

# **Community and NGO Capacity Building in International Development Work: Towards a Model of Balance**

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## **Abstract**

The term capacity building, within the context of international NGOs, often takes on a number of interpretations that fall into two forms of capacity. On one hand the term focuses on the community, referring to a facilitated process that supports communities to: develop their own direction in the solving of local collective problems; build off of existing community assets to improve community well-being, and create rubrics for measuring impact and growth. On the other hand, it focuses on the organization and activities meant to improve organizational effectiveness and performance so that NGOs can better fulfill their mission of improving the quality of life of those they serve. Using examples from academic literature and the authors on experience in development work, this analysis proposes a conceptual model to balance the tensions that occur when international NGOs attempt to engage in both forms of capacity building, focusing on the concepts of accountability, community voice and partnership.

## **Introduction**

Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), occupying an important sector of development work, continually struggle with the question of how to balance the ideals of community capacity building with the external pressures of organizational capacity building within their task environment. The purpose of this analysis is to explore and address the tensions that are caused when NGO practitioners in the field engage in community capacity building while attempting to manage their own organizational capacity. It begins with overviews of both community capacity building and organizational capacity building from their theoretical bases in the current literature. The analysis continues with an example from the author's work as a community economic development volunteer in the United States Peace Corps in order to illustrate how conflicts of interest within both community and organizational capacity building for the NGO practitioner working with communities in developing countries. The analysis concludes with implications for NGO practitioners who seek to balance the grassroots foundation of community capacity building with the sustainability and structure of organizational capacity building by focusing on the many overlapping values, goals and practices they share.

Many researchers describe the global evolution of social development NGOs over the past 30 years as a progression from an array of volunteer-based organizations to a massive third sector complementing the more established sectors of government and business (Edwards & Hulme, 1992; Hulme & Edwards, 1997; Fowler, 1997; Fowler, 2000; Lewis 2001). Lindenberg (1999) suggests that this increase stems from a declining state capacity in the 1980s to address the major effects of international recession and widespread global poverty. As Fowler (2000) notes, this evolution has led to the following expectations of NGOs from aid agencies and governments: 1) cost-effective delivery of services (economic development, education, health, etc.); 2) positive influence on civil society (promotion of various aspects of civic participation and social justice); 3) people-centered capacity building that leads to local economic, civic and

social sustainability; 4) increased leverage with national and international policy making; 5) protection of the public good and social justice; 6) increased influence of quality aid practices of governments and international funders; 7) strong accounting principles in regards to resources; and 8) motivation of the public to continue to support aid projects. However, these expectations evoke many questions that focus on the ability of this relatively young third sector of NGOs to balance capacities such as the task-oriented accountability of cost effective service delivery with the process-oriented goals of people-centered project design.

### **Community Capacity Building**

This section focuses on community capacity building as a process subject to outside intervention, such as that implemented by an NGO. Community capacity building, as a concept, is difficult to find in the literature and is often used interchangeably with community building, people-centered development, community development and locality development (see Rothman, Erlich, Tropman & Cox, 1995; Eade, 1997; Kingsley, McNeely & Gibson, 1997; Chaskin, Brown, Venkatesh & Vidal, 2001; Craig, 2007). For example, Rothman, Erlich, & Tropman (1995) describe “locality development” as a project-based intervention that emphasizes participation and process in order to ensure a democratic community practice of problem-solving. Further, Eade (1997) provides a working definition of community capacity building in her discussion of Oxfam UK and Ireland’s approach to development work:

[A]ll people have a right to an equitable share in the world’s resources, and to be the authors of their own development...[T]he denial of such rights is at the heart of poverty and suffering. Strengthening people’s capacity to determine their own values and priorities, and to act on these, is the basis of development. (p. 2)

Finally, Chaskin et al. (2001) complements this definition with one that incorporates the idea of viewing community capacity building within the context of interaction with various levels of community by noting that:

Community capacity is the interaction of human capital, organizational resources, and social capital existing within a given community that can be leveraged to solve collective problems and improve or maintain the well-being of that community. It may operate through informal social processes and/or organized efforts by individuals, organizations, and social networks that exist among them and between them and the larger systems of which the community is a part. (p 7)

Combining the above descriptions, community capacity building is facilitated process that supports communities to: develop their own direction in the solving of local collective problems; build off of existing community assets to improve community well-being, and create rubrics for measuring impact and growth. Figure 1, illustrates this process as a combination of specific *areas of focus* and *NGO input*. In essence, the community capacity building approach represents a partnership between the supporting NGO and different levels of the community.

#### **[Insert Figure 1 Here]**

The areas of focus in Figure 1 rely heavily on what Chaskin et al. (2001) refer to as strategies for building community capacity, which focus on the concepts of individual leadership

development, organizational development; and community organizing. Briefly, *community organizing* represents a process by which community members are brought together to pool a collective voice towards an existing conflict, an opportunity for consensus on a specific issue or group of issues. While the short-term goal in this process is to create positive change in the community, the ultimate effect is to create community networks and build social solidarity (Chaskin et al.).

Chaskin et al. (2001) notes that *organizational development* is a part of community capacity building, explaining:

The more an organization can develop relationships that are authentic rather than token, mutual rather than one-sided, and flexible rather than rigid, the more an organization is likely to be able to connect effectively to its constituency and, through this connection, contribute to community capacity. (p 91)

Building on the concepts of Chaskin et al., organizational development implies a reiterative process of building NGO organizational capacity in a manner that encourages these entities to, in turn, help build the capacity of informal community organizations, groups and individual leaders.

Related to both community organizing and development, *individual leadership development*'s role in community capacity building focuses on empowering leaders to understand and balance external threats and opportunities in community building with local community need. Kirk & Shutte (2004) explore the concept of leadership development in a case study of under-resourced community members of the Western Cape in South Africa by focusing on a model of leadership development that promotes the individual leader's ability to take account of the situation around him/her and adjust his/her style accordingly. As they explain, "The bureaucratic and hierarchical systems with the emphasis on standardization and accountability sit uneasily with the requirements of delegated authority that drive flexibility, quick response, creativity and innovation" (p. 237).

NGO input refers to the state of the development of NGO interactions with communities. One such input, NGO *openness to dialogue* builds on Freire's theory (1972) of *conscientização*, which explains:

The pedagogy of the oppressed, which is the pedagogy of the people in the fight for their own liberation, has its roots [in dialoguing with the people about their actions]. And those who recognize, or begin to recognize, themselves as oppressed must be among the developers of this pedagogy. No pedagogy which is truly liberating can remain distant from the oppressed by treating them as unfortunates and by presenting for their emulation models from among the oppressors. The oppressed must be their own example in the struggle for their redemption. (pp. 38-39)

According to Freire, those outsiders, or former "members of the oppressor class" who attempt to join local communities in order to aid them in their struggle to grow, must do so through continual dialogue and self reflection as opposed to "banking" styles of education that emphasize the idea of an expert outsider teaching the ignorant masses. In fact, Freire argues that these "converts" must commit to the idea that they too are in a continual state of learning in partnership with oppressed community members. Thus, community capacity building, in this sense, can be interpreted as a facilitated process that supports communities in developing their own direction and rubrics for measuring impact and growth.

*Cultural competence* is another concept useful to outsider community builders who seek to influence the process of community capacity building. Datta (2005) highlights this concept through a discussion of the ways in which an NGO in Bangladesh addressed local religious leaders who, in an attempt to disrupt its capacity building activities with local micro-credit community-based organizations, challenged participants verbally, burned down Concern's school and engaged in various acts of vandalism. Understanding the cultural power of local religious leaders, the NGO focused its efforts on seeking out and building relationships with other religious leaders in the area who were more open to dialogue, including them in planning and decision making roles.

Eade (1997) furthers the idea of NGO input with the notion of *people-centeredness*, which focuses on valuing an investment approach to capacity building by engaging in needs or strengths assessments along **with** the people of communities served. This partnered approach is relevant to the previous openness to dialogue discussion of Freire's work (1972). Eade (1997) explains that when practitioners engage in community capacity building by using a people-centered approach, it prompts community members to address such issues as education, gender, economics and social justice in a slower pace that is more effective than top-down approaches to development.

### **Organizational Capacity Building**

The literature on NGO and nonprofit organizational capacity building is vast and comprehensive. On the whole, definitions of the process focus on activities meant to improve organizational effectiveness and performance so that NGOs can better fulfill their mission of improving the quality of life of those they serve (Fowler, 1997; Backer, 2001; Roberts & Lillis 2001; Lewis, 2001; Blumenthal, 2003), especially leadership development (Fowler 1997; James, 2008) cultural knowledge and critical reflection (Lewis 2001, 2002; James, 2004).

In this analysis, organizational capacity building is defined in terms of both nonprofit human service organizations in the United States and NGOs throughout the world because there is considerable overlap in discussions of organizational capacity development on these two types of organizations (Fowler 1997; Backer, 2001; Roberts & Lillis, 2001; Lewis, 2001, 2002; Blumenthal, 2003, James 2004). James (2004) points out that the concept of organizational development itself stems from the American private sector. In addition, NGOs reflect multiple types and levels, including organizations from both the North and South (Eade, 1997). For example, international northern NGOs may take the form of either direct relief and development-oriented organizations (Lindenberg & Dobel, 1999) or as organizations that support national and local Southern NGOs (Brown & Kalegaonkar, 2002).

Figure 2 highlights the major factors influencing organizational capacity building for NGOs. These factors are organized into the three major categories of areas of focus, NGO input and capacity building activities, in which areas of focus and NGO input directly influence the choice of activities that an NGO might use to build its own capacity.

#### **[Insert Figure 2 Here]**

Areas of focus represent those aspects of capacity building that an organization sees as needing of improvement. Blumenthal (2003) identifies these areas of focus as: 1) *organizational stability*, 2) *financial stability*, 3) *program quality* and 4) *organization growth*, while alluding to *systems management* (also noted by De Vita & Fleming (2001)) and *leadership development* (also highlighted by Fowler (1997), Hailey & James (2004) and James (2008)). While all areas

of focus are important, program quality and leadership development receive the most attention in current literature for NGOs.

Program quality, in Figure 2, refers to the ways that capacity building can improve the “long-term impact” of an organization’s services, especially an organization’s vision and mission (Blumenthal, 2003; De Vita, Fleming & Twombly, 2001). Essentially, program quality is based on measures of service effectiveness as they relate to the organizations, communities and individuals that NGOs assist (Fowler, 1997; Lewis, 2001; Roberts & Lillis, 2001). As Cairns, Harris, Hutchison & Tricker (2005) explain:

[I]f “quality” is to be useful for nonprofits, if it is to be a means of organizational improvement, for example, it needs to be fully integrated into strategic planning processes, work plans, and organizational reviews. Those nonprofits in our study in which quality remained an extra, to be discussed and worked on as time allowed, generally struggled with the concept, and staff reported only limited benefits in terms of improved services and greater sustainability. (p. 145)

Leadership development also plays a central role in NGO capacity building. Fowler (1997) notes that the cultures of many developing countries do not separate leaders from organizations: “in many countries of the South and East, NGDOs are known by who is leading them, rather than by their proper name.”<sup>1</sup> Thus it becomes particularly important to enhance the quality of NGO leaders in order to ensure sustainability of NGOs (De Vita, et al., 2001). As James (2008) points out, NGO leaders from Kenya, Malawi and Uganda often need to maintain a tri-focal role that balances the pressures of the “global aid world”, the organizational context of urban workplaces and the ties to families in village settings. These leaders often require the skills to handle resource and time management in organizations that face limited technology and funding while also managing the impact of larger global economic and health problems (such as global poverty and AIDS) that often affect staff and clients alike (Hailey & James, 2004; James, 2008; see also Kirk & Shutte, 2004).

The second category of organizational capacity building includes the existing state of the following NGO inputs: 1) financial and human resources; 2) the existing state of leadership; 3) organizational culture; and 4) environmental context (see Fowler, 1997; Backer, 2001; Lewis 2001, 2002; Blumenthal, 2003; Hailey & James, 2004; James, 2004, 2008).

Blumenthal (2003) notes that, “[o]rganizational culture refers to commonly held values, beliefs, and attitudes that shape the behavior of organization members” (p. 19, emphasis added), which needs to be understood in order to manage the changes that emerge in the capacity building process. For example, Lewis (2001) suggests that NGOs have a tendency to see themselves as different from other organizations “since they place a high priority on being flexible and idealistic, rather than highly organized and hierarchical.” (p. 173). This, in turn, can affect the attitudes of internal NGO staff towards organizational capacity building.

Beyond the attitudes that exist within NGOs, societal beliefs and lifestyles also affect NGO input. For example, using Hofstede’s (1991) theories of power-distance, individualism, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity, Lewis (2002) and James (2004) explain that cultural issues of the greater society can impact the effectiveness of organizations. Specifically, Lewis (2002) draws upon Brown and Covey’s analysis (1983) of organizations that experience internal ideological conflict, by focusing on the effects of institutionalized racism on power-distance,

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<sup>1</sup> Fowler (1997) utilizes the term NGDO to apply to NGOs that focus exclusively on development, but for the sake of simplicity and effectiveness, as stated earlier in the paper, the author utilizes the acronym NGO universally.

particularly its impact on leadership development, where leaders need to learn and utilize various styles in order to adjust to the culture of their staff.

Another NGO input relates to the environmental context of organizational capacity building. As Hasenfeld (1983) notes in his description of the concept of *task environment*, external forces can, quite often, shape organizational decision making and greatly influence program outcomes. For example, Blumenthal (2003) suggests that “[t]he quality of nonprofit management is a widespread and growing concern among the *philanthropic community*” (emphasis added, p. 3). The NGO environmental context of limited resources provides external funders with considerable power over the decisions of NGO leaders and, ultimately, the capacity building process (Hailey & James, 2004; James, 2008). However, this influence can be extremely dangerous when donors have the power to control an organization’s actions and, thereby, undermine the capacity-building process when they become too rigid or involved (Fowler, 1997, Blumenthal, 2003).

### **The Quest for Balance**

Finding a balance between the organizational capacity building of NGOs and the community capacity building functions they serve can, at times present conflicts of interest. This can be found both in practice, through an individual case study from the author’s experience as a United States Peace Corps worker and through further discussions of a more balanced model that is alluded to within the academic literature.

### **Understanding Capacity Building Conflicts of Interest with the Peace Corps**

The author’s personal experience in a local Peace Corps program presents a good example of the tensions local NGOs may experience while focusing on both community building and organizational capacity building. A prominent goal of the Peace Corps is to help the people of participating countries “in meeting their need for trained men and women,” reflecting, in part, Friere’s (1972) philosophy of working alongside local community members in order to aid them in the development of their own parameters for success. Volunteers, thus, often operate as a form of independent NGO contractors prompted to implement organizational objectives that: 1) are based on the local Peace Corps office’s strategic plan; 2) are developed in partnership with the host-country national government and the global Peace Corps office; and 3) are partially in response to a U.S. national foreign policy strategy. However, in the author’s experience, this pressure would often create tensions between the interests of the Peace Corps, the national host-country government and local community stakeholders.

The internal organizational capacity building process of local Peace Corps agencies may reveal a need for greater partnership between government and local NGOs. In the author’s local agency, for example, a framework was disseminated to volunteers that included the assignment of at least one government and NGO counterpart per volunteer and a conceptual model placing the local volunteer at the center of three converging circles of influence: 1) local Peace Corps capacity (including the volunteer and training staff); 2) host country projects and priorities; and 3) community needs and resources.

The assessment of the local Peace Corps office converging circle model occurred through two types of reports filled out by volunteers on a quarterly basis. The first asked the volunteer to list, in the local language, the activities in which he/she engaged within specific categories such as education, business development, and water sanitation. This report, disseminated to NGOs

and government agencies in the host country, helped the volunteer to monitor his obligation to host country projects and priorities, and NGO counterparts. The second report attempted to link specific work objectives and activities to an evaluation of Peace Corps capacity. Community economic volunteers, for example, were asked to report on how many people were trained to develop feasibility studies in their communities.

This environment led to a number of distinct dilemmas for volunteers. First, reports did not always include methods to evaluate a volunteer's impact on the third circle of the model, community identified needs and resources. Second, volunteers were engaged in protecting community interest while negotiating the projects of local NGO partners operating in the area, who received the majority of their funding from international funds and were thus subject to accountability measures of their own. Finally, a volunteer was directed to not only maintain equity among the different stakeholders of her own organization's strategic framework, but, also, to help local NGO counterparts to see their obligations to the community in a similar manner.

Uphoff's (1995) discussion of the duties of NGOs reflects the challenges faced by both the author in his volunteer experience and the NGOs that are subject to higher hierarchical authorities for their existence: "There is a fiduciary relationship between NGO staff and trustees and those who provide NGOs with their funds which is greater than their obligation to recipients of NGO benefits. If trust and confidence are not maintained with an NGO's contributors, it will collapse." (p. 21). Uphoff's insights lead to the question of whether or not it is possible to engage communities in a manner that balances the process of organizational capacity building with the expressed capacity needs of clients in the community.

### ***Developing a Model for Capacity Building Balance***

Based on a review of both community capacity building and organizational capacity building, the final step in this analysis is to identify ways that NGOs, either at the local community or intermediate support organization level, can maximize balance. It becomes readily apparent that community voice (be it in the form of local individuals or groups) runs the risk of losing its capacity building potential because of pressure from donor organizations, legitimizing bodies and governments. As revealed in the Peace Corps example, often attempts to establish formal methods of accounting for community needs in reports and evaluations prove extremely difficult. Program quality, coupled with people-centeredness, can reflect an understanding of community needs that are essential for capacity building (Eade, 2007), and yet community voice tends to receive limited attention.

To establish a framework for analyzing balanced capacity building, Figure 3 illustrates a simplified version of the NGO task environment, representing the structure of relationships between: 1) local NGOs with support NGOs; 2) major providers of fiscal resources and legitimacy for NGOs with support NGOs; and 3) local community organizations, groups and individuals with local NGOs. However, the major focus of Figure 3 rests with the arrows of the map, which feature the role of leadership, accountability, voice and partnerships in balanced capacity building (Hasenfeld, 1983; Thompson, 1967).

**[Insert Figure 3 Here]**

The theoretical framework of community and organizational capacity building balance presented in Figure 3 rests upon the assumptions that NGO and community leaders are trained to balance the needs of multiple stakeholders by remaining accountable to the community, while maintaining the ability to negotiate the pressures that government and funders place upon them.

Furthermore, Figure 3 demonstrates a need for equitable partnerships among the multiple players of an NGO's task environment. This need is heavily examined in the literature (Gupta, Mcpherson, Sellers, Chamreun, Choudhary & Levene, 2006; Lewis, 1998; Ashman 2001; Sanyal, 2006; Brown & Kalegaonkar, 2002). This analysis concludes with a discussion of the possible challenges and prospects for growth in accountability and performance within the notion of balanced capacity building.

### *Accountability and performance*

Accountability and performance are major dimensions of organizational capacity building as organizations seek to ensure stability, while promoting program quality. It is often noted that an organization's sense of accountability to NGO funders tends to be stronger than its accountability to clients because, without funding, the organization would collapse (Uphoff, 1995). This perspective is reflected throughout the literature on accountability and performance (see Edwards & Hulme, 1995; Fowler, 1997; Ashman 2001; Ebrahim, 2002, 2005; Eade, 2007; Kenny, 2007).

As Eade (2007) points out, "[t]oo readily, aid agencies assume that their priorities (which are necessarily shaped by their upward accountability, and fed by their own public-relations priorities) will naturally coincide with those of the people on the receiving end, or can be bolted on without too much problem." (p. 630). This phenomenon, as perceived by Southern NGOs, creates a situation in which their ability to understand and protect community voice and retain the integrity of their missions is challenged by obligations to follow the direction of aid agencies and Northern NGOs. (Ashman, 2001; Ebrahim, 2002). Furthermore, Ebrahim's case analysis (2002) of NGO relationships with funders suggests that efforts to improve NGO performance are blurred by reports that: 1) favor easily measurable and tangible "product data" at the expense of "process data"; 2) reflect "symbolic" areas of quantifiable improvement; and 3) utilize certified professionals as leverage in legitimizing their work.

The above observations lead to two major dilemmas. First, as Kenny (2007) suggests in her case study of NGOs in crisis situations, program quality issues receive less attention when NGOs seek to build their own capacity and longevity at the expense of the communities that they serve. This occurrence suggests the need for innovative ways of assessing NGO performance (Ebrahim, 2002). Second, the upward accountability of NGOs towards donor and government relationships, mixed with the lack of sustained downward accountability towards the "beneficiaries" of NGO services and an inability to convey their needs to donors, highlights the need for the type of participatory development that includes these "beneficiaries" in program design, monitoring and evaluation (Hashemi, 1995; Edwards & Hulme, 1996) in order to provide NGO clients with opportunities for substantial participation in the capacity building process.

As Figure 3 illustrates, if the true goal of local community development NGOs of the South is to meet community defined needs that reflect local situations and environments, it is imperative that these organizations maintain accountability with both funders and communities, while maintaining a pipeline for stakeholder voice. This need for balanced accountability and voice facilitated through partnerships between support organizations (such as the Peace Corps) and local NGOs can lead to three outcomes. First, increased attention to downward accountability to the clients or beneficiaries of NGO service could promote program quality as a way to balance both organizational and community capacity building. As Eade (2007) notes in her discussion of an NGO's obligation to its client "partners":



They need to look at how they learn from their ‘partners’, not just gathering ‘stories and pictures’, but in terms of their values, their perceptions, their analyses, concerns, and aspirations. They need to check their feedback and communication mechanisms, because without these there is no mutual accountability. Consultation is not just a question of asking, but of accounting back for decisions taken. (p. 636)

This outcome is not just a change in tactics, but rather represents cultural shifts in the ways accountability is perceived and people-centered approaches are promoted.

A second outcome focuses on strengthening community participation in evaluation processes of local NGO community development practices. As Gupta, et al. (2006) suggest, incorporation of community and client voice is often missing from both the capacity building process for NGOs as well as evaluations of that capacity in general. However there are many barriers to this type of evaluation, as identified by Dobbs & Moore, 2002 (e.g. lack of community identity and cohesion, culture differences among evaluation staff and community members, bureaucratic administrative power issues and the capacity issues involved in including community members in the evaluative process). However, they conclude that such barriers can be overcome by: 1) including detailed planning that involves the establishment of flexible frameworks; 2) the employment of local community members (who may not have had all of the required skills, but made up for this deficit with their knowledge of the community) to administer face-to-face evaluation surveys and participate in analysis of the data; and 3) disseminating the data back to community members for feedback. Dobbs & Moore, in evaluating the process, find that the use of participatory evaluation results in: 1) widespread reports of community stakeholders’ acceptance of the credibility of the data; 2) a high level of community members feeling a sense of ownership regarding future regeneration projects in the area; and 3) evidence-based planning for future projects. These results demonstrate, at the very least, opportunities for NGOs to implement and test their own forms of participatory evaluation in order to increase stakeholder voice in accountability.

A third and final outcome for NGO community building emerges out of a focus on approaching accountability and capacity building through the lens of organizational learning. Ebrahim (2005) identifies a set of organizational learning objectives for NGOs that includes visioning, incentive structures and effective communication strategies. The researcher argues that funders need to view organizational learning as an iterative process in which evaluations are supported and reflected upon by all stakeholders in order to promote sound decision-making over the use of such evaluation to punish NGOs for their failures. Second, Ebrahim (2005) challenges funders to become a part of the evaluation itself in a way that fully integrates them into the learning process as contributors. The effect is to equalize upwards and downwards accountability, thus creating an opportunity for true performance review and learning.

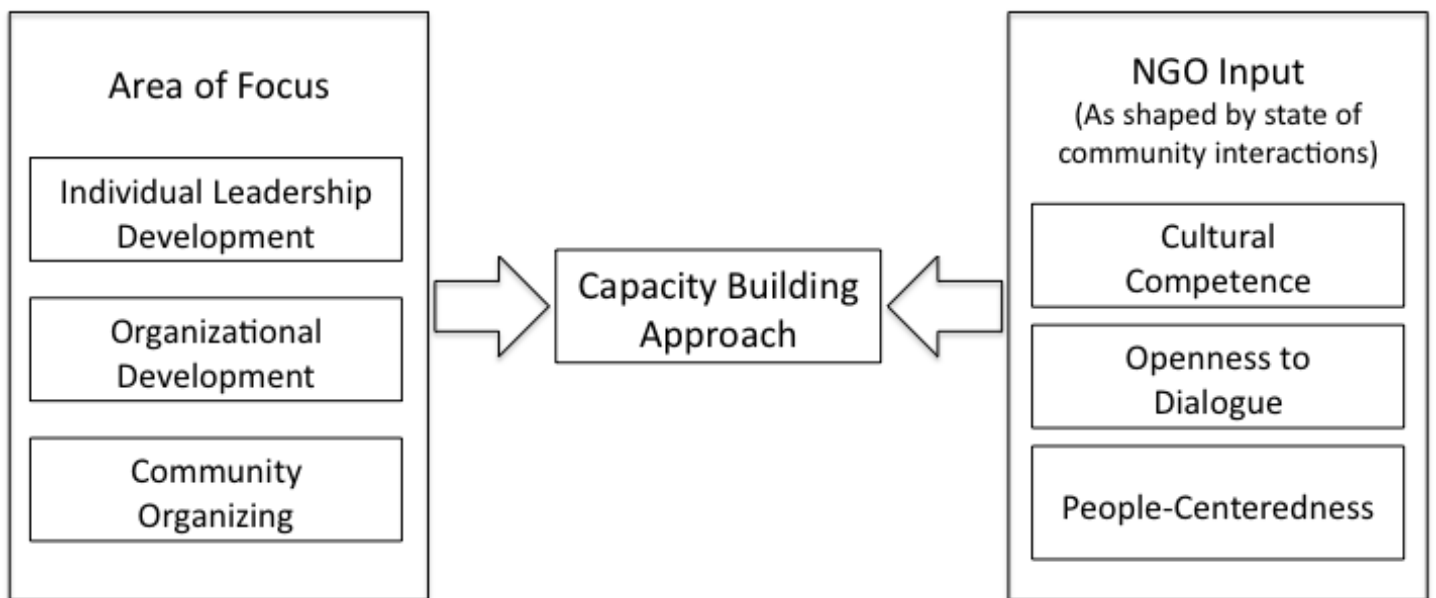
## **Conclusion**

As this analysis has demonstrated, international development NGOs continually struggle with the need to balance the ideals of community capacity building with the pressures of organizational capacity building. It appears that when NGO community capacity builders maintain the same level of investment in their own organizational capacity building as philanthropic donors, Northern NGOs and national governments, true equilibrium can emerge.

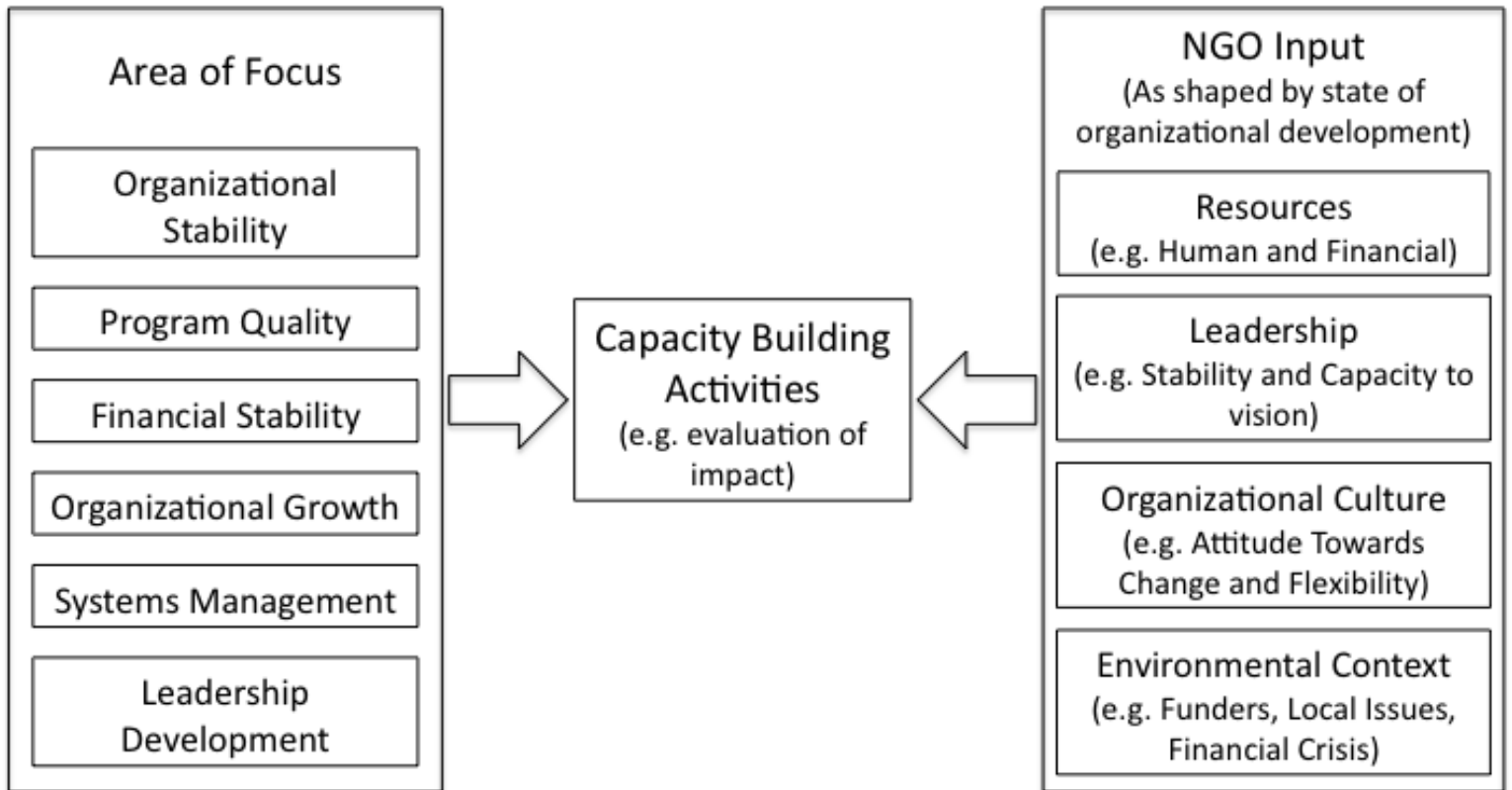
In order to successfully achieve this balance, NGOs, donors, governments and community stakeholders need to constantly engage in a reflective process that reviews the roles they play in each type of capacity building in order to promote effective accountability, partnerships and shared leadership.

Analysis of NGO and nonprofit literature reveals that a balanced approach to assessing both community capacity building and organizational capacity building rests with four suggested capacity building principles for research and practice. First, NGO accountability to funders and national policy must be balanced with meeting the needs of the community that NGOs claims to serve. Second, the evaluation of international NGO performance must include all stakeholder voices (including local community members and local NGO practitioners), ensuring that all partners participate in the creation and analysis of evaluation questions. Third, NGO capacity must be evaluated by the extent to which local partnerships reflect equity among all stakeholders. Fourth, NGOs must evaluate their capacity to teach organizational and community leaders to take full account of their task environment as well and learn to adjust leadership styles based upon community and organizational culture. Finally, in order to prove that a balance of community and organizational capacity building is a more effective way to improve the lives of clients than that of a current international capacity building that is more geared towards upward accountability, models of balanced capacity building need to be evaluated. As more evaluations of this process become available, a balanced approach to capacity building will begin to convince all stakeholders of international development of its merits.

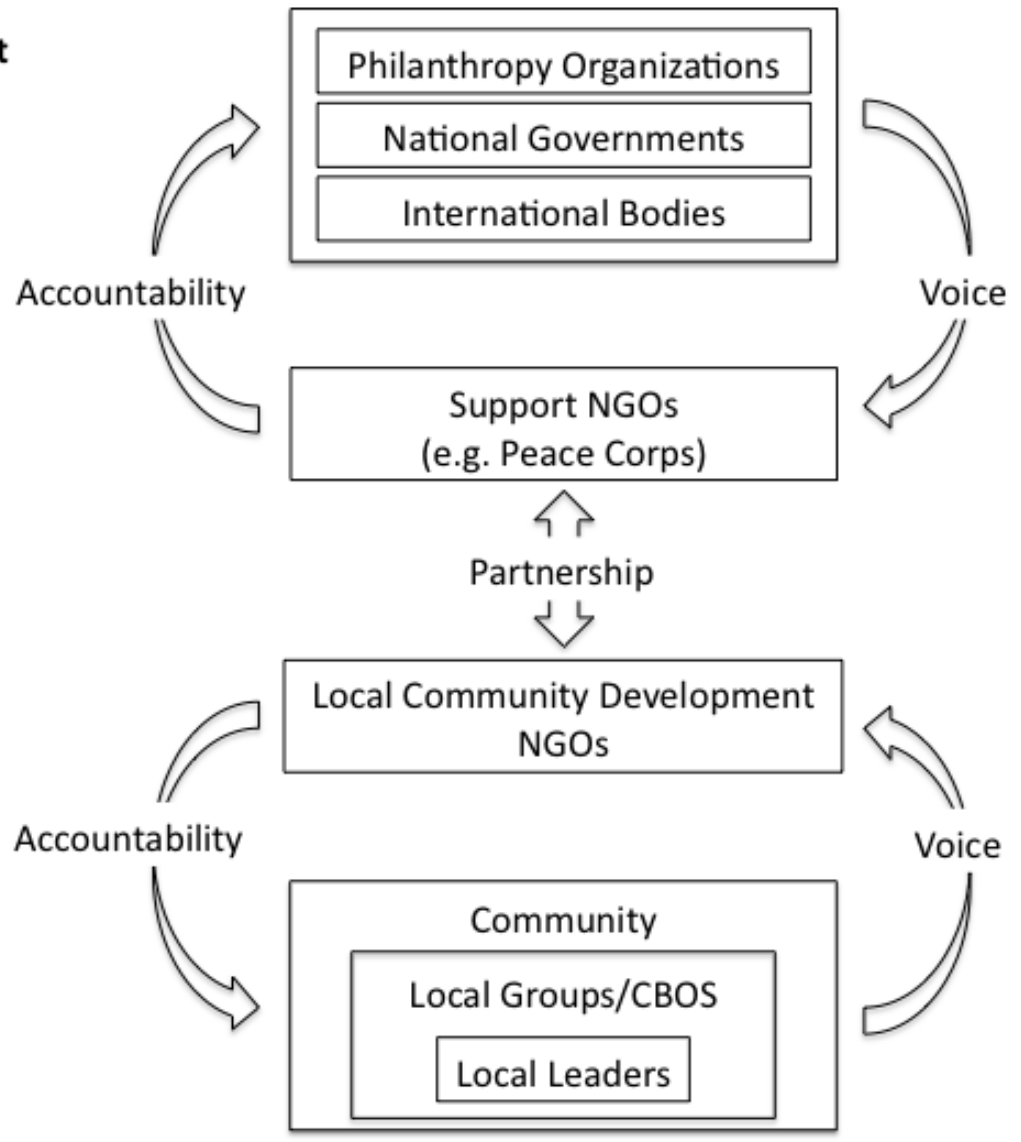
**Figure 1: NGO Facilitated  
Community Capacity Building**



**Figure 2: Organizational Capacity Building**



**Figure 3: Factors That Balance NGO Capacity Building**



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