector's main stakeholders. Effectiveness, efficiency, relevance and financial viability issues were discussed by comparing achievements to established targets.

The assessment of the three agencies revealed that their performance was critically constrained by weak organizational capacity and inadequate funding. The reform process that, in principle, aimed to clarify and separate regulatory and coordination functions from forest management and implementation led in reality to the development of unprepared organizations unable to deliver on their functions and in need of structural reorganization. Regarding the Forestry Policy (2001) and the National Forestry and Tree Planting Act (2003), the assessment revealed that they provided the basis for good sector performance, despite the fact that many provisions of the Tree Planting Act were not utilized because of a lack of implementing regulations.

Source: LTS, *Review of the Forestry Sector in Uganda, 2010*.

4.3 MEASURING RESULTS OF A MULTISTAKEHOLDER PROCESS

Organizations need to carry out many tasks in collaboration with other types of organizations (e.g. networks, partnerships) which, in most cases, vary in their scope, mandate and size. While there are different types of MSPs, as highlighted in Chapter 3, they share common characteristics which can guide the choice of relevant performance indicators.

Qualitative and quantitative measures can be used to assess the performance of an MSP. Starting with the definition of an MSP (i.e. a process in which diverse actors collaborate together to achieve a common goal), it is possible to identify key indicators of effectiveness, relevance, efficiency and sustainability (see Box 32)



BOX 32: CRITERIA AND ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS

CRITERIA	ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS
Effectiveness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Achievement of goals and objectives arising from the MSP > Effectiveness of activity portfolio management > Frequency and quality of meetings and exchanges among stakeholders with similar mandates > Implementation of joint actions
Efficiency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Programme completion rate through the MSP
Relevance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Beneficiaries' level of satisfaction level with the MSP > Beneficiaries perceptions about the activities derived from the MSP > Perceived level of interaction among stakeholders
Sustainability (Financial viability)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Level of innovation through the MSP > Flow of funds in relation to the services/products exchanged > Resource mobilization level and level of funding diversification

4.4 SETTING UP A MEASUREMENT PROCESS

In order to create systems that allow the measurement of organizational performance, it is important to collect data before, during and after the organizational development intervention.

A three-phase process is proposed to measure organizational change effectively.



[Figure 10] Process to measure organizational change

Phase 1: Define the measures of change

First, it is important to clearly identify the target of the change process (see Chapter 2, section 2.2), and then it is possible to define indicators that will give meaningful information. The indicators need to be agreed upon with relevant stakeholders. This ensures that the results will be accepted within the organization or MSP. Box 33 offers an example of a challenging MSP for fodder innovation in which the monitoring system was not developed in a participatory way.

BOX 33: MONITORING AND EVALUATION IN THE FODDER INNOVATION PROJECT

The fodder innovation project (FIP) was implemented in India and Nigeria between 2007 and 2010. Its objective was to address fodder shortages caused by a limited fodder innovation capacity. Fodder innovation capacity was defined as the networks of organizations that mobilized ideas and resources and the institutional settings that framed the relationships among the various stakeholders involved in innovation.

The project used an action-research approach whereby research preceded action and followed it. This allowed iterations to recast the activities. A monitoring system was a critical element of this iterative process and was designed to include a baseline survey of households, a map of existing innovation capacity, an actor linkage matrix and a scoreboard³⁸ to track institutional change. The scoreboard developed by the project team was conceived to assess qualitative changes in the nature of the relationships among the various actors. For each relationship identified in the actor linkage matrix, the key partner organizations were supposed to regularly use the scoreboard parameters to specify the quality of these relationships. Some of the parameters used were:

- > openness and flexibility of partners to project activities;
- > level of joint actions and resource sharing;
- > interactions and perceived value of the interactions;
- > punctuality and commitment;
- > forum as platform for mutual benefit; and
- > use of own resources for project activities.

Many difficulties were encountered with the application of all these methods. First, the choice of all these methods was an imperfect compromise among the various stakeholders. Some felt that the project was a development project and that monitoring should focus on what they viewed as major deliverables of the project, i.e. household-level outcomes. Others viewed the project as an instrument to understand how to facilitate institutional change associated with the development of innovation capacity. This was revealed to be very inefficient and resource intensive. For instance, the baseline household survey covered 17 locations from five project sites in Nigeria and India and included 2 047 household interviews. Data collection took over a year to be completed and the initial data analysis was not completed at the end of the project.

An ex-post assessment could never be implemented as time and resources were not available. Briefly, the data requirements and tools for monitoring were not adapted to the reality of a short project. In addition, the institutional baseline (scoreboard exercise) failed largely because it was expert-driven and not owned by the partners who needed to use it. The partners felt that the scoreboard exercise could not be used in a participatory way because it raised sensitive issues that could undermine the relationship building process.

Source: World Bank, 2012. Abstract from *Module 7-Innovative activity profile 6* by Andy Hall, LINK Ltd.

The first step is to decide a set of questions that will guide the process of assessing the organization's performance. The questioning process helps identify the potential indicators; the more specific the question is, the closer is its measuring. Indicators can be quantitative or qualitative, and sometimes the difference is subtle. Moreover, they can be direct or indirect. A direct indicator can measure directly the result of an activity (e.g. the regularity of a learning programme can be shown by the number of learning events per year). Indirect indicators are proxy measures (e.g. an absenteeism rate can measure a lack of motivation in the staff of an organization).

³⁸ The scoreboard is a technique for combining qualitative and quantitative analysis. It assigned scores (where 0=lowest mark and 10=highest mark) to a series of parameters that needed to be assessed at the project start, in a specific moment during implementation; within the project team (internally) and with key partner organizations (externally).



- > Clear definitions and targets are needed to measure change successfully.
- > Approaches and measures need to be discussed and agreed upon among concerned stakeholders.

Chapter 5 provides a checklist with key questions related to the performance criteria, a sample self-assessment matrix to identify appropriate indicators and data sources and useful exercises for developing indicators.

Phase 2: Choose methods and tools

The ability to establish consistent channels to collect data is a crucial part of the measurement process. There are three types of methods.³⁹ Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods. Each method has strengths and weaknesses.

The choice of measurement methods is determined by:

- > what is to be measured;
- > the audience for the findings; and
- > the resources available (e.g. capacities, funds and time).

Quantitative measures are useful in situations where the target of measuring is regular, precise, countable and comparable (e.g. amount of resources utilized number of new programmes or services delivered by the organization). Qualitative measures are useful in situations involving behaviours where different perspectives have to be considered.⁴⁰ Generally, qualitative information is used to describe how an intervention can function and the processes involved. Mixed methods are often adopted to allow a more complete representation of the assessed situation, because results from one method can support results from the other. In some instances, results from one method may provide contradictory findings. Such a discrepancy is an important source of information and points to issues that need further exploration.



When combining quantitative and qualitative measures, it is important to appropriately sequence the two approaches.

Chapter 1 already highlights the most common data collection techniques (e.g. interviews, document reviews, surveys, direct observation) that are relatively simple, low cost and useful for both monitoring and evaluation. Box 34 summarizes the most common methods to monitor and evaluate change interventions.

³⁹ Quantitative methods provide a description of a phenomenon via statistical, mathematical data; qualitative methods with words.

⁴⁰ For those who are interested in getting in-depth guidance on qualitative methods, refer to FAO E-learning course, Qualitative methods for assessing the impact of development programmes on food security, 2013.

BOX 34: OVERVIEW OF MAJOR METHODS FOR MONITORING AND EVALUATING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

METHOD	PURPOSE	STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
Appreciative inquiry*	Identifies positive organizational changes and looks for unexpected outcomes	Fosters organizational learning from past and present success	May suffer from bias or incorrect reporting
Most significant change**	With the help of primary stakeholders, it identifies the most significant changes that have occurred thanks to the intervention	Strengthens stakeholders' capacities and learning about their organization and themselves No specific skills are required to participate	May suffer from bias or incorrect reporting from the stakeholders designated to select the success stories
Outcome mapping**	Useful to assess what causes change in behaviours, relationships, organizations	Can be adapted to a wide range of contexts Combines process and outcome evaluation	May constitute a long process if taken in its entirety (12 steps) Most data are generated through self-assessment and can be biased Unclear how to combine quantitative data with resulting information from outcome mapping
Organizational Performance Assessment*	Allows systemic assessment of organizational performance	Provides indicators to measure progress towards predetermined goals	Pre determined indicators do not allow measuring unexpected changes The intervention may require too many indicators which may be costly or impractical to measure

Balanced scorecard*	Analysis of organizational performance in four major areas: financial analysis, customer analysis, business processes, innovation	Balanced method to look at organization performance. Qualitative and quantitative aspects are an integral part of organizational performance	Requires a lot of adaptation depending on the type of organization using it Mainly looks at internal organizational capacities Requires internal agreement on the four major areas (objectives) of organizational performance
Rapid appraisal of Agricultural Knowledge Systems	Helps groups of actors to understand their performance	Provides insights into people, values, motivations and reactions Improves knowledge generation and exchange	Strong focus on rural activities Complex methodology to apply as it involves many steps
Stories and narratives	Highlights changes that have occurred at the organizational level, including intangible factors such as values and culture that determine an organization's peculiarity	Exchanging stories among staff in the organization or among stakeholders builds trust among the people involved in the process and can stimulate learning and change	May be biased by the perspective of the person telling the story
<i>*included in the toolbox</i>			
<i>** included in FAO's Learning Module 2: FAO capacity development approaches in programming, processes and tools, 2012.</i>			
<i>Adapted from: World Bank, Sourcebook Agricultural Innovation Systems, 2012.</i>			

The toolbox in Chapter 5 provides an explanation of the balanced scorecard⁴¹ and benchmarking methodologies which are analysis techniques designed to translate an organization's mission statement and overall strategy into specific quantifiable goals and to monitor the organization's performance in terms of achieving those goals. OPA checklists and exercises are included.

Phase 3: Analyse and communicate progress

There are various ways of analysing data, depending on whether your measurement design emphasizes qualitative or quantitative data. In some cases, data collection and analysis can overlap. **Qualitative analysis** is appropriate in situations in which structured or semi-structured interviews, written documents and focus groups notes are used to gain insight into an intervention. The process involves two major techniques:

- > Categorization – This involves identifying key themes in order to understand and interpret behaviours or situations. Qualitative analysis begins while still collecting data, when insights emerge. It is particularly helpful to have more than one person do this independently and then compare themes and patterns.
- > Contextualization – This builds on the categorization and focuses on how things fit together. It generally highlights important contextual factors and individual differences that are often hidden.



BOX 35: TIPS FOR COLLECTING AND ANALYSING QUALITATIVE DATA

TASKS	TIPS
Collect data	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> Keep good records.> Write-up interviews, impressions and notes from focus groups immediately after the data are collected.> Make comparisons as you progress.> Identify themes and make adjustments.
Summarize	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> Write a one- page summary immediately after each major interview or focus group.> Identify all major issues or the most interesting ones.> Identify new questions to be explored.
Keep track	<ul style="list-style-type: none">> Record your own reactions and ideas as they emerge.> Keep a file of quotations from the data collection process to bring the narrative to life when you write your report.

Source: Morras Imas L. , Rist Ray C., World Bank 2010.

⁴¹ FAO has adapted the balanced score card methodology to assess and track performance of national authorities in terms of their commitment and capacity to act on food security and malnutrition. For more on this methodology, please refer to: FAO, Acting on food insecurity and malnutrition: The food security commitment and capacity profile. Methodology paper, 2012.

Quantitative analysis can be done through descriptive and inferential statistics. Often descriptive statistics are sufficient for monitoring and evaluation purposes.

- > **Descriptive statistics** summarize the data and describe the central value through the three Ms
 - mean, median and mode.⁴² Common measures of dispersion are the range and the standard deviation. Other commonly used descriptive statistics include: frequency distributions, percentages and trends.⁴³
- > **Inferential statistics** make it possible to derive estimates about a population based on a random sample taken from it.

Further elaboration on this topic is beyond the scope of this module.⁴⁴



BOX 36: TIPS FOR ANALYSING QUANTITATIVE DATA

- > Choose a standard way to analyse the data and apply it consistently.
- > Do not combine the middle category with categories at either end of the scale.
- > Do not report "agree" or "disagree" without reporting the "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree" categories (if used).
- > Analyse and report both "percentages" and "numbers".
- > Provide the number of respondents as a point of reference.
- > If there is little difference in results, raise the benchmark: what do the results look like when the focus is on questions that received a majority of responses in the "very satisfied" or "strongly disagree" categories?

Source: Morras Imas L., Rist Ray C., *The Road to Results*. World Bank, 2010.

Once an organization has the necessary information, the next step is to make it available to the appropriate stakeholders in a usable form. It is much simpler to meet the information needs of the stakeholders if they have been very involved in selecting the measures and determining the purpose for data collection. An organization can be creative in communicating the findings of the monitoring and evaluation. A variety of techniques can be used such as visual displays, oral presentations, briefs, interim reports, informal conversations and written reports.

⁴² Mean: an average of all responses. Median: the midpoint of a frequency distribution. Mode: the most frequent score.

⁴³ Standard deviation: A measure of the dispersion of a set of data from its mean. Frequency: The number of responses in each category. They can be displayed in tables or graphs. Percentage: The count of each type of response as part of the whole. It allows comparison among those types. Range: The expression of the variance between the highest and lowest score on a numerical measure. Trend: A pattern in data over time. After monitoring an indicator several times, you can observe a trend.

⁴⁴ See: World Bank, 2010. Chapter 10 "Conducting and planning data analysis".



- > Make sure the information reaches the right people.
- > Use a form of communication that catches the attention of the intended audience.
- > Keep it simple!
- > Make sure that when opinions are presented, they are clearly identified as such.
- > Start with the end in mind! The most important information comes first because many people will not take the time to read a whole report.

IN A NUTSHELL

Measurement is a challenging topic; however, it is an important and necessary part of a successful organizational change process. Good measurement indicates if the organization is moving towards its intended goals and tracks the progress of its change.

The chapter highlighted four performance criteria for organizations and multi-actor processes – relevance, effectiveness, efficiency and sustainability – and identified a series of indicators that can be used to monitor and evaluate performance.

There are many methodological approaches and tools available; the choice of the measurement approach is determined by:

- > what is measured;
- > the use and audience for the findings; and
- > the resources available (capacities, funds and time).

It is best to use a participatory approach to select a small number of indicators that are appropriate and useful for the stakeholders who are likely to use them.

Chapter 5 provides useful tools: Tool 18 – Balanced score card methodology; Tool 19 – Benchmarking; a series of exercise sheets and Tool 20 with an example from an FAO methodology which combines quantitative and qualitative evaluation techniques to assess clients'satisfaction.

CHAPTER 4 MEASURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE



CHAPTER 5 TOOLBOX

This chapter presents a set of tools and exercise sheets to be used for assessing, designing, implementing and measuring change both within an organization and among organizations in an MSP. The tools put into practice the theories proposed in the four previous chapters. The exercises enable the implementation of the tools in collective discussions during workshops, meetings or multi-stakeholder consultations.





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TOOLSET 1: ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT (OPA)

When to use it

The Organizational Performance Assessment (OPA) is the primary tool for carrying out an organizational assessment designed to understand organizational performance. It can be used as a baseline, a monitoring and evaluation tool or a framework for strategic planning and visioning exercises. The OPA can be applied:

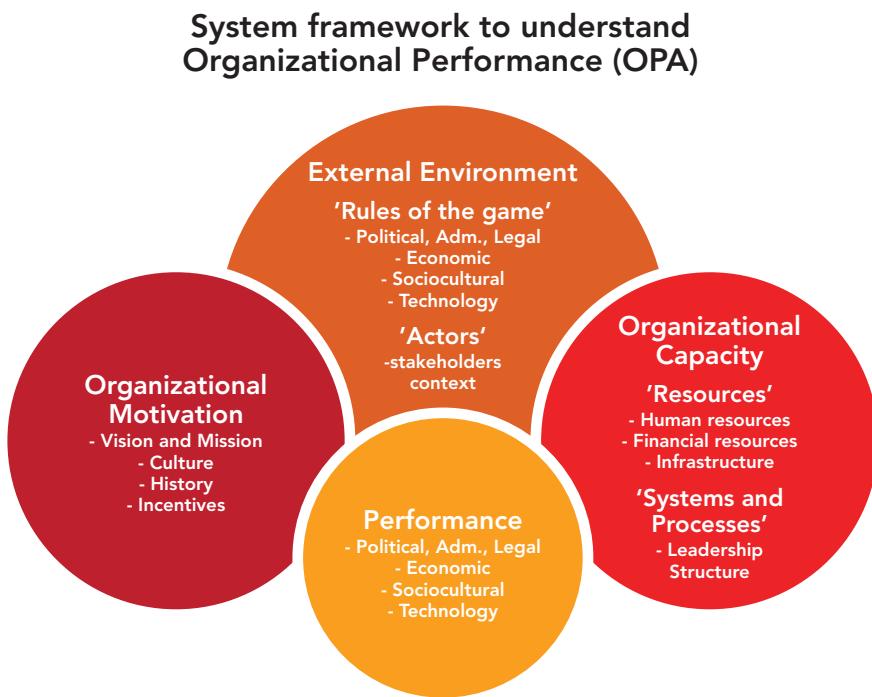
- > to exercises that vary in their size, scope and approach;
- > in a comprehensive or more focused way (i.e. selecting the areas of interest);
- > externally or through a self-assessment approach which encourages ownership of the process and results; and
- > to sharpen a capacity assessment exercise focusing on the organizational dimension.

What it is

The OPA is a systematic framework for assessing organizational performance. Performance is defined in terms of relevance (i.e. the extent to which an organization responds to clients'/members' needs); effectiveness (i.e. mission fulfillment); efficiency (comparison of outputs and incurred costs); and sustainability (i.e. the ability to remain relevant, adaptable and self-sustaining). The basic assumption of this framework is that an organization's performance is driven by three contextual forces:

- > its internal capacity (i.e. resources and systems and processes);
- > its motivation; and
- > its external environment (i.e. rules of the game and the stakeholder context).

The figure below offers a visual representation of this framework.



Organizational motivation

Internally, performance is largely driven by an organization's motivation to work. Motivation is rooted in vision and mission, culture, values and incentive systems. These factors, which are shaped by the organization's history, affect the organization's work quality, how it works, its members and staff engagement and the degree of involvement of internal stakeholders in decision-making processes.

Organizational capacity

Performance is driven, in part, by the resource endowment of an organization (i.e. its human, physical and financial capital) and by the processes to manage this capital (i.e. strategic leadership, human resources, financial resources, infrastructure, programming and process management). Each of these capacity areas may be described as a subcomponent (e.g. an organization's strategic leadership capacity is understood as its structure, governance, leadership, strategic plans and niche management). Human resources, financial resources and infrastructure, in addition to being processes, are seen as resources themselves.

External environment

Organizations exist within certain external contexts or environments that facilitate or impede their performance.

Using North's (1990) analogy, this environment includes:

- > the actors (i.e. the stakeholder context); and
- > the "rules of the game".

Assessing organizational performance involves analyzing both sets of factors. First, organizations have capacities that result from the quality of the relations they have established with other organizations. Second, key factors in the policy or regulatory environment, and in the economic, political, sociocultural, environmental and technological contexts, affect how the organization does its work, or the work it does.

Tools 1,1a, 1b, 1c and 1d present **five checklists** that include orienting questions which can help in assessing organizational performance, motivation, capacity and the external environment. Tool 1 offers a light version of the OPA checklists with a total of 35 questions. Then, for each relevant area, Tools 1a,1b,1c and 1d provide more in-depth checklists. The checklists need to be adapted according to the organizational needs and context.

In addition, three exercise sheets are proposed:

- > E1: Assessing readiness for change
- > E2: Thinking about performance
- > E3: Brainstorming key factors

How to use it

To facilitate an organizational assessment process, follow these four phases:

Phase 1: Orientation

This is the entry phase where the relationship between the organization and the external actor or facilitator begins. It involves having a preliminary conversation about:

- > the reasons for undertaking an organizational assessment;
- > the readiness for a self-assessment (Exercise 1 provides a useful checklist); and
- > the interests of the different stakeholders.

Phase 2: Planning the assessment process

This phase forms the basis for the organizational assessment. It involves carrying out a preliminary analysis with the concerned stakeholders to develop an understanding of the priority issues and areas of concern that affect organizational performance. Three exercise sheets are proposed (Exercise 1, 2, and 3) to be used during a consultative workshop. Key actions include delivering a kick-off presentation to introduce the organizational assessment framework and developing agreement about:

- > the scope and priorities of the organizational assessment;
- > which information is needed and how it will be collected;
- > how stakeholders will be consulted; and
- > the timeframe of the assessment.

An assessment plan could be developed in this phase indicating the methodology, the schedule, the team profile and an estimate of the resources required.

Phase 3: Collecting and analysing information

Before collecting information, it is important to accurately design the assessment instrument; identify the right assessment questions (based on the priority issues identified in the previous phase); identify the sources of information; and create the methodology to implement the data collection process. Once these aspects are clear, the data collection process can start. The assessment team must take several measures to ensure that the data are valid:

- > Data collection processes are strongest if it is clear from the beginning that everyone will have a chance to be heard on an equal basis.
- > Data collection instruments need to be well-developed and tested before implementation.
- > The assessment team leading interview or focus-group processes should explore or even challenge each response to ensure that they have not unintentionally filtered it themselves.
- > It is important to capture the information in ways that allow all team members to learn from it, because the analysis should involve each team member.

When analysing information:

- > look for patterns: Look for information that: (1) agrees with or supports other information; (2) suggests trends; and (3) contradicts other information. You may find patterns both within and across questions and categories.
- > weight your data: Weight your data to take into account how many interviewees gave you the same answer; whether the information is confirmed across different interest groups; and whether it is confirmed or denied by external sources. Assess the reliability of the data and the relative importance of the information to the question you are trying to answer.

Phase 4: Reflecting and modelling the future

The results of the analysis need to be communicated within the organization by convening information sessions, distributing memos and circulating a report. This allows the organization to be fully aware of where it is and to start a reflection process about the meaning and potential implications of change. This reflection process then will lead to a planning process for organizational change.

Source: Adapted from IDB-IDRC "Organizational assessment. A framework for improving performance" (2002) by C. Lusthaus, M-H. Adrien, F. Carden, G. P. Montalvàn.

TOOL 1: OPA CHECKLIST – LIGHT VERSION

Performance

1. Is the organization relevant to clients'/ members' needs?
2. How effective is the organization in the fulfillment of its mission?
3. How efficient is the organization in the use of its human, financial and physical resources?
4. Is the organization able to adapt and continue its activities over time?
5. Is the organization able to sustain itself economically?

Motivation

6. Is there a clear mission that drives the behaviour of staff/members?
7. What are the key values and assumptions that move the organization to perform well or poorly?
8. What are the memorable events in the organization's history?
 - a. The milestones
 - b. The successes
 - c. The crises
9. What incentive systems exist in the organization to encourage good performance?

Capacity

10. To what extent does the organization's ability to plan for its human resource needs affect its performance?
11. Is regular and periodic financial planning undertaken to support performance?
12. Do members of the organization follow clearly stated financial procedures?
13. Is the infrastructure adequate to support performance?
14. To what extent do technological resources affect the organization's performance?
15. To what extent does strategic leadership affect the organization's performance?
16. To what extent does strategic planning affect the organization's ability to achieve its goals?
17. To what extent does the organization's governance affect its performance?
18. Does the governing structure have the mechanisms to review and assess organizational performance and, if appropriate, create the conditions to support change?
19. Does the organizational structure facilitate or hinder the organization in achieving its mission and goals?

20. Does the work at various levels of the organization flow smoothly, or is it blocked? If blocked, is the cause an inadequate problem-solving process?
21. Does the organization have adequate decision-making skills?
22. Is there adequate, inadequate or excessive planning and policy procedure development in the organization at all levels (from the governing board to departments and individual projects)?
23. Are there adequate channels for flow of information at all levels?
24. Is adequate monitoring and evaluation occurring to improve performance?
25. To what extent does the organization appropriately plan its programmes?
26. To what extent does the organization appropriately implement its programmes?
27. To what extent does the organization monitor its programmes appropriately?

External environment

28. Is the organization developing linking relations (i.e. connections with other actors) to exert influence over other stakeholders?
29. Does the organization have adequate bridging relations (i.e. formal and informal cooperative relationships) with similar organizations?
30. How is the organization affected by the "rules of the game"?
31. Has the organization clearly defined the role played by its legal framework?
32. How is the organization affected by the political environment?
33. How is the organization affected by the macro-economic environment?
34. How is the organization affected by the social and cultural environment?
35. Is the technology needed by the organization to carry out its work supported by the overall level of national technological development?

TOOL 1A: OPA IN-DEPTH CHECKLIST – PERFORMANCE CRITERIA

Relevance

1. Are clients or members adequately surveyed to obtain their perception of the organization?
2. Are programmes reviewed and revised regularly to reflect the changing needs of clients or members?
3. Are assessments of clients' or members' needs conducted regularly? Are the needs and perceptions of women and youth adequately taken into consideration during the assessments?
4. Does the organization monitor its reputation?
5. Is the mission of the organization reviewed regularly through the active involvement of its members, including women and youth ?

Effectiveness

1. How effective is the organization in meeting the goals expressed in its charter, mission statement or other documents that provide the vision of the organization?
2. Is the mission operationalized through programme goals, objectives and activities?
3. What kind of indicators (e.g. qualitative or quantitative) does the organization use to capture the essence of its mission?
4. Is there a system to assess the extent to which goals and objectives are realized?
5. Do clients judge the organizational activities to be satisfactory?
6. Does the organization have a system to monitor its effectiveness?
7. Does the organization use feedback to improve itself?

Efficiency

1. Are staff members used at the best of their capacities?
2. Are financial resources used optimally?
3. What is the relationship between the output and the cost for producing it?
4. Does the administrative system provide good value for costs?
5. Are physical facilities used optimally?
6. Does the organization make benchmarks and comparisons of the progress achieved in the organization?

Sustainability

1. Is the organization able to continuously adapt to an evolving external environment?
2. Has the organization adapted and changed its work over time?
3. Is the organization able to respond to emerging client needs and stay relevant?
4. Does the organization have continuity in its strategic direction?
5. Does the organization revise regularly its strategic documents according to new emerging needs?
6. Does the organization revise its operational plans accordingly?
7. Does the organization regularly review the external environment in order to adapt its strategy accordingly?
8. Does the organization create or adapt to new technologies?
9. Does the organization encourage innovation?
10. Is the organization financially sustainable?
11. Is the organization creating profits or surplus?
12. Is there continued support from existing funding sources?
13. Does the organization have diversified sources of funding?
14. Does the organization continuously have more revenues than expenses?
15. Are assets greater than liabilities?
16. Does the organization monitor its finances on a regular basis?

Source: Adapted from IDB-IDRC, *Organizational assessment. A framework for improving performance.* (2002) by C. Lusthaus, M-H. Adrien, F. Carden, G. P. Montalvàn.

TOOL 1B: OPA IN-DEPTH CHECKLIST – ORGANIZATIONAL MOTIVATION

Vision and mission

1. Is there a clear mission that drives staff/member behaviour by integrating their aspirations and mobilizing their hearts and minds?
2. To what extent is the mission linked to a broader vision?
3. Does the mission give members of the organization a sense of purpose and direction?
4. Are organization members satisfied with the mission statement?
5. Are the mission and goals of the organization owned by all members?
6. Is the mission aligned with organizational goals and direction?
7. Does the mission reflect organization members' key values and beliefs?
8. Does the mission promote shared values including gender equality?
9. Does the mission help to sharpen the focus of the organization?
10. Is the mission seen as a living document? Is it updated or renewed periodically?

Culture

1. Does the culture support the priorities of the organization?
2. Does the culture support the vision and mission of the organization? In particular, is there solidarity among members in a producer organization?
3. Do staff/members have a positive attitude towards change?
4. Does the organization culture encourage learning from experience? Generating analysis through discussion? Building self-confidence among staff/members? Facilitating experience-sharing among staff/members to carry out their own problem analysis and make their own decisions?
5. Are organizational values and assumptions aligned with the organization's actions? Does the organization support a culture of gender equality?

History

1. What are the memorable events in the organization's history?
 - > the milestones
 - > the successes
 - > the crises
2. Has the organization restructured or reorganized? How often? In what ways?
3. Have the organization's products/ services increased over time?
4. Have there been changes in leadership? Why?
5. How has the organization evolved in relation to gender equality? Have the roles of women and men within the organization changed over time?

Incentives

1. Are all staff/members (women, men) motivated to perform their best?
2. What is done to build staff/member engagement?
3. What kind of incentive systems exist in the organization? Does the incentive system encourage gender equality and how?
4. Is the incentive system adequately managed?
5. Do staff/members feel rewarded for their work? In particular, does the organization encourage learning from failures?
6. Are women and men adequately compensated for their functions/ roles?
7. Which non-monetary incentives support good organizational behaviours? Which bonding relations give glue to the organization (shared values)?
8. Are the different categories of staff/members (e.g. young and old, women and men) respected and treated adequately in the organization?
9. Is the incentive system aligned with the organization's vision and mission, values and norms?
10. Is there a periodic review of the incentive system?
11. Is there consistency between what people are rewarded for doing and what the organization says it will reward?

Source: Adapted from IDB-IDRC, *Organizational assessment. A framework for improving performance.* (2002) by C. Lusthaus, M-H. Adrien, F. Carden, G. P. Montalvàn.

TOOL 1C: OPA IN-DEPTH CHECKLIST – ORGANIZATIONAL CAPACITY

- Resources -

Human resources (planning, staffing, developing, rewarding, staff relations)

Planning

1. Are the right people in the right jobs in the organization?
2. Can the organization forecast present and future human resource needs?
3. Does the organization know where to find people with the skills it needs?
4. Has the organization developed a personnel policy manual?
5. Does the manual support diversity and establish equity and fairness for all employees?
6. How does the organization, unit or department demonstrate its commitment to gender equality in its hiring practices?

Staffing

1. Does the organization have a systematic approach to staffing?
2. How are women and men distributed among staff positions?
3. Are there clear institutional targets for the percent of women at each level of the organization?
4. Does the organization have appropriate job descriptions, competency reviews or equivalents to determine what staffing is needed? Are job descriptions written in a gender-neutral language? Do they encourage women to apply?
5. Does the organization have an appropriate system for selecting candidates (e.g. reviewing curriculum vitae, conducting interviews and checking references)?
6. Are individuals in charge of selection appropriately trained (e.g. in interviewing and listening skills and in using courtesy and good judgment) to carry out this function?
7. Are recruitment and selection materials (e.g. ads, postings, interview questions) free of discrimination (i.e. gender, religious)? Are they transparent?
8. Is someone who is familiar with both the day-to-day functions of the organization and its longer-term vision available to orient new staff members?

Developing

1. To what extent does the organization have an overall approach to human resource development?
2. Does the organization have a training and development policy?
3. Does the organization have a budget for training and development and a way to track these costs?

4. Does the organization encourage staff to continuously learn and develop (i.e. by providing incentives for learning and by supporting training costs)?
5. Do all members have equal access to training and development opportunities? (need more space after this one)
6. Is there someone in the organization who can identify training needs?
7. Does the organization support the application and transfer of new learning on the job?
8. Is training demand-driven (i.e. responsive to needs in the organization) as opposed to supply-driven (responsive to whatever is offered on the market or by a donor)?
9. Can and does the organization assess training and its effect on performance?
10. Does the organization have plans for mentoring younger staff in their careers?
11. Do people see career opportunities in the organization?

Rewarding

1. To what extent does the organization have fair and motivational assessment and reward systems?
2. Does the organization have a compensation policy that complies with the rules and regulations of the country?
3. Does the staff see an adequate correlation between compensation and performance?
4. Are staff members generally satisfied with their compensation?
5. Is internal promotion encouraged? Are there institutional targets for internal promotion? Do any of these requirements contain biases against women staff?
6. Are compensation packages externally competitive for the sector?
7. Is there internal equity in salaries and benefits (i.e. equal compensation for work at equal value)?
8. Are compensation differentials appropriate to motivate staff?
9. Does the organization motivate staff with both monetary and non-monetary incentives?

Staff relations

1. To what extent does the organization have effective relations among its staff?
2. Do women and men in the organization feel protected from being taken advantage of (e.g. through a collective agreement or appropriate personnel policies)?
3. Are there measures and procedures inside the organization to deal with people in emotional or physical distress?
4. Does the organization seek ways to increase the loyalty and commitment of staff?
5. Is morale in the organization generally good?
6. Does the organization have measures in place to deal with harassment in the workplace?
7. Does the organization have, if appropriate, a health and safety policy?

Capital resources (financial planning, financial accountability, financial monitoring)

Financial planning

1. Is there adequate budgetary planning?
2. Are cash requirements analysed through cash flow statements?
3. Are budget plans timely?
4. Are budget plans updated as financial information comes in?
5. Are members of the governing body involved in financial planning and monitoring?
6. Are human resources adequate to ensure effective financial planning?
7. Is the financing of grants or loans properly managed?
8. Are the comparisons of actual and planned budgets monitored and analysed for decision-making?
9. Are there appropriate capital and equipment forecasts?
10. Are reports provided to senior managers, the board and funders on a regular basis (i.e. at least once each quarter)?
11. Is financial information provided in a timely fashion to those who need it?

Financial accountability

1. Is there a clear rule that states when the organizational year begins and ends?
2. Does the board of directors review financial policies and procedures on a regular basis to assess whether they are adequate, inadequate or excessive?
3. Are there competent staff and board members who understand the role of financial procedures and information?
4. Is the financial information contextualized within a strategic or business plan?
5. Is there a board committee to oversee financial issues? A management committee?

Financial monitoring

1. Are there financial reports and statements to support effective decision-making and good performance?
2. Is there an adequate bookkeeping system that can generate monitoring information?
3. Is there adequate staff to record financial information and generate reports?
4. Are balance sheets and income and expense statements prepared on a timely basis (at least quarterly)?
5. Are there adequate reports that allow for control of the organization's assets?
6. Are cash flow statements prepared in a timely fashion and used by managers?
7. Is cash managed so that the organization can benefit when there is surplus and minimize the cost of cash shortages?

Infrastructure (facilities and technology)

Facilities

1. Does the organizational strategy identify the opportunities and constraints regarding infrastructure?
2. Are the buildings and internal services (e.g. water, electricity) adequate to support and facilitate daily work?
3. Is there an adequate transportation system to and from work for employees?
4. Does the hardware for communications systems function at the required level?
5. Are there adequate maintenance systems and procedures supported by an ongoing maintenance budget?
6. Is building and equipment maintenance managed equally, effectively and efficiently?
7. Is there an individual or group responsible for adequate planning to address ongoing infrastructure concerns?

Technology

1. Is there adequate technological planning?
2. Overall, is the organization's level of technology appropriate to carry out its functions?
3. Is any particular unit seriously lagging behind the others technologically?
4. Are there specific mechanisms to ensure the equal access to and use of technology of all members (women, men and youth)?
5. Is access to international information provided to all units through library and information management systems?
6. Are there adequate systems and training in place for managing organizational technology?
7. Are there adequate information technologies in place to manage the organization?

-Systems and Processes-

Leadership

1. Do members/staff in the organization and external stakeholders support formal organizational leadership?
2. Do members/staff in the organization take on positive informal leadership roles?
3. Does the organization recognize the importance of leadership?
4. Are responsibilities for leadership and decision-making known and distributed appropriately?
5. Are there institutional targets to have women in leadership positions?
6. Are women and youth encouraged to apply for leadership roles/positions?
7. Are leaders in the organization respected?
8. Is leadership effective in acquiring and protecting resources?
9. Is staff willing to try new suggestions made by those in leadership positions?
10. Does all staff have an opportunity to suggest changes in the organization?
11. Is leadership that supports organizational goals rewarded?

Strategic planning

1. Is there a formal or informal organizational strategy/strategic plan?
2. Do the people (i.e. board of directors, senior managers, researchers, other staff) in the organization accept the strategy?
3. Does the strategy help guide decisions?
4. Does the strategy help clarify priorities, giving the organization a way to assess its performance?
5. Is there a process to clarify and revise the organizational strategy?
6. Is there a process to analyse the external environment to consider potential threats and opportunities?
7. Is there a process to monitor the application of the strategy?
8. Is there a process to understand clients' and stakeholders' requirements?

Organizational structure (governance and operating structure)

Governance

1. Does the governing structure have a clearly defined way to review and set organizational direction?
2. Does the organizational charter provide an adequate framework for creating the structural means to carry out the mission of the organization? and for dealing with the external challenges to the organization?
3. Does the governing structure have a group that reviews safeguards and incentives to ensure that managers do not compromise organizational goals in the interest of their personal goals?
4. Does the governing body have various committees to ensure legal and organizational accountability?
5. Does the governing structure have the mechanisms to review and assess organizational performance and, if appropriate, create the conditions to support change?

Operating structure

1. Are the organization's mission and goals supported by its operating structure?
2. Are roles and responsibilities within the organization clearly defined, yet flexible enough to adapt to changing needs?
3. Are departmental lines or divisions between groups coordinated to improve performance? Or are departmental lines rigid, serving as an impediment to collaboration?
4. Does the structure support an efficient production of goods or provision of services?
5. Is the organizational structure in compliance with gender-related laws and labour policies?
6. Are coordinating units formed to facilitate performance?
7. Are there clear lines of authority and accountability (e.g. individual, groups, organizational)?
8. Do people have the authority to set agendas that support improved performance?
9. Are the working units adequate to implement the organizational strategy and improve performance?
10. To what degree is decision-making centralized or decentralized? Does the approach have negative consequences on productivity?
11. Does the structure of responsibility and authority make sense and facilitate work?
12. Are the functional units adequately centralized or decentralized?
13. Are work processes clear and adequately structured?

Process management (problem-solving, decision-making, planning, communicating, monitoring and evaluating)

Problem-solving

1. Has the real problem been diagnosed?
2. Is the problem clearly defined?
3. Is it possible that perception biases have distorted problem identification?
4. Is the problem well-structured, straightforward and familiar? Or is it a new or unusual problem for which information is ambiguous or incomplete?
5. Are adequate organizational problem-solving skills found on the governing board and within the ranks of senior managers?
6. Are there adequate problem-solving techniques in departments and for important projects?
7. Do staff members support each other in problem solving and identifying new challenges?

Decision-making

1. Is enough information available on all alternative courses of action?
2. Are decisions made in a timely manner?
3. Are decisions made by groups?

Planning

1. Do planning processes contribute to the strategic direction of the organization?
2. Do plans provide adequate direction to organizational members?
3. Are plans, policies and procedures generally followed? Why or why not?

Communicating

1. What are the main vehicles of internal communication?
2. Do staff members feel that there is adequate and ongoing communication about the organization's activities?
3. Do staff members receive information related to the organizational mission and the progress made in fulfilling it?
4. If information circulated about activities becomes distorted, are there corrective mechanisms to remedy this?
5. Do people have easy access to those in the organization with whom they must interact?
6. Can people communicate easily with each other?
7. Does information reach women and men equally?
8. Are communication messages and strategies designed with the active involvement of women and men and using gender-neutral language?

Monitoring and evaluating

1. Are there policies and procedures that guide evaluation and monitoring?
2. Are resources assigned to monitoring and evaluation?
3. Is monitoring and evaluation valued at all levels of the organization as a way to improve performance?
4. Are data obtained and used to monitor and evaluate the organization's units and activities?
5. Are the data which are gathered through organizational monitoring and evaluation activities utilized?
6. Do evaluation plans or performance monitoring frameworks exist?
7. Are evaluation results mentioned in strategy, programme, policy and budgetary documents?
8. Do people have skills to monitor and evaluate?
9. Are lessons learned from monitoring and evaluation, and do changes occur as a result?

Programme management (planning, implementing, monitoring)

Planning

1. Is there a written plan for each programme area and each major project?
2. Is there adequate planning for programmes and budgets to ensure that programmes support the mission?
3. Are programmes and projects consistent with the mission, needs, strategies and priorities of the organization?
4. Does programme planning take into account technological, economic, gender, social and environmental aspects?
5. Are there adequate timelines?
6. Are there adequate budgets?
7. Is there adequate analysis of roles and responsibilities?

Implementing

1. Does staff support the process of carrying out programmes and delivering products and services to clients and beneficiaries?
2. To what extent is the organization committed to implement gender equality?
3. Are there good relationships among the staff who provide the products and services?
4. Does staff work together to provide good products and services?
5. Does the programme team have good problem-solving skills?
6. Are health and safety concerns for staff and clients always a priority in implementation?
7. Are resources used efficiently to provide the product or service?
8. Are time schedules adhered to in a reasonable fashion?
9. Is staff motivated to work together to get things done?
10. Are programme meetings productive?

Monitoring

1. Are monitoring and evaluation systems in place?
2. Are gender targets regularly monitored?
3. Is programme staff given feedback on programme performance?
4. Are there adequate opportunities to clarify roles and responsibilities?
5. Are there adequate opportunities to review programme indicators to measure progress against plans?
6. Are timelines monitored to reduce overruns?
7. Are budgets reviewed in a timely fashion?
8. Are programmes reviewed on a regular basis with respect to how they contribute to the overall organizational strategy?
9. Is learning from lessons encouraged?
10. Are corrective actions taken when difficulties arise?
11. Are monitoring and evaluation processes seen as ongoing and normal ones?

Source: Adapted from IDB-IDRC "Organizational assessment. A framework for improving performance" (2002) by C. Lusthaus, M-H. Adrien, F. Carden, G. P. Montalvàn.

TOOL 1D: OPA IN-DEPTH CHECKLIST – EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT

Actors

Stakeholder context

1. Are linking relations with economic stakeholders and policy-makers well-established?
2. Does the organization have the ability to alter the conditions of the transactions (i.e. market power) in term of price and quality?
3. Does the organization have the ability to exert influence over other stakeholders (i.e. negotiating power)?
4. Does the organization have adequate capacities in networking? in building alliances?
5. Are there fruitful and ongoing partnerships with external organizations that bring new ideas for improving access to information and external resources?
6. Is the organization communicating information about its work to external stakeholders, including the general public?
7. Does the organization think critically about how to include both women and men stakeholders?

"Rules of the game" (administrative, legal, political, economic, sociocultural, technological)

Administrative

1. Has the organization identified other institutions/organizations/groups to which it relates or might be expected to relate?
2. Has the organization been identified as influential or important to the sector by consumers, policy-makers, suppliers, competitors and other organizations in its external environment?
3. Are the organization's objectives complementary to those of other organizations?
4. Are there useful (formal and informal) conflict resolution systems?
5. Is the organization affected by bureaucracy?

Legal

1. Does the legal framework support the organization's autonomy?
2. Is the organization's legal framework clear?
3. Does the organization's legal framework ensure gender equality?
4. Is the legal framework consistent with current practice?
5. Is the legal regulatory context conducive to work?

6. Is relevant legislation up-to-date?
7. Is the judicial system responsive?
8. Is the organization affected by:
 - > labour legislation?
 - > a regulatory framework?
 - > environmental laws?
 - > a public service commission?
 - > public-sector reform?
 - > global and regional agreements and standards?

Political

1. Do government political and ideological trends support the organization's type of work?
2. Does the government system facilitate collaborative arrangements?
3. Does the organization have a role to play in national or sector development and, if so, how motivated is it to play that role?
4. Does the organization have access to government resources (e.g. funding, others)?
5. Does the organization have access to international funding? Which donors?
6. Does the organization have access to government knowledge and publications?
7. Are there government policies and programmes supporting the organization?
8. Are women and youth taken into consideration in national or sector development?
9. Does the political environment promote women's active participation in decision-making roles within organizations ?
10. What form of government is involved in the organization's internal affairs?
11. What is the government's level of involvement in the organization's internal affairs?
12. What effect do international relations have on the organization?
13. How much does the government allow civil society to participate in its decision-making process?
14. What is the level of political stability?
15. How tolerant is the government of risk and the ability to manage change?
16. How do political groups pressure the government to affect policy and priorities?
17. How much is the organization affected by political corruption, violence or strikes?
18. How responsive is the government system to the organization's needs and issues?

Economic

1. How is the organization affected by the macroeconomic environment?
2. Does economic policy support the organization's ability to acquire technologies and financial resources?
3. Is money available to do work?
4. Do donors give their support?
5. Is the budget allocation adequate for the organization's work?
6. Is external financing available?
7. Is there adequate financial and technical support to those organizations that work on sectors and value chains where women are very active?
8. Do economic rules facilitate organizations' access to bank loans, mortgages and other forms of financial credit?
9. Are there supportive monetary and fiscal policies (including interest rates)?
10. Is the debt burden restrictive?
11. Are emerging markets conducive?
12. Is the currency stable?
13. Is there a competitive market environment?
14. Are policies and programmes threatened by the informal sector?
15. Is the economic growth rate supportive of development?
16. Is the public service investment programme reflective of government priorities?
17. Is the tax policy regressive?
18. What is the industrial relations climate?
19. Are employment rates acceptable?
20. Are trade agreements supportive of the country's comparative advantage (e.g. globalization and free market)?
21. What effect is globalization having on the economy?
22. What effect is globalization having on the organization?
23. Are input costs restrictive?
24. Is the financial sector conducive to economic development?

Sociocultural

1. Does the organization support equity and gender equality in the workplace?
2. Does the organization account for the effect of culture on programme complexity?
3. Do prevailing social and cultural values support the organization's work?
4. Does the organization have access to a pool of capable human resources from which it can recruit staff
5. Is the organization affected by:
 - > religious/ethnic/gender/class customs and biases?
 - > cultural values/norms (e.g. Christmas holidays)?
 - > security issues on project sites?
 - > chronic diseases, health or nutrition issues?
 - > cultural behaviour?
 - > preconceived attitudes towards donor agencies?
 - > political/social instability (e.g. mafias)?

Technological

1. Is the technology needed to carry out the organization's work supported by systems in the broader environment?
2. Is there adequate physical infrastructure (e.g. power, telecommunication, transport) to support the organization's work?
3. Is the technology needed by the organization to carry out its work supported by the overall level of national technological development?
4. Does the system of government facilitate the organization's process of acquiring needed technology?
5. Is human resource development adequate to support new technology?
6. Do women and men benefit equally from technology facilities?
7. When new technologies are introduced, are women included in training for their use?
8. How reliable are available utilities, particularly electric power?
9. How stable is the cost of available utilities?
10. Are trainer resources available?
11. What is the organization's networking capability?
12. How adequate are the organization's data processing facilities?
13. Does the organization have access to research?

Source: Adapted from IDB-IDRC "Organizational assessment. A framework for improving performance" (2002) by C. Lusthaus, M-H. Adrien, F. Carden, G. P. Montalvàn.

EXERCISE 1: ASSESSING READINESS

Purpose

To enable managers/staff to more easily recognize the organizational problem they are facing and have the opportunity to collectively discuss the organization's readiness for change. Chapter 1 highlights the process for organizational analysis and underlines the importance of assessing readiness for change during the orientation phase.

Instructions

1. Ask a group of managers in the organization to reflect individually on the questions in the checklist (see below).
2. Use the list as a tool to collectively discuss the organization's readiness. There are no clear-cut answers to these questions. The group will need to reach consensus on whether to proceed with the assessment and be ready to present the results of the discussion to the plenary session.

Assessing readiness checklist

1. To what extent do the senior leaders in your organization support the change process? Do members/staff have confidence in the leaders' ability to engage in change management?
2. To what extent is any individual (professional or manager) willing to champion the process and capable of doing so?
3. Is the organization facing the need to make strategic decisions, and would a self-assessment help in the decision-making?
4. Does the organization have a clear vision of where it wishes to go?
5. Are major changes already going on within the organization that might slow down the process or interfere with it?
6. Does the organization have access to resources to carry out the change process?
7. When was the last major organizational change? To what extent was it successful? Did it energize the staff or lower their morale?
8. Do people inside the organization have adequate skills to undertake this process?
9. To what extent are the leaders and staff comfortable with the use of organizational data? To what extent do organizational data exist?
10. Is this a good time for change? Would another time be better? Are there future incentives for change to occur now?
11. What are the positive, negative, neutral, or cultural implications of changing?
12. Are members/staff in your organization supported if they try new things?
13. Should the organization engage in a self-assessment process?

Source: IDRC, *Enhancing organizational performance. A toolbox for self-assessment* (1999) by Lusthaus, C., Adrien, M-H., Anderson, G., Carden, F., Montalvan, G. P.

EXERCISE 2: THINKING ABOUT PERFORMANCE

Purpose

Managers/staff of the targeted organization analyse organizational performance, preferably in a workshop setting. Chapter 1 describes the areas of organizational performance and chapter 4 provides an accurate explanation of performance indicators.

Instructions

1. Divide workshop participants into smaller discussion groups and ask them to reflect first individually and then collectively on the different areas of organizational performance (column 1 in the chart below).
2. Ask them to write down the two or three most important issues of concern to their organization.

AREAS OF PERFORMANCE	ISSUES OF CONCERN TO YOUR ORGANIZATION
Relevance is the ability of an organization to satisfy stakeholders' needs.	
Effectiveness is the ability of an organization to successfully meet its objectives and purpose.	
Efficiency is the ability of an organization to maximize the use of its resources to reach its purpose.	
Sustainability is the ability of an organization to continue its operational activities over time by adapting to a changing and evolving context.	

3. Ask each discussion group to collectively prioritize the performance areas of concern and be prepared to present them to the plenary.

AREAS OF PERFORMANCE	ISSUES OF CONCERN TO YOUR ORGANIZATION
Areas of performance:	Top four priority issues: 1. 2. 3. 4.

Source: IDRC, *Enhancing organizational performance. A toolbox for self-assessment (1999)* by Lusthaus, C., Adrien, M-H., Anderson, G., Carden, F., Montalvan, G. P.

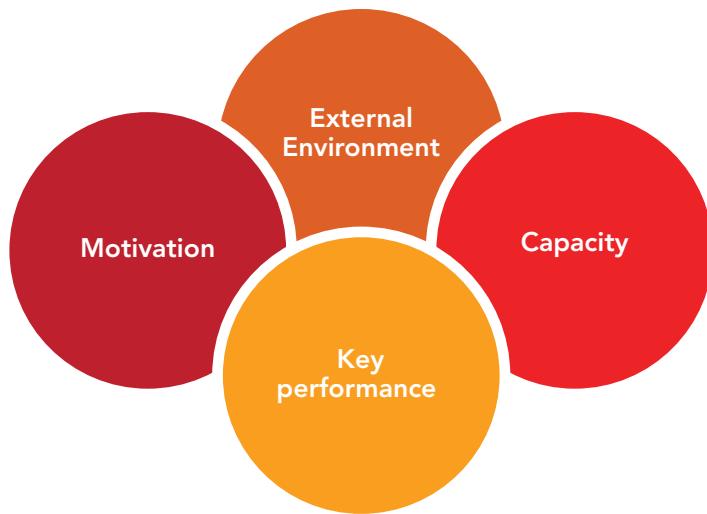
EXERCISE 3: BRAINSTORMING ON KEY FACTORS

Purpose

Managers/staff of the targeted organization analyse the factors affecting organizational performance, preferably in a workshop setting. Chapter 1 describes in detail such factors.

Instructions

1. Divide workshop participants into smaller discussion groups and invite them to:
 - > write down the key issues of organization performance identified in Exercise 2;
 - > identify the most important factors that affect organization performance focusing mainly on three factors: i. external environment; ii. organizational motivation; and iii. organizational capacities; and
 - > write notes on a flipchart – to be discussed in plenary – that address:
 - » key performance areas to be improved; and
 - » actions to be taken to strengthen the organization.



Source: IDRC, *Enhancing organizational performance. A toolbox for self-assessment* (1999) by Lusthaus, C., Adrien, M-H., Anderson, G., Carden, F., Montalvan, G. P.

EXERCISE 4: ORGANIZATION BIOGRAPHY

When to use it

It is useful to describe an organization as a picture over time to: (1) gain insight into the phases of the organization's development; (2) examine any turning points or crises in the life of the organization; and (3) try to understand how these crises affected where the organization is now and what it can learn from them to move into the future.

What it is

It is a biography that highlights the history or the key development phases of an organization: economic justification, organizational design, growth through internal crises, external shocks, successes and failures.

How to use it

It can be developed in a workshop setting with the help of an external facilitator. A two-hour session can be designed as follows:

Step 1:	Introduction	10 minutes
Step 2:	Drawing biography charts	30 minutes
Step 3:	Presentation	20 minutes
Step 4:	Small group discussions	10 minutes
Steps 5, 6:	Plenary discussion	10 minutes
Steps 7, 8, 9:	Lecture and plenary session	40 minutes

Step 1: Draw ideas from the participants about what they think is meant by organizational biography.

Step 2: Ask participants to “draw” their organization’s history as a line on a chart with marks indicating major triumphs, setbacks and turning points. Participants should be prepared to present what they have done in the plenary session. If there are participants from more than one organization present, ask them to break into groups with the others from their organization to prepare the biography. The biographies should cover at least five years, or from inception if the organization is less than five years old. Ask participants to prepare another sketch showing the current structure or form of the organization.

Step 3: Ask the participants to display their drawings and present, in as lively a way as possible, the biographical story of the organization, taking particular care to describe what actually happened at the turning points. Deal with any questions for clarification only after the presentation is complete.

Step 4: Arrange the participants in groups of three or four and ask them to work with the following questions:

- > Where were the major turning points?
- > What were the causes of each?
- > What was actually done to resolve the issue?
- > Was the solution good? Could it have been different?

Step 5: List the comments of the groups on a flipchart and discuss in plenary.

Step 6: Ask the group what they have observed about organizations during the process.

Step 7: Introduce the concept of organization development phases without going into too much detail.

Step 8: Ask the following questions in plenary:

- > Does the concept of development phases in an organization’s life make sense?
- > What value does it have for us to facilitate a change process in our organization?

Source: Freely adapted from Catherine Collingwood, “Reading situations” in CD in practice (2010)

TOOL 2: STRENGTHS, WEAKNESSES, OPPORTUNITIES AND THREATS (SWOT) ANALYSIS

When to use it

SWOT analysis can be used by individual organizations or multistakeholders (e.g. a value chain) to identify strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. It is a tool for strategic analysis and planning which helps to define a strategy for organizational development.

What it is

SWOT analysis is a strategic decision-making tool used to identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats facing an organization or multiple organizations in a value chain or sector. It surveys:

- > the strengths and weaknesses of the organization's internal attributes, such as its **capacity** (i.e. the resources that an organization possesses and the processes used to manage them) and its **motivation** (i.e. the factors that influence the direction of the organization and the energy invested in its activities). The analysis can expand or start from the organizational performance criteria as highlighted in Chapter 1; and
- > the opportunities and threats posed by external factors to the organization (i.e. **the stakeholders' context** which includes competitors, economic and political partners and allies) and the "**rules of the game**" (i.e. the political, administrative, legal, economic and sociocultural context as described in Chapter 1).

The resulting assessment is used to identify and leverage internal strengths to pursue external opportunities while mitigating weaknesses and threats.

The SWOT analysis template is normally presented as a grid encompassing two columns:

- > the positive factors which contribute to the organizational goals; and
- > the negative factors, which can impede the achievement of the organizational goals.

Logic of the analysis

	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
INTERNAL	STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
EXTERNAL	OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS

How to use it

This tool can be used in a workshop setting comprised of key actors in organizations who have been invited to attend and participate.

There are two main approaches to completing the grid. The first is to work through the four headings, one at a time. The second is to allow issues to be generated and then discuss where on the grid they should be placed.

What results is a **visual benchmark** that can be used to formulate strategies that take advantage of external opportunities while leveraging internal strengths.

Key points:

- > The SWOT analysis allows participants to raise issues for discussion. Putting the issues in the right box is less important.
- > Do not stop people from recording issues on the grid. If an issue is important for them, it is worth discussing.

Source: Adapted from IMARK e-learning module on knowledge-sharing for development (2011)

TOOL 3: POLITICAL, ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL (PEST) ANALYSIS

When to use it

This tool can be used to understand the external environment of an organization. It can be part of a strategic analysis to obtain an overview of the different macroenvironmental factors that an organization has to consider to remain relevant. It can be used to shape the opportunities and threats analysis of a SWOT analysis.

What it is

It is a model for analysing macroenvironmental factors affecting the performance of an organization. There are several variations of the PEST. Some analysts add legal and environmental factors, renaming it into PESTLE or PESTEL; others add ethics and demographic factors.

The basic PEST assesses the **political, economic, social** and **technological** environment within which an organization operates. These are aspects of the external environment that are beyond the direct influence of the organization, but which should be considered by the organization when drafting its strategic plan and planning for the future.

How to use it

To develop a PEST analysis, it is important to scan the external environment affecting the organization, focusing on political, economic, social and technological factors.

Political factors refer to the degree to which the government intervenes in the economy, including government regulations impacting the organization (e.g. local regulations, trade restrictions, labour laws, tariffs).

Economic factors include situations influencing the organization's financial health, such as funding, interest rates and exchange rates. These factors greatly affect how private-sector organizations operate and make decisions.

Social factors include cultural and demographic influences, such as population growth and education levels. Trends in social factors affect the demand for an organization's products or services.

Technological factors include the various activities that surround technology and how they affect the organization, such as connectivity issues, or research and development activities.

<p>Political</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > ecological/environmental issues > current legislation home market > future legislation > international legislation > regulatory bodies and processes > government policies > government term and change > trading policies > funding, grants and initiatives > home market lobbying/pressure groups > international pressure groups > wars and conflicts 	<p>Economic</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > home economy situation > home economy trends > overseas economies and trends > general taxation issues > taxation specific to product/services > seasonality/weather issues > market and trade cycles > specific industry factors > market routes and distribution trends > customer/end user drivers > interest and exchange rates > international trade/monetary issues
<p>Social</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > lifestyle trends > demographics > consumer attitudes and opinions > media views > law changes affecting social factors > brand, company, technology image > consumer buying patterns > fashion and role models > major events and influences > buying access and trends > ethnic/religious factors > advertising and publicity > ethical issues 	<p>Technological</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > competing technology development > research funding > associated/dependent technologies > replacement technology/solutions > maturity of technology > manufacturing maturity and capacity > information and communications > consumer buying mechanisms/technology > technology legislation > innovation potential > technology access, licencing, patents > international property issues > global communications

Source: Adapted From IMARK e-learning module on knowledge-sharing for development (2011)

TOOL 4: STAKEHOLDERS' MAPPING

When to use it

This tool can be used during the orientation or planning phase for an organizational assessment and when initiating a multistakeholder process.

What it is

It is a map that plots stakeholders by their power and by their active or passive support or neutrality to the change process. It helps to identify the groups and organizations that will be affected by the organizational changes or that have the ability to have an impact on the change process.

How to use it

To build the map, you need to analyse the stakeholders according to the following categories:

Stakeholder power

Stakeholders all have power, whether it is the formal power invested in a position of authority or the social power of being able to persuade others to support or oppose the change process.

Those with higher power are likely to be your most useful supporters or most dangerous opponents; thus, a power analysis helps you prioritize your focus on stakeholders.

Active and passive support and resistance

Some people will actively support the change, working long hours to help it succeed. Others will work the other way, actively seeking to undermine your efforts.

Neutral actors in the middle

In the middle are the neutral actors who neither support nor oppose the change. They are often playing a waiting game, watching for who is going to win the game. Once they have made this decision, then they will act.

Other neutral actors are simply undecided. Some people decide quickly while others need more reflection or persuasion. Work hard to persuade them and you may well gain support and build ownership.

Once you have done this analysis, you can write the stakeholders' names in the appropriate boxes. One technique for doing this in a team is to write the names of the stakeholders on sticky notes and put them up on a big chart on the wall.

		OPPOSITION		SUPPORT		
		ACTIVE OPPONENT	PASSIVE OPPONENT	NEUTRAL	PASSIVE SUPPORTER	ACTIVE SUPPORTER
STAKEHOLDER POWER	HIGH					
	MEDIUM					
	LOW					

Source: Adapted from: http://changingminds.org/disciplines/change_management/stakeholder_change

TOOL 5: NEEDS-FEARS MAPPING

When to use it

A Needs-Fears mapping exercise is a powerful tool to use when designing a new organization (or an MSP) and when an organization has to face a radical change. The tool can be used to assess members' and leaders' readiness to engage in a change process and to reduce resistance to change. It can be used during a strategic planning workshop or meeting to arrive at a shared vision of success for the organization or MSP.

A Needs-Fears mapping exercise can be used to:

- > analyse conflicting situations by focusing on needs and fears and evaluating possible options to deal with these situations;
- > help stakeholders understand each other's perceptions; and
- > stimulate discussion by clarifying stakeholders' perceptions and interests.

What it is

The Needs-Fears mapping is an actor-oriented clarification tool. The issues, interests, needs, fears, means and options for each actor are listed in a table. The needs include interests, values, hopes and desires. The fears include worries and concerns. This enables clear comparison of the similarities and differences of various actors in the form of a table.

How to use it

Step 1: Prepare

Draw a table with the following columns: Issues, interests/needs, fears, means and options. Form small groups of five to six people.

Step 2: Clarify the situation and explore options

Ask each stakeholder group to reflect for about ten minutes and write all the ideas they have, without any censorship. The facilitator can use two options:

- > In a moderated workshop setting, ask each party to complete the table for their own situation. The entire table can then be discussed in the group. The facilitator clarifies the importance of focusing on interests (i.e. why people want something) and not positions (i.e. what people say they want).
- > In a mediated workshop setting, ask each party to complete the table for the other parties. This helps to switch perspective. It makes the actors walk in someone else's shoes for a moment. Trust is needed.

The outcomes are written on a piece of paper and reported to plenary.

Step 3: Broadening perspectives

The table is presented and discussed in the plenary. It allows each party to respond to the "self" and "foreign" image. By seeing one's issues and interests written down on a flip chart or pin board, a resistant party has some assurance that his/her point of view has been heard.

Source : Adapted from SDC-COPRET, *Conflict Analysis Tools* (2005).

Example of a Needs-Fears mapping: The actors of the Burkina Faso sunflower value chain

STAKEHOLDERS	ISSUES	INTERESTS/ NEEDS	FEARS	MEANS	OPTIONS
Farmers	Developing sunflower production	Income generation Improved livelihoods	Low yields entailing low income	Use farmer field schools to acquire technical skills	Strengthen their technical capacities
National Federation of Producer Organizations (CPF)	Supporting farmers in new activities	Strengthen producer organizations' bargaining power	In case of failure, the producers' apex organization can lose its credibility and farmers' trust.	Work closely with Agropol and with the Ministry of Agriculture to create an enabling environment with producer organizations	Better define the CPF/AGROPOL partnership Create a platform for national dialogue
French Producer Organizations Cooperation Agency (AGROPOL)	Implementation of an innovative way of cooperation with producer organizations	Demonstrate the relevance of an integrated organizational scheme based on producer organizations	Project fails, French farmers take away their support	Technical support, sharing experiences	Feasibility studies
Oilseed processors	Access to raw material	Low price of sunflower	Lack of supply	Increased price	Bringing parties to discuss issues
Seed producers	Availability of high quality seeds	A thriving market for sunflower seeds	Lack of solvent market	Government incentives	Discuss a contract with the entity in charge to supply farmer inputs
Government	Fighting rural poverty, Contributing to food security Reduce national imports in oil	Improved legitimacy popularity	Lack of development, social destabilization	Law and regulatory frameworks at national and regional levels Budget allocations and incentives	Engage in a regular multistakeholder dialogue

Source: Adapted from Herbel et al., 2013.

TOOL 6: RIGHTS, RESPONSIBILITIES, REVENUES AND RELATIONSHIPS (4RS)

When to use it

This tool can be useful during the orientation or planning phase of an organizational assessment and when initiating an MSP. It allows a problem analysis and an evaluation of policies, and it can support negotiations among actors with different degrees of power.

With this exercise, targeted groups increase understanding of their rights, responsibilities and returns, and their relationships with other stakeholders. It can provide a basis for dialogue between men and women, particularly where the 4Rs need re-thinking, negotiating and developing.

What it is

This tool should be used in combination with other tools for stakeholder analysis. It allows mapping stakeholders according to their roles, responsibilities and the benefits they can get from an intervention. Analysing stakeholders' roles – by balancing their rights, responsibilities and returns – is also a way to understand the power differentials among them. This analysis can be fine-tuned by clarifying the status of stakeholders' mutual relationships by their:

- > quality (i.e. good/medium/fair), based on the convergence of stakeholders' opinions;
- > strength, based on the frequency of contacts;
- > type (e.g. financial, social, technical) ; and
- > degree of informality or formality.

How to use it

The 4RS framework can be used in a number of approaches, such as brainstorming, interviews with key informants, focus groups and multistakeholder workshops. The idea is to discuss and agree on the following two matrices. The first table details the balance of rights, responsibilities and returns within and between stakeholders, while the second one assesses the quality of stakeholders' mutual relationships. This requires a highly skilled facilitator able to moderate a group discussion with mediation and diplomatic skills.

STAKEHOLDERS'3RS	STAKEHOLDER 1	STAKEHOLDER 2	STAKEHOLDER 3
RIGHTS			
RESPONSIBILITIES			
RETURNS			

STAKEHOLDERS' RELATIONSHIPS	STAKEHOLDER 1	STAKEHOLDER 2	STAKEHOLDER 3
STAKEHOLDER 1	x		
STAKEHOLDER 2		x	
STAKEHOLDER 3			x

For instance, FAO used this tool in the area of natural resource management in Zambia in 1997 to compare different policy statements and assess their coherence. The box below shows that there is a lack of harmonization of the different regulations in terms of rights and responsibilities. While there appears to be consistency in terms of revenues, this did not correspond to reality as there was almost no revenue to the local level from the central treasury.

POLICIES/REGULATIONS	RIGHTS	RESPONSIBILITIES	REVENUES	RELATIONSHIPS WITH LOCAL PEOPLE
Forest Act	Government	Government	Government and local people	Poor
Land Act	Government and chiefs	Government and chiefs	Government and local people	Poor
Wildlife Act	Government	Government and local people	Government and local people	Good
NEAP	Government and local people	Government	Government and local people	?
Water Act	Government	Government	Government and local people	?
Local Government and Housing Act	Government and landlords	Government and landlords	Government and local people	?

Source: Adapted from Dubois, O., Capacity to manage role changes in forestry. Introducing the 4Rs framework (1998)

TOOL 7: THE ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT (OCAI)

When to use it

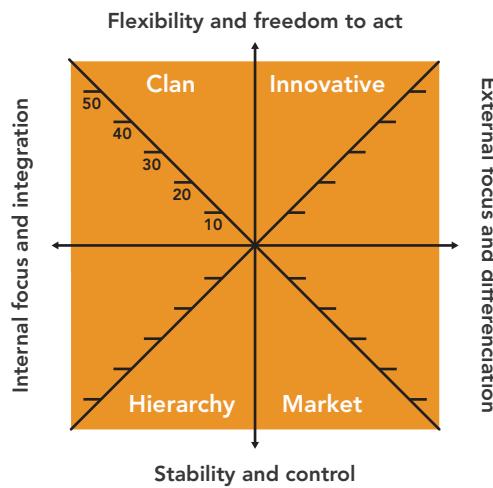
This tool can be used as a baseline to start a change process in an organization. It can be repeated at regular intervals of time to monitor the change process. It can be used to gauge staff satisfaction in relation to their organization.

What it is

The OCAI, developed by Kim Cameron and Robert Quinn, is a research method to examine organizational culture. This framework consists of four competing values that correspond with four types of organizational culture. Every organization has its own mix of these four types of organizational culture. A short questionnaire can be used to identify the mix of cultures within an organization. Discussions about the outcomes from this questionnaire can begin an organizational change process.

The four types of culture are described below:

4 Dominant Culture Types



Source: Cameron, Kim S. and Robert E. Quinn. 2011. *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework*. Jossey-Bass

Collaborative culture

This kind of culture reflects a pleasant place to work, where people share a lot of personal information, much like an extended family. The leaders or heads of the organization are seen as mentors and perhaps even parental figures. The organization is held together by loyalty or tradition. Commitment is high. The organization emphasizes the long-term benefit of human resources development and attaches great importance to cohesion and morale. Success is defined in terms of sensitivity to customers and concern for people. The organization places a premium on teamwork, participation and consensus. There is mainly an internal focus and a certain degree of flexibility.

Innovative culture

This culture reflects a dynamic, entrepreneurial and creative place to work. The leaders are considered to be innovators and risk-takers. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to experimentation and innovation. The emphasis is on being on the leading edge. The organization's long-term emphasis is on growth and acquiring new resources. Success means gaining unique and new products or services. The organization encourages individual initiative and freedom, and the focus is mainly external. An example of an organization with this kind of culture is Apple.

Competitive culture

This culture exists in a result-oriented organization whose major concern is getting the job done. People are competitive and goal-oriented. The leaders are hard drivers, producers and competitors. They are tough and demanding. The glue that holds the organization together is an emphasis on results. Reputation and success are common concerns. The long-term focus is on competitive actions and the achievement of measurable goals and targets and is mainly external. This culture is typical of private-sector organizations.

Hierarchical culture

This culture reflects a very formal and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do. The leaders pride themselves on being good coordinators and organizers who are guided by efficiency criteria. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is most critical. Formal rules and policies hold the organization together. The long-term concern is stability and performance with efficient, smooth operations. Success is defined in terms of dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low cost. The management of employees is concerned with secure employment and predictability. This culture is typical of government agencies and ministries.

How to use it

The OCAI can be used in a workshop setting where participants first work individually and then in groups.

Step 1: Ask the participants to reach consensus about the current and preferred cultures within their organization.

Ask them first to think about the culture of their current organization and describe it by dividing 100 points over four alternatives that correspond to the four culture types. Then ask them to describe the culture they would like to see by dividing the 100 points over the same four alternatives. By comparing these two results, the desire for change can be measured.

The questionnaire can be found on the following page. Questions are grouped into six dimensions of organizations, with each question representing the characteristics of a particular culture type. The six dimensions are:

1. Dominant characteristics
2. Organizational leadership
3. Management of employees
4. Organizational glue
5. Strategic emphases
6. Criteria of success

Step 2: Draw a spider diagram and indicate on it the result of the group discussion. For each quadrant, agree on what change means and does not mean.

Step 3: Develop a strategic action agenda that includes initial small wins. Assess leadership implications, measurement systems and communication strategy.

The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)

Instructions:

Divide 100 points among the four alternatives, depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your organization. Give a higher number of points to the alternative that is most similar to your organization. Be sure that your totals equal 100 for each item. Do this for the current situation (now) and your desired situation (preferred).

1. DOMINANT CHARACTERISTICS	NOW	PREFERRED
The organization is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.		
The organization is a dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to be innovative and proactive.		
The organization is very result-oriented. A major emphasis is on getting the job done.		
The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.		
TOTAL	100	100
2. ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP	NOW	PREFERRED
The leadership in the organization is generally oriented towards mentoring, facilitating or nurturing.		
The leadership in the organization is generally oriented towards innovation and risk-taking.		
The leadership in the organization is generally oriented towards a focus on results.		
The leadership in the organization is generally oriented towards coordinating, organizing or running efficiently.		
TOTAL	100	100
3. MANAGEMENT OF EMPLOYEES	NOW	PREFERRED
The management style of the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus and participation.		
The management style of the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation and freedom.		
The management style of the organization is characterized by competitiveness, high demands and achievement.		
The management style of the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity and adherence to rules and procedures.		
TOTAL	100	100

4. ORGANIZATIONAL GLUE	NOW	PREFERRED
The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.		
The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development.		
The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.		
The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smoothly running organization is important.		
TOTAL	100	100
5. STRATEGIC EMPHASES	NOW	PREFERRED
The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.		
The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.		
The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievements.		
The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important.		
TOTAL	100	100
6. CRITERIA OF SUCCESS	NOW	PREFERRED
The organization defines success on the basis of developing human resources, teamwork, employee commitment and concern for people.		
The organization defines success on the basis of having innovative products/services.		
The organization defines success on competitiveness in the products or services offered.		
The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.		
TOTAL	100	100

Source: Adapted from Cameron, Kim S. and Quinn, Robert E.. 2011. *Diagnosing and changing organizational culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework*. Jossey-Bass.

TOOL 8: BRAINSTORMING

When to use it

Brainstorming can be used in small or large groups to initiate discussion, rapidly generate ideas, stimulate creative thinking and encourage collective analysis. Participants are encouraged to let ideas flow freely. Initially, these ideas are recorded exactly as they are stated without judgment or rejection. The ideas are then collectively organized into categories and analysed.

What it is

It is a workshop method which encourages creativity through a free flow of ideas. It ensures realism (i.e. by giving voice to a wide range of different perspectives) and increases commitment among participants to the final “product” of the discussion. This method usually leads to a very animated and energetic discussion. Even more reserved participants usually feel bold enough to contribute.

How to use it

This methodology can be used by following these steps:

Step 1: Set the context

- > State clearly the aim of the brainstorming session and the expected outcome.
- > Outline the timeline and ground rules.
- > Highlight the focus question. A clear and relevant focus question is essential to a successful brainstorming session. The facilitator should carefully think through the wording of the focus question prior to the session, ideally in consultation with other participants. The focus question should:
 - » be an open-ended question;
 - » draw specific responses from each person (i.e. name the subject as specifically as possible); and
 - » be simple and clear enough for the participants to answer with a minimum of explanation.

Examples of focus questions include: What are the key constraints to producers' organizations development in the country at this time? What can we do to promote girls' education in the community?

Step 2: Brainstorm ideas

- > Brainstorm individually – Ask each person to jot down five or six ideas in response to the focus question. Allow sufficient time for participants to think and write. Then ask them to select their several best and clearest ideas.
- > Brainstorm in a small group (this may be omitted if the group is small or the subject simple). Ask participants to share their best/clearest ideas in groups of three to five people. Ask them to eliminate overlap but honor diversity in selecting five to seven key ideas to share with the whole group. Print these on large memo cards (or large-sized sticky notes).

Step 3: Cluster ideas based on similarity of content

- > Gather ideas from each group, read the cards out loud, and randomly post them on a wall.
- > Do two or three rounds of asking the small groups to pass up their cards, in order to get a variety of (approximately 15) cards. For example, first ask the groups for their “clearest” cards, then their most “innovative” ones, then “any that don’t fit”. Accept and affirm each input, making clear that there are no “wrong answers”. Admit only the explanation of a card by its “owner”. Avoid discussion concerning content at this stage. For some people, remarks or comments may mean the end of their active participation. If the meaning of a card is unclear, ask neutral questions. Do not try to interpret by yourself.
- > After each round of gathering cards, ask the group which cards belong together and, based on responses, move cards around into different clusters or columns. The groups will be asked to identify a name or the unifying ideas for each cluster in the next step.
- > With every card you move, ask the group whether they are satisfied with the result. If there is even one person who is not satisfied, he/she must get ample opportunity to explain his/her reasons. If an item doesn’t fit into any group, don’t force it. Categories are redefined each time an item is added. This often expands the definition of a category, allowing some of the “difficult to place” items to be included.

Step 4: Name the clusters

- > Discern the focus of each cluster. Ask participants to describe what each of the clusters represent, and what key idea unites the cards in a cluster.
- > Ask participants to agree to a name (use three to five words) for each cluster. Make the name as specific as possible. Ideally, the chosen name will combine proposals from more than one person. A rule of thumb in arriving at consensus is to not allow participants to reject a proposed name without offering an alternative suggestion. In this way, the group will eventually get to the “that’s it!” stage.
- > Write the name of the cluster on a separate memo card and post it at the top of the column.

Step 5: Evaluate

- > Together with the group, look at what you have done so far and explore options for how to go on from here. A brainstorming session often leads naturally to further work for each small group to delve into a specific cluster. This work might include, for example, exploring solutions to identified constraints, discussing the feasibility of proposed actions or developing action plans on the basis of recommendations made.

TOOL 9: USING APPRECIATIVE INQUIRY FOR ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

When to use it

Appreciative inquiry is a powerful approach to change and OD that creates an environment that engages and focuses the discussion positively. By shifting conversations to the affirmative and positive, it can help growth and improvement in organizations. It can be used when:

- > analysing organizations;
- > designing change interventions;
- > benchmarking an organization;
- > doing strategic planning; and
- > conducting monitoring and evaluation.

What it is

Appreciative inquiry is a methodology that shifts the focus of the analysis and dialogue from problems to opportunities and visions. For instance, a problem of high turnover would become an inquiry into what being an employer of choice might look like. It is a positive thinking inquiry process that uses a series of statements to describe where the organization wants to be based on what already works in the organization.

How to use it

An appreciative inquiry process uses a cycle of five steps known as the 5-D model:

1. **Define:** Establish the focus and scope of the inquiry through conversations with the target organization.
2. **Discover:** Identify the actions and areas that have worked well in the past: What did we do when we solved a similar problem before?
3. **Dream:** Envision possibilities and future states by asking questions such as: What is the best possible outcome we could get in solving this problem?
4. **Design:** Develop an implementation plan asking questions such as: Where is the best place to start? What will it take to succeed?
5. **Destiny (or Deliver):** Implement the proposed design, asking questions such as: What's helping to keep us on track? What are we learning as we go along?

EXERCISE 5: APPRECIATIVE INQUIRY FOR A STAFF MEETING

Define: What is the theme for your appreciative inquiry staff meeting conversation?

Discovery: What are the best practices, strengths and strategic capacities of the organization?

Dream: In three to five years, what do you hope will have taken place?

Design: Can you synthesize your hopes of what should change in a picture or model?

Destiny: What are the concrete actions you would envisage to implement your vision?

Source: Adapted from FAO Learning Module 2 (2012); Haneberg, L. "Organization Development" (2005)

TOOL 10: VISIONING EXERCISE

When to use it

A visioning exercise is a powerful tool to use when engaging in strategic planning. It is very useful to design a new organization (formalization phase) or when the organization is driving a large-scale change (reinvention phase). Visioning is essential to any successful organizational change. It serves to motivate and energize people, gain commitment and provide direction. This tool can be applied during a strategic planning workshop or meeting to design a change strategy for a single organization or for an MSP, such as a value chain capacity-strengthening process.

What it is

Visioning is a process of creating a compelling statement about what an organization aspires to be or to accomplish in the mid-term (i.e. five years from now) or in the long-term future (10 or 20 years from now). A vision is a mental picture of the organization's or MSP's ideal future which is shared by its leaders, staff and members. To develop a vision, all parties involved need to communicate their aims clearly and unambiguously. When people are involved in creating a vision, it becomes "our vision". A vision generates a common goal, hope and encouragement. It offers a possibility for radical change, and also gives people motivation and goals to move towards, generating creative thinking and passion. The vision lays the foundation for strategic planning and for the development of action plans. It will determine decisions, choices and activities within the organization or MSP.

A great change vision is:

- > both rational (intellectually solid) and inspirational (an emotional appeal);
- > clear and succinct. It is a description that is easy for people to understand. "It can be written in a half page, communicated in 60 seconds" (Kotter, 2011); and
- > shared by the broad range of staff and members of an organization, its clients and other stakeholders.

How to use it

The process of creating a common vision involves three main steps, and it is normally done in a workshop setting.

Step 1: Share the individual visions (10 minutes)

During this first step, the facilitator tells the participants: "Imagine that it is ten years from now and that your organization is the best, the most successful model of an organization at the local or national level. You are proud to be a staff member or leader of this organization which you helped to create. You have a very strong feeling of membership. Let's dream! Let's be a magician!"

First, every participant presents to the others in the group his/her vision of what he/she sees for the future for his/her organization. All the ideas are recorded on a flipchart. At this stage, there is no discussion among the participants, only questions of clarification if necessary. All ideas are welcomed, without value or judgment, as all ideas are good and potentially interesting for the future design of the organization. Second, the participants are invited to improve the ideas of others and to create a rich picture of the ideal future.

Outcome: Individual expression of what participants want to see in the future

Step 2: Develop a collective creative vision (30 minutes)

In this second step, invite participants to design an inspiring model that draws on the similarities of the participants' ideas. This model can be taken from any sphere of the economic and social world, even an animal, a plant, a mineral or other concrete things.

Ask participants to list all the key characteristics which, in their opinions, have to distinguish their organization ten years from now. They should draw their vision clearly enough to allow others to see and understand it.

Outcome: Written group description of what participants want to see in the future for their organization

Step 3: Harmonize the individual visions within a common vision (20 minutes)

In this third step, construct a common vision among all the participants. Ask each group to report to plenary the contents of its group discussion and to present its drawing.

Afterwards, encourage the merging of the group visions into a common statement summarizing the vision for the organization. "In 10 years time, we shall have created...".

Outcome: Agreed common vision for the organization



An external facilitator should conduct this session as it needs to be someone without a stake in the future organizational design. The facilitator can support the discussion and reflection process objectively and encourage the group to:

- > be positive;
- > be specific; and
- > be open to dramatic changes to the current organizational structure.

Source: Guide du facilitateur. Rencontres nationales sur le Tournesol au Burkina Faso. (Facilitator Guide. National sunflower days in Burkina Faso) March 2013.

EXERCISE 6: BEGINNING TO BRIDGE THE GAPS

Purpose

Chapter 2 highlights the phases for planning and implementing an organizational change process. This exercise helps managers and staff in their discussions about desired changes for the future.

Instructions: In plenary, take one hour to identify and discuss the following topics:

- > the major gaps between the organization's present situation and the vision created in the visioning exercise; and
- > the priority areas that the organization has to address to bridge the gaps between the current state and the envisioned state.

CAM Summary Table

DIMENSIONS	DESIRED SITUATION	SUGGESTED INTERVENTIONS	RESPONSIBLE ACTORS	PRIORITIES 1 = NEXT 12 MONTHS 2 = IN TWO YEARS 3 = IN THREE YEARS
EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT				
ORGANIZATION CAPACITY				
ORGANIZATIONAL MOTIVATION				

Adapted: FAO Learning Module 2 "Capacity development approaches in programming. Processes and tools", 2012. Lusthaus et al., 1999; <http://kstoolkit.org/>; « Rencontres Nationales du tournesol au Burkina Faso. Guide du facilitateur » (National Sunflower Days in Burkina Faso. Facilitator Guide), 2013.

TOOL 11: SCENARIO BUILDING

When to use it

This tool may be used at the beginning of a process to create a new organizational design, for instance during a strategic planning workshop or meeting to arrive at a shared vision of success for the organization in three to five years.

What it is

Scenario building is a structured method for constructing stories or scenarios that describe the outer limits of plausible futures. It is a methodology to stretch people's thinking about possible futures beyond their existing perspective. It reveals how people in different roles or with different points of view will respond to a proposed scenario in different ways. It can help an organization prepare for a specific change. Its purpose is to make the most important trends or driving forces visible so that planners can recognize and anticipate how they might play out.

How to use it

Follow these steps when using scenario building:

Step 1: Identify the organizational issue (e.g. organizational capacity, organizational motivation) or the decision to be made and the period of time to address. The more clearly defined the focus, the better the result.

Step 2: Identify the trends and primary driving forces in the present (e.g. a change in organizational direction; successful partnerships; staff turnover or stability).

Step 3: Cluster or sort these to come up with the critical uncertainties, i.e. those that are key to the issue at hand. This may require back and forth effort.

Step 4: Simplify the clusters to come up with two different dimensions of uncertainty.

Step 5: Use those two different dimensions to form a 2 by 2 matrix with four different but plausible quadrants of uncertainty. Each of these is a logical future.

Step 6: Craft stories or scenarios for each dimension, written in the present tense. Give each a memorable title and make it consistent and plausible, given the two dimensions of uncertainty you've chosen.

Step 7: Use the scenarios to explore in more detail what might happen in each possible future in order to better understand the implications of various choices.

Step 8: Make decisions that play out well across several scenarios, rather than picking any one of the four.

Source: Adapted From IMARK e-learning module on KS for development (2011)

TOOL 12: BUSINESS PROCESS REENGINEERING (BPR)

When to use it

This tool can be used when redesigning an organization from a functional perspective. The focus is mainly on organizational processes.

What it is

BPR is the fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in organizational performance. There are typically four major areas that are subject to change in BPR – organization, technology, strategy and people. These dimensions are examined using a process view.

A business process is a series of steps designed to produce a product or a service. It includes all the activities that deliver particular results for a given external or internal customer. Process maps give a picture of how work flows through the organization. Once processes have been identified and mapped, the key question becomes deciding which ones need to be reengineered and in what order. No organization can take up the unenviable task of reengineering all the processes simultaneously. Generally choices are based on three criteria:

- > dysfunction: which processes are functioning the worst?
- > importance: which processes are the most critical and influential in terms of customer satisfaction?
- > feasibility: which processes are most likely to be successfully reengineered?

How to use it

Step 1: Review the organization's operating context to identify pressures for doing its operational activities differently.

Step 2: Review and clarify the organization's core objectives and business strategy.

Step 3: Identify and analyse the business processes. These are the processes that are considered essential for the organization to perform successfully. Some BPR reviews also cost the processes.

Step 4: Define performance objectives for each business process.

Step 5: Design new business processes to respond to the question, "If we were setting up the organization today, what processes would need to be created to provide an excellent service/retain a competitive advantage?"

Source: Adapted from DFID "Promoting institutional and organizational development. Sourcebook for tools and techniques (2003)

TOOL 12A: FLOW CHART TECHNIQUE

When to use it

This tool is used to define and analyse processes in order to construct a step-by-step picture of the process for analysis, discussion and communication to find areas for improvement.

What it is

It is a method for describing and analysing processes in a group. Most flow charts use the following symbols:

-  > Elongated circles, which indicate the start and end of a process
-  > Rectangles, which show activities or instructions
-  > Diamonds, which show decisions that must be made

How to use it

Step 1: Define the process. Name it and define the starting point and ending point.

Step 2: Identify the major activities. Divide the process into about five steps or activities. Name the activities and put them in a logical sequence.

Step 3: Identify who is responsible for each activity and check the flow.

Step 4: Identify decisions points that influence the sequence. Add those decisions points. Replace an activity if necessary. Add activities/ responsibilities. Check the flow.

Step 5: Identify information moments that are essential for executing the activities. Check the flow.

Step 6: Identify problems/bottlenecks. For each step, identify major bottlenecks. Indicate them next to the flow chart.

Step 7: Improve the process, if necessary. Incorporate ideas about how to improve the process.

Source: MDF ID OS Course (2001).

TOOL 13: FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

When to use it

This tool can be used for a preliminary context analysis as well as to periodically review organizational goals and set priorities.

What it is

It is an action planning tool to help enhance or minimize opposing forces which can halt or encourage change. Organizations or groups are better equipped to handle and plan for change when they increase their understanding of force relationships.

How to use it

Step 1: Identify the facilitating or constraining forces. Using a flip chart, engage the group to create a table listing facilitating forces and constraining forces as a means to answer the following questions:

- > What organizational benefit will the change deliver?
- > Who supports the change? Who is against it? Why?
- > How easy will it be to make the change? Do you have enough time and resources to make it work?
- > What costs are involved?
- > What other organizational processes will be affected by the change?
- > What are the risks?

Step 2: Prioritize forces. Once the forces have been identified, prioritize them in terms of the intensity of their influence on the action or change being analysed.

Step 3: Maximize the facilitating forces and minimize the constraining forces. Analyse each force to review actions that can be taken to maximize or minimize them.

Step 4: Plan actions. For each identified action, the following key questions must be answered:

- > What are the specific steps necessary for each action?
- > What resources are needed and how will they made available?
- > Who is responsible for each step?
- > What is the timetable for each action step?

The answers to each of the above questions should be written on a flip chart and discussed until consensus is reached.

Source: FAO SEAGA intermediate-level handbook (2001)

TOOL 14: OPEN SPACE

When to use it

Open space gatherings are typically held to: create a new vision (e.g. for strategic planning); determine how to implement a strategy; plan a significant change; solve a complex problem with a shared solution; and build relationships among stakeholders.

What it is

Open space (also known as Open Space Technology or OST) is a method for convening groups around a specific important question or task and giving them responsibility for creating both their own agenda and experience. It is best used when at least one-half to two days are available. The facilitator's key task is to identify the question that brings people together, offer the simple process and then stand back to let participants do the work.

How to use it

OST is designed to stimulate the natural flow of ideas. It is based on the assumption that a great amount of wisdom and experience exists in any gathered group of people.

Ask the members of a group to sit in a circle together and then identify issues and topics that have heart and meaning for them; that is, topics for which they have passion and interest and for which they are willing to host a discussion group.

Small group discussions then happen throughout the day, with participants moving from group to group whenever they feel they can no longer contribute to the discussion.

Sources: <http://www.kstoolkit.org/Open+Space> and http://openingspace.net/openSpaceTechnology-method_DescriptionOpenSpaceTechnology.shtml

TOOL 15: WORLD CAFÉ

When to use it

World café is very flexible and can be used in many settings. Its discussions can be used to start a larger meeting, respond to a keynote speaker or solve problems. It is useful when sharing stories and experiences, reviewing and evaluating projects or conducting planning and visioning exercises, i.e. anywhere a conversation will help forward your work.

World café discussions are traditionally conducted face-to-face, but some people are experimenting with ways to do them online in order to include people who cannot be physically present.

World café can be used to complement other methods. For example, you can start with a keynote speaker, and then instead of holding question and answer sessions, you can move into a café.

What it is

World café is a whole group interaction method focused on convening conversations around questions that matter. A café conversation is a creative process for leading collaborative dialogue, sharing knowledge and creating possibilities for action in groups of all sizes.

Four to six people sit around a table and hold a series of conversational rounds about one or more questions. At the end of each round, one person remains at each table as the host, while the others travel to separate tables. By providing opportunities for people to move in several rounds of conversation, ideas, questions and themes begin to link and connect.

World cafés are participatory, inclusive and can even be held in multiple languages.

How to use it

Set up the world café like a café, with paper-covered small tables and, perhaps, welcoming refreshments.

Ask four to six people to sit at the tables or in conversation clusters and engage in progressive (usually three) rounds of conversation of around 15-30 minutes each. Identify a host for each table. Encourage the host and members to write (or draw) ideas on their tablecloths.

Upon completion of the initial round of conversation, ask one person to remain at the table (the "host") and ask the others to serve as travelers or "ambassadors of meaning" by moving to another table.

Ask the table hosts to share the main ideas of the initial conversation with the new guests.

The host encourages guests to link and connect ideas from their previous table conversations. At the end of the second round, all of the tables will be cross-pollinated with new insights.

In the third round of conversation, people can return to their "home tables" to synthesize their discoveries, or they may continue travelling to new tables.

After several rounds of conversation, ask the entire large group to engage in a conversation. Capture the results on flip charts or on large wall graphics.

Source: IMARK module on knowledge sharing for development (2011); <http://www.kstoolkit.org>

TOOL 16: USING SOCRATIC QUESTIONS

When to use it

This tool can be used when initiating dialogue to facilitate organizational change (in the orientation phase) or when starting an MSP.

What it is

This tool uses the Socratic method, which is named for the Greek philosopher Socrates. It emphasizes the use of thought-provoking questions to promote learning (instead of offering opinions or advice). Socratic questions are probing and open-ended; they encourage creative ideas and self-discovery.

How to use it

This method should be used during brainstorming or meeting sessions around a set of specific, strategic, open questions that encourage reflection and imagination rather than simple 'yes' or 'no' answers.

Examples of suitable 'open' questions include the following:

Questions that clarify organizational goals:

What would you like to see happen in this organization?

How would you like the change to occur?

Why do you want this change?

What do you want to change?

What will things look like in a year if everything goes as planned?

What are the consequences of not changing organizational goals?

Questions that clarify motivation for change:

Why do you want this particular change?

Why do you say that?

How will you benefit?

Why is this change important?

Who will benefit from this change?

Questions that uncover basic assumptions:

What are your assumptions about this change process?

What other assumptions also could be valid?

How do you know that what you believe is true?

Why do you believe this change is needed?

What do your peers think about this situation?

What would happen if..?

Source: Haneberg, L. "Organization development" ASTD Press (2005)

TOOL 17: COLLABORATION/PLANNING/PROBLEM SOLVING MEETINGS

When to use it

This tool can be used when facilitating an MSP to enhance collaboration, joint planning or problem solving.

What it is

This tool involves using leading questions and tips to keep conversations focused.

How to use it

For collaboration meetings

Step 1: Invite a diverse group of people to participate in a discussion. Email to them in advance the topic, goals and the type of input you will seek.

Step 2: Ask people to share their ideas and suggestions succinctly because you want to hear from everybody.

Leading questions:

What information do I need and where can I get it?

Where will I face resistance or barriers?

How would you approach this?

What do you like about this idea/opportunity?

What alternative approaches can you think of?

Who should be involved in this initiative?

What should I do to ensure optimal benefit?

For planning meetings

Step 1: To ensure that all attendees know the desired outcome of the meeting and bring relevant information to it, email to them in advance the topic, goals and the type of input you will seek.

Step 2: Clarify the desired outcome and plan extra time for discussion. Make sure that the group also discusses difficult issues.

Leading questions:

What is the scope of this plan?

What is our goal?

What is the time frame for this plan? Is it realistic?

Who are the key stakeholders?

What are the needs and wants of our customers/suppliers?

How will we measure performance?

Which barriers do we need to make plans to address?

How will we help the organization respond to the changes?

For problem-solving meetings

Step 1: Invite key stakeholders and email to them a summary of the problem and the key issues to be resolved.

Step 2: Establish the focus of the meeting and determine how much is known about the problem. Be sure to take some time to explore many potential solutions before narrowing them down.

Leading questions:

What are your ideas for how to solve the problem?

Why did this problem occur?

What is the goal or desired state?

What are key constraints or barriers to solving this problem?

What would we do differently if we were to start over from the beginning?

How do our customers want us to solve this problem?

What is the best solution over the long term?

What is the most random idea you can think of?

Source: Haneberg, L. "Organization development" ASTD Press (2005)

EXERCISE 7: COMPLETING A SELF-ASSESSMENT MATRIX FOR PERFORMANCE ISSUES

Purpose

Chapter 4 identified a series of indicators to monitor organizational performance. This exercise can help managers and staff of the targeted organization to engage in a collective discussion on relevant indicators and data collection methods.

Instructions

Make a matrix for yourself using the information from Exercise 2 ("Thinking about performance").

For each major performance issue, identify key questions, subquestions, indicators, data sources and data collection methods.

The first row includes an example.

PERFORMANCE ISSUE(S)	KEY QUESTION	SUBQUESTIONS	INDICATOR	SOURCE OF DATA	DATA COLLECTION METHOD(S)
Effectiveness	Is the research institute fulfilling its mission?	To what extent does the institute produce high-quality research?	Number of papers published in high-quality journals	Staff Performance Evaluation Monitoring Systems	Questionnaire Interviews with managers and staff

Source: Lusthaus, C., Adrien, M., Anderson, G., Carden, F. "Enhancing organizational performance". IDRC (1999).

EXERCISE 8: DEVELOPING INDICATORS

Purpose

This exercise can be used to help your team discuss and develop indicators. To get a sense of how different people view the same issue, first work individually to develop indicators, and then share everyone's ideas. Chapter 4 provided accurate information on performance criteria and illustrative indicators.

Instructions

Select one of the performance issues you identified during Exercise 2 "Thinking about performance". Develop three to five key indicators you think should be monitored.

Have you ever monitored these kinds of indicators?

Does your organization have the ability to retrieve the information needed to monitor these indicators? If not, what would you have to put in place to collect this information? Is this possible?

TOOL 18: BALANCED SCORECARD METHODOLOGY

When to use it

This tool can be used when analysing, monitoring and evaluating organizational performance of a single organization or within a multistakeholder setting.

What it is

This is an analysis technique designed to translate an organization's mission statement and overall strategy into specific quantifiable goals and to help monitor the organization's performance in achieving those goals. It was developed in 1992 by Kaplan and Norton, who identified four perspectives representing a balanced view of organization performance:

- > financial analysis (e.g. operating costs, return on investment, profit, cost reduction/productivity);
- > client analysis (e.g. customer satisfaction, customer retention, customer acquisition, customer profitability, market share);
- > internal analysis (e.g. production, innovation, resource utilization, time to market); and
- > learning and growth analysis (e.g. effectiveness of management in terms of employee satisfaction and retention and information system performance).

The scorecard is mainly a framework to use within the organization to help decide the relevant set of measures to represent each perspective. It was originally developed for private-sector organizations; however, there is no reason why it should not be used for public-sector organizations or producers' organizations.

How to use it

Creating and implementing a balanced scorecard is usually part of an overall performance management system in which strategic vision links through the unit level to personal objectives and rewards, plans, budgets and performance review. Senior management should be involved in developing a balanced scorecard in order to:

- > guide the construction and measures for the scorecard;
- > build commitment;
- > clarify the framework for the implementation and management process to use the scorecard effectively.

Follow these steps in a workshop setting to create the scorecard:

Step 1: Agree on the vision and strategy and make any decisions necessary regarding how resources will be used in the pursuit of that vision.

Step 2: Agree on the four perspectives to be included and brainstorm on the possible measures. Identify how performance will be evaluated, what standards must be met and what benchmarking data must be developed.

Step 3: Divide into four groups, one for each perspective. Ask each group to identify three to four measures with detailed descriptions. Develop a performance measurement record sheet for each measure. See below for an example of a performance measurement record sheet on financial analysis and customer retention.

MEASURE	RETURN ON CAPITAL EMPLOYED	CUSTOMER RETENTION
Purpose	To focus on the returns being made on the capital employed	To understand which aspects of organizational performance needs improvement so that organizational services satisfy needs
Relates to	The need for the organization to make an adequate return to its investors	The need for the organization to satisfy its clients
Target	Achieve a rate of return of 20 percent by the end of the year	Minimize clients' complaint ratio, and keep it under 1 percent
Formula	(Profit before tax and interest/ net capital employed)*100	(Number of clients' complaints/number of interviewed clients)*100
Frequency	To be measured monthly and reviewed quarterly	To be measured yearly
Who measures?	Finance Director	Quality Manager
Who acts on the data?	Operations Director	Quality Manager
What do they do?	Manage production costs	Analyse complaints by key processes and implement corrective actions
Notes		

Step 4: Organize a management meeting to adopt the scorecards as part of the implementation plan, which should include training and rolling out the measures.

Sources: Adapted from Bourne, M. and P., "Balanced scorecard". Chartered Management Institute (2007); Carnall, C. "Managing change in organizations" (2007)

TOOL 19: BENCHMARKING

When to use it

This tool can be used when analysing organizational processes and activities with the aim of improving certain aspects of organizational performance for a single organization or for a multistakeholder process.

What it is

Benchmarking is a systematic approach in which an organization evaluates its own operations and processes by comparing them in detail with those of another organization where similar processes exist. The approach involves holding regular meetings with people from different sections of an organization or from different organizations to exchange information and ideas about specific processes or areas of activities. Dimensions typically measured are quality, time and costs.

Many insights can be gained from a benchmarking exercise. It can uncover problems of production, management practices and other factors that affect productivity, cost of production and profitability. These insights and discoveries then can be used to improve performance.

The process begins by identifying successful organizations that are performing well. The performance of these 'benchmark' organizations are set as a standard for others to compare themselves against. This exercise has also been used by extension workers and farmers to analyse high-performing farms.

How to use it

Step 1: Organize benchmark meetings within the organization.

Step 2: Identify the organizational problem to be benchmarked.

Step 3: Identify organizational performance indicators.

Step 4: Identify benchmark organizations which have similar processes or activities.

Step 5: Collect comparable information.

Step 6: Compare performance and interpret differences.

Step 7: Share findings and results.

Step 8: Devise plans and implement changes.

Step 9: Reflect and evaluate results.



To be effective, benchmarking exercises require:

- > regular meetings;
- > defined agendas focused on specific issues (e.g. responding to customer complaints);
- > agreed ground rules (e.g. the extent to which information will be shared); and
- > a framework to examine benchmark activities or processes. The simplest of these involves breaking each activity or process down into its component parts and then reviewing what works, what does not work and what could be done differently.

Participants in benchmarking do not have to be operating in the same fields; in fact, there is a lot to be gained from benchmarking similar processes with different organizations.

Sources: DFID "Promoting institutional and organizational development. A sourcebook of tools and techniques" (2003); FAO Farm business analysis. Using benchmarking by Kahan, D. (2013)

TOOL 20: COMBINING QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE EVALUATION TECHNIQUES

When to use it

This tool was developed by FAO to evaluate a country's satisfaction level with its capacity development support for investment.

What it is

This tool has been used to calculate a country's satisfaction level by conducting qualitative interviews with managers, focus group discussions and/or individual interviews with direct participants. The diagram below illustrates the methodology.

The heart of the methodology: qualitative interviews with **managers**



Methodology builds upon OECD standard evaluation criteria:
Relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, sustainability

How to use it

Step 1: Focus groups or individual interviews

In this approach, the people who are the direct beneficiaries/counterparts of the FAO capacity development support participate in focus group discussions or individual interviews so that they may provide feedback and possible suggestions for improvements/adjustments. The semi-structured interview guide (shown below) is used to lead these focus groups.

Each focus group discussion or individual interview should not take more than one hour, following these steps:

- > Deliver an introduction to explain the qualitative assessment exercise and its methodology, clarifying that the objective of the exercise is to rate the satisfaction with capacity development support activities, and not to evaluate the projects within which support has been provided. Also identify the specific activities and "learning events" (e.g. workshops, face-to-face training) to focus on during the discussion.
- > Use the interview guide to facilitate a discussion of the relevant topics.
- > The Evaluator (normally the National Consultant) rates the satisfaction of beneficiaries without directly raising this during the focus group discussions. The Evaluator explains and justifies his/her score in the narrative and includes comments from beneficiaries as background information for the discussion with managers in Step 2.

Guide for interviews with direct recipients/beneficiaries of FAO capacity development support

1. What activity(ies) did you participate in during the period from ... to ...?
2. What kind of capacity (e.g. knowledge, skills, others) were you expecting to gain from the FAO capacity development activity?
3. Do you feel that you actually gained this capacity (or did the support received meet your expectations)? And did you get any other benefit from participating in this activity?
4. Was the support you received relevant for the work you were/are performing?
5. How were the beneficiaries selected for this support?
6. Of the improved capacities/learning that you actually acquired, which do you find were most useful to you?
7. Have you been able to apply the new capacities/learning in the work you are/were performing? If yes, please provide examples. If not, why not?
8. Are you aware of whether the FAO capacity development support has contributed to achieving new/improved outputs for your organization/institution/unit/task force? If yes, please provide examples.
9. Do you expect to be able to apply the acquired capacities/learning in the future? Why/why not? How?
10. Was the way the support was provided to you appropriate? Why/why not? What worked well/less well in the way the support was provided? Was the timing/duration/method adequate?
11. After having received the FAO support, have you received other kinds of capacity development support (e.g. from other donor-funded programmes)? If yes, which?
12. Have you shared your acquired capacities/learning with others (e.g. colleagues)? If yes, how? How would you rank the overall quality of the capacity development activity [1=very poor to 5=very good]. Please explain your answer.
13. How did this capacity development support affect males and females differently? Why did it affect them differently? What was being done about it? Were gender issues considered in planning the support activity?

Step 2: Managerial assessments

In this step, managers/supervisors use the Rating Score Card (see below) to provide a score (from 1-10, with 1 being "extremely low" and 10 being "extremely high") for each of the four evaluation criteria (i.e. relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, sustainability)⁴⁴. They also provide an overall satisfaction rating and explanations for their scores, which should be reflected in the narrative of the country assessment report. This qualitative element is useful to obtain feedback on the processes and approaches and allows for future adjustments and improvements of FAO projects.

If more than one manager is interviewed per project, calculate the arithmetic average of their scores to obtain the overall project results/scores. Then calculate the overall satisfaction score for the country as a weighted average of the scores provided by the different project results/scores.

In order for the managers to be able to assess a particular project, they must be fully informed about the characteristics of the specific intervention. Project background information can be collected and structured with a generic inventory sheet (see below).

⁴⁵ It is not considered possible to assess impact within a short timeframe (e.g. from one to two years back).

Rating sheet for managers

Rating score sheet

NAME OF ORGANIZATION/GROUP: NAME AND POSITION OF MANAGERIAL/KEY REFERENCE PERSON: PROJECT NAME/NUMBER:		
QUESTION	OVERALL RATING SCALE 1 (EXTREMELY LOW) TO 10 (EXTREMELY HIGH)	COMMENTS/EXAMPLES
<p>1. Relevance: To what extent has the capacity development support been:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > in line with the strategies, policies and priorities of the supported organization; > targeting needs in the present functions of the organization and staff; and > targeting anticipated new functions of the organization and staff. 		
<p>2. Efficiency: To what extent has the capacity development support been efficient in terms of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > following the agreed implementation plan and timeline; > use of resources; > the methods and processes through which capacity was developed; > exploiting possibilities for complementarity; and > coordination and synergies with support provided by others? (if yes, which programmes/donors?) 		
<p>3. Effectiveness: To what extent has the capacity development support been effective in terms of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > applying appropriate approach(es); > achieving (or being likely to achieve) the intended results; > leading to changes in mindset/approach in the way of doing business; > institutionalization and institutional uptake; and > integrating and disseminating new and strengthened capacities? 		
<p>4. Sustainability: To what extent has it been, or will it be possible to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > sustain/continue the results of the capacity development work; > replicate capacity development activities; and > upscale capacity development skills/approaches? 		
<p>5. Overall assessment: What is the overall satisfaction with the capacity development support for investment provided by FAO?</p>		

Capacity development inventory sheet

Responsible officer:	
Name of the project/activity in which the capacity development support was provided:	
<p>Brief description of the FAO capacity development intervention (please also refer to the project context). Be sure to include the following information:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">> title of intervention> timing of intervention> budget of intervention (if available)> input of FAO	
Target organization / group (including contact details) for the FAO capacity development intervention. Be sure to include information on participants and their supervisors.	
What critical functions/capacities were to be developed through the capacity development support?	
What capacity development strategy/approach was applied?	

Source: FAO Country Assessment Report of FAO Organizational Result L2

APPENDIX 1 – COMMON MODELS OF ORGANIZATION ANALYSIS AND DESIGN

The table below describes the elements, benefits and limitations of the most common organization analysis and design models which have been tested during the last two decades. They each offer different perspectives of organizational systems. The choice among them depends upon the circumstances and the user's willingness to engage with complexity.

MODELS	ELEMENTS	BENEFITS	LIMITATIONS
McKinsey 7-S Model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Systems • Strategy • Structures • Style • Shared values • Staff • Skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Description of important organizational elements > Recognition of the interaction among these elements 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > No external environment > No feedback loop > No performance variables
Galbraith's Star Model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategy • Structure • People • Reward • Process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Description of important organizational elements > Recognition of the interaction among these elements 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > No external environment > Some key elements, such as culture, are not included
Weisbord Six Box Model	<p>Leadership (which coordinates the other five elements)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Purpose • Structure • Rewards • Helpful mechanisms • Relationships 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Includes diagnostic questions in the five box > Requires the purpose to be stated 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Focuses on some elements but overlooks the others
Nadler and Tushman Congruence Model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Informal organization • Formal organization • Work • People 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Easy to follow > Allows for discussion of what comprises "informal" and "formal" organizations > Boxes must be congruent with each other 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Few named elements may overlook other crucial aspects

Burke- Litwin Causal Model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mission/Strategy • Structure • Task requirement • Leadership • Management practices • Work unit climate • Organization culture • Individual needs and values • (Feedback loops) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Includes feedback loops > Highlights qualitative aspects (e.g. motivation) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Very detailed > Difficult to grasp
Organizational Performance Assessment (OPA)	<p>External environment:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Political • Economic • Sociocultural • Technological • Stakeholders' context <p>Organizational capacity:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategic leadership • Organizational structure • Process management • Programme management • Human resources • Capital resources • Infrastructure linkages and networks <p>Organizational motivation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • History • Mission • Culture • Incentives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Description of important organizational elements > Includes external environment as a key factor for organizational performance > Recognition of the interaction among these elements > Performance variables > Highlights qualitative aspects (e.g. motivation) > Includes in-depth questions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Very detailed > Difficult to use in its entirety > Normally used by selecting elements from each key area

GLOSSARY OF KEY TERMS

Action planning: This involves determining organizational goals and then the actions to achieve them. From this, an action plan is created, which is a sequenced series of steps that includes task assignments, milestones, timelines, resource allocations and performance measurement.

Change readiness: Before launching any type of project/programme involving organizational change, it is helpful to assess factors such as: the perception of the need for change; how much (or little) support the change is likely to get from stakeholders; what forces there may be to drive or block project success; and leadership ability to manage the change.

Competence: This refers to an individual's ability to carry out tasks and activities to the standards required in employment using an appropriate mix of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Many organizations have competence frameworks that define levels of ability against which employees' performance is measured.

Culture: Culture comprises the values, traditions, customs, stories, habits and attitudes that a group of people share which define their general behaviour and way of working in an organization.

Focus group interviews: A limited number of participants meet together to discuss ideas and information among themselves under the guidance of a skilled facilitator. The interaction among group members has synergistic effects on participants, producing higher quality information than an individual interview.

Future search: This refers to a conference-style approach involving large numbers of internal and external stakeholders jointly working on a design with facilitator support. Some initial questions are posed and the participants use a combination of structured activities to arrive at solutions. This method has the benefit of generating feelings of ownership among stakeholders, thus getting speedily to the implementation stage.

Governance: Establishment of policies, procedures and continuous monitoring of their proper implementation by the members of the governing body of an organization. It includes the rules and practices that ensure a transparent, fair and accountable decision-making process.

Interview: An interview is a verbal exchange between two or more people, either face-to-face, via phone line or via Skype, with the interviewer taking the lead in asking questions. The primary focus of interviews in organization design work is to obtain information to feed into project/programme formulation.

Key informant interviews: These interviews consist of in-depth discussions with a series of knowledgeable people in order to obtain relevant information, opinions and perspectives on an issue. An interview guide, which lists main topics and questions to be covered, is essential.

Measurement: Measurement is a formalized activity (including assessing, monitoring, ascertaining, surveying, etc.) aimed at producing structured data that are then interpreted and applied in the process of making judgments, decisions and choices.

Multi-actor system: This refers to the set of actors and relationships pertinent to a specific development issue (e.g. an agricultural value chain).

Multi-actor engagement: This is an explicit effort to connect to multiple actors to involve them for an organizational change.

Organization: An organization is a social structure created by individuals to support the collaborative pursuit of specified goals.

Organizational analysis: This refers to a diagnostic process to better understand the performance of an organization by assessing the various factors (internal and external and their interrelations) responsible for its performance.

Organizational capacity: An organization's capacity refers to its endowment in resources (i.e. human, physical and financial) and its governance (i.e. process, rules).

Organization design: This refers to the sequence of activities that results in an alignment of vision and mission, values/operating principles, strategies, objectives, systems, structure, people, processes and performance measures. It is the outcome of intentional activities that align all the components of an organization in a way that keeps it adaptable in its operating context.

Organizational motivation: This refers to the ability of an organization to mobilize its internal energy to achieve its goals.

Organizational development: This refers to measures to improve the performance of an organization.

Organizational performance: This refers to an organization's ability to achieve its mission effectively and to sustain itself over the long term.

Risk analysis: Risks are the various factors that could influence the achievement of organizational objectives (opportunities and threats). In organization design work, it is important to identify and assess risks, determine appropriate ways to respond to them and use a risk-control framework to manage risks during a project's life cycle.

Stakeholder: Stakeholders are groups within or outside an organization with a vested interest in the organization's performance. Shareholders, clients, suppliers and employees are all stakeholders. In organization design work, stakeholders are people who are affected, directly or indirectly by the scope of a new design and/or who can influence the success or failure of the design.

Vision/Visioning: This process involves creating a compelling statement of what the organization aspires to be or do; it is one of the first steps in designing in a new state.

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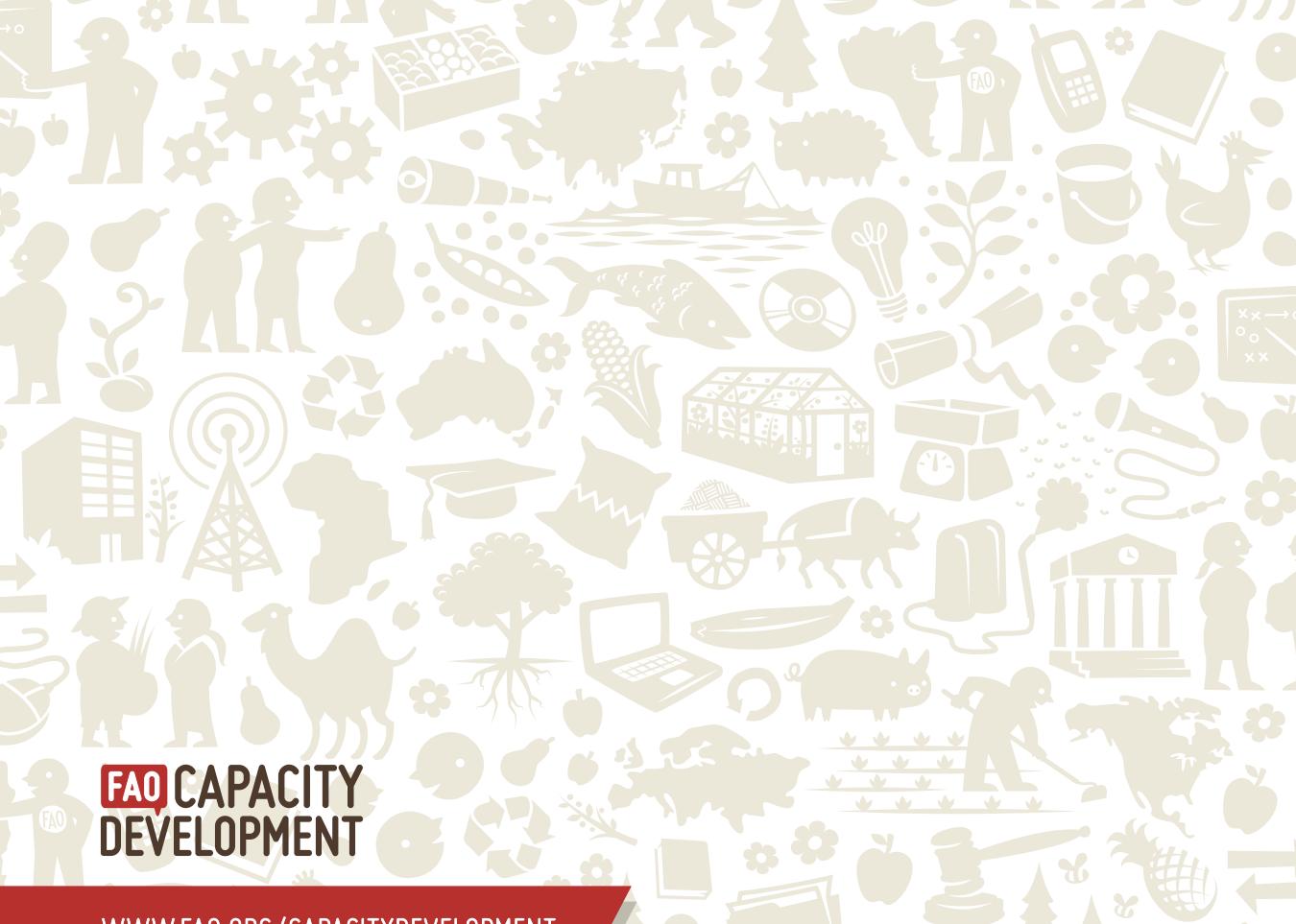
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