Management Training Strategies for Developing Countries

Studies in Development Management

John E. Kerrigan
and Jeff S. Luke

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Studies in Development Management

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To
Pat and Maureen, Michael, Megan, Brian
Peggy and Kavi, Mona, Tori

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Series Foreword

Webster defines management as "the judicious use of means to accomplish an end." Applying management concepts to economic and social development programs in the Third World is a complex and multifaceted task because the manager must deal with elusive goals, changing environments, and uncertain means, and because optimal directions for organizing donor programs to assist the management of Third World programs have been ambiguous. The comparatively new field of economic and social development management is challenged to create more useful intellectual resources for both developing country management and donor cooperators.

Specialists in the field—managers, analysts, consultants, educators, and trainers—have found that to trace the academic base of development management is to draw a broad and interdisciplinary framework. Members of the development fraternity continually call attention to the diversity of the subject areas that are critical to the judicious management of social and economic change.

The need to develop a better understanding of development program management both in theory and practice has prompted the preparation of the current NASPAA/DPMC series. The Rondinelli book, analyzing the development management work that has been funded over the past fifteen years by the Agency for International Development (AID), examines some of the major research contributions to the development management field. The White, Hage-Finsterbush, and Kerrigan-Luke volumes synthesize, probe, and order the academic bases for practice aimed at strengthening development management. Their subjects—development program management, organizational change strategies for more effective program management, and management training strategies for promoting improved program management—are purposely interrelated. The focus is on development programs in the Third World.

These books order and organize complex subjects. They thereby invite collateral analytic work by specialists in related concentrations and with related perspectives. In particular, we seek stronger links with work by Third World specialists, for although the authors have sought a Third World perspective, they have relied heavily on literature available in the United States.

The fifth book in the series presents the development management writing of one person. The Performance Management Project has valued the work of David Korten, chiefly in Asia, throughout his close to five years of work under the Project. His writings growing out of this work have found a wide and appreciative audience among those concerned with management for greater development strength at the grass roots. The Performance Management Project and NASPAA are pleased to include a compendium of his writings in this series and to have the opportunity to emphasize this aspect of development management.

The impetus and subsequent funding for the research discussed in this series came from the Performance Management Project in the Office of Rural and Institutional Development of AID's Bureau for Science and Technology. The research should be useful to both practitioners and educators interested in international development and related fields. A major purpose of the books, from the funder's point of view, is to make more explicit the links between the assimilated knowledge and skills of the development management practitioner and the literature base that supports development practice. This required creative, developmental work. We are grateful to the authors for their considerable investment in time and thought that have brought these results.

The organizations that have implemented the Performance Management Project—the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration, the Development Program Management Center and its cooperator, the International Development Management Center of the University of Maryland—have for a number of years undertaken a variety of practical and analytical work with developing country organizations for improved management. The NASPAA/DPMC Studies in Development Management series reflects an interaction between the individual authors and the experienced practitioners associated with the two implementing organizations.

I would like to express my appreciation to an extraordinary group of people connected with the Performance Management Project who have contributed to this series. These books build on the work of many practitioners and academics who have been associated with the Performance Management Project over the past seven years. Particular thanks go to Wendell Schaeffer, Louise White, and Merlyn Kettering, Project coordinators for the management training, organizational change, and program management books respectively; to the series editor, Louis Picard; and to the editorial committee who, from its inception, provided this venture with important direction and analytic support strengthened by practical experience. They, and I in turn, are grateful to the specialists outside the Project who have contributed substantially through their critiques of the manuscripts. We want to make appreciative note of the understanding, leadership, and support that the books in this series have received from Kenneth L. Kornher, chief of the USAID division which is responsible for institutional development and management research. Christopher Russell, Jerry French, Eric Chetwynd, John O'Donnell, and Robert McClusky also have provided valuable agency support to this project's research activities.

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Preface

The importance of developing effective managers is today widely recognized in the nonindustrial and less developed countries of the world. International organizations, such as the World Bank, and donor agencies engaged in Third World development efforts have also demonstrated a new awareness that to achieve economic, social, and human development there must exist in each country many capable and talented public managers. Management capacity is an integral part of achieving self-sustaining development anywhere, and the centrality of the administrative and managerial dimensions in development efforts is now viewed as fundamental.

Unfortunately, improving the quality of life in the Third World requires a level of indigenous managerial talent seldom found in less developed countries. The World Bank's *World Development Report, 1983* notes that management skills are scarce in developing countries and are a major limiting factor in development. The increasing ecological, political, and economic interdependencies among and between less developed countries (LDCs) and industrialized countries aggravate this problem by requiring even newer, more refined managerial capacities in LDCs. Managerial capacity is an essential, yet very scarce, resource. Management development is thus increasingly important for assuring that developing countries have an adequate and continuous supply of competent public managers. Management training and education, now more than ever, are crucial ingredients in the development process.

The purposes of this book are to

1. Assess the current state of the art of public management training in Third World countries
2. Outline the variety of training activities utilized in Third World countries to develop managerial competencies
3. Identify the more effective approaches to providing management training relevant to Third World contexts
4. Examine the strengths and weaknesses of each of the management training approaches
5. Provide a scholarly analysis with practical recommendations that can guide effective management training efforts in Third World countries

It is intended to be a resource to North Americans and Europeans working overseas as trainers and consultants, Third World nationals working in other developing countries, and indigenous trainers and consultants working within their own countries at regional and national training institutes and in agency training centers.

Historically, the first choice for undertaking public management training has been North America and Europe. For a variety of reasons, such as the increasing costs of overseas training, many LDCs have been relying also on other Third World countries. Regional and national training centers in developing countries (Korea and the Philippines, for example) are thus increasing their efforts to provide training activities. Our book offers assistance to such emerging management development efforts that are attempting to build indigenous managerial capacities and are contributing to the improvement of the Third World management systems in their regions.

Our attention is specifically on the training *process* in developing management talent. Much less attention is paid to the training *content*—the specific skills needed in less developed countries. This is not because the requisite managerial skills for LDCs have already been identified. On the contrary, only recently has it been acknowledged that effective managerial skills in nonindustrialized countries may actually be different from those managerial skills regarded as effective in industrialized countries. Requisite managerial skills actually differ from country to country, and the training context must be culture-specific, sector-specific, organization-specific, and project-specific. The managerial skills required in the Third World context only now are being investigated by international and indigenous scholars. Increased research and indigenous scholarship must continue to identify the relevant skills that should be included in the training content and curricula. This is of enough importance to be the subject of a separate volume.

The training processes used in LDCs are equally problematic and in need of scholarly assessment. This is the focus of our attention. Training processes are often defined in narrow terms and are seldom related to the cultural contexts found in the Third World. Training processes, like management skills, must be directly related to the needs, conditions, and learning patterns of each country and culture. *There is no one best management training approach or method* for all LDCs. The development of successful managers happens in a variety of ways. This is the primary assumption underlying our analysis. Our goal is to identify and assess the general training approaches and methods that can be utilized to improve the caliber of indigenous managerial talent in developing countries.

Our experience in training public managers for Third World countries, recent interviews with various international trainers, and our analysis of available literature and reports on LDC training activities indicate that *what is drastically needed is a reconceptualization of management training*, expanding the concept to include the large variety and multiplicity of learning activities that managers encounter outside of formal classroom training sessions. We thus outline the wide variety of management training approaches and methods available for enhancing managerial talent in LDCs. A training framework is then offered to illuminate the total universe of potential training activities available. Specific recommendations are also provided for renewed attention in some areas of training (such as pretraining needs assessment), as well as recommendations for totally new efforts (such as non-formal training and distance training activities).

Such a large undertaking requires certain generalizations. Two important ones should be mentioned here. First, although we recognize distinct differences between administration and management, we use the terms interchangeably in this book. Second, our focus is on the less developed, Third World countries in general. Our recommendations regarding management training in LDCs, however, may prove to be equally valid for management training in the more economically developed and industrialized countries.

The development of this study was supported by a grant from the U.S. Agency for International Development, Bureau of Science and Technology/Office of Rural and Institutional Development.

The conclusions expressed in the book, however, are not necessarily those of USAID. We are most grateful to USAID for its assistance.

We must also thank a variety of individuals who provided assistance and suggestions during the development of this volume. The book benefited from the thoughtful suggestions of Pauline Arneberg, Gerald Caiden, Jan Clifford, Rudy W. Gibbons, David Hinton, Marcus Ingle, Ken Kornher, Shan Martin, Tom Nickell, Jeanne North, Gaylord Obern, Samuel Paul, Louis Picard, Geoffrey Richards, Wendell Schaeffer, Morris Soloman, and Frank Sherwood. Editing and typing support were conscientiously provided by Carole Stephens, Mary Clouner, and Nancy Krzycki. Neely Gardner, professor emeritus at the University of Southern California, provided significant inspiration for this volume, as he has for the entire field of public management training.

Jeff Luke
John Kerrigan

Part 1

The Managerial Gap In Developing Countries

1

A Critical Need for Management Training

Administrative and managerial capacity is in short supply in less developed countries (LDCs), and its scarcity is crippling national development efforts. A widely recognized "managerial gap" exists between the demand for and supply of indigenous management talent at nearly all levels, and this gap constitutes a major, if not the major, constraint in achieving economic, social, and agricultural development in LDCs. The causes of the managerial gap are multiple and require a variety of administrative reform efforts and management development activities. Managerial education and training in LDCs can be a critical strategy for creating and enhancing indigenous managerial talent. Although management training cannot guarantee success in national development, its absence dramatically increases its likelihood of failure (Commonwealth Secretariat 1980).

The purpose of this chapter is to show how management training in less developed countries has gained in significance but has, at the same time, encountered serious problems. The number of institutions offering training in LDCs has increased significantly, but these expanding efforts at enhancing indigenous managerial talent are, with increasing frequency, characterized as ineffective and uneven. Common themes in the critical examination of public administration and management training in LDCs revolve around problems in training content and curricula, training contexts, and training processes. Empirical and anecdotal evidence indicates that *a broader view of managerial training now appears necessary*, and that training as traditionally defined in LDCs is too narrow to have much impact on organizational performance and national development. Definitions of management training need to be reformulated and expanded to provide a stronger basis for identifying and nurturing new training efforts—efforts that will enable managers to improve their performance within their unique political, administrative, and cultural contexts. The insights emerging from recent assessments of public administration and management training in LDCs provide the initial building blocks for an enlarged conception of training.

The Important Role of Public Management in National Development

LDCs today encounter an accelerating need for capable public managers who can lead, guide, and assist in national development efforts. Effective public administration and management is a fundamental issue for developing countries, "a crucial component on which other components, including capital and technological transfer, depend for their effectiveness" (Walsh 1984, 8). Third World leaders have come to recognize that strengthening both managerial capabilities and institutional capacities is crucial for the achievement of development objectives in their countries. The need for such administrative and managerial capacity becomes more evident when it is noted that the responsibility for national development in many LDCs falls almost exclusively on public organizations. These may be grouped in four distinct sectors: (1) the central, administrative bureaucracy; (2) public, state-owned enterprises; (3) local government agencies; and (4) social and agricultural development projects. The indigenous private sector is, in many instances, so weak or so fragile as to need government support or facilitation if it is to emerge as a significant role player in the development process.

Central Government

Effective and efficient public administration systems are critical for the economic and social development of LDCs. Central government agencies have a significant economic role, particularly in Africa, South Asia, and the Middle East (Kiggundu 1983). Changes in the environment of developing countries, however, are challenging central government agencies in the formulation of national development policies, and require the development of new indigenous capabilities in managing national economies. The Third World is now caught in an intricate web of global interdependencies and interconnections unprecedented in human history. There has been an explosive growth in the international dimensions of national activities, and particularly in the last two decades, there has been a dramatic shrinkage in international space. Technology has lessened geographic and social distances and is rendering the world smaller and smaller, making the interaction of international, national, and local systems more pervasive and intense (Rosenau 1980).

While advances in transportation technology shrink geographical distance, advances in communications networks are reducing social and political distances (Bell 1979). Where once existed "nearly closed economies" relatively insulated from each other, there now exists one interdependent economic fabric that forces openness in economies and erodes the political independence of national governments (Bryant 1980).

The networks of economic, political, and natural resource interdependencies make the responsibilities of central government agencies in LDCs more complex and demanding. Developing countries now require, for example, the indigenous managerial capacities to enter into joint partnerships with multinational corporations, to collaborate and negotiate in supranational unions (such as OPEC), as well as to bargain for multilateral trade agreements. Global and regional issues greatly influence national development policies, and require expanded central government capacities. Unfortunately, as already noted, such central administrative capability and public managerial talent are scarce resources in most developing countries (Stifel et al. 1977).

Public Enterprises

Over the past three decades, there has taken place a noticeable expansion of the parastatal sector in LDCs, with public enterprises coming to dominate the economies of quite a number of them. Parastatal enterprises are basic components of national economies, engaging in the production of oil, textiles, steel, and other commodities, along with health, communications, and various transport services, as well as the more traditional public utilities and local market services. The management of public enterprises, with their broad objectives ranging from organizing and financing national economic and social development enterprises to carrying on productive activities themselves, requires a new set of managerial competencies somewhat different from those required for a central civil service. The success of public enterprises in reaching national development objectives is highly dependent on the availability of skillful enterprise managers.

Many LDC public enterprises have operated at crippling losses and created heavy burdens for the public treasury, often owing to poor management.

Local Government

Local government administration in developing countries is also acquiring an increasingly crucial role in economic, social, and agricultural development. Social learning strategies at local development (see Korten and Alfonso, 1983) avoid centralized "blueprint" approaches and rely heavily on local government administrators to implement development projects in collaboration with local residents.

Unfortunately, there is a lack of management talent at the local government level of many LDCs, especially in nonurban areas. Edmunds notes that:

> Few developing countries have career paths of salary incentives for their civil service employees at the local level. As a result, most trained professionals migrate to the national capital to find career employment, leaving the local communities [where development occurs] bereft of skilled talent (1984, 3).

Development Projects

Simultaneous with the increasing reliance on local government, there is an expanding use of smaller development projects to meet national development goals. The proportion of donor agency funding specifically allocated to development projects is increasing, especially in agriculture and rural development (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979). Unfortunately, development management skills have not kept pace. Management technologies have historically been treated as an issue peripheral to development projects (Bryant and White 1982). Only recently has it been recognized that effective project management is essential for successful agricultural and social development projects (see Paul 1983).

A Critical Need for Management Training Efforts

The "demand" for managerial talent in less developed countries is expanding owing not only to the increasing importance placed on public management systems in achieving national goals, but also to enable the private sector to play a more significant development role. The recent crystalization of global interdependencies has further amplified the demand for more refined, skillful managers in all sectors. Continued efforts at modernization, coupled with the desire of newly independent Third World countries to be more "self-governing" and to rid themselves of expatriate dependency, are now stimulating a new sense of urgency *and enthusiasm* for developing indigenous managers (Martin 1982). The demand for such indigenous talent, however, has far outpaced the supply. The resulting scarcity has created an expanding managerial gap.

This managerial scarcity is uneven, yet it cuts across sectors, layers of government, various types of enterprise, and most levels of management. The scarcity is fundamentally related to a lack of effective management training efforts. Despite expansion of the parastatal sector in many developing countries, for example, there is a serious scarcity of relevant management training activities that can enhance public enterprise managers' skills (Delion 1984). The lack of local government management also results largely from insufficient training opportunities. The emphasis of most past national training efforts has typically been on training technical managers of the central ministries and civil service bureaucracies. Training for management at the local levels has been neglected (Edmunds 1984).

It must be emphasized, however, that the lack of effective managerial training is only one of several reasons for the scarcity of managerial talent in developing countries. Other interrelated factors contributing to this scarcity include the following:

1. *Many developing countries lack adequate educational systems*—primary, secondary, and postsecondary—that stimulate or foster the development of effective indigenous managers (Wynne-Roberts 1980).
2. *Public personnel systems and policies are inadequate.* Public personnel systems usually are derived from colonial experience, and are in a state of flux; in particular, there is a lack of substantive personnel policies that can effectively guide

career development, encourage better management, and support performance review processes.
3. *There is an absence of national training policies.* Paul (1983) argues that this may be the most serious deficiency constraining the development of indigenous managerial capacities.
4. *There is insufficient effort in human resource planning.* The five-year plans so common in developing countries, for example, seldom specify the managerial skills required to attain the development targets established in each sector (United Nations 1978).
5. *Insufficient salaries and low compensation* levels make it difficult to attract quality managers and retain them in the public sector. Low salary levels in the public sector lead to a search for secondary and even tertiary employment, with resulting low performance in all work. In addition, most developing countries lack appropriate policies and procedures for keeping salaries in line with the cost of living, leading to a gradual decline in a public manager's personal purchasing power.
6. *There is a managerial "brain drain" from the public sector.* In about half of the developing countries, the outflow of managerial talent is mostly toward employment abroad and, in the other half, government outflow is toward the domestic private sector (World Bank 1983). Thus, the private sector competes with the public service in recruiting, motivating, and retaining quality managers. In a few regions, the Caribbean for example, public salary levels have risen rapidly in an attempt to slow down the brain drain and to compete more effectively with public enterprises and multinational corporations (Garcia-Zamor 1977).
7. *The administrative culture of governments lacks appropriate incentives* for self development of first-line and middle-level managers. Improvements in personal capacity are not recognized with increased responsibility or other rewards (F. Sherwood and Fisher 1984).

Nonetheless, managerial training provides an essential source for enhancing indigenous managerial talent (Kettering 1981), and has been particularly useful in influencing the success of development projects. Reviewing the more successful development projects from a variety of LDCs, Paul (1983) found that a common feature was the high priority each successful project placed on management training.

Even though management training has a particularly important role to play in improving the caliber of management in developing countries, it should not be perceived as a panacea. However, management development, when viewed in a larger framework and combined with other administrative reforms and interventions, can help minimize the gap between the accelerating demand for talented managers and the shortage of qualified management personnel.

A Persistence of Themes: Disappointing Results of Earlier Training Efforts

Unfortunately, as management training rises in use and significance, its efficacy at improving managerial talent is being seriously questioned. Traditional forms of managerial training have recently come under examination for various reasons, among them the lack of solid, comprehensive evidence that they have had much impact on improving indigenous managerial capacities or on social and economic growth. There is general agreement that the earlier attempts at establishing institutes of public administration and exporting industrial management concepts to developing countries had only limited success in building the necessary, qualified managerial cadres. These disappointing results have generated a recent wave of challenges to traditional management education and training, and have created greatly increased pressure to provide more relevant training opportunities for individuals already in management positions, as well as for those newly entering public service.

Despite these serious doubts on the efficacy of training, increasing amounts of LDC and donor agency resources are being channeled into management training activities. Continuing education has always been visible and accepted as part of public administration in developing countries; however, there has been a recent upsurge in providing public management training in the Third World. World Bank spending on project-related training, for example, increased nearly 500 percent over a recent five-year period; from 38 million dollars in 1976 to 187 million dollars in 1981 (World Bank 1983).

Empirical and anecdotal assessments, nevertheless, indicate that the large amounts of management development assistance are falling short of expectations and are not achieving the intended improvements in managerial performance. In the most comprehensive assessment available today, Samuel Paul found that despite the diversity of training efforts provided by training institutions in developing countries, and despite the training infrastructure developed in the 1960s and 1970s, the impact and effectiveness of public administration training have been disappointing.

> LDC governments and their managers of training, donor agencies, and independent observers are agreed upon the existence of a wide gap between expectations and achievements, even if they are not agreed on the answers (Paul 1983, 61).

Training Contexts

Many contextual variables directly and indirectly influence the effectiveness of training programs. The developing country's national and organizational philosophy, policies, and standards, for example, can either facilitate or hinder the effectiveness of managerial training. In the Third World, the critical nature of the training context has caused numerous problems, some of which are among the factors already noted as contributing to the scarcity of good managers. Contextual problems include the following:

1. There is often a lack of political and administrative support in the larger environment for training and development at the governmental, civil service, and enterprise levels. The environment is characterized instead by a general lack of appreciation for investment in training as a long-term development strategy (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979; United Nations 1978; Paul 1983).
2. There are problems in the design, management and leadership of training institutions (Paul 1983; Schmidt 1982; Commonwealth Secretariat 1979). Many training institutes, for example, have highly ambiguous mandates, lack close working relationships with client organizations, and consequently provide irrelevant training activities that lack client-based targets (F. Sherwood and Fisher 1984).
3. Developing countries often have an administrative milieu—bureaucratic environments, archaic civil service practices, and incompatible organizational structures—that do not support, reinforce, or absorb new management skills and capabilities (Stifel et al. 1977).

4. LDCs characteristically lack national or local personnel policies that link training to career development and to promotion opportunities (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979; Paul 1983; Edmunds 1984).

General Training Content

There continues to be serious criticism that management training provided in LDCs is often irrelevant, overly theoretical, outdated, or far removed from the managerial problems in developing countries. Most of these criticisms cover the following themes:

1. The training is too often dominated by "imported" curricula utilizing foreign material. Management theory developed in an industrialized setting is often irrelevant or inadequate in Third World settings (Kiggundu et al. 1983; Montgomery 1979; Swerdlow and Ingle 1974; UNDESA 1975).
2. The training is too theoretical and abstract, frequently with little operational value (UNDESA, 1975).
3. Generally, training in LDCs does not focus on the relevant roles and functions of the development administrator, but tends to focus on the more traditional roles of public administration such as POSDCORB (Brinkerhoff and Klauss 1985; Schaeffer 1985).
4. The training is not tied to the requisite skills of effective public management in the development context, nor does it build on indigenous management knowledge (Paul 1983; Schaeffer 1985; USAID 1981; Honadle and Hannah 1982).
5. Training does not adequately focus on actual organizational performance or on individual development (USAID 1981; Commonwealth Secretariat 1979; United Nations 1978).

Difficulties in Defining Core Curricula for LDCs

There is relatively little agreement on a core curriculum for all LDC managers. Indeed, such a uniform curriculum for all less developed countries is neither feasible nor desirable. There is considerable agreement, however, that the training content must be relevant to the country's environmental context, the organizational context of the public managers being trained, and to the trainees' developmental needs. In addition, the curriculum should reflect the nature and complexity of public systems and the functions to be performed by public managers within that system.

Paul (1984) argues that basic managerial functions are the same, irrespective of the sector in which the manager operates. He delineates six critical activity areas in which every public manager is expected to perform:

planning and policy
environmental appraisal
service delivery and logistics
budgeting, information, and control
technology and production
organization and personnel

A second example of a curriculum for management training is based on an analysis completed by the International Academy of Management (1981), which found that public managers in LDCs have training needs that include: knowledge in technical and human relations areas, educationally related needs, and skills for addressing the practical management problems encountered in directing their organizational units. Among recommended subjects are:

1. economic theory: macroeconomics, development economics, industrial and rural development economics
2. rural enterprise management: agriculture, small business, handicrafts
3. entrepreneurship: small enterprises, managing cooperatives
4. human resource management: cultural understanding, languages, personnel systems, recruitment and development of staff
5. management of other resources: energy conservation, low-cost fuel technologies, land use management
6. technology: selection, management and maintenance of appropriate technology, operative training
7. government relationships: understanding of policies and procedures, methods of overcoming infrastructure deficiencies

A third curriculum model devoted to development administration emerges from a working paper of the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA). This document (Edmunds 1981) examined thirty-three cases of international development sponsored by the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) and other donor agencies, and provides a comprehensive literature review on the subject. The major finding of this study was that successful development projects in LDCs required project managers competent in: participative leadership and social learning, project management methods, and budgetary management.

Although there may be a level of generality at which management is management (Allison 1983), functions and *requisite skills of successful managers take on different meanings from country to country and from sector to sector.* In addition to the cultural and sectoral differences that exist, the conditions for managing effectively in the Third World are in the process of changing dramatically. Identifying appropriate curricula is thus a major problem for managerial training in LDCs. It is a difficult task, one that requires thorough pretraining needs assessment, and is worthy of a separate book.

Training Processes

The problems of defining a core curriculum and curriculum irrelevancy are further compounded by inadequate training processes and the use of limited training methods. Even when managerial skills appropriate to the developing countries are identified and included as components of a core training curriculum, the retention and application of the skills remains a significant problem, owing in part to inappropriate training processes. For example, most formal training and education programs provide limited transferability; they seldom allow the management trainee to actively practice new skills and receive appropriate feedback and reinforcement. The absence of practice inhibits the back-home application of new managerial skills. Other common deficiencies in training processes include these:

1. Training is too frequently considered as the imparting of an expert's skills and knowledge to groups of individuals. There is thus a failure to distinguish between "teaching" and "learning" (Paul 1983).
2. The training design and methods do not always generate participant interest and enthusiasm (USAID 1983; United Nations 1978; Commonwealth Secretariat 1979).
3. There is a limited range of training methods used in developing countries. The limited use of multiple training methods in an integrated and systematic training design

severely restricts the practice and reinforcement of new managerial skills (Paul 1983; USAID 1983; Schmidt 1982; Walsh 1984).
4. Comprehensive evaluations of training are seldom included in the design of training, inhibiting empirical examinations of LDC training efforts (Paul 1983; Commonwealth Secretariat 1979).
5. Training is not adequately integrated with research and consulting activities in the client's agency or organization (USAID 1981; Honadle and Hannah 1982).

Important Learnings

Training efforts must be improved, and must build on recent assessments by international and indigenous scholars. Three major lessons must be recognized in order to improve our efforts in developing high-caliber managerial talent in Third World countries:

First, we cannot, and should not, expect wholesale transfer of American public administration theories, concepts, and tools. Public administration and management training must recognize the cultural differences between the United States and individual countries, as well as the cultural diversity among and within less developed countries in Latin America, the Middle East, Africa, and Asia.

Whatever public administration knowledge is transmitted, it must ultimately be *adapted* to the specific culture of the learner. The concepts and tools developed in North America and exported to LDCs cannot be *adopted* wholesale. Management training in LDCs cannot be the mere digestion of input from knowledgeable outsiders. In many LDCs, there is a growing resurgence toward "cultural identity" (Botkin et al. 1979), creating significant barriers to wholesale adoption and transfer of North American and European management technologies.

In addition, not only do the unique Third World administrative systems require modifications of the tools that are imported, but the learner must modify the concepts and skills to the specific organizational situation in which the individual operates. Thus, the public administration knowledge that is transmitted must eventually be modified by the learner and the educator (trainer or teacher) to be culture-specific, sector-specific, and organization-specific. This is an obvious point, and has become integrated rather easily into our "espoused theories" of international public administration education. Unfortunately, recent evaluations of U.S. training efforts in LDCs indicate that it has not been fully integrated in our "theories-in-use," creating potentially serious problems of transfer.

It has already been indicated that cultural and contextual factors often militate against management development and management training efforts. Obviously, where these factors are in direct conflict with effective management systems and practices, whatever their source, something has to give way if any development is to occur. Cultural and contextual change is often a necessary part of development. Thus the problem is not merely one of adapting to local culture; the process is one of mutual accommodation.

Second, an important conceptual distinction must be made between "learning" and "teaching," and it must be reflected in management training efforts. Learning must be given a higher priority in the planning and implementation of training activities in LDCs.

Many view public administration education and training narrowly as a very specific transfer of specialized knowledge to more than one individual at a time. Most define training exclusively in terms of teaching or instruction. It is too often seen as "courses" to be offered in a classroom setting. Anecdotal reports and empirical research, however, clearly reveal the inadequacy of this definition of training. The reliance on formal training is too limiting; and, it is no longer practical to totally rely on *conventional* formal training, for most learning activities actually occur outside of a classroom. *Training involves learning, not teaching.* Learning results in a relatively permanent change in behavior or perspective that occurs as a result of practice, experience, or reflection (Bass and Vaughn 1966). It is increased managerial learning, not just teaching, that can bridge the managerial gap.

The distinction between learning and training is particularly crucial in developing countries since they are only beginning to build an indigenous knowledge base in management techniques, styles, and concepts appropriate to their particular cultural, social, political, and administrative contexts. Indigenous scholarship in management is increasing, uncovering subtle differences between developed and developing countries in requisite managerial skills, forcing managers in LDCs continually to learn and understand the culture-specific insights that are emerging. The neglect of cultural context impedes learning. Thus public management training in developing countries should not only transmit what is already known but should also nurture or inspire *a continuing process of discovery.*

Third, we must continue to experiment with different training approaches, observe their impact and evaluate their effectiveness in improving managerial capacities in LDCs.

Training programs are lagging behind and leaving both managers and societies unprepared to meet the challenges of modernization and globalization. New training activities, fundamentally based on learning rather than teaching, need to be developed and evaluated. Although evaluating the effectiveness of training programs is very difficult, increased efforts must be made and the results collected and disseminated. The first step in such experimentation and evaluation is to develop an appropriate conceptual framework that can provide a systematic way of identifying alternatives and thinking about the problems and opportunities inherent in each. Chapter 2 provides an overview of such a framework.

Summary

There is a growing need for improving the administrative and managerial capabilities of LDCs, and an increasing sense of urgency and demand for high-quality managerial talent in the least developed of these countries. The scarcity of talented and competent management personnel, however, is creating *a widening managerial gap* between the need for and the availability of qualified managers. Although this gap is uneven, it includes all four government sectors—central civil service, public enterprise, local government, and small-scale development projects. The gap is also wide in the private sector. More than 70 percent of the world's population lives in less developed countries where the management gap impedes progress toward higher productivity and an improved standard of life.

Management training in LDCs has thus become an essential ingredient in Third World development efforts. Unfortunately, management training in these countries has recently come under strong criticism, with the efficacy of traditional training efforts thrown in considerable doubt. Developing countries appear to be at a crucial juncture in time, needing to increase dramatically their supply of qualified managers, but with the traditional tools of management development appearing less and less effective. For managerial training to be effective in stimulating development in the Third World, training must first be viewed in broader terms than traditionally defined.

2

A Conceptual Framework

Training is generally defined in developing countries as formal courses, and to a lesser extent, on-the-job training. It typically emphasizes teaching rather than learning packaged modules rather than a continuing process and as something done to trainees by expert authorities. This narrow conception of training drastically reduces the range of options believed available and potentially useful in developing countries. Such a limited definition of training is a fundamental barrier to developing indigenous managerial capacities. Improvements in the training context and the development of training curricula relevant to LDCs will not be sufficient to bridge the management gap in developing countries. A reformulation of management training approaches is necessary, and requires a clear differentiation among the various approaches to management training.

This chapter discusses the various definitions of management education and training, and provides an overview of the four management training approaches: formal, on-the-job, action, and nonformal.

Management Development

Continuing education and training have gained wide acceptance in developing countries. However, there is no internationally agreed upon definition for management development, causing some confusion from theoretical as well as practical viewpoints. Several different perspectives have emerged, with two particular definitions standing out:

1. *Management development as an organizational function:* an interrelated set of organizational activities such as training, career planning, performance appraisal and coaching that occurs along organization-specific channels
2. *Management development as a long-term process of growth and development for a manager throughout all of his or her career stages:* a continuous process where managers engage in wide varieties of learning activities throughout their total careers, not just within one specific organizational context

It is this second perspective that provides the framework for this volume: management development that aims at developing one's abilities and strengths to the fullest extent over a lifetime, and transcends one's specific organizational context. We assume that management development is not a process aimed at making managers more efficient or effective in one particular organizational context; rather, it is the long term process of developing managers that are highly effective in larger cultural contexts and environments, in arenas much larger than a specific organization.[1]

With this broader conception of management development, two types of activities become the primary developmental vehicles: education and training (see Figure 2.1). Management development

Figure 2.1 Key Terms Regarding Management Development

Term	Definition	Also Known As
Management Development	A long-term disjointed learning process that results from an individual participating in management education and training activities throughout one's career.	Managerial learning, managerial improvement
Management Education	Classroom-oriented instruction emphasizing cognitive learning and knowledge acquisition not immediately applicable or directly linked to one's specific organizational context.	Overseas training, university training, university courses, university degree programs
Management Training	Job-specific and organizationally related learning activities aimed at increasing an individual's job related knowledge.	managerial improvement, managerial development, formal training, on-the-job training, training courses, and skill development.

is therefore a long-term, disjointed learning process, which results from participation and involvement in management education and training activities throughout one's career.

Management Education

Management education activities are usually broad in nature, encompassing a wide variety of managerial functions, stretching and expanding the manager's perspective on government, management, career, and self. Management education activities are generally not designed to enhance precise functional skills; rather, they focus on mastering information and ideas that may not be immediately applicable, are geared toward lifelong use but, nevertheless, increase the overall managerial potential. It is a long-term learning process for acquiring new knowledge not always directly linked to the success of one's particular organization. *Its influence in managerial performance appears indirect and long-term.*

Management education typically relies on classroom teaching, emphasizes cognitive learning (theories, concepts, analytical frameworks), and can often include sets of concepts and techniques that are taught in the "abstract" and divorced from practical reality. Management education, thus, informs the mind. It seldom teaches "action skills" (Denhardt 1983); rather, it provides a general broadening of the manager's vision through knowledge acquisition.[2]

The impact of management education on managerial performance is questionable, however.[3] Utilizing such criteria as "promotability" (Luthans et al. 1963), "salary progress" (AT&T 1963), and "leadership task completion" (Fiedler 1967), evidence indicates that individuals with schooling in management education perform no differently from individuals who have studied law, science, arts, engineering, or other nonmanagement areas. The only significant predictor of managerial performance was "academic rank in the graduating class independent of the course of study" (Kakar 1979, 137).

Management Training

Management training is more job- specific and organization-specific than management education, and *aims at improving one's job performance.* The ultimate goal of training is to improve organizational productivity by increasing individual job-related knowledge and skills. Training activities are designed to increase one's abilities in performing particular tasks, whether individually or in a group; it assumes a basic level of knowledge or education and focuses on increasing one's ability to apply one's skills in an individual project, a team project, or in a larger organizational setting. Training emphasizes current organizational needs and the immediate application of new information, skills, and attitudes. Whereas education is concerned with broad, more longer-term objectives, training is concerned with shorter-term, specific, organization-related objectives.

It must be emphasized, however, that the differentiation of education from training does not always hold true in practice. One single learning activity, for example, can be training for one person and education for a second participant in the same workshop, depending on the developmental stage and learning objectives of the individual.[4]

Defining Training in LDCs

Management training has been subject to a multiplicity of critical assessments, especially training provided in less developed countries. The definitions of training inherent in these assessments vary widely. In the United States, for example, management training has meant anything, including an obsession for increasing departmental production (Brown and Wedel 1974), a plot or conspiracy against employees (Uhlman 1973), an organizational manipulation to mold managerial values (Scott and Hart 1982), or a negotiated element in middle managers' unions.

Management training in the Third World confronts similar problems of image and definition. Training opportunities provided to first-line or middle-level managers in LDCs too frequently imply an image of something either recreational or remedial: a *recreational* trip abroad to a regional training center or university overseas, or a *remedial* experience where an individual is required to attend in order to improve some skill deficiency identified by one's superior. Increasingly, management training in LDCs is considered *developmental*, aimed at preparing nonmanagers for future management responsibilities and improving the effectiveness of those already in management. More important, the developmental focus emphasizes *management training as a change strategy for stimulating social and economic development in LDCs*. It is in this larger context of national development that management training has become a critical change strategy.

Unfortunately, recent assessments of management training in LDCs indicate that training is still defined narrowly as a very specific transfer of specialized knowledge to more than one individual at a time. Training is viewed exclusively in terms of teaching or instruction by an expert authority, either as "courses" taught in a classroom setting or on-the-job instruction. This is too limiting, and drastically reduces the range of activities believed available and potentially useful in developing countries. Training fundamentally involves learning not teaching; unless something has been learned, there is no training. With this broader framework, the array of available training activities is tremendously expanded.

Management Training Approaches for Developing Countries

The problem is less one of inventing new training strategies, packages, and methods; rather, it is one of expanding the awareness of the variety of rich learning activities that are already available, yet typically overlooked. An enlarged framework provides a basis that will enable managers to improve their performance within their unique political-administrative contexts.

The basic construct for this analysis is the training "approach." Training approaches are the general form and pattern of learning experiences to which the managers can be exposed. Training approaches typically utilize a unique set of training designs and methods to facilitate learning.

The four training approaches available for enhancing managerial talent in LDCs are: formal training, on-the-job training, action training, non-formal training.

The International Union of Local Authorities (IULA 1984) classifies all local government training activities into a similar, but not identical, framework that includes: (a) formal course work, (b) on-the-job training, (c) action learning, and (d) organizational development. Training activities occurring in organizational development efforts, plus the action learning methods, are included in the third general approach of action training. Non-formal training is typically ignored by most training analyses; yet, it too is a distinct and highly effective approach.

A "blueprint" model for LDC management training efforts is not proposed; rather, it is suggested that there is a wider variety of training approaches than normally considered, and recognizing that there are four distinct management training approaches expands the training program choices available. It must be emphasized that no one training approach is inherently better or more effective. Each approach has its strengths and weaknesses. Unfortunately. comparisons of training approaches have only recently emerged in the literature. Youker (1984), for example, suggests that the most appropriate approach for enhancing indigenous managerial talent in Botswana is on-the-job training, and not formal training. This recommendation is based on his analysis of the country's resources: the high caliber of top-level managers in the public service, combined with the lack of qualified managers at the middle levels.

Most developing countries, however, rely almost exclusively on the formal training approach to improve public management, perhaps more from habit than from strategic planning or explicit policy choices. Evaluations of the effectiveness of these training approaches are simply nonexistent. Training assessments usually focus attention on methods used in the formal training approach, for example, comparing the case method with the lecture method.

Training Methods

Most of the debate in the field of training clusters around methods, not approaches. The choice of appropriate methods has preoccupied the bulk of LDC research on training. A comparative review of the most often utilized training methods indicates that there is no global consensus on preferred methods, nor on definitions of training methods. In developing countries, training methods have been variously called "training methodologies" (Iglesias et al. 1980), "educational methodologies" (Paul, 1983), "training techniques" (Stifel et al. 1977), and "pedagogical methods" (Bhaya, 1980). Methods, nevertheless, are the fundamental catalysts and stimulators used for learning.

There has been little success in developing a method classification system that is meaningful and acceptable in all contexts. Two of the more well-known classification systems are those of Campbell (1970) and Hinrichs (1980). Unfortunately, they focus almost exclusively on methods within the formal training approach. We have found that training methods can be grouped generally according to the training approach in which they are predominantly used:

1. *Formal training methods:* lectures, case studies, simulations, and films
2. *On-the-job training methods:* coaching, job rotation, mentoring, and secondment
3. *Action training methods:* often including formal training methods following such needs-analysis methods as problem census and forcefield analysis
4. *Non-formal training methods:* include support groups, professional associations, and study circles

This is not a mutually exclusive classification scheme, since some of these methods can be used in more than one approach. (Neither is it an attempt to compile a comprehensive list of methods suitable for management training in developing countries.) This classification scheme merely distinguishes approaches from methods, and highlights the more popular training methods in each management training approach (see Figure 2.2).

Formal Training: The More Common Approach

Formal training is the most commonly utilized management development approach in LDCs. Training activities vary widely in developing countries, but by and large, the emphasis is predominanty on training individuals in classroom settings.

In LDCs, formal training relies heavily on the didactic lecture method of learning, with a rather formal authority relationship between the trainer and participant. However, there has been an expanding utilization of newer participative methods, such as case studies and simulations (Paul 1983). With the increased availability of new communication technologies, such as video cassettes, video

Figure 2.2 The Four Approaches to Management Training

Formal Education and Training	On-the-Job Training	Action Training	Non-formal Training
Examples of Methods:	Examples of Methods:	Examples of Methods:	Examples of Methods:
Lecture	Coaching	Process Observation	Support Groups
Case Study	Mentoring	Force field Analysis	Professional Associations
Simulation	Job Rotation	Problem Census	Study Circles

discs, and teleconferencing, a much wider variety of formal management training is potentially available to the Third World. The trainer's authority in formal training, nonetheless, derives from his or her perceived expertise in a specific subject area.

Formal training typically follows three general designs: packaged programs, custom-tailored programs, and distance training programs. Each type of design has its distinct advantages and disadvantages. Distance learning designs are technology-based, whereas packaged and custom-tailored designs are instructor-based. Yet each is similar in that they are discrete, time-bound training activities, utilizing substantive experts or trainers who design the sequencing of activities and impart the knowledge to be acquired by participants.

Basic Characteristics. Formal training consists of discrete, time-bound, "packaged" teaching sessions with the length of each typically varying from three hours to four weeks, with some being three months to one year. *Formal training focuses on individual development.* It is usually designed to efficiently transmit knowledge, information, and techniques through a variety of methods, and most often presupposes a model of the ideal or desired managerial behavior. It is time-bound because it has a definite beginning and ending. It is packaged because the content is presented predominantly as fixed, knowledge modules. An example is the Junior Executive Training- Supervisory Training for Effective Administrative Management (JET-STREAM) provided by the Philippine Civil Service Academy. The content of JET-STREAM includes three distinct knowledge packages or modules covered over three-week periods.

Training Methods. Much of the discussion and debate in international management training typically focuses on the specific methods used in the formal training approach. In developing countries, five formal training methods are most often utilized: lectures, discussion, case studies, movies/films, and field visits. A general review of the frequency of methods used in twenty major training institutions in Asia (Inayatullah 1976), for example, revealed the following:

Formal Training Methods	Number of Institutions Utilizing the Methods
Lecture	20
Case Study	12

Field Study	11
Group Discussions	10
Syndicate Method	8
Management Games	7
Films	7
Seminars	7
Role Play	6
Sensitivity Training	2
"In" basket Exercise	1

A comparative review of the most often utilized training methods indicates that there is no global consensus on preferred methods (see Chapter 3). There is a general agreement, however, that there is no one best formal training method for all subjects and situations. A mix of methods and multimethod approaches is more effective (Bowers 1977; Youker 1979). Learning can be vastly enhanced by the integration of complementary methods that can reinforce each other. In formal training, for example, integrating the lecture method with a film and a case study can produce more learning than any one used singly.

Emerging Methods and Designs for the Future. Some formal training methods, like lectures, discussion, and the use of printed matter, have been utilized for centuries. Other formal training methods are barely a decade old, and are being used to enhance managerial capacities in LDCs. One new method increasingly utilized in developing countries is the "Coverdale method." The Management Development Center in Egypt's Ministry of Agriculture, for example, utilizes this method extensively (Sherwood 1985).

The Coverdale Method. The Coverdale method is the basic component in Coverdale Training, a practical application of Ralph Coverdale's philosophy of effective organizations. It was Coverdale's position that improvement of managerial performance required *action skills*, not just more knowledge.

To impart skills, training participants form small "stranger groups" with people from separate organizations. Each group undertakes tasks unrelated to any of the activities the members normally perform. The tasks are unimportant, inasmuch as the focus is on the dynamics of interpersonal relations among the participants. The exercise is similar to laboratory training, but with the objective of developing and refining group leadership and group membership or participation. Task performance is reviewed by the group to determine which behavioral patterns were effective and which were not; thus, the participants prepare for more effective performance of the next task. The Coverdale method seeks to develop task-related skills for getting things done in groups.

Technological Advances Create New Media for Formal Training. Of great importance to managerial training methods and approaches in developing countries are the new types of communication, video, and computer technologies. The training media that emerge from these technological advancements will be a strong driving force in training activities in LDCs. For centuries, training and education existed in a pretechnological state where knowledge transmission depended totally on the knowledge and skills of the teacher. Technology tends to expand the capacities of the trainer, increasing the accessibility of formal training activities in developing countries.

Kearsley (1984) notes that technology can further enhance the often passive learning characteristics of formal training programs and can stimulate active learning through the use of computers and telecommunications media (see Figure 2.3).

The increasing availability of media communications stretches the traditional concepts of training and highlights the increasing potential for using a variety of training media and methods in developing countries, especially for training in the less accessible, rural areas. The communications-computer revolution has expanded the potential training methods from merely face-to-face communication to now include indirect or media communications (Bowers 1977), stimulating the rapid growth of new learning technologies available for management training in developing countries. The four technologies or media most often considered are video cassettes, video discs, television, and teleconferencing.

Kearsley (1984) strongly argues that the more passive media (films, slides, transparencies) will be replaced by the more interactive media (videos and teleconferencing). In the Third World, this

Figure 2.3 Training Media for Formal Training

Static Media	Dynamic Media	Interactive Media	Communications Media
print, slides, transparencies	films, video cassettes, video discs	computers	teleconferencing, interactive T.V.

shift will likely be slower, due to high initial costs, lack of familiarity with the new technologies, unavailability of electrical facilities, and training illiteracy in the mechanics of advanced technological media. These barriers appear formidable, but are not prohibitive. Developing countries are already investing in such equipment, opening up an exciting potential for applying modern technology to management training in the Third World.

On-the-Job Training

On-the-job training (OJT) is perhaps the oldest approach in history for training public managers. Caldwell (1964) notes that the training of senior officials in government has historically been the process of *tutelage*, in which the style, knowledge, techniques, wisdom, and even ethics of experienced government officials were transmitted to their successors. OJT ranges from the more informal, incidental, and often inadvertent schooling that usually occurs whenever a junior manager works with senior managers to the more formal program of indoctrination and socialization historically used in the British civil service to prepare younger administrators for higher administrative posts (Caldwell 1964).

On-the-job training is the major managerial training approach for industries in Japan, China, and the United States. In Third World countries, OJT was an important approach to train indigenous managers to replace expatriates displaced after colonial independence (Kubr and Wallace 1984). However, this strategy was rarely effective or systematic, since the few expatriates that remained after independence were not always willing to adopt the necessary managerial style that facilitated counterpart learning. Others argue that on-the-job training was seldom successful in developing countries because poor staff development practices prevailed in the colonial regimes, counterpart training was seldom organized or formalized, and the concept of the mentor was relatively unknown (Iverson 1979).

OJT as a planned training approach is thus underutilized in developing countries: few LDC organizations have established the requisite learning norms of giving and receiving help on-the-job; most have not incorporated the expanded role of the "manager as trainer"; and, few managers have the necessary skills for effective OJT. The historical tradition of administrative tutelage, it appears, has eluded the grasp of present-day government administrators in developing countries.

Nevertheless, OJT in LDCs still remains an important training approach available for developing indigenous managerial talent. OJT is particularly suited to Third World countries that have high-quality top management coupled with a scarcity of competent middle-level managers, because it keeps training closely related to the job and utilizes the subtle teaching potency of the "role model." OJT methods include, for example, manager shadowing, mentoring, coaching, guided delegation, attachments/counterpart training, and job rotation (see Chapter 5).

Formal Training Versus On-the-Job Training. There is no consensus regarding the general superiority of formal training or on-the-job training; both focus on individual development, although OJT has received less attention than formal training in developing specific skills (see Rackham 1979; Bass and Vaughn 1966). Rackham, as well as Bass and Vaughn, argue that formal training is too artificial for the experienced and older managers, and that there is insufficient time in formal training programs to allow the repeated practice required for learning a new skill. On the other hand, formal training is more successful and economical than OJT in imparting knowledge, and it can maintain some degree of uniformity in the substance being learning (see UNDESA 1975; Kondrasuk 1979, 1980; Kainen et al. 1983). Both empirical and anecdotal data, however, indicate that *OJT is the core of any successful management development effort* (Illman 1976), and, when it follows a formal training program, OJT reinforces the learning acquired during formal training and significantly enhances its usefulness (Rackham 1979). Senior officials meeting at a Commonwealth Secretariat Conference agreed that "on-the-job training by learning from colleagues and superiors is the core of management training" (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979, 100), and has some implicit strengths: the core learning of managerial skills takes place on-the-job, not in an abstract environment comfortably distant from the work place; it is effective in influencing attitudes; it provides the managerial training in the day-to-day milieu amidst the dynamic relationships that the manager will experience daily; the transfer of learning is significantly increased; and, OJT can be conducted while productively working.

Action Training

Action training (AT) is a recently developed approach to managerial training that integrates formal training sessions and informal coaching with on-the-job group problem solving. AT emphasizes maximum participation by the manager in the learning, typically through some form of group process; it involves learning while involved in actual organizational problem solving and problem solving while learning. The action training strategy can be more fully understood if the training provided is viewed as an organizational development intervention aimed at solving a managerial deficiency and increasing the internal managerial capacities. Essentially, the learner takes action on a problem, changing the existing situation, and not just thinking about it and analyzing it as in formal training.

Until the 1960s, formal and on-the-job training were the only strategies considered for management training in the Third World. Spinning off of the organization development strategies for improving organizational health, by the mid-1970s action training had become a recognized strategy for improving managerial capacities. AT strategies emerged in various forms under a variety of names, such as "action training and research" (Gardner 1973), "action learning" (Revans 1972; McNulty 1977; Harris 1981), "action-training" (Soloman et al. 1977), the "performance approach" (Kettering 1981), and "capacity-building" (Honadle and Hannah 1982).

The action training approach is based on an expanded conceptualization of training: that management development involves more than attending courses, seminars, and workshops, and requires more than the one-to-one interaction of on-the-job training. Action training deeply involves the training participants in actions, instead of being a passive recipient of someone else's wisdom and knowledge. It is similar to Coverdale training, and focuses primarily on group tasks. Unlike the Coverdale method, however, action training concentrates on actual organizational performance problems experienced on the job by the project team.

There are many variations of action training; in general, however, it has the following seven characteristics:

1. *Work teams:* AT focuses on intact work teams or organizational units within the target organization, rather than on isolated, unrelated individuals (Ingle 1985; Honadle and Hannah 1982).
2. *Learning by doing:* members of the work team learn technical and managerial skills by "doing" them within the organizational context in which they are to be applied (Ingle 1985).
3. *Results oriented:* the training should lead directly to observ-

able improvements in organizational performance; training focuses on a specific, tangible project, not on an anticipated, future event (Kettering 1981).

4. *Situation emergent:* the concepts and skills learned are those directly related to the real need or problem identified by the working group or team; the specific content of the training intervention is determined by the immediate functions and emerging needs of the managerial group; training occurs during the implementation of a particular project and is related to specific here-and-now problems (Kirkhart and White 1974).
5. *Systemic:* AT is more commonly used in a long-term effort of performance improvement and organizational change, and is generally a part of a larger effort of management development and organizational development; its primary focus is on improvement of a system's performance, not just on an individual's skill development (Kettering 1981).
6. *Capacity-Building Orientation:* action training processes implicitly aim at enhancing the internal managerial problem solving capacities, and at eliminating the trainer-trainee dependence relationship (Honadle and Hannah 1982).
7. *Integration of Training, Research, and Consulting:* the action training process integrates the typically separate activities of training, research, and consulting (Gardner 1974).

Action training is flexible in design, can be adapted to numerous topics and work teams, and is most appropriate in developing managerial skills in project management. Variations of the action training approach have been cited in the Water and Power Authority of Bangladesh (N. Gardner 1984), rural development projects in Jamaica (Honadle 1982; Kettering 1981; Armor et al. 1979), Yemen (Rubin 1984), Malawi (Honadle 1982), Ghana (Wunsch 1981), and Zambia (Morgan 1984). It is an approach used successfully by the Southern African Development Coordinating Council (Rubin 1984), as well as various regional and national training institutes.

Action Training Methods. As a development project unfolds, the changing conditions of the project inevitably result in the emergence of new training needs for the project team. Utilizing the AT approach, these new needs provide the content of the next training intervention. Thus, a cycle is established:

change in project conditions → new training needs emerge → new training intervention required

To assess the changes in the project conditions, action training uses a variety of data collection and analysis methods. Analysis methods include, for example: brainstorming, problem census, risk technique, force field analysis, process observation, and instrumentation. After the project needs are analyzed, new, requisite skills are identified for the team members, and appropriate training interventions designed. These interventions, much like custom-tailored formal training, utilize a mixture of training methods to develop and nurture the requisite skills. Such methods as lectures, films, coaching, behavior-modeling and small-group discussions, for example, are "custom-tailored" to the specific, immediate, on-the-job needs of the project team. Various organization development (OD) methods are similarly borrowed, such as team building, and are employed to enhance group leadership and group membership skills.

Non-formal Training

The processes and forms of non-formal training (NFT) provide the fourth general training approach for enhancing public administration capacity in LDCs. Although it has gone relatively unnoticed as a management training approach, it is being increasingly utilized globally in adult education programs, and has much potential for significantly improving managerial talent in developing countries.

In the United States, its potency as a learning approach has not yet been fully recognized, although it is the underlying model for the learning in the semiguided efforts in self-development that occur at monthly professional luncheons and professional association meetings, as well as in the less structured support groups and learning networks. In some U.S. corporate circles, non-formal training is called "contemporization," deliberately avoiding the term "training," and reflects the substantial amount of learning that occurs among peers and "contemporaries" regarding "contemporary" and emerging issues that confront them as corporate managers.

Non-formal training is typically neglected as a viable management development strategy in the Third World, due to the following reasons:

1. The historically narrow conception of training, characterized by teaching knowledge in formal classroom settings which emphasizes dependency on experts and ignores peer learning
2. The patterns of incentives and rewards in LDCs reinforce formal schooling and certification, with recruitment patterns in civil service stressing the possession of an academic education, credential or certificate
3. It does not fit into most donor funding patterns and aid packages
4. Recent attention to non-formal education for adults in developing countries has typically ignored its potential use for management training; the remedial focus of non-formal education activities in the Third World has overshadowed its utility for managerial development and renewal

Non-formal training can generally be described as a learning situation where a group of managers comes together on the basis of common interest and unique learning needs. They meet to share resources and skills in the hopes of finding ways for dealing more easily with their managerial roles and for solving particular work problems that their peers may have also experienced. This may take place in organized forms, from highly structured associations or clubs to loosely structured networks or support groups. It may also take place on the periphery of organized meetings. *It is essentially informal peer learning*. It is mutual learning among a group of peers who share other experiences and expertise, exchange practical ideas, and inform each other of emerging trends, issues, or theories.

Non-formal training focuses on individual development through information exchange. Two particular thrusts are commonly pursued: (1) Gaining up-to-date information relevant to one's management responsibilities, such as changes in national or provincial laws that may have an impact on an organization, or current financial assessments of the economy as it pertains to an organization's goals; and, (2) Stimulating the cross-fertilization of ideas, insights and techniques.

This process of exchanging information is crucial for organizational leadership and management, since information is the basic working material for the senior manager. Effective non-formal training seldom mixes disciplines or levels of management. Strachan (1976) notes that putting people together from a variety of disciplines generally produces very little in LDCs. Similarly, a mix of hierarchical authority tends to inhibit open communication and limits the amount of peer learning.

Non-formal training usually takes the form of more organized professional associations, but has been reflected more recently in learning networks (Korten 1980; Huczynski 1983) and regularly scheduled management support group activities (Miller 1984). Individuals responsible for the same type of management activities meet at regular intervals—weekly meetings, monthly luncheons, or annual professional conferences for example—to exchange information and knowledge. The content of the exchange most often focuses on internally generated insights and indigenous knowledge, rather than externally introduced ideas and practices from outside experts.

Appropriate for Developing Countries. Senior managers seldom attend formal training; they also learn more easily from their peers. With increased attention being given to training the executive level of managers in developing countries, NFT becomes increasingly appropriate. Second, another driving force for increased utilization of the NFT approach is that it is typically less costly than formal training and action training. With the financial constraints currently limiting many LDC economies, participation in formal training will likely be more selective. Third, non-formal training activities can respond quickly to emerging problems and to executives' needs for new information.

Last, non-formal training can easily complement the use of "non-formal education," which has greatly expanded throughout the Third World (Srinivasan 1977). Two programmatic areas where non-formal education has been successful are family-planning education and adult literacy. It is considered non-formal education because it occurs outside the formal, institutionalized education system, and its targeted clientele are those who have certain psychological attitudes that reduce the efficacy of further uses of formal types of schooling. As it developed, NFE carved out a particular educational philosophy or ideology based on critical analyses of formal education in the Third World developed by Ilich (1971), Freire (1970, 1973), and Ashton-Warner (1963) and the learner-directed or student-centered learning theories of Rogers (1969) and Bruner (1962).

Non-formal education is not particularly new; in the last fifteen years, NFE programs have achieved remarkable success (Dodds 1978). *What is new is the realization that similar forms of learning activities can be designed for developing managerial skills in developing countries.* Although NFE is not precisely relevant, it provides the conceptual and practical framework, operational norms, and a sense of legitimacy for the non-formal training approach to enhance managerial skills in LDCs. Whereas *non-formal education* is, by nature, developmental and focuses on basic educational fundamentals, *non-formal* training responds to the renewal needs of the manager. In non-formal training, the manager engages in self-renewal, gaining new knowledge and ideas that have been developed since the completion of the manager's formal education.

Summary

The chapter begins with a discussion of management development in Third World countries and the role of management education in that process, the authors noting that the impact of management education is, at best, indirect and long term. Consequently, the hope for any rapid improvement in development performance through the creation of better management cadres depends on training.

There follows a discussion of the four training approaches for enhancing managerial talent in LDCs: formal training, on-the-job training, action training, and non-formal training. The distinctions among these approaches are then presented, and a preliminary indication is given as to their current use and utility in developing countries. Appropriate combinations of all four approaches are considered essential if the improvement of managerial skills in LDCs is to be achieved.

Notes

1. Similar definitions can be found in Miller (1979) and Norris (1978).
2. In the United States, management education has come under considerable criticism. Harvard Professor Sterling Livingston, for example, emphasizes that management students "do not learn from their formal education what they need to know to perform their jobs effectively" (1977:99). He argues that the well-educated manager is seldom the more successful or effective manager.

> In fact, the tasks that are the most important in getting results usually are left to be learned on the job, where few managers even master them simply because no one teaches them how.

There is a tendency for management education efforts to overemphasize an individual's analytical capability and leave one's ability to take action underdeveloped. Livingston observes that

> . . . management education programs typically emphasize the development of problem-solving and decision-making skills, for instance, but give little attention to the development of skills required to find the problems that need to be solved, to plan for the attainment of desired results, or to carry out operating plans once they are made (1971:100).

3. *See* Campbell et al. (1970) and Kakar (1979) for discussion on the methodological difficulties in measuring the impact of management education.

4. *See* Alromaithy and Reynolds (1981).

Part 2
The Four Approaches to Management Training

3

Formal Training: The Traditional Approach

Introduction

Formal training is the most commonly utilized management training approach in developing countries. Training activities vary widely in LDCs, but by and large, the emphasis is on training individuals in classroom settings. Although the lecture method predominates, there is a widening range of formal training methods that are being used (Paul 1983). With the increased development of new communication technologies, such as video cassettes, video discs, and teleconferencing, formal management training can be both expanded and enhanced in developing countries.

The purpose of this chapter and the next is to describe the characteristics of the formal training approach in developing managerial talent. The objectives of formal training historically have centered around the transmission of knowledge packages. More recent formal training methods, such as the Coverdale method, enlarge the arena of knowledge acquisition to include self-knowledge; and, the increasing use of video technology in such formal training as behavior modeling have enhanced the potential for formal training activities to build new managerial skills and reinforce new managerial behaviors.

Basic Characteristics

Formal training consists of discrete, time-bound, "packaged" teaching sessions with the length of each typically varying from three days to four weeks, with some being three months to one year, depending on intensity (Stifel et al. 1977; Whelden 1982). Formal training is usually designed to transmit knowledge, information, and techniques efficiently through a variety of methods and, most often, presupposes a model of the ideal or desired managerial behavior. It is time-bound because it has a definite beginning and end. It is packaged because the content is presented predominantly as fixed, knowledge modules. An example (as noted in Chapter 2) is the Junior Executive Training—Supervisory Training for Effective Administrative Management (JET-STREAM), provided by the Philippine Civil Service Academy. The content of JET-STREAM includes three distinct knowledge packages or modules covered over a three-week period.

Participants in formal training are usually from the same vertical level or stratified category of an organization. Preservice training is almost exclusively formal training (Paul 1983), yet formal training is also popular for in-service training, with participants usually ranging from mid-level managers to first-time supervisors from unrelated ministries or agencies. Participation in formal training programs by senior-level managers is infrequent (Paul 1983); there is a general perception that adequate training in management is acquired before reaching the senior level (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979).

In LDCs, formal training relies heavily on the didactic lecture methods of classroom learning, with a rather formal authority relationship between the trainer and participant. However, there has been an expanding utilization of newer participatory methods, such as case studies and simulations (Paul 1983). The trainer's authority, nonetheless, derives from the perceived expertise in a specific subject area.

In this sense, formal management training is similar to management education. They are occasionally blended together in training institutes and university degree programs. Differences between formal education and formal training are not always distinguishable, but usually revolve around the levels of abstraction required in the learning process. Management education usually covers the more theoretical and conceptual, with longer-term payoffs, whereas formal management training tends to focus on task-related knowledge and skills with the hopes of more immediate application.

Formal Training Model

The formal training strategy generally follows a series of steps from needs assessment to training evaluation. A variety of training models have been developed for use in conducting formal training. The most comprehensive model is the Instructional Systems Development (ISD) model initially developed for military training and now used throughout the world (Logan 1982). Others include the "discrepancy model" of training (Hickerson and Middleton 1975), the "Datatrain system" (Riesett 1976), and the "accelerated learning system" (DPMC 1981). Each of these different models follows a similar process that includes five general steps (see Figure 3.1).

Assessment of Needs

Assessment of training needs is a key variable in successful management training programs. There are, however, varying opinions about the methods of assessment, and the focus of the needs assessment must reflect organizational, job, and individual needs, issues, and concerns. Therefore, there are three levels within the organiza-

Figure 3.1 Formal Training Cycle

Priorities | Resources

Training Needs Assessment

Training Priorities Identified and Objectives Established

Training Design Is Developed Including Curricula, Methods, and Sequencing Order

Training Session Is Offered

Training Is Evaluated

Source: Brown and Wedel, Training Needs Assessments (1974).

tion where assessments of needs should be focused. The first level is that of the individual, the second that of the job or task, and the third is that of the organization as a whole.

Ashton and Esterly-Smith (1979) observe that there has been a shift in emphasis among these three levels of needs assessment: "In the past, authorities were mainly concerned with the development of the individual; however, there now appears to be a greater concern to discover what changes occur in the way an individual does his job and the effects upon the functioning of the organization." Effective formal training in LDCs requires an integrated emphasis on developing the manager and the organization together in an environment that must be responsive to changing pressures. Each of the three levels of analysis are needed to understand fully the training needs of managers in developing countries.

It is important to emphasize that training is not the answer to all managerial problems. Once an issue or problem is recognized, training may or may not be an appropriate solution. Possibly more resources, better incentives, or a shift of responsibilities may be the solution needed, not training.

Defining Training Objectives

Effective training needs assessments indicate what ought to be included in a formal training program. Based on the assessment, training objectives are then defined. Objectives describe the desired knowledge, skill, or behavior to be learned by the end of the program. Training objectives provide descriptions of the intended outcome of formal training, not summaries of the training content, and are stated in behavioral or performance terms. For an excellent review of training objectives, see Mager (1962) and Mager and Beach (1967).

Training Design

The training design includes the core curriculum and the mix and sequence of training methods chosen to reach the training objectives. Unfortunately, the content of formal training programs is too often established with little attention given to the specific needs, capacities, or incentives of those individuals who will be participating. The curriculum often follows preestablished content modules designed for the ideal or average student. Conducting a training needs assessment and establishing appropriate training objectives increases the relevance of the training to the participants.

There are many training methods for presenting information and developing skills. The mix and sequencing of the formal training methods is crucial in creating the training program design (Mager and Beach 1967), and will be covered in detail in the following section.

Methods Used in the Formal Training Approach

Much of the discussion and debate in management training typically focuses on the specific methods used in the formal training approach. There is a considerable amount of literature covering the effectiveness, appropriateness, and mechanics of formal training methods. Huczynski (1983) provides summaries of over 300 different methods. Another valuable source is Commonwealth Secretariat (1979, 118-160), which covers the advantages, limitations, physical requirements, and procedural steps of over thirty formal training methods potentially useful in LDCs. Other excellent summaries of formal methods are quite numerous, with Campbell et al. (1970) and Bass and Vaughn (1966) providing the more classical U.S. definitions, Adedeji (1969) highlighting methods of formal training in Africa, and McNulty (1969), Mailick (1974), and Miller (1979) discussing aspects of formal training methods in the international arena.

What follows is a summary of the training methods used in formal management training programs in Third World countries. Such a discussion will:

1. provide a general sense of what the formal training approach entails (compared to methods inherent in on-the-job training, action training, and the non-formal training approaches)
2. provide some background on the more popular methods used in training managers in developing countries
3. provide some insights on emerging methods and training media that may become more useful and popular in LDCs

Lecture

As a classical teaching method, the lecture has proven to be simple, comprehensive, efficient in material delivery, and relatively inexpensive. This method has been used for many centuries in higher education and has been traced to the fifth-century B.C. Academy, the gathering spot for Plato and his students. The lecture method became firmly established in university teaching during medieval times, when books and other written manuscripts were scarce and expensive (McLeish 1976). It has become the most economical method by which an expert can present in a personalized, sequential way the general framework for understanding the fundamentals of a particular topic, emphasizing key concepts when necessary, in a manner that can actively engage the listeners in reflective thought. Its real strength is in the efficient transmission of substantive content in relation to a specific subject; it is less effective for development of cognitive and analytical skills, and the least potent for developing or transforming personal values and attitudes (McLeish 1976).

Lecturing, as a formal method of training managers, is universally used in developing countries. In one survey of twenty training institutes in the Third World, Inayatullah found that all the institutes used the lecture method; nearly one half of the respondents utilized lectures in combination with other methods such as case studies and group discussions; and the remaining fifty percent used the lecture method exclusively (1976, 47). The lecture method, whether used exclusively or in combination with other methods, is vulnerable to serious criticism.

In an extremely comprehensive review of educational and psychological literature on the lecture method, McLeish (1976) found that a major limiting factor for the lecture method is the declining performance of both lecturer and listener over a one hour period. He notes that lecturer and learner efficiency peaks between ten and twenty minutes into a typical hour lecture and then declines drastically (See Figure 3.2).

MacLeish explains that:

> We are talking here of the traditional lecture in the sense of a [relatively] uninterrupted discourse. There is a short initial "warming-up" period, which lasts perhaps five or more minutes. Efficiency is then at a maximum. There follows a decline in student and lecturer efficiency that continues over a long period to produce a deep trough. This decline probably reaches its lowest point after approximately forty minutes. Both lecturer and student then begin slowly to find their way back toward their initial relatively high level of achievement. The students continue to improve to the end of the lecture period but do not succeed in

Figure 3.2 Lecturer and Learner Efficiency

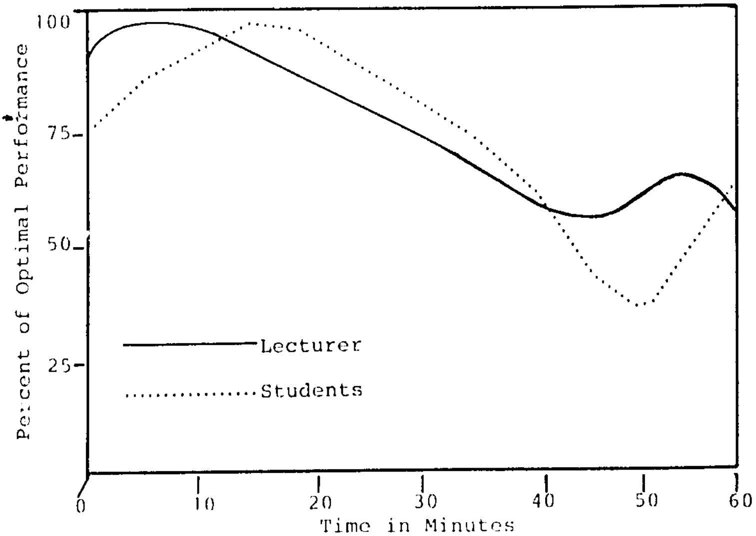
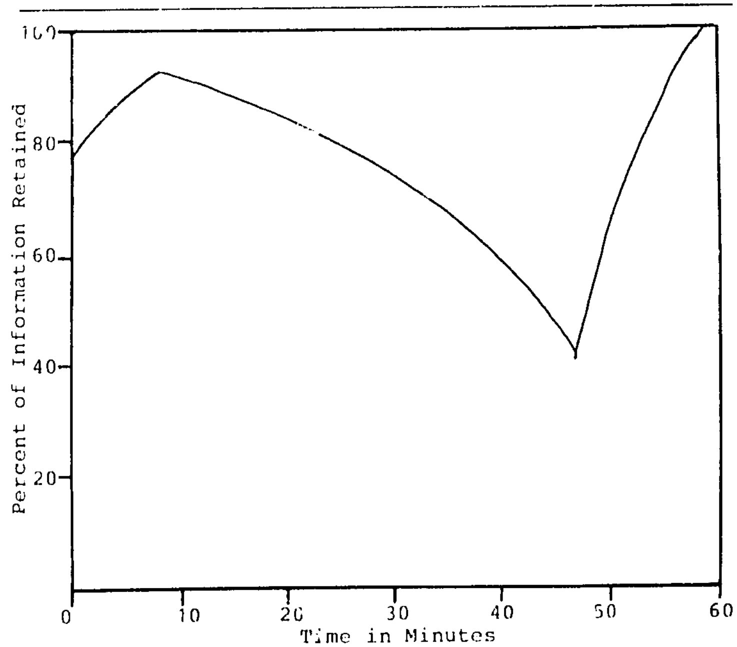


Figure 3.3 Decline in Student Retention



> reaching their initial level. The lecturer is in worse shape. After something like five to ten minutes of improvement during this final end-spurt, he suffers a set-back, which can be identified as the "winding-down" or tapering-off period, signaling to the student the end of the lecture hour (1976, 262).

The efficiency of the learner is dependent on several variables in addition to the quality of the lecture, such as: (1) factors in the physical environment like ventilation, size, acoustics, and illumination, and (2) psychological conditions that vary from time to time such as fatigue, alertness, readiness, and mental capacity.

A second limiting factor was identified by Thomas (1972). Assuming that these variables are held constant, he conducted several experiments and found evidence that indicates a dramatic "dip" in information retention (see Figure 3.3).

A third limiting factor in the success of the lecture method is that the information being transmitted must be made relevant to the listener's own experience, a problem particularly crucial for overseas management training. The decline in student retention (Figure 3.3) is even more dramatic when the subject material of the lecture is perceived as irrelevant to the listener.

Two additional limiting factors are particularly noticeable when the lecture method is used in less developed countries. The *expert trap* arises when the training participants identify the management trainers as experts who have all the answers to their managerial and organizational problems (Martin 1984). Management trainees become reluctant to question data or conclusions from certain data, or to make or ask for comparisons between one idea or concept and another. In other words, the participants are unwilling to question and confront the "expert" trainer even though they may have serious difficulty agreeing with the trainer's points. At times, it is very difficult for North American trainers in developing countries to avoid this trap. The lecture method's efficiency in transmitting data must be balanced with the potentially negative side effects of transmitting false information or information not relevant or accurate to the LDC context. Its tendency to create a *dependency relationship* between "expert" and "student" may also have some serious side effects in training managers in developing countries.

The success of the lecture method is thus a function of many variables, among them the lecturer, the learning objectives, and the learner (Ryan 1968). Yet the strengths of the method—economical transmission of verbal information—cannot be considered a justification for a lecture program of compulsory daily lectures unaided by the integration of other methods (McLeish 1976). To increase its effectiveness, one popular method is to offer summaries every ten minutes in a lecture. The folk wisdom of communication specialists indicates that if you want someone to know something, you must say it four times. The first time one may not get it; the second time, there may be a little bit of understanding; the third time, comes about 60 percent of it; and, the fourth time, they will understand. A common technique is to: (1) Tell them what you are going to tell them; (2) Tell them; (3) Tell them what you told them.[1]

More important, however, available evidence indicates that lectures, to be effective, need to be combined with other methods such as group discussions and case studies.

Discussion Methods

Discussions are the most widely used participative training method in developing countries (Mailick 1974), and are widely used in regional and national training institutes. The municipal administration training center in Venezuela (Fundacomun), for example, gives much attention to group discussions in order to draw out the experience of training participants. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) has found this training method to be particularly effective when integrated with such other methods as lectures, case studies, role playing, and games. Discussions provide an opportunity for enhancement and clarification of material presented. Other advantages of this method are that it can be conducted by indigenous staff in the local language and instant feedback is provided to the trainer.

Comparisons between the lecture method and discussion method are difficult due to the variances in the trainer, the training objectives, and the learner. Bloom (1953), however, has shown that the discussion method is more effective than lectures in facilitating creative and reflective thinking. Other studies (e.g., Tistaert, 1965) indicate that discussion methods improve the retention of the subject matter. The four more popular formats or discussion methods are discussion teaching, panels, question-and-answer sessions, and the small-group conference method.

Discussion teaching is a highly interactive form of the lecture method and requires high-quality skills in questioning, listening, and responding by the trainer. Discussion teaching guides training participants in analyzing specific learning material presented, for example, in a lecture case study or training film. David Garvin, a professor at Harvard Business School, has developed a typology of questions:[2]

1. Broad diagnostic questions that provide a springboard for opening up a discussion, such as "What's your interpretation (of a given situation)?" and "What's the problem?"
2. Specific questions of "action or decision," calling on students to suggest, for example, what someone in a given situation should do
3. Questions of extension and synthesis, such as "How does that comment tie in (with another student's comment)?" and "Can you carry that particular plan a bit further?"; another variation is: "What are the implications (of a student's observation) for the issues we've been discussing?"
4. Questions of priority or ranking: "What's the most important issue?"
5. Questions that challenge and test: "Do you really believe that?" "What's the evidence to support your view?"
6. Simple questions of clarification: "What do you mean by that?"
7. Factual, "fill in the blank" questions, which Mr. Garvin says many teachers use too often
8. Hypothetical questions: 'Suppose that, instead of being the smallest company, the firm were the largest—would that change your recommendations in any way?" or "Suppose, instead of being black, the kid had been white—would the issue have come up?"
9. Summary questions: "What themes or lessons have emerged from this discussion?"

Panel discussions, also called colloquia and symposiums, generally have a very structured format. The panel consists of experts who present a series of short lectures to the group at large. The strict structures here can be overcome, and learner participation increased, by the use of question-and-answer sessions upon completion of the panel presentations.

Question-and-answer sessions are less structured than panel discussions and place more responsibility on the learner to participate. These sessions tend to follow lectures or reading assignments on an announced topic. Questions may be directed toward and answers received from other students, the trainer, or the experts in the session following a panel discussion.

The conference method is basically a small-group discussion of a specific problem or knowledge area. The training participants themselves exchange information and knowledge of the topic, while the trainer concentrates on providing guidance and feedback rather than instruction. The objectives of this method are to "... develop problem-solving and decision-making capabilities, present new and complex material, and modify attitudes" (Campbell et al. 1970, 236). Although almost any area of management can be covered by the conference method, as part of a training program it is most often used to teach effective communications, supervisory techniques, decision making, and problem solving. The conference method will often include training methods such as lectures, panels, and games. The conference method is an effective way of getting participants to discuss common local problems and approaches without the hindrance of foreign concepts and approaches. A group moderator or facilitator is often necessary to guide the discussions and to encourage and ensure that every participant has the opportunity to contribute. This is particularly important in developing countries where conference participants may come from different social classes and different hierarchial levels.

Case Studies

The case study method is fast becoming the preferred formal method in training managers in developing countries. Perhaps as a result of earlier criticisms of curriculum irrelevancy, training institutes such as AIM, INCAE, and IIMA are devoting considerable resources to developing cases based on locally derived management situations. The case study method moves participants from the passive mastery of ideas (via lecture and discussion) to an active stance of problem analysis.

Although there is a variety of case methods, the oldest and most respected is the method developed at the Harvard Law School in the 1880s (Pigors 1976). Initially created to stimulate independent thinking by law students in a nondirective way, it soon became a favored method utilized by the Harvard Business School. As it is now commonly used, the case method has three essential features: the case report, the case analysis, and the case discussion. The ILO argues that the case study method improves one's understanding of management processes and enhances one's managerial competence by studying, analyzing, and discussing actual managerial situations:

> The rigorous analysis required, especially in the longer and complex cases, is said to develop the skills of logical thinking, of searching for relevant information, of analyzing and evaluating facts and of drawing conclusions needed for managerial decisions. The experience it gives in arguing a viewpoint before one's peers also develops the ability to communicate clearly, to consider the views of others and to arrive at solutions that would gain collective support (1980, 1).

In each case, an account of specific situations and events is drawn from life, and embodies one or more definable issues or generalizable principles (Simmons 1975). Case studies are used to develop the analytical and problem-solving skills of participants and to help them gain new perspectives on issues and concepts (Newstrom 1980). In developing countries, case studies have been used to present information, increase understanding, apply theory, understand common principles, develop insights, and conduct research (Adedeji 1969).

The case method is commonly used by such regional training institutes as AIM, INCAE, and IIMA. The East African Staff College (now the Eastern and Southern African Management Institute) utilized the case method for social and economic policy issue courses (Adedeji 1969). Relevancy was enhanced through the use of "live" case studies. One such case was titled "Irrigation or Power?", which dealt with water allocation in the Upper Tana Catchment in Kenya. Fact sheets and presentations by experts were used to introduce the case to the class or large group. Small group discussions followed, with participants discussing the main issues and deciding on policy recommendations, which were then reported back to the larger group. The exercise concluded with comments and feedback from staff members and the panel of experts.

The effectiveness of case use in developing countries is significantly enhanced when a case concentrates on local/regional problems and uses indigenous materials and examples. The more relevant the case to the situation prevailing in the developing country, the better accepted the method will be and the greater the chance the method will have of contributing to local economic and social progress.

Recently, however, trainers in developing countries have recognized the limitations in the case method. First, it has an analytical bias and it tends to neglect conceptualization (Strachan 1976). It heightens analytical skills through induction to such a degree that some fear it teaches managers to approach real organizational problems in a cool, detached, and dispassionate manner. Other forms of case studies are now being utilized to help balance this analytical bias. Role-playing case studies, "live" cases, the Henley Syndicate method, and simulations are variations that attempt to expand the levels of learning stimulated by the traditional case method. See Pigors (1976) and Mailick (1974) for a more detailed discussion of these.

Second, case studies can encourage participants to react in a normative way, articulating one's "espoused theory" (Argyris and Schon 1978; and Argyris 1980), and may not stimulate one's actual "theory-in-action," the behavior one would actually exhibit in the particular situation. A third limiting factor, again, is the tendency to rely on the trainer to have the right answer, the expert trap. For example, Sachdeva (1983, 520) found that participants who experienced difficulties with the case method expected more guidance from the trainers than they received. Allen (1984), however, found that students who understand what is expected of them, even if the particular case itself is extremely ambiguous, respond well and find the experience rewarding.

Although cases historically have been confined to a written format, filmed and audio-taped presentations of case situations have recently been utilized and have proven to be more engaging, interesting, and productive for participants (Sambrian, 1979).

Movies/Films

Films appear particularly effective in management training for introducing new subject matter and stimulating discussions on human relations problems. The information provided in the film or movie serves to supplement the trainer's knowledge and provides a basis for further discussion.

There are two major advantages of film as an instructional medium. The first is the availability of films on almost any training topic. The second advantage and real draw of films is their ability to capture the attention of trainees and be entertaining as well as informative.

These same advantages are modified somewhat when considering the use of films as training techniques in developing countries. Films may be entertaining, but the passive learning emphasized by this method fails to involve the trainees in the learning process. Subplots can easily distract the learner from the true purpose of the film. Movies also tend to portray a slightly artificial view of life. The application of their message to real world conditions is difficult enough in the culture the film was designed to serve, much less in another culture. Ruhly provides the following example:

> Culture constitutes a set of conditions that may contribute, for example, to the failure of an informational film made in one culture to "work" in another: Technical engineers from country A might try to teach well construction to the rural inhabitants of country B. The engineers make a realistic film, explaining how the well should be dug and showing the advantages of wells over other sources of water. One of their shots includes a river with a variety of fish that is very important in the local [country B] economy, providing not only food but oil and fertilizer as well. After showing the film, the engineers attempt to conduct a discussion with the residents, and to their surprise, the residents can recall very little about well construction but comment profusely on the fish they have seen in the film. . . . Much of their economy, and therefore much of their survival, depended on this particular fish. Thus, when presented with a combination of cues, the inhabitants tended to perceive the fish selectively (1976, 13-14).

The real benefit of films comes from their use in conjunction with other training methods such as lectures and discussions used before or after the film. Discussions may also be incorporated into the film itself by stopping the film after the presentation of the problem situation in order for trainees to identify the likely causes of the problem or to suggest solutions to the problem.

Field Visits

Field training assignments and field visits are commonly used to provide variety in longer, formal training programs and to provide a better understanding of classroom-taught principles. As a complement to classroom training, it is assumed that participating in field training allows participants to visualize the physical environment where the principles are being practiced (Fowler 1969).

Field visits are typically either (1) a field project, where trainees complete data collection, make analyses, and develop recommendations, or (2) a supervised field attachment, where a trainee is assigned to work with one specific individual over a certain period of time. The goals of each are the same: to allow the "field" to become a "laboratory" to apply and test the classroom training.

There are specific objectives that are normally a part of a planned field training experience:

1. Trainees should have the opportunity to develop proficiency in the particular capacities that they have learned; this is a matter not only of applying skill, but also of learning when and how to apply it.
2. Trainees should have the opportunity to test their ability to understand the problems they will face in the future and/or to determine what experienced practitioners find to be practical obstacles to diagnosing those problems.
3. Trainees should have the opportunity to translate general understanding and attitudes into practical actions or at least to see how this is done in real situations.
4. Trainees should gain some practical understanding of the consequences of their actions and of the attitudes and behaviors they can expect as a result of those actions.
5. Trainees should have the opportunity to combine their talents with those of the trainer; trainees should be able to bring back for joint solution new problems that arise in other aspects of the training activity and that may involve defining new problems or learning new capacities.
6. Trainees should be encouraged to make a comparison with their own back-home situation so that they have some basis for utilizing field training as a model for future actions (United Nations 1978, 3: 10).

The disadvantages of field training lie primarily in the large amounts of staff work needed for field projects (Chambers 1969) and the importance of finding an available field officer willing to spend time with a trainee during a supervised field attachment (Fowler 1969). A thorough review and assessment of a field training effort in Kenya can be found in Chambers (1969).

Incidence of Methods

In developing countries, these five formal training methods—lecture, discussion, case studies, movies/films, field visits—are the most often used. Frequency in the use of various methods in twenty major training institutions in Asia, for example, was reported on page 34. The data are repeated here for convenience (Inayatullah 1976):

Formal Training Methods	Number of Institutions Utilizing the Methods
Lecture	20
Case Study	12
Field Study	11
Group Discussions	10
Syndicate Method	8
Management Games	7
Films	7
Seminars	7
Role Play	6
Sensitivity Training	2
"In" Basket Exercise	1

More recent surveys of trainer's preferences for certain methods in training top-level managers in developing countries revealed the following ranking in order of importance:

Pakistan (Khan 1980)

1. Movies
2. Slides
3. Field visits
4. Case studies
5. Workshops
6. Lectures

Philippines (Salazar 1980)

1. Case studies
2. Workshops
3. Group discussions
4. Lectures
5. Management games
6. Seminars

Sri Lanka (Wirasinha 1980)

1. Case studies
2. Seminars
3. Lectures
4. Workshops
5. Group discussions
6. Management games

Although in a somewhat different order, corporate trainers in Great Britain utilize basically the same methods:

Great Britain (Burgoyne and Stewart 1978)

1. Lectures
2. Games and simulations
3. Projects

4. Case studies
5. Experiential exercises
6. Guided reading

Choosing Methods in Designing Formal Training Programs

In reviewing the more common formal training methods, it is important to keep in mind the following six assumptions:

1. There is not any one best method for all formal training.
2. Any single formal training program may utilize a variety and mix of methods.
3. Utilizing a combination and mixture of methods will enhance the learning process and contribute to the success of the training.
4. Methods frequently overlap.
5. Media, written materials, and other aids are used to implement most of these methods.
6. Media, materials, and other hardware are not training methods, but are training aids (Miller 1979, 74-75).

Choosing which combinations of methods to use is a crucial decision with tremendous impact on the effectiveness of training and on the transfer of learning. Six variables or factors must be considered in selecting appropriate methods for formal management training.

1. *The objectives of the particular formal training program* (Huczynski 1983; Neider 1981; Newstrom 1980; Olmstead and Galloway 1980; Carroll et al. 1972)
2. *The underlying assumptions regarding the learning process* (Inayatullah 1976; Knowles 1970)
3. *The content or subject matter* (Youker 1979; Haldepur 1979)
4. *The character of the audience*, including the size of the group (Youker 1979; Huczynski 1983), the capacities, readiness, and motivation of the participants (Lippitt 1979), and the particular learning styles of the individuals (Luke 1984; Boothe 1983)
5. *The training resources available*, including the facilities that are available (Youker 1979; Kearsley 1984), the trainers' skills (This 1971), and the amount of funding available to pay for certain higher cost methods

6. *The national and local conditions of the country* (Haldepur 1979)

Training Objectives

Evaluating the effectiveness of formal training methods in relation to training objectives has been the predominant focus of the research on methods. Some general conclusions can now be made (Watson 1979):

1. *Lecture method and training films:* most appropriate for acquisition and retention of knowledge
2. *Discussion method:* in addition to acquisition and retention of knowledge, it can also influence the changing of attitudes
3. *Case Study Method:* in addition to knowledge acquisition and retention (when supplemented with short lectures), and changing values, its strength is in developing problem-solving skills
4. *Each of these* seldom allows participants to practice interpersonal skills or receive feedback on their behavior

Other Observations on Methods

The decision to utilize a particular method most often rests with the trainer and is seldom based on a rigorous analysis of the six variables. Two or three critical factors typically underlie the choice of a particular method or combination of methods. First, choosing the method is more often considered a technical decision made by an individual trainer based on some philosophy of learning and particular professional biases and strengths. Many trainers are continually developing their own techniques and methods as they gain in experience. More realistically, most trainers have "pet" methods either "to glamorize or commercialize" a particular method (Lippitt 1983) or, more likely, because they merely reproduce the methods in which they themselves were trained or which were traditional to the institution where they were educated.

The second important factor is cost. Electronic aids, such as videotaped role playing, are expensive to produce and require facilities that many developing countries still lack, particularly outside the urban centers (Kubr and Wallace 1984). The third variable, which imposes limitations on the choice of methods, is the size of the training group. Gage and Berliner (1979) argue that size is a "powerful determiner" of teaching methods, and Huczynski (1983) concludes that size is one of the three most important variables in choosing methods.

It should be emphasized that effective formal training requires a variety or combination of methods. *The strength of each method, when overused, becomes its primary weakness.* Trainers and training institutions in LDCs must therefore *avoid addiction to any one method.* Youker offers the following common sense rules for choosing appropriate methods in formal training:

1. Variety is the spice of life; mix and match.
2. Limit any one method to from twenty minutes to an hour and a-half.
3. Build skill and confidence gradually.
4. Start from where your participants are.
5. Different strokes for different folks—be flexible (1979, 115).

Summary

The formal training approach is the predominant approach for developing managerial talent in developing countries. The lecture method, excellent for the verbal transmission of knowledge, is used in many countries and by many training institutes as the only method. Research, however, strongly indicates that the traditional methods utilized in formal training work best when sensitively integrated and mixed with other methods such as discussion, films/movies, and case studies. The formal training approach typically assumes the following learning cycle:

Expert knowledge and scholarly research	→ training method	→ participant storage of information	→ eventual usage

Selecting the appropriate mix of methods in formal management training is thus a crucial design decision and directly influences the training participant's ability to retain information and later apply it.

New technological developments are creating new methods and designs for use in the formal training approach to management improvement. These developments are discussed in the following chapter.

Notes

1. This folk wisdom and technique has been attributed to a variety of individuals, from Aristotle to an old Christian preacher. It is quoted from *The Adult Perspective: A Newsletter for Adult Educators*, vol. 4, no. 3, (November 1984).

2. *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (25 July 1984): 20.

4

Formal Training: Methods and Designs for the Future

Methods

Some of the methods used in the formal training approach have been utilized for centuries, like lectures, discussions, and the use of printed matter. Other methods, computer-assisted simulations for example, are barely a decade old. The development of new formal training methods is influenced and stimulated by emerging insights and discoveries in the learning process, shifting priorities in the training objectives, and innovative technological developments in instructional media.

There are several new methods being used in the formal training approach to enhancing managerial capacity. Two of these are utilized increasingly in developing countries: the "Coverdale method," stimulated by a shift in the training objectives, and the "behavior modeling method," influenced by the development of videotaping technology.

The Coverdale Method

As discussed in Chapter 2, this method is the basic component in Coverdale Training, a practical application of Ralph Coverdale's philosophy of effective organizations. Its recent emergence as a much sought after training experience (Taylor 1979) is due to the shift in managerial training objectives prescribed by Coverdale in creating high performing organizations. The shift of the training focus is away from knowledge acquisition and retention, and toward applying in practice what's already known by the participants. Ralph Coverdale argued that to improve managerial performance, what is needed is the development of individual skills in *putting knowledge into action* and not just more knowledge. Like most other formal training, however, the Coverdale training occurs away from work.

The Coverdale method is gaining popularity in the Third World. The Management Development Center in Egypt's Ministry of Agriculture, utilizes the method (Sherwood 1985). Training participants are formed into "stranger groups" from separate organization and agencies. They work together in these small groups that carry out small blocks of work called "tasks." As indicated earlier, these tasks have nothing to do with the participants' normal work, and may involve participants leaving the training center to count cars in the vicinity (Huczynski 1983) or actively engaging in making paper hats (Taylor 1979). Utilizing such innocuous tasks has several advantages:

> A man can experiment with his own behavior, try out things he could not risk doing at work among his colleagues. Moreover, since the tasks are short and to begin with fairly simple, people can concentrate on what matters—the factors affecting cooperation and the way the job gets done (Taylor 1979, 22).

The focus of the training is not on the task itself, but rather on the interaction patterns and dynamics it stimulates among the group members. In this respect, it is similar to laboratory training. Its objective is to develop and refine group leadership and group membership skills by engaging in a group task, reviewing what occurred during the task, generalizing from successful aspects, and planning for improved performance during the next group task. By repeating those behaviors that appear effective, and discarding those that are not, participants are encouraged to develop and refine appropriate managerial skills.

> Action is always followed by a review, and this is the basic way in which learning takes place. The group, helped by their observer coach, recall and analyze the events and then make plans to do better next time, both collectively and as individuals. These plans are often concerned with human relations; people discover that the way one man cooperates with another can itself be improved by deliberate planning and practice, and that this has a direct bearing on how well the job is done (Taylor 1979, 22).

The Coverdale method is thus based on experiential learning assumptions; however, the trainer's role is not that of a facilitator or a discussion moderator (as in case studies). The trainer's role is that of a "coach" that focuses predominantly on what went right, rather than on what failed during a structured group activity. The behaviors during the task, and the following review and discussion of observations, are tangible and real, unlike case studies which explore the more theoretical effects of a range of alternative actions. Taylor argues:

> That is why case studies are not used. People who are given a theoretical exercise, ending up with a cliff-hanging decision like. "Do we or don't we sack the shop steward?" behave quite differently from the way they would in real life. After all, the shop steward does not really get sacked, the strike does not really happen, and no one has to carry the can (1979, 22).

Whereas case studies focus on developing normative insights and analytical capacities, the Coverdale method attempts to develop task-related skills in how to get things done in groups. The Coverdale method is thus emerging as a sharply focused learning activity aimed at improving individual effectiveness in team projects.

Behavior Modeling

Another method in the formal training approach, behavior modeling, emerged in the early 1970s (see Goldstein and Sorcher 1974). It was utilized in supervisory, junior management and, eventually, sales training, and has been increasingly utilized since the development of the video cassette (Robinson 1980).

Behavior modeling is based primarily on social learning theory (see Bandura and Walters 1963), which indicates that most learning takes place through observation and modeling of specific behaviors. It is used to develop any skill that can be overtly demonstrated and practiced (Kearsley 1984), and can include anything from how to conduct an effective performance appraisal to appropriate techniques for handling conflict. It is similar to apprenticeship training where an individual learns from observing and imitating a "master." As a training method, it formalizes this learning process and stimulates more precise results in much less time.

Behavior modeling consists of four basic steps:

1. The trainer describes the critical behavior(s) to be learned
2. Trainees watch a videotape that shows the behavior(s) being modeled
3. Trainees practice the behavior(s) under the guidance of the instructor or other trainees

4. The trainer provides feedback to trainees about their performance relative to the modeled behavior(s) (Kearsley 1984, 113)

Careful planning and designing is required for the use of this method, and trainers must carefully consider the following conditions:

1. Clear-cut and positive depictions of the behavior to be learned
2. The ability of trainees to identify with the person modeling the behavior
3. Minimal situational distractions in the behavior demonstration
4. Careful presentation of the behavior from simple to complex or easy to difficult components
5. The critical behaviors identified are based on an accurate assessment of the requisite skills to be learned (Kearsley 1984, 113)

An example is the dilemma of using actual organizational problems versus general problems. An actual problem may distract the learners by focusing attention on the content and context of the problem instead of the desired skill or behavior (Zemke 1982). Similarly, should professional actors be used or real employees? (Kearsley 1984).

Some problems in utilizing behavior modeling in developing countries may inhibit, but not prevent, its use. It limits training to specific skills that can be overtly demonstrated and practiced by managerial trainees, and is inappropriate for transferring knowledge or developing specific attitudes. It is trainer-intensive, usually requiring one trainer for every six to twelve participants, and the trainer must be well trained in order to play an active role. It is a relatively expensive method in comparison to lectures and discussions, although the learning outcome is greatly enhanced (Kearsley 1984). The newly learned skill may not be adequately supported or reinforced back on the job, unless it is reinforced by peers, subordinates, managers, and the organizational culture (Robinson and Gaines 1980).

The strength of behavior modeling—its skill-building capacity—can be further enhanced if it is used in combination with other methods and emerging training technologies. Kearsley, for example, suggests that:

> Interactive videodisc has considerable potential for use in showing behavior models, since a large variety of different contexts and situations could be provided. Behavior modeling could be used with videoconferencing to allow employees at different locations to practice and receive feedback (1984, 116).

Cycles of Popularity

There are other emerging formal training methods that are gaining in recognition and increasing in advocacy, but are only gradually getting "critical mass" recognition. These may eventually be appropriate to managerial training in developing countries. One particular method, "precision models," is a managerial team-training method based on recent insights into communication and psychotherapy theories called "neurolinguistic programming" (see Maron 1979). Others are likely to rise and fall in popularity and use in developing countries. Campbell et al. suggest that the popularity of formal training methods goes through predictable cycles:

> When a new technique is developed, articles describing its use and arguing for its virtues appear at an increasing rate, until a peak seems to be reached and the number of papers begins to decline. This decline is usually helped along by the appearance of a new training method which takes over the limelight, and the cycle is then repeated (1970, 235).

Although this "cycle" may appear accurate when examining the rise and fall of sensitivity training or transactional analysis, it appears inaccurate when the lecture and case study methods are considered. Methods do go through cycles of sudden appearance, flowering, and then quickly fading into old training texts (Kearsley 1984). Yet a handful of these take hold in the training domain. Referring to training methods as methodologies, Kearsley points out that:

> To achieve a significant level of usage, a methodology must gain widespread support from recognized training specialists, be sufficiently well documented so that it can be learned and applied by many training practitioners, consistently produce results, and become established in training organizations and instructional design curricula. Probably one of the most important factors determining the degree of usage of a methodology (and its rate of growth) is the number of "disciples" or advocates capable of teaching/applying the methodology. If the number is too small to

achieve a critical mass, the methodology is not likely to take root (1984, 127).

The acceptance and use of a particular method is thus a function of *advocacy, documentation, proceduralization, validation, and institutionalization*. The Coverdale method and behavioral modeling method appear to be "taking hold" and are receiving increasing recognition, documentation, and validation. However, they are not commonly used in management training in developing countries. The more commonly used methods are those developed prior to the technological explosion in the mid-twentieth century. The rapid technological advances, however, are dramatically increasing the development of new training media, methods, and designs.

Technological Advances Create New Training Media

Perhaps more important to managerial training strategies and approaches in developing countries are the new types of communication, video, and computer technologies. The training media that emerge from these technological advances will be a strong driving force in training activities in LDCs. For centuries, training and education existed in a pretechnological state where knowledge transmission depended totally on the knowledge and skills of the teacher. Technology tends to expand the capacities of the trainer, increasing the accessibility of formal training activities in developing countries.

As the global communications network encircles the planet, new media for training are also created. The increasing availbility of media communications further stretches the traditional conceptions of training and highlights the increasing potential for using a variety of training media and methods in developing countries, especially for training in the less accessible, rural areas. The communications-computer revolution has expanded the potential training methods from merely face-to-face communication to now include indirect or media communications (Bowers 1977).

There is at present a very rapid growth of new learning technologies available for management training in developing countries. The four technologies or media considered here are video cassettes, video discs, television, and teleconferencing.

Overview of Technological Developments[1]

Kearsley (1984) provides a comprehensive and exciting review of technological developments in training. He notes that technology can enhance passive learning through audiovisuals and films and can stimulate active learning through computers and telecommunications (see Figure 4.1).

Static Media. The more often used media—transparencies, slides, slide/tape, and print—are static media requiring passive, receptive types of learning. Their popularity is a result of their relative simplicity and low cost, variables that significantly influence their utilization in developing countries. Audiovisual and print technology, of course, represent a mature technology that has undergone a process of refinement for decades.

The weakness in this group of static media, however, is its inability to present dynamic behavior, such as managing conflict and other interpersonal skills valuable to managers. Photographic slides and transparencies can only deliver information, their strengths being the effectiveness and intensity of information that can be transmitted.

Dynamic Media: Television. Televised instruction is a potentially powerful media for management training. Television has the potential to provide high-quality learning experiences to training participants spread throughout a geographical region. Television training programs for public managers allow the weaving of action shots, graphics, and interviews into an overarching narrative, presenting the themes, concepts, and facts central to the subject of the particular program.[2]

A common North American form of television teaching might

Figure 4.1 Technology Impacts Learning

Passive Learning		Active Learning	
Static Media:	Dynamic Media:	Interactive Media:	Communications Media:
print, slides, transparencies	television, films videocassettes, videodiscs	computers	teleconferencing, interactive television

include:

ten one-hour TV programs
complete, printed transcripts
a detailed study guide
textbooks

A U.S. corporate example of training managers by television is provided by Hewlett-Packard, which conducted a two-week television class in computer programs. The television class was produced by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and broadcast from a single studio in California to eight different locations around the country, where groups of managers gathered.

Although initial production costs can be prohibitive, Canadian experience in producing public administration television training indicates that a training institution with limited financial resources can produce television training programs that are quality training material at reasonable television broadcast standards. The University of Victoria, School of Public Administration, for example, developed ten sixty-minute programs for approximately 65,000 dollars (Langford, Pacey, and Zuckernick 1985). This cost approximately 60 dollars per minute in design and production costs, compared to an industry standard of 500 dollars or more per minute (Laaser and Mattes 1982).

A more significant problem is the need to reorient the instructor's perspective from individual to collective production of the training. The development of television training programs requires a collaborative production team, which includes, in addition to the instructor, the following production specialists:

television director
graphic artist
production technicians
print and copy editors
a unit producer or manager

The instructor, or content specialist, is thus only one of several actors required in the production process. However, it is the instructor who contributes the bulk of time and energy. For each hour of programming, approximately forty to fifty hours of work is required by the content specialist and twenty to thirty hours by each of the other project team members.

Dynamic Media: Videocassettes and Videodiscs. The use of films in training began in the 1920s, simultaneously with the evolution of commercial cinema (Saettler 1968). Although films are commonly used for management training in developed and developing countries, they may eventually be supplanted by video cassettes and video discs (Kearsley 1984).

Video cassettes are more convenient than film to produce and use for training purposes, although film produces a better-quality image than video. A comparison of the two reveals other advantages of video (see Figure 4.2).

A major advantage of the video cassette is that it can be used in two different ways in training: as a medium for transmitting information (like films) and as a recording device that can record and playback role-playing performances (unlike films). The "record-playback-analyze" process allows for self- or group-observation and enables participants to practice skills and to get immediate feedback. Video cassettes thus open up new possibilities for training *that were historically unavailable.* The following aspects of current equipment development will expand the use of videos in managerial training:

Figure 4.2 Comparison of Film and Video Cassette

Film	Video cassette
Photographic recording/storage	Electronic recording/storage
Picture image is sharp and crisp	Picture image is soft (due to scan lines)
Usually requires artificial light to produce	Available light usually adequate for production
Editing is manual (splices)	Editing is electronic
Film used only once	Tape can be erased and reused
Cannot be transmitted	Can be transmitted (broadcast or cable TV)
Film must be processed before viewing	Tape can be viewed immediately after shooting
Sound must be synchronized after filming	Sound is automatically synchronized
Projection equipment is cumbersome to use	Projection equipment (cassettes, discs) is easy to use
Suitable for group presentations	Suitable for individual study or group presentation

(Source: Kearsley 1984, 32)

1. The widespread adoption of video cassette recorders
2. The appearance of projection screens that allow video to be shown to small and large groups
3. The emergence of easily portable recording equipment

The invention of *video discs* further expands the capacities of video technology for managerial training. Video discs are shiny "platters" that can store audio and visual signals on 54,000 microscopic tracks etched by laser on the disk surface. The tracks are "read" by a laser beam and, when guided by a computer, the laser beam is able to locate any track on the disk within three seconds (Bulkeley 1985). The video disc is thus different from video cassettes in the following ways:

capability of combining dynamic and static media (print, slides), as well as storing digital media (e.g., computer programs)
large storage capacity (54,000 frames per side)
almost instantaneous random access to any frame rather than sequential presentation
increased durability of a video disc
potential to be combined with computer systems to create "interactive video" systems

Video discs have interactive capabilities due to the potential for adding computer programming into its information storage. This inherent interactive element makes the video disc a bridge between video technology and computer technology. Although it is a very recent development, large corporations such as General Motors, Ford, and IBM have already begun to use the video disc in training programs. Interactive video, combining video discs and computers, allows a management trainee to learn specific subjects by watching the video disc, with the computer testing the trainee and reviewing any areas of deficiency. One U.S. corporation has found that employees learned 40 percent faster with interactive video systems in their own offices than they did when they traveled to the corporation's central training facility and engaged in traditional trainer-led learning (Bulkeley 1985).

The primary barrier to the use of video technology in developing countries is the large amount of funding required for initial capital expenditures and video production. However, balancing the high start-up costs are the lower ongoing costs when compared to more traditional instructor based lecture methods (Kearsley 1984).

If a training course is given often, technology-based training is likely to be less expensive than a lecture and case study. If a course is given only a few times, the high start-up costs for video training may be prohibitive.

Communications Media: Teleconferencing and Satellite Learning. Teleconferencing refers to three different types of communications possibilities: (1) *audioconferencing*, which involves a telephone with a speaker that allows a number of individuals to talk and listen; (2) *videoconferencing*, which is the transmission of television images between two or more sites; and, (3) *computer conferencing*, which involves communication solely by means of computer terminals and displays.

Each of these modes results in the same general benefits: reduced travel costs and travel time, and improved communication. Kearsley (1984) has found that individuals are more likely to interact and be more responsive when teleconferencing facilities are available. Participants tend to concentrate more effectively while in the training center, allowing shorter sessions.

Teleconferences (especially videoconferences) are well suited to training programs that emphasize the transmission of information or discussions with experts. They are cost-effective when training a large number of people, who are widely distributed geographically, in a short time (three to four hours). Videoconferencing is appropriate when "visual presence" is felt to be critical; audioconferencing is most appropriate when information can be transmitted verbally in conjunction with supporting written or visual material, either transmitted or predelivered.

Teleconferencing is thus merely a remote extension of the classroom. It is becoming more available as the number of satellite channels increases. Its major disadvantage, besides the large amounts of capital expenditures for the purchase of the facilities, is the necessity for high levels of coordination. Kerrigan's (1984) study on videoconferencing processes in teaching public administration highlights the crucial aspects that coordination plays.

New Technologies in the Third World

Kearsley (1984) strongly argues that the more passive media (films, slides, and transparencies) will be replaced by the more interactive media (videos and teleconferencing). In the Third World, this shift will likely be slower due to the following reasons.

First, the newer technologies have *high initial costs* and are difficult for LDCs to budget. Second, the *familiarity* with the new technologies is much less in the Third World, where many countries have rural areas connected only by dirt roads and battery-operated radios. Many areas in Africa, for example, lack the basic prerequisite for such high technology—electricity—thus providing the third barrier, *unavailability of facilities*. A final limiting factor is *training illiteracy in the mechanics of advanced technological media and their application to management training*.

These barriers are formidable but not prohibitive. It is increasingly urgent that modern technology be applied to management training in the Third World without getting swept up in "high-tech" mania. Developing countries are already investing in such equipment, and the following eight criteria are suggested to guide LDCs in selecting emerging media for use in management training:

1. Affordability: is it easily financed?
2. Usability: is the time to learn/set up and the frequency of operating errors insignificant?
3. Familiarity: is faculty knowledgable of the media?
4. Availability: can it be obtained easily?
5. Reliability: does it normally work and rarely break down?
6. Flexibility: can it be used under different conditions?
7. Appeal: is it motivating, satisfying?
8. Effectiveness: does it improve the quality, speed, or timeliness of training? (Kearsley 1984, 78)

Emerging Training Designs Within the Formal Training Approach

More important than the new training media, as a result of technological advances and the need to make training relevant to Third World contexts, new training *designs* are emerging that can greatly expand the usefulness of the formal training approach to management development. At the practical level, this is important because the new training designs now being developed allow more relevant training to be spread over larger geographical areas. At the academic level, the emerging designs are also significant in that they are requiring a shift in focus from preoccupation with the mechanics of training methods, so often found in the training debates in developing countries, to the examination of the appropriate mix of *methods* and technological *media* to create effective training *designs*. This shift in analysis itself may be the most important development and crucial turning point for the training debate in Third World countries.

As noted in Chapter 2, training designs are a mix of methods and media creatively integrated with such variables as content, duration, and the needs of participants. Training designs detail the scheduled stream of methods that are intended to produce certain learning outcomes. With the development of new technological media, and with the increasing demands for training relevancy, three general types of designs are now utilized in the formal training approach: *packaged* training, *custom-tailored* training, and *distance* training (which mixes packaged and custom-tailored with long-distance media). These have now become the general designs for the mixing, grouping, and sequencing of formal methods, based on the needs and constraints of developing countries (e.g., cost, personnel, facilities).

Packaged, Formal Training

In packaged formal training, methods are integrated and "packaged" into content modules. The various modules are combined into a training program and offered to interested and qualified participants, usually on an "open market" basis. This is the most common type of formal training in developing countries (Paul 1983; Honadle and Hannah 1982).

Such packaged programs are offered by universities, various institutes of public administration and management training, and training centers within government agencies and ministries. Packaged training is provided for both preservice training and inservice training.

Management *preservice* or preentry training is generally provided for candidates selected directly from high school or college who intend to enter the public service, or for departmental personnel who have excellent employment records and who desire to become managers. Packaged training for preservice usually varies from three months to one year and covers specified core curricula in module format.

In-service management training aims at increasing one's job-related knowledge and at improving the performance of those who already occupy supervisory or management positions. In-service training is typically packaged as basic courses open to junior managers after a few years of management service, advanced courses open to middle-level managers, and senior courses for senior executives, such as director-general.

International training firms are also offering packaged training that is mass-marketed and aimed at in-service training. An example of an internationally marketed packaged training program is the Kepner-Tregoe Training which focuses on problem solving and decision making. Kepner-Tregoe, following their own research (1980), divide problem solving into three stages: problem analysis, decision making, and potential problem analysis—with each of these stages further broken into more refined steps. In a one-week course, the Kepner-Tregoe Training provides simulations in which the participants practice the three-phase process in solving an imaginary organizational problem. The Kepner-Tregoe method utilizes a variety of different methods to facilitate the learning of this particular problem-solving process. Other management training packages offered internationally are the Action-centered Leadership Program (Adair 1979), and the Situational Leadership Program (Hersey and Blanchard 1976).

Custom-Tailored Formal Training

In an extensive review of the literature in management development, John Sherwood et al. (1983) concluded that there is one major disadvantage with formal training packages: although they may be successful in broadening one's skill and knowledge base, when participants return to their organizations following training, they find it difficult to apply the new skills to job-relevant problems; thus, transfer of training becomes problematic. Stimulated generally by the increasing pressure for organizationally relevant training, there has been a recent trend in management training in LDCs to provide formal training programs that are more individualized and custom-tailored to specific organizations.

In custom-tailored training, the content and process is specifically related to the unique goals, objectives, and needs of the organization, as well as to the individual skill requisites of particular managers. This is especially evident in the more well-known regional training centers, where relevant case material is gathered, and "live" case studies and exercises are created to highlight the problems specific to agricultural or rural development managers. INCAE, for example, conducts intensive diagnostic studies of the training participants' organization, and develops training cases and seminars based on the material developed (Cruz and Ickis 1976). Similarly, the preparation of case studies at IIMA is exhaustive, with trainers involved in extensive interviews with practitioners and frequent field visits to collect organizationally relevant case data (Sambrani 1979). In such customized training, careful attention can be paid to utilizing the particular language and terminology of participants.

This approach seems consistent with empirical data indicating that formal training addressing actual organizational or managerial problems is more highly rated by participants and their managers (Baumgartel 1973). Custom-designed formal training provided "in-house" can more likely impart specific skills within the individual's job context and increase the likelihood of learning transference (Sherwood et al. 1983). *Custom-tailored formal training is particularly relevant to in-service training* and is seldom provided at the preentry level.

Dinsmore (1975) offers specific guidelines for developing custom-tailored training programs designed to meet the unique needs of an organization. Porras and Anderson (1981) provide an illustrative case study of a custom-designed training program that involves ten six-hour sessions and is based on social learning theory. Training participants are all from the same organization. The training addresses unique managerial problems selected by the participants and the trainer through a critical incident survey. Each of the ten sessions consists of the following six phases:

1. Conceptual presentation on the skill to be learned
2. Videotaped demonstration of the skills being taught, with the videotape "actors" being people with whom the participants can identify and with technological conditions similar to their own
3. Rehearsal period for practicing the behaviors, providing an opportunity to practice the behavior in a safe and supportive environment
4. Guided feedback and reinforcement focusing on new behavior
5. Contracting to use the new skills in actual job context as soon as possible
6. Follow-up discussion

The ultimate extreme in designing custom-tailored training activities around job-related issues, combined with the participation of all relevant personnel from the organization, evolves into an altogether different type of managerial training approach—

action training. Action training will be discussed at length in Chapter 6.

Distance Training

The third general type of formal training design for developing managerial talent is distance training. This type of management training is similar to, and builds on, existing non-formal education and distance learning activities in developing countries that aim predominantly at providing primary educational opportunities in rural areas. Governments throughout Africa and Latin America, for example, have committed themselves to "universal primary education" and distance learning activities have been an important vehicle in this regard (Dodds 1978). Distance learning is an educational design that complements, supports, and extends the concept of formal schooling. In this sense, distance learning turns to its advantage the two serious defects associated with the more conventional face-to-face learning: the inability to reach a large number of individuals, and a high rate of information loss and distortion from oral communication (Bowers 1977). Tanzania, for example, experienced a greatly expanded demand for elementary teachers, due to the country's push for universalization of primary education. The increased demand for qualified teachers was met by distance learning programs for teacher education. By available indications, the quality of teacher education was better than that offered by traditional face-to-face classroom strategy (Ahmed and Coombs 1975).

Distance learning designs have been successful in preentry, vocational education and are being used around the globe for four principal purposes:

1. Teacher training
2. Teaching aids to enrich and complement formal classroom activities
3. Teaching specific technical subjects to people unable to attend formal institutions
4. Non-formal, rural adult education (International Extension College 1978)

Various distance learning designs are used in industrialized countries and developing countries, but are generally limited to certain combinations of correspondence courses, commercial radio and television, closed-circuit television, video cassettes, small group discussions (farm forums and radio cells, for example), and occasional face-to-face sessions with instructors. Huczynski notes, however, that definitions differ from country to country.

> In the United Kingdom, the definition of Distance Learning has been very narrow, and frequently limited to different varieties of correspondence courses. . . . By contrast, in North America, the term refers to a more formalized system where there are satellite educational units located hundreds of miles away from the main campus but controlled by it. These units may consist of four or five students who come together at a particular time and are linked with the teacher at the main campus with whom they are able to have a two-way conversation (1983, 100).

The use of distance learning in adult education easily lends itself to applications in management training, appropriately called distance training. Three emerging factors are influencing the increased examination of distance training designs for management development. First, the *new communications and computer technologies are beginning to expand dramatically the ways we train and learn* (Kearsley 1984). Technology-based training media are increasingly available and accessible to developing countries. Rapid technological developments have altered radically the ways technologies can be used, going beyond teleprocessing of information ("teleinformatique") to include artificial intelligence with interactive capabilities ("telematique"), representing "a scientific revolution with enormous pedagogical implications which we have not yet begun to perceive" (Botkin et al. 1979, 55).

Second, *the economics of centralized training versus decentralized training are being more carefully scrutinized.* The transportation costs for formal packaged training and the loss of productivity while participating in long residential training programs are becoming important factors in participating in management training. Distance learning advocates have continually argued that distributed educational activities are far less expensive per participant than formal classroom instruction.

Third, *"lifelong learning" opportunities are gaining new prominence in LDCs,* complementing the earlier focus of distance learning activities on primary and remedial education (Dodd 1979). Thus the growing emphasis on "lifelong learning" in a variety of professional areas is providing opportunities for easily integrating government-sponsored distance learning activities with more content-specific distance training programs for improving managerial talent.

There are some inherent disadvantages in distance training designs, predominantly as a result of the greatly reduced trainer-participant interactions. *Practical skills, for example, are difficult to teach.* "Hands-on" training, in such areas as interpersonal skills, are almost impossible without direct observation of behavior and feedback. *The learner must also be highly motivated* to complete units of instruction. The enthusiasm and energy that can typically be generated in face-to-face interactions between the trainer and participant (and between participants) is generally reduced. Plus, organizational incentives are seldom available to reinforce and encourage completion of a distance training course.

The management of the distance training activities is particularly crucial. Large-scale programs require tremendous planning and coordinating efforts. See, especially, Kerrigan (1984). Utilizing new technological hardware (cable television systems, for example) *requires wise and economical purchase of equipment,* best provided by specialist expertise not always available in developing countries. *The development of comprehensive, interesting, and self-contained curriculum and training materials is also very important.* Considerable staff time and media specialist work is often required for designing high-quality distance training.

Despite these drawbacks, distance training is being increasingly considered as a potential management training design for the following reasons:

1. The training can be distributed to outlying regions, reaching the more inaccessible areas distant from the central training institutes; it is thus particularly valuable in rural areas, where trained managers are scarce and where trained personnel are unwilling to work (Butterfield 1977).
2. There can be uniformity in training, which reaches larger numbers of people, with reduced per capita costs (Kearsley 1984; Oeller 1971).
3. The learner has considerably more control of the learning process itself.
4. When combined with small group discussions, distance training can more easily be linked to local realities and situational contexts of the participants.
5. Its strength is in facilitating the acquisition and retention of knowledge and is appropriate for "the basics" in most functional areas.

Distance training in nonmanagerial professional areas has been developed in a number of technologically developed countries

(Oeller 1971). Distance training is increasingly utilized for pre-entry supervisory and management training. The All-India Management Association, for example, provides correspondence courses that result in a diploma. Perhaps the most elaborate example of systematic distance training for management development is the University of South Africa's School of Business Leadership—for a detailed description of this design, see Marais (1975). It includes three basic components:

Self-study	Study Groups	Residential Training Periods at the University
Reading	Mutual lecturing	Lecturing
Self-paced study	Case study discussion	Concentrated study
Written analysis of case studies	Tutorial methods	Case study discussion
Written assignments	Project study	Business games
Independent study	Business games	
Project study		

There is little empirical research on the use of such multimedia, distance training designs. The nonexperimental, anecdotal data indicates that when sensitively designed, and with careful selection of participants, the use of several media in distance training can provide an enriching learning experience for preservice management training; yet, distance training by itself is not enough to produce high caliber management talent. There can be no doubt, however, that the computer and new video technology will continue to be a driving force in distance training. New technological developments (video discs and microcomputers, for example) and their more widespread availability in developing countries (as a result of declining prices for the hardware) indicate an increasing potential for designing effective distance training programs. The opportunities that distance training designs make available for management improvement are worth further research and serious consideration.

Summary

Most discussions on management training in developing countries have been limited to formal training, most of it ignoring on-the-job approaches, action training, and non-formal training. The discussions of formal training similarly have been limited to only one of three training designs available—packaged training. Only very recently has custom-tailored design been considered important, especially as it pertains to the development of relevant case studies. Distance training designs have been ignored and unexamined as a potential formal training design for developing managerial talent in developing countries.

Each of the three training designs in the formal training approach has its strengths and weaknesses (see Figure 4.3) and is somewhat different. For example, distance learning designs are technology-based, whereas packaged and custom-tailored designs are instructor-based. Yet, each is similar in that they are discrete, time-bound training activities, utilizing substantive experts or trainers who design the sequencing of activities and impart the knowledge to be acquired by the participants.

Notes

1. This section is drawn substantially from Kearsley (1984). His analysis of technological developments and their impact on training is by far the most comprehensive to date.
2. This section draws heavily from Langford, Pacey, and Zuckernick (1985).

Figure 4.3 Formal Training Designs

DESIGN	BENEFITS	DISADVANTAGES
FORMAL	1. Perceived increased career status and credibility of the training participant, particularly in cultures that place high value on certificates and diplomas 2. Exposure to new ideas and perspectives 3. Potential for developing peer-level, personal contacts with managers from another organization, functional sector or region 4. "R and R"--rest and relaxation away from the pressing problems of the manager's daily work routines	1. Difficulty in translating classroom learning to behavioral changes on the job 2. Lack of formal diagnosis of the management trainee's particular, individual needs 3. The training content may have little relevance 4. Lack of reward system to sustain the use of new skills 5. Expensive to send more than a few individuals to the training at one time
CUSTOM-TAILORED	1. Can fulfill precise organizational objectives 2. More effective training design due to content relevance 3. Payoffs are systemwide 4. When participants participate in the needs assessment and initial planning, their commitment to the training and learned skills is enhanced	1. Involves substantial organizational resources in terms of both time and costs 2. Produces changes in the existing relationships between organizational groups: for example, when training membership involves only peers, vertical barriers to collaboration may be created (Reynolds 1972)
DISTANCE TRAINING	1. Can be individualized and content made culturally and situationally relevant 2. Use of group interaction allows experience and knowledge exchange as part of the learning process 3. Group makeup can be effectively heterogenous 4. Group emphasis encourages development of leadership 5. Capability of reaching greater numbers of people, in different locations, at the same time	1. Problem of acceptance and support from academic, governmental, and business circles 2. Decentralization of learning process requires autonomous learners with a great deal of self-motivation and discipline 3. Lack of capability of staff to utilize technological training media effectively 4. Substantial organizational resources involved, especially for designs utilizing advanced technological media

5

On-the-Job Training

Background and Description

On-the-job training (OJT) is perhaps the oldest approach in human history for training public managers. Caldwell (1964) notes that the training of senior officials in government historically has been the process of *tutelage*, in which the style, knowledge, techniques, wisdom, and even ethics of experienced government officials were transmitted personally to their successors. OJT ranged from the more informal, incidental, and often unintentional learning that usually occurs whenever a junior manager works with a senior manager to the more formal program of indoctrination historically used in the preparation of younger administrators for higher administrative posts in the British civil service (Caldwell 1964). A review of practices in Japan, China, and the United States helps to explain the widespread practice of OJT training.

Japan

There is a strong custom in Japan regarding OJT, primarily due to the reluctance of Japanese higher education to give students practical knowledge and information (Adams and Kobayashi 1969). Japanese business, for example, criticizes the higher education system for ignoring the teaching of practical skills and for providing curriculum that is "too abstract," forcing Japanese managers to do much of the training on the job (Bedford 1982, 243). A further aspect of Japanese education influencing the emphasis on OJT is the Japanese tendency to learn by rote memorization, partially resulting from the complexities of the language. Adams and Kobayashi note that the "only way to learn to read and write Japanese, lacking a photographic memory, is by continuous repetition" (1969, 118). Thus on-the-job training appeared to be the only way to teach people who had not been taught at school to think in terms of managerial problem solving. A second factor propelling the country's comprehensive use of OJT is Japan's emphasis on loyalty and lifetime employment, which results in concerted organizational efforts at inculcating a corporation's unique ideology and organizational norms. This is especially true for managers since they must acquire the "idiosyncratic skills unique to the firm in order to accomplish their assigned tasks" (Tsurumi 1981, 8).

As a result, Japanese organizations rely almost exclusively on their own training programs, both custom-tailored formal training and on-the-job training (Bedford 1981). The formal training provided employees is, interestingly enough, seldom job-oriented, but reflects the more long-term educative goal of mind broadening combined with loyalty development. Harris and Moran note, for example:

> The Japanese management recruit is sent to a company training institute for orientation in spiritual awareness, consciousness, and company pride. Even laborers are sometimes sent to Buddhist temples for several days of Zen meditation, interspersed with lectures on religion and company policy (1979, 300).

The OJT training programs emphasize planned job rotation among various divisions in an organization (Tsurumi, 1981), providing the necessary corporate perspective required for lifelong employment. OJT is performance-oriented, not promotion-oriented, and involves training not only in one's job, but in all jobs at one's level (Harris and Moran 1979).

China

A similar reliance on on-the-job training has been found in China's industrial sector (Sredl 1980; Wigglesworth 1981). There is considerable emphasis on one-to-one training in the job setting, with an individual first receiving apprenticeship training for up to three years, followed by a job rotation program designed to reinforce basic skills and refine one's knowledge regarding the organization's products and services. The apprenticeship phase often includes such formal training methods as scheduled lectures at specific times each week (during slack periods), and role playing and simulations (Wigglesworth 1981).

The United States

In U.S. industry, OJT has similarly become the most common approach for instructing managers and employees (Bass and Vaughn 1966). There is even evidence that corporations are emphasizing the OJT approach and are moving increasing proportions of their skills development efforts into on-the-job programs (Rackham 1979).

Developing Countries

In Third World countries, OJT was used for training indigenous managers to replace expatriates that were displaced after colonial independence (Kubr and Wallace 1984). However, this approach was rarely effective or systematic since the few expatriates who remained after independence were not always willing to adopt the necessary coaching style that facilitated counterpart learning. Others argue that on-the-job training was seldom successful in developing countries because it was seldom organized or formalized, and the concept of the mentor was relatively unknown (Iverson 1979). OJT as a planned strategy is thus not as widely used in developing countries. Few development organizations have deliberately established the requisite learning norms of giving and receiving help on-the-job; most have not incorporated the expanded role of the "manager as trainer," and few managers have the necessary skills for effective OJT. The historical tradition of administrative tutelage, it appears, has eluded the grasp of present-day government administrators in developing countries (Caldwell 1964).

Nevertheless, OJT in developing countries still remains an important training approach available for developing indigenous managerial talent. Youker (1984), for example, argues that on-the-job training is the best strategy for management development in countries with high-caliber senior managers, such as Botswana, because it keeps training closely related to the job and utilizes the subtle teaching potency of a "role model." OJT is particularly suited to Third World countries that have high-quality top management coupled with a scarcity of competent middle-level managers.

Formal Training Versus On-the-Job Training

There is no consensus regarding the general superiority of formal training or on-the-job training. Although OJT has received less attention in the training literature, it is usually considered more effective than formal training (FT) in developing specific skills. See for example, Rackham (1979), and Bass and Vaughn (1966). It is argued that FT is too artificial for the experienced and older managers, and that there is insufficient time in formal training programs to allow the repeated practice required for learning a new skill. On the other hand, FT is more successful and economical than OJT in imparting knowledge and can maintain some degree of uniformity in the substance being learned (UNDESA 1975; Kondrasuk 1979, 1980; Kainen et al. 1983). There is much empirical evidence that indicates the superiority of FT in information transmission and in cost-effectiveness. It can shorten the time required for a person to learn and can avoid potentially costly errors of on-the-job trial and error. On the other hand, Iverson (1979) argues that OJT is more effective than formal training for improving first-line, ground-level management in LDCs.

Both empirical and anecdotal data indicate that *OJT is the core of any successful management development effort* (Illman 1976) and, when it follows a formal training program, OJT reinforces the learning acquired during formal training and significantly enhances its usefulness (Rackham 1979). Senior officials meeting at a Commonwealth Secretariat conference agreed that "on-the-job training by learning from colleagues and superiors is the core of management training" (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979, 100). One major reason for increased utilization of OJT is that in LDCs, the pressure of the daily work routine prohibits many managers from feeling comfortable in leaving work to attend formal training.

Underlying Strengths of the OJT Approach

To fully understand the potential power of the OJT approach, it is necessary to enlarge one's conception of management training beyond the traditional formal training definitions. *It assumes, first, that the core learning of managerial skills takes place on-the-job,* and that the role of formal off-the-job training is to provide important, yet supplementary, learning where one reflects on problems, systems, and techniques in a rather abstract environment comfortably distant from the work place (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979). A survey in Great Britain found that managers learned their skills most often by "doing the job" (Morris 1978). The surveyed managers agreed that managerial skills are picked up largely by trial and error, experimentation. and practice. This is a basic premise in OJT, that individuals best "learn by doing." When work experience is integrated with learning experience, they will reinforce each other. It then becomes difficult to distinguish where learning stops and work begins, unlike in more discrete, time-bound formal training programs.

Second, OJT is effective in influencing attitudes because the behavior and attitudes of supervisors and junior managers depend far more on the attitudes and behavior of their superiors than on any formal training received (Meigniez 1962). There is considerable evidence that learning new skills occurs through vicarious modeling, and subconscious and conscious imitation—see Bandura (1969) for the earlier theoretical formulations. The classical studies by Harris and Fleishman (1965) conclusively showed that the behavior of industrial foremen was most influenced by the behavior of their supervisors. The power of the immediate role model in changing behavior appears stronger than outside, formal training interventions. One survey by the *Wall Street Journal* found that more than two-thirds of the 1200 responding middle and senior managers credited their success to a mentor, and that most of these mentors were immediate supervisors or department heads (Lippitt 1983).

Mentor influence is particularly important in the development of cognitive strategies appropriate to a manager's particular organizational setting. Although research on the development of cognitive strategies is somewhat new (Gage 1976), there are strong indications that they are tremendously influenced by one's immediate supervisor. Even though each individual has a unique "mental map" (Bandler and Grinder 1979) that is the basis for his or her choices, actions and decisions, that "mental map" is significantly influenced by individuals at work. Perrow (1977) argues that the senior manager has tremendous power to instill in junior managers organizationally relevant "decision-making premises" and cognitive strategies. OJT can thus provide frequent opportunities for using and reinforcing specific cognitive strategies.

High-quality formal training attempts to create realistic "work situations" in the training setting, whereas high-quality OJT attempts to create a "teaching environment" in the work setting. What is frequently missed in FT is the reproduction of the actual working pressures and managerial complexities that exist in the work situation. OJT, on the other hand, *provides the managerial training in the day-to-day milieu of the dynamic relationships* that the manager will experience daily. Conventional training methods (particularly lectures) attempt to teach the individual subject areas of managerial knowledge. Case studies present problems in isolation—valuable in some ways, but unreal in others. A technique such as the "in" basket exercise (in which the student is presented simultaneously with a number of practical problems covering different subjects) goes some way toward developing skill in dealing with the complexity of managerial work. It does not, however, at the same time reproduce all the additional situational factors involved (Fowler 1969, 95). On-the-job training methods, on the other hand, impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are directly relevant to the manager's immediate environment.

For this reason, training directors in the United States are placing increasing emphasis on non-classroom forms of management training. The retired Director of Management Development for IBM, A. Daley, argues that the classroom can only do so much:

> Real management development occurs on the job, where a person learns to make decisions and live with them, to face situations, to win some and lose some. That's how you develop managers (1980, 91).

A fourth strength of the on-the-job approach is that *the transfer of learning is significantly increased*. Formal packaged and distance training programs cannot ensure effective transfer of learning due to, among other constraints, its separation from the organizational setting of the participant. The transfer of learning following such formal training relies on appropriate support from the participant's peers, subordinates, and manager back at the office (Robinson and Gaines 1980). OJT, on the other hand, stresses the importance of learning skills in the actual context of realistic, organizational life.

A fifth factor increasing the efficacy of OJT is that it can be done while one is productively working. For many managers in developing countries, it is difficult to get away from work to attend formal training sessions. Management levels are often too thin, and if a manager leaves, a whole division might stop while the person is away. In addition, the work ethic in many LDCs prohibits the manager from taking the time out to get trained. Formal training is seldom a viable option in many countries.

A further rationale for the potential importance of OJT in developing countries, in particular, *is their general context of manpower development*. Many LDCs, like Botswana (Youker 1984), have highly skilled, expatriate senior civil service managers and less qualified middle-level managers, setting the foundation for a successful tutelage process. Training for the lower levels of management in LDCs is haphazard and scarce. For most government officials, the initial preentry training is the only formal training they are likely to receive (Paul 1983) leaving a large gap in managerial training that could easily be met by OJT. The immediate manager occupies the trainer role in OJT, with training becoming a continuous part of the administrative process in developing countries.

The Specific Methods of OJT

The crucial role in OJT is the "manager as trainer," where a junior manager is exposed to development opportunities through a variety of assignments, tasks, and situations. Caldwell notes that:

> In virtually all systems of training for higher offices of government the administrator becomes, in a sense, a teacher (1964, 29).

OJT can vary from a very structured format to an informal process, but generally includes these: ongoing periodic performance reviews; observation and critique of how the junior manager is working, solving problems, and managing; regular consultation on operating matters; and, gradually increased responsibility and authority (Illman 1980).

On-the-job training includes a wide range of different methods which can be broadly classified into two groups:

1. *Observational,* which emphasizes observing another manager and analyzing and recording activities such as manager shadowing
2. *Participatory,* in which the management "trainee" becomes an integral part of the unit or department, such as job rotation (Fowler 1969)

Manager Shadowing

In this observational method, the learner "shadows" another manager in the organization, "following him as he carries out his daily duties to learn about the problems and the tasks and how these should be executed" (Huczyniski 1983, 35). The trainee will not necessarily assume the management position he is shadowing, as would an apprentice who is expected eventually to take over his master's role; nor is the shadowed manager necessarily a senior manager.

The underlying assumption in manager shadowing is that one can learn managerial skills and practices by observing a model manager in action (Taylor 1977); and that if observation and discussion is systematic, a junior manager can easily learn how to handle a project or task (Huczynski 1983). Others argue (e.g., Fowler 1969) that observations are of little use when trying to apply theory to practice. Even though a great amount of learning can take place regarding roles, responsibilities, and expectations, manager shadowing needs to be clearly defined or serious problems can emerge:

> These assignments are, however, fraught with pitfalls, for it is easy for an assistant to become little more than a caddy. If he is aggressive and seeks to assume line responsibility, he can cause serious troubles for his senior. (Huczynski 1983, 192).

Mentoring

Mentoring provides an alternative OJT method combining observation and participation and is gaining in popularity and usage in the United States. Basically, a mentor is a senior manager who undertakes to guide a younger manager's development, both personal and career. The role of the mentor, who usually *is not* the immediate supervisor, is to identify and to develop the unique abilities of a junior manager and to provide counsel and support during the transition from middle manager to senior executive level positions. Specifically, mentors offer:

> advice on career goals and advancement strategies, instruction in technical as well as social-managerial skills, visibility and exposure, counseling about work-related or personal problems, encouragement, confrontation and actual opportunities to perform the new skills that are acquired (Jones 1983, 38).

Formalized mentor programs have expanded considerably in the last decade. The U.S. federal government has utilized various forms of mentoring, with the most successful in the Internal Revenue Service (IRS), the Science and Education Administration in the Department of Agriculture, the Presidential Management Intern Program, and the Federal Executive Development Program (Jones 1983; Klauss 1981). Successful mentor programs are usually formalized systems with new managers or junior managers directly linked with senior managers for a prescribed length of time, but usually no more than six months (Jones 1983). Mentor programs have varied descriptions:

> The IRS calls its mentors "coaches"; the Federal Executive Development Program uses "senior advisors"; the Department of Agriculture, Merrill Lynch, California Women in Government and ACES use the term "mentors"; and Jewel Companies prefers "sponsors." Those on the receiving end are called mentees, trainees, interns, candidates and in some educational programs, learners or students (Jones 1983, 38).

American public sector experience with mentors indicates that the responsibilities and roles and functions of mentors generally fall into the following areas (Henderson 1985; Klauss 1981):

teaching: an interpersonal coaching process
guiding: orientation to rules, both spoken and unspoken
career strategy advising
sponsoring: being an advocate and acknowledging achievements
role modeling: being exemplar and sharing personal experiences
monitoring and giving feedback: giving constructive feedback and clarification
motivating: helping the protégé see how he or she can meet challenges and achieve
counseling: helping to see the broad picture during stressful periods
communicating: being open, spending time, and listening as well as informing
invisibility: being subtle and not expecting credit

Specific "mentor-protégé" activities include, for example (Jones 1983):

protégés complete a competencies self-assessment form related to their field and discuss the results with the mentor
protégés select a book or article on management or career development and report on the reading and talk about how the content could apply to the organization
protégés write short-range and long-range career development plans and discuss them with the mentor

protégés and mentors complete actual projects together; ways are found to work together, on a temporary basis, to solve an organizational problem
visits are arranged for the protégé to various parts of the organization to broaden his or her perspective on the organization
protégés attend formal and informal management training meetings with debriefings afterward

The major problems that occur in mentoring center around two issues: (1) unclear, unrealistic, or inappropriate expectations between the mentor and mentee (Klauss 1981); and (2) conflicts that may arise between the mentor, protégé, and the protégé's immediate supervisor (Jones 1983). Nevertheless, formal mentor programs can be a successful OJT method in developing countries. It would work most effectively if, first, requisite managerial skills are identified for a country or organization, and then managers are identified who have those skills and competencies. This would be the foundation for a strong mentor program and would ensure that skills relevant to that specific organization or country are learned. The development of political skills in public managers provides an illustrative example: the political skills required of development managers are different for every country. In each country, a public manager needs political skills to operate effectively; however, the specific types of political skills and patterns of political behaviors are unique to each country's administrative and political contacts. They are best learned on the job.

Coaching

Coaching is a simple method for solving performance problems, improving individual performance levels, and easing the stress of role transitions experienced when one moves from a technical position to a managerial position (Wolf and Sherwood 1981). Whereas a mentor is seldom one's immediate supervisor, one's coach usually is. Coaching is often described as one of a supervisor's major responsibilities in stimulating the growth and development of subordinates.

Kinds of Coaching Support. Wolf and Sherwood (1981) identify various kinds of support that coaching can provide, four of which are particularly appropriate to managers in LDCs. First is to facilitate *self-observation*. Coaches can assist managers in paying increased attention to the ways they manage interactions, correspondence, meetings, telephone conversations and activities (e.g., delegating, providing feedback). Second, the coach can *provide individualized guidance in a variety of job-specific skills* such as conducting meetings, appraising performance, budgeting, and time management. Assisting in skill building requires the coach to be an effective diagnostician, helping the manager to identify areas of strength and areas in which to develop further competencies.

The third, and most common, kind of coaching is in the area of *problem solving*. In problem solving, the coach can assume one of two different roles: intensive or non-intensive (Mumford 1975). *Intensive* coaching typically follows five steps (Kearsley 1984):

1. Identify problem.
2. Discuss alternative solutions.
3. Agree mutually on action to be taken.
4. Follow up.
5. Confirm problem resolved and debrief: (including the identification of shortcomings and also providing appropriate positive reinforcement).

An illustrative example of intensive coaching emerges from the sales field which for many years has typically used "curbstone coaching" as a training strategy:

> In curbstone coaching, the coach accompanies a salesperson on a sales visit and carefully observes the salesperson. Immediately after the sales call, typically, as soon as the coach and salesperson reach the curb, the two review the sales call. The coach helps the salesperson define alternatives to how he or she handled the customer and they jointly plan other sales approaches for the salesperson to use (Kur and Pedler 1982, 93).

Non-intensive coaching takes on a more informal, helping relationship where the coach helps the manager sort out the overload of expectations, demands, and pressures one may experience in solving a problem. In this approach, the coach does not necessarily guide the manager through a structured problem-solving process.

The fourth type of coaching involves *career counseling*. The coach stimulates, guides, and facilitates the manager in dealing with his long-term developmental needs.

Who Provides Coaching? Coaching provided to executive managers, isolated "at the top" of the organization is an emerging area of activity. The most common form of coaching occurs between the senior manager and junior manager. However, in situations often found in LDCs where senior managers lack the skills for coaching subordinates, several variations are available and need to be used:

managerial peers (Daly 1980)
internal training and development tutors (Hague 1974)
external consultant (Wolf and Sherwood 1981)
a coaching corps of senior executives (Wolf and Sherwood 1981)

What are Some Advantages and Disadvantages? One reason for utilizing coaching is to assist the junior manager in applying newly learned skills on the job. Providing continual feedback and reinforcement of the new behavior learned at a formal training workshop, for example, motivates the employee to use the newly acquired skill. Another reason for utilizing the coaching method is that training can be spread over a longer time period than is normally possible (Kearsley 1984).

The success of coaching (and most other OJT methods) is almost wholly dependent on the rapport between the coach and the manager:

> Coaching will be ineffective if the coach sees the trainee as a rival; if he rejects out of hand the dependent needs of the trainee; if he is intolerant of mistakes; or if he does not allow sufficient time for coaching. Coaching will also be ineffective if the relationship is ambiguous—if the trainee cannot trust the feedback he receives from his coach. Coaching, however, will work well if the coach provides a good model with whom the trainee can identify; if both can be open with each other; if the coach accepts his responsibilities fully; and if he provides the trainee with recognition of his improvement and suitable rewards (Bass and Vaughn 1966, 91).

Guided Delegation

One of the most immediate forms of OJT a senior manager can provide is guided delegation. This method involves the assignment of a task that stretches the junior manager beyond his previous capacity and thus provides an opportunity to learn and practice new skills. *Delegation is thus utilized as a progressive learning experience.*

Guided delegation is similar to such other OJT methods as "planned delegation" (Huczynski 1983), expanded job assignment, and the study assignment (Depres 1980). It is most often used for providing a development opportunity to a junior manager perceived as having high potential.

The delegated assignments can be broadly grouped into three categories:

1. An assignment or task that arises from special circumstances and could provide a unique opportunity for a young manager; it is not only a learning experience, it may throw the junior manager in the "deepest of water"
2. A normal working assignment that a junior manager has the capacity and motivation to complete
3. A job the senior manager would just as soon permanently assign to the younger manager

The success of guided delegation is dependent on a variety of factors, the more important being: (a) the senior manager's ability to diagnose accurately areas of strength and areas requiring development in junior managers; (b) the senior manager's ability to communicate effectively the delegated assignment; and, (c) the junior manager's motivation and expertise.

Particular attention must be paid to the junior manager's "timespan of discretion" (Jaques 1976). Junior managers with smaller time span capacities require more frequent periodic reviews for monitoring progress of the delegated task.

Attachments/Counterpart Training

This method covers learning experiences where a manager is "attached" to a counterpart in a department or agency, or in another country, for a certain period, carries out part of the routine work of that department, yet remains under the ultimate guidance and general supervision of his own immediate supervisor (Fowler 1969). The length of attachments varies from one week to one year, and may involve a number of consecutive attachments over a longer period of time.

Attachment of a professional from a developing country to a counterpart in a developed or industrialized country can provide the additional benefit of keeping the trainee alert to emerging ideas and new techniques. However, the quality of the counterpart relationship and the transfer of learning become the two most crucial variables in assessing the effectiveness of supervised attachments in foreign countries. The counterpart relationship, to be effective, must be experienced as a partnership, in which each is making a contribution (Bax 1969). The trainee's integration into the working department can allow for satisfactory working relations; thus, careful attention must be paid to selecting the counterpart trainer.

Job Rotation

Job rotation is another common method for on-the-job training and provides the learner with a series of assignments with planned movements from different jobs that are valued as good development opportunities. The "trainee" is provided successively more advanced learning opportunities and ideally receives coaching from the manager in each different job assignment, as well as from the manager who is taking responsibility for that individual's development. In a formalized job rotation process, the learner and senior manager meet to determine developmental goals, agree on rotation assignments, and meet periodically for progress reviews and modification of goals (Bass and Vaughn 1966).

Fowler (1969) notes four major differences between supervised attachments and job rotation: (1) the manager is no longer considered primarily a trainee; (2) the level of work and the status of the job are thus higher; (3) the time spent in any one type of work is typically longer; and, (4) the role of the trainer is taken primarily by the head of the department the employee works in, and only partially by the person planning the overall job rotation program.

Systematic job rotation provides junior managers the opportunity to acquire valuable perspective and knowledge of various organizational interrelationships (Bass and Vaughn 1966). It provides a junior manager with a variety of role models, oftentimes both good and bad, that are critical to a manager's development. Job rotation also provides the junior manager a more holistic picture of the organization, rather than just the department in which he is finally assigned.

To be effective, a job rotation program must be tailored to the particular needs and capabilities of the individual trainee and must remain flexible (Bass and Vaughn 1966). Simply to set up a standard rotation program and run all trainees through it can result in considerable waste of time and talent. Some individuals will merely mark time on one job waiting until they move on to the next, while others will be forced into new jobs and new learning situations before they are ready (Bass and Vaughn 1966). Fowler (1969) warns of other hazards in job rotation such as loss of efficiency if too many employees are being rotated.

Conditions for Effective OJT

OJT is the most frequently utilized training strategy in U.S., Japanese, and Chinese industries, and has untapped potential for enhancing public management talent in developing countries. There are certain conditions that ensure the effectiveness of its use and potentially limit its increased use for management training in LDCs.

1. The senior manager with whom the junior manager associates must have a level and quality of management skills worth learning.
2. Those conducting OJT—senior manager, peer manager, counterpart—must be equipped with the necessary skills in facilitating learning; the senior manager must thus also be an effective trainer.
3. The junior managers must have an appropriate level of basic education to meet job requirements.
4. Senior managers must understand and accept their role as (a) coach, (b) reinforcer, and (c) role model, and need to be motivated to carry it out at an acceptable performance level.
5. Working conditions must be conducive to learning and should generally reflect a positive learning climate.
6. The nature of work should permit task assignments and job rotations in an increasing order of difficulty providing a series of learning experiences that challenge the junior manager's abilities and stimulate skill improvement.
7. The senior manager must have diagnostic skills to assess the strengths and development areas of the junior manager, provided, for example, by performance appraisals, critical incidents, and observation.

OJT requires senior managers to play a significant role in identifying and creating relevant learning experiences from work problems. They must also encourage junior managers to attend to and take responsibility for their own managerial self-development. This becomes problematic in many Third World countries because public managers don't always assume this role responsibility, and those who do assume responsibility may not have the appropriate skills. OJT expands the manager's role, adding responsibilities as a coach, reinforcer, and positive role model. Managers experiencing daily emergencies and operational overloads seldom find the time or make the time to fulfill these role expectations. More important, managers may not have the skills to conduct OJT effectively. When help is given, it is often provided in a way that does not necessarily foster learning and is usually offered in the form of advice: "I'll tell you what you should do in this situation" (Wolf and Sherwood 1981). This is due primarily to the fact that OJT is somewhat difficult to learn to do well (Kearsley 1984). To be an effective facilitator of on-the-job learning requires skills other than the more fundamental management skills. Lippitt (1983) suggests that in helping one learn, the senior manager must organize and expand the junior manager's work experiences by:

helping to identify and isolate the problems and concerns of the junior manager
helping to create a climate compatible with the junior manager's readiness
creating conditions that make explicit the junior manager's past and present experiences
clarifying the relevance of the junior manager's goals
relating the junior manager's experience with others' experiences
making the learning process comfortable and understandable
providing new data and concepts for the junior manager's possible use
helping the junior manager develop relations to and generate application from experiences
allowing the junior manager to advance at his or her own best pace
providing an atmosphere of interest, enthusiasm, and balance
placing the learning process in perspective, so that the junior manager sees it in its true light: fun, frustrating, difficult, varied, challenging, and not inevitably successful without extraordinary effort and desire

OJT thus not only requires effective one-to-one interaction, it rests on the existence of an organizational climate that nurtures and supports learning. These managerial skill and organizational requirements demonstrates the difficulties in learning to be an effective on-the-job trainer of managers.

Benefits and Disadvantages of OJT

When OJT is effectively implemented, various advantages to formal training emerge. First, the problem of the limited transfer of training is virtually eliminated. The skills learned during the training are immediately applicable and transferable to the job (Miller 1979). Second, OJT allows the junior manager to practice immediately what has been learned. Training occurs in the actual job environment so that immediate feedback and reinforcement can be provided (Bass and Vaughn 1966). The training can also be adjusted to the different learning rates among junior managers. Last, more complex skills can be learned over the longer period of time allowed by OJT.

OJT has certain inherent disadvantages that must also be considered. First, OJT stresses specific, organizationally related skills, and seldom addresses the future educational and development needs of the younger managers, or the more theoretical and conceptual areas of organizationally relevant knowledge. Second, OJT is labor-intensive and requires a significant time commitment. Few competent and knowledgeable managers have the time to engage in one-to-one training; or many managers do not accept training as one of their responsibilities. A third disadvantage is that the personality characteristics of the senior manager determines, to a great extent, his success at creating favorable learning outcomes (Bass and Vaughn 1966). Fourth, OJT can frequently be interrupted and sidetracked by deadlines, meetings, and other production-oriented elements that are perceived to be of higher priority and yield more immediate and direct rewards/punishments. Training efforts are thus sacrificed. Last, OJT may be two slow for countries urgently pursuing national development; learning by doing and by trial and error may be too slow.

Summary

OJT is a training approach widely used in industrialized countries and includes such OJT methods as mentoring, coaching, job rotation, and counterpart training. The OJT approach has significant unrealized potential for developing managerial talent in LDCs. However, OJT is not always conducted in a high-quality manner, and is often discontinued because of the managerial time required to do it effectively and its disappointing results when done unsystematically. To be successful, OJT requires a manager to assume the role of trainer and develop rapport with the learner. Several steps are suggested to help ensure the effectiveness of the OJT approach to developing managerial talent in LDCs.

6

Action Training

Until the 1960s, formal training and on-the-job training were the only approaches considered for management training. Action Training (AT) is a recently developed approach to management training that is a combination of formal training sessions with on-the-job problem solving. Spinning off from the organization development strategies for improving organizational health, by the mid-1970s action training had become a recognized approach for improving managerial capacities. See, for example, F. Sherwood (1976). The AT approach has developed in various forms under a variety of names such as "action training and research" (Gardner 1973), "action-training" (Soloman et al. 1977), "action learning" (Revans 1972; McNulty 1977; Harris 1981), the "performance approach" (Kettering 1981), "capacity-building" (Honadle and Hannah 1982), "joint development activities" (Morris 1974), and "project-based" management development (Ashton 1979).

Grouping each of these various types of action training into one general management training approach is somewhat dangerous, due to competing definitions and the variations in form. An early model for the action training approach is the "action-training" process first utilized in the Jamaica National Planning Project in 1977. The action training design utilized in Jamaica followed a workshop methodology for training project team members in specific project management processes. The trainer/consultant participated with the team in carrying out an actual project. The project team was composed of individuals within an agency, selected by senior management, and monitored by higher authorities. The goal was to increase project performance through a collaborative process of shared learning, utilizing a trainer/consultant as primary resource.

The more classroom-oriented "action learning" defined by Harris (1981), McNulty (1977), and Revans (1972) is similar in method but more closely resembles packaged formal training. Although there are different forms of "action learning," it is generally characterized as organizational research integrated with managerial self-development involving a group of five or six managers from *different organizations* who are facing broadly similar problems (Huczynski 1983), forming a temporary, problem-centered interorganizational "set" (Revans 1980). Each "set" has a "set advisor" who can be an academic, a consultant, or trainer. The set advisor's responsibility is to help the "set" become a learning group, allowing the managers to solve the problem and learn with and from each other rather than from an "expert." "Action learning" is a method of managerial self-development through self-assessment, learning, and action planning by the individual participants.

Although differing slightly from each other, these action-based training methods are merely "variations on a theme." Real-life organizational and managerial problems are used in learning, and are pursued by a work group through (1) data gathering, (2) problem analyses, (3) appropriate training interventions, and (4) follow-up. The action training approach, in other words, follows the action learning process and applies it to on-the-job projects involving an intact work group dealing with problems that are intrinsic to the work team. Although emerging initially from U.S. and British efforts in action research, the action training approach to management improvement is increasingly being utilized in less developed countries. Variations of the AT approach have been cited in the Water and Power Authority of Bangladesh (N. Gardner 1984), rural development projects in Jamaica (Honadle 1982; Kettering 1981; Armor et al. 1979), and various development projects in Yemen (Rubin 1984), Malawi (Honadle 1982), Ghana (Wunsch 1981), and Zambia (Morgan 1984). It is an approach used successfully by the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (Rubin 1984), as well as various regional and national training institutes.

Distinguishing Action Training from Formal Training

The action training approach is based on an expanded conceptualization of "training," in that management training involves more than attending courses, seminars, and workshops, and requires more than the one-to-one interaction of on-the-job training. This approach links the training to a specific, tangible project, not an anticipated, future event. AT deeply involves the training participants in action, rather than allowing them to be passive recipients of someone else's wisdom and knowledge. AT imports less outside expertise and, instead, utilizes the direct experience of the managers themselves. The training occurs during the implementation of a particular project and is related to specific here-and-now problems.

The key distinction between the two management training approaches is that formal training focuses on individual development, while action training simultaneously emphasizes individual skill building, team building and organizational development. Other significant differences center around goals and learning assumptions. Formal training aims at the transmission of knowledge, the acquisition of well-proven skills and techniques, and the development of appropriate managerial attitudes. Action training has five goals: (1) the learning of relevant knowledge, (2) the acquisition and utilization of concepts, skills and techniques particularly relevant to the team's project or the unit's assignment, (3) the adaptation and invention of new skills and techniques for use by the team on a particular work assignment, (4) the internalization of attitudes and norms that further the accomplishment of the team's project or assignment, and (5) the development and enhancement of a real-life work project or the resolution of existing organizational problems. (See Figure 6.1).

The inherent assumptions regarding adult learning also distinguish one from the other (see Figure 6.2). In action training, the dual goals of *developing effective work projects* and developing managerial skills (Kettering 1981) are integrated by the assumption that skills are best learned when applied to a real-life organizational problem. Revans explains:

> I suggest that learning is manifest by improved performance, then it follows that what has been learned is measured by the improvement. Knowledge that has been acquired is exhibited in what has been done with it; this is why it is called action learning, and why knowledge is the ability to do things and not merely to talk about them, nor even to write books about them. Hence I find myself having to waste a lot of time arguing epistemology with people who do not speak German, for in this formidable language the words for "to know" and for "to be able to do" come from the same root: *kennen* and *konnen*. Hence, too, my central thesis: if I

Figure 6.1 Comparison of Learning Goals

Goals of Formal Training	Goals of Action Training
1. Transmission of packaged knowledge	1. Learning of relevant knowledge
2. Acquisition of conventional skills and techniques	2. Acquisition and utilization of skills and techniques relevant to the team's assignment
3. Development of appropriate attitudes	3. Adaptation and invention of new skills and techniques to successfully implement the team's project
	4. Internalization of project-related attitudes and norms
	5. Enhancement of organizational projects and improvement of work related problems

> want to help a manager know something, that is, to do something better, I try to help him find out what he is doing now and get him to improve upon it (1980, 252).

Action training can be further distinguished from formal training in that:

1. It is concerned with taking specific action, in addition to "talking about," taking some general class of action.
2. Specific action is taken by specific individuals and those engaged in action training gain insight not only into their problems, but also into their individual perceptions of and personal responses to such problems.
3. In action training, the majority of time is given both to diagnosing in the field what the problem may be and to applying any training solutions to the problem that may be suggested; in formal training programs held off the job, diagnosis is generally assumed and application necessarily ignored (Revans 1977).

Characteristics of Action Training

There are many variations in AT training designs; however, each variation has the following seven characteristics.

Work teams

AT focuses on intact work teams or organizational units within the target organization, rather than on isolated, unrelated individuals (Ingle 1985; Honadle and Hannah 1982).

The focus of action training is on work groups instead of individuals gathered from several organizations or unrelated settings. The basic unit of training is typically a project team consisting of individuals working cooperatively in a task-oriented group. Teams are often connected to other teams through interteam linkages to form a critical mass necessary for improving organizational performance (Ingle 1985). The trainers in AT act as external resources or consultants who are also temporary members of the project team.

The basic unit of training is a team, and the target group usually includes all individuals relevant to the performance of a particular program, project, or task. Since most problems are interdisciplinary, and managerial roles are interdependent, projects typically are addressed by a project "team" rather than a management "trainee." All those responsible for a project or task participate in the training. Thus, considerable "team building" occurs.

Learning by Doing

Members of the work team learn technical and managerial skills by "doing" them within the organizational context in which they

Figure 6.2 Comparison of Learning Assumptions

Learning Assumptions in Formal Training	Learning Assumptions in Action Training
1. Teaching best occurs at a retreat or classroom setting away from work	1. The best opportunities for training managers occur in their own organizations, particularly in designated teams assigned responsibility for planning and implementing organizational projects or programs
2. Knowledge is acquired more easily when it comes from a recognized expert	2. Knowledge is acquired easily when introduced in the context of real work and discussed with peers, as well as resource persons
3. The retention and utilization of the newly acquired skills is an organizational problem, not a fault of training	3. The retention and utilization of newly acquired skills requires putting them into use on an organizationally related project, requires appropriate training arrangements.

are to be applied (Ingle 1985).

Real problems faced by the project team are used as the content or subject matter for the training. Training workshops, for example, focus on the application of management techniques to solve actual problem situations confronting the team. This focuses the learning on pertinent issues currently facing the group, rather than merely transferring the trainer's expert knowledge in hypothetical and abstract problems. The learning-by-doing process provides an experimentation process that facilitates the planning and implementation of managerial improvements within organizational settings (Ingle 1985).

Results Oriented

The training focuses directly on improvements in organizational performance. Formal training, on the other hand, focuses on an individual manager's potential performance after the completion of formal training sessions.

AT is problem- and opportunity-oriented and utilizes training as an intervention to have direct impact on both individual managerial capacities and organizational performance (Honadle and Hannah 1982). As such, it deals with personnel and organizational change directly related to an actual or anticipated gap in project performance or organizational output (Ingle 1985). Training thus changes the organization in some way.

The training provided is applicable to a problem or task at hand and should result in some immediate project development or organizational improvement. It attempts to create a group climate of innovative and creative thinking to solve problems. The success of the training is thus measured in terms of problems actually resolved and improvements in actual project performance. It deemphasizes diplomas and certificates as indicators of managerial talent and focuses rather on managerial improvement that enhances organizational performance. Its primary focus is thus on improvement of a system's performance, not just on an individual's skill development (Kettering 1981).

Situation Emergent

The concepts and skills taught are those directly related to the real need or problem identified by the working group. Thus, the specific content of the training intervention is determined by the immediate functions and emerging needs of the managerial group. Training occurs during the implementation of a particular project and is related to specific here-and-now problems. Action itself becomes the center for training.

Training is tailored to the specific and immediate needs of individuals engaged in managerial or project activities, with the performance problems and assignments providing the core of the learning. Training is provided as the need emerges and is thus *situation emergent* (Kirkhart and White 1974). Managerial learning is enhanced dramatically when it occurs through the application of new skills on actual projects. Effective application of the new skills can be observed immediately and reinforced on the job. The "trainer" can also observe the concrete applications of the techniques, principles, and concepts, providing important feedback.

The training design must be flexible in order to readjust schedules, planned exercises, and working sessions in light of new problems that emerge in the project or new data that emerge from the participants. This is especially crucial in managing development projects in LDCs, since events seldom emerge exactly as planned. In this sense, action training is a voyage of discovery because:

> development projects have an element of novelty or uniqueness; no previous management experience is exactly pertinent. Since the project is not a precise replication of activities that occurred in the past, managers are not able to anticipate all of the factors that eventually will influence the success of the project. As implementation of the project begins, unanticipated problems occur (Solomon et al. 1977, 15).

Systemic

AT is more commonly used in a long term effort of performance improvement and organizational change. It is viewed as part of the larger efforts of management development and organizational development. It thus entails a much larger time perspective beyond the completion of a seminar or workshop.

AT typically follows a reiterative model of action, evaluation, and action again. It typically proceeds one step at a time (Kettering 1981) with incremental action leading to evaluation followed by another incremental step (Gardner 1973). The training target is organizational, not just individual (Honadle and Hannah 1982). AT often aims at planning and implementing improvements in the organizational system (e.g., policies, procedures, incentives) using the project or program as a testing ground for organization change (Solomon 1984; Kettering 1981). At other times, action training aims at introducing changes in the "guidance subsystem" of an organization. The guidance subsystem is basically the managerial element that coordinates and directs the other subsystems, such as the production, support or regulation subsystem (Ingle 1985). Action training may also be recast as action-planning consultation (Honadle and Hannah 1982) where the AT process is followed to establish new management systems that independent LDC governments increasingly need to develop.

Capacity-Building Orientation

AT processes implicitly aim at enhancing the internal managerial problem-solving capacities, and at reducing the trainer-trainee dependency relationship.

This orientation makes AT very appropriate to LDCs, since this perspective is inherent in the development process itself. It stresses that training is provided in ways that assist project teams and organizations in becoming more effective at solving their own problems and in the "creation of new capacity to deliver goods and services to improve the quality of people's lives" (Solomon, et al. 1977, 1). Honadle and Hannah explain that such a training strategy emphasizes an enhancement approach that "attempts to *focus* participant knowledge and skills on pertinent issues rather than *transferring* trainer knowledge and skills to trainees" (1982).

There is an explicit respect for participant knowledge in AT, which requires a revised role for the trainer. First, the trainer's role becomes more like that of a facilitator, providing frameworks that help "trainees" focus their knowledge on the problem at hand (Honadle and Hannah 1982). Second, the authority relationship so prevalent in both packaged and on-the-job training strategies is transformed. The trainer often joins with the working group as a "colearner" and, as a team, they learn together (Solomon et al. 1977, see, especially p. 6). The gathering and interpreting of action data thus occurs from the viewpoints of the working group with the "trainees" and "trainers" as partners, rather than from some externally imposed "blueprint" or "expert" analysis arrived at by the "trainer."

This nurturing of indigenous resources thus leads to an accelerated internalization and institutionalization of managerial talent, and enhances internal management capacities. Action training is successful if the work group is capable of functioning effectively after the trainer withdraws from the project.

Integration of Training, Research, and Consulting

The AT process integrates the typically separate activities of training, research, and consulting (Gardner 1974).

Training emerges from research (data collection and problem analysis) regarding organizational performance, and the training intervention then leads to further evaluation, assessment, and follow-up. Rather than remain discrete activities, often done by separate institutions, they tend to merge and reinforce each other. To assess the work group's training needs, the trainer conducts interviews and observations to identify critical issues and priorities. This research provides the basis for the team's training and for the trainer's organizational interventions.

Underlying Models

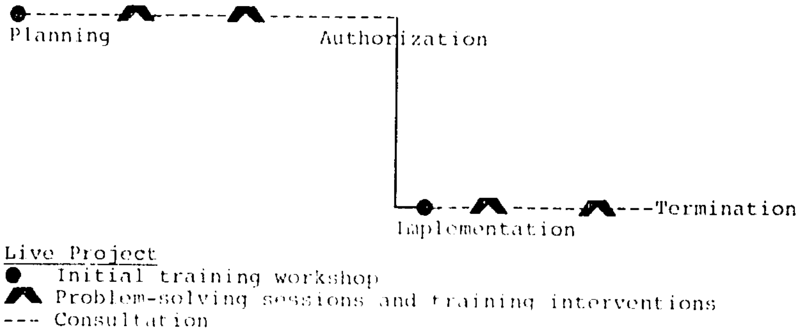
AT is generally characterized by its performance orientation, its focus on capacity building, and its emphasis on being situation-emergent and systemic; however, there is still no one "perfect" design or model for action training. AT is flexible in design and can be adapted to numerous topics and participants. Although it takes various forms, its underlying framework appears rather consistent. AT typically follows this problem-solving process:

1. Analyze the situation.
2. Provide appropriate training intervention.
3. Follow up and evaluate.

In its simplest form, it follows a process such as described in Figure 6.3. A similar model guided the action training approach that occurred in the Jamaica National Planning Program; see Kettering (1980) for details; for another example, see Honadle and Hannah (1982).

More complex variations generally follow the action research model initially formulated by Lewin (1946) and John Collier (1945) and later refined by Corey (1953), Herbert Shepard (1960), French (1969), and Neely Gardner (1973). The action research process in-

Figure 6.3 Action Training in the Jamaica National Planning Program



Source: Kettering, 1981

volves five broadly defined phases of activity (Diesh 1979):

diagnostic phase in which problems relating to work content and context are identified

feedback phase in which the work group, irrespective of the hierarchy, participates in tackling the issues identified in the diagnostic phase

implementation phase in which self-directed change is initiated by the work group

follow-up phase in which there is joint participation of the external resource persons, internal change agents, and the concerned work group to proceed with the plan of action identified by the group

evaluation phase in which progress of the action plan is assessed and further feedback provided to identify new problems and institute change, if any, in the action plan; this is a cyclic process leading to institutionalization of the change process to meet the changing demands of the organization

Role of the Trainer in Action Training

The role of the trainer in AT is dramatically different from the trainer responsibilities in formal training and somewhat different from the manager/trainer role in OJT. First of all, the main vehicle for learning is the project or problem, not the expertise of an outsider or superior. Trainers must therefore be resources for helping participants make progress in their project. Thus, the trainer must be knowledgeable regarding the organization in which the project operates, including its constraints and incentive systems. More specifically, the trainers will likely need knowledge in the following:

1. The overall operations of the organization and the detailed workings of those aspects that relate to a specific field
2. The key personnel in the organization responsible for functions with which the project will be concerned
3. The "language" of the organization, i.e., the everyday terms used by managers to describe their products, systems, functions, meetings, and so on
4. The participants, in terms of backgrounds, current responsibilities, training needs, and potential for development
5. The key features of the project problem, likely areas for analysis, possible solutions, and issues of implementation
6. The views of other members of the staff team (Ashton 1979, 102)

Since the project or problem is being addressed by a team of peers, considerable group facilitation skills are needed to help them learn with and from each other. As the climate becomes one of problem solving and learning, *the trainer will increasingly need to join with them as a learner and role model.*

Another crucial skill is the ability to diagnose and identify areas where more substantive knowledge is needed in order for the team to progress. It is at this point that the trainer must recognize and accept his limits and seek additional information from outside the group, either on a permanent basis, as a training/consulting team assisting the project team, or seeking expert information on a one-time basis.

Summary

Action training is a third management training approach available to developing countries. It is increasingly being utilized due to its dramatic impact on transfer of learning and its direct influence on organizational performance. Increasing use of action research in the Third World is furthering the legitimacy and credibility of action training programs.

7

Non-formal Training

The processes and forms of non-formal training (NFT) provide the fourth general training approach for enhancing managerial capacity in LDCs. Although it has gone relatively unnoticed as a vehicle for management development, its global utilization for other purposes suggests that it has much potential for significantly improving managerial talent in developing countries.

In the United States, the potency of non-formal training as a learning strategy has not yet been fully recognized, although it is the underlying model for the semiguided efforts in self-development that commonly occur at monthly professional luncheons, professional association meetings, and in less structured support groups and learning networks. In some U.S. corporate circles, non-formal training is labeled "contemporization," deliberately avoiding the term "training." The term reflects the substantial amount of learning that occurs among peers and "contemporaries" regarding "contemporary" and emerging issues that confront them as senior-level executive managers (Moats and Horgan 1984).

Non-formal training is typically neglected as a viable management training strategy in the Third World for the following reasons:

1. The historically narrow conception of training, characterized by teaching knowledge in formal classroom settings that emphasizes dependency on experts and ignores peer learning
2. The patterns of incentives and rewards in LDCs that reinforce formal schooling and certification, with recruitment

patterns in Civil Service stressing the possession of an academic education, credential, or certificate

3. Donor funding patterns and aid packages, bias towards formal training activities, as well as other internal organizational biases against "social" activities and travel costs, prevent the consideration of non-formal training
4. Recent attention to non-formal education for adults in developing countries typically has ignored its potential use for management training; the remedial focus of non-formal education activities in the Third World has overshadowed its utility for managerial development and renewal

Characteristics of Non-formal Training

Non-formal training can generally be described as a learning situation where a group of managers come together on the basis of common interest and unique learning needs. They meet to share ideas and techniques in hope of finding practical ways of dealing more easily with their managerial roles and solving particular work problems that others may also have experienced. This may take place in organized forms from highly structured associations or clubs to loosely structured networks or support groups. It may also take place on the periphery of organized meetings.

It is essentially self-directed learning through peers. It is mutual learning among a group of peers who share experiences and expertise, exchange practical ideas, and inform each other of emerging trends, issues, or theories. Tough's (1973) investigation into the extent of adult learning found that approximately 80 percent of the intentional learning that an individual experiences is *not* the result of teaching or training. Although this finding was initially greeted with skepticism, replications of his research in North America and in developing countries have yielded comparable results (PECA 1977). NFT is an approach at structuring and harnessing this self-directed learning to improve managerial skills.

Being based on a peer group, NFT seldom mixes disciplines or levels of management. Strachan (1976) notes that putting people together from a variety of disciplines generally produces very little in LDCs. A mix of hierachical authority also tends to inhibit open communication and limits the amount of peer learning. In a peer group, NFT typically stresses one or more of the following personal goals:

information exchange
emotional support
social affiliation

Many professional societies, groups, or clubs have a combination of these as their raison d'être. However, most tend to focus on one, with the other two having secondary importance.

Non-formal training focuses primarily, but not exclusively, on information exchange. Two particular thrusts are commonly pursued:

1. Gaining up-to-date information relevant to one's management responsibilities such as changes in national or provincial laws that may have an impact on an organization, or current financial assessments of the economy as it pertains to an organization's goals
2. Stimulating the cross-fertilization of ideas, insights, and techniques for solving immediate managerial dilemmas

It is a multiperson information communications system. This process of exchanging information is crucial for organizational leadership and management since *information is the basic working material for the manager,* just as wood is the basic material for the carpenter. The communications network often determines professional norms and standards, as well as providing trusted and useful work-related information.

Non-formal training is particularly appropriate at the senior, executive levels of management for three reasons. First, it is at the higher levels of management that current, up-to-date information is most crucial, for example—day-to-day fluctuations in the financial market relevant to a public enterprise. Second, executive managers seldom participate in formal training (Paul 1983), on-the-job training, or in action training; this leaves the NFT approach as their only avenue for acquiring new knowledge and for further developing their capacities. Third, senior-level managers learn best from those who have been in their shoes—other senior managers (Cooper 1982). However, non-formal training is also an appropriate approach for training junior- and middle-level managers. Formal management training is often too costly for most of these managers, and quite often participation in formal training is restricted to a select few (especially when it involves "third country" or "overseas" training). Such selection processes deny access to formal training for large numbers of middle- and lower-level managers, making non-formal training their primary resource for enhancing their knowledge.

Non-formal training usually takes the form of more organized professional associations (Ayman 1964), such as the All-India Management Association. NFT can also be found in learning networks (Korten 1981; Huczynski 1983) and regularly scheduled management support group activities (Miller 1984). Individuals responsible for the same type of management activities meet at regular intervals—weekly meetings, monthly luncheons, or annual professional conferences for example—to exchange information and knowledge. The content of the exchange most often focuses on internally generated insights and indigenous knowledge rather than externally introduced ideas and practices from outside experts.

Participation in non-formal training is purely voluntary, with personal motivation being the only factor governing one's involvement. Evaluation of the learning is direct and immediate; if the discussion is not relevant, or the materials or fellow managers not satisfactory, people will not remain.

Comparison with Other Training Approaches

Non-formal training is similar to formal training in that the individuals predominantly work in separate organizations and come together for a discrete activity (a monthly meeting, for example). It differs from FT in that there is no one authority/expert who guides the group, except for the specific guest speakers who may be brought in temporarily by the group to transmit specific blocks of information.

It is similar to action training and on-the-job training in that it emphasizes learning from organizational experience. The areas of dialogue are usually functionally specific or problem-oriented; the problems addressed are ones all may be experiencing back at their respective worksites. It includes substantive knowledge exchanges, group learning, and problem solving. It avoids the "trainer-trainee" authority relationship very prevalent in both formal training and OJT, preventing the establishment of authority dependence. It is different from action training since the members in the learning community are seldom from the same office, project, or department. Whereas AT stresses the immediate application of newly acquired skills, in NFT there is no formal authority (trainer or boss) pressing for behavioral change. It is similar to AT because individuals with shared interests meet to engage in joint learning; yet, NFT focuses exclusively on knowledge acquisition and information exchange, not skill building and knowledge application.

The more organized NFT forums, such as professional associations, follow an underlying learning process similar to action training. Non-formal training efforts, either explicitly or implicitly, generally follow six stages (see Figure 7.1).

The Significance of Non-formal Training

The significance of identifying non-formal training as an effective approach is that it forces the recognition that training is not necessarily equated with training institutes, formal courses, or expert trainers, and is thus more likely to attract senior-level, executive managers. Tremendous amounts of systematic and vital learning occur outside the formal frameworks of training courses, on-the-job learning, and action training. Unfortunately, planning and resource allocation decisions for management development in LDCs typically ignore non-formal training as a viable management training strategy.

Figure 7.1 Non-Formal Training Model

Climate Setting: Establishing general areas of shared interest and common ground.

Identifying Needs: Clarify shared and unique needs, legitimize all learning needs, establish norm of personal responsibility for learning.

Identifying Resource: Develop a norm that everyone can be a resource to everyone else. Identify material and human resources within and outside the group.

Planning Learning Activities: Identify and schedule activities which use internal and external resources to meet the needs identified earlier.

Conduct Learning Activities: Put the schedule into action.

Evaluating Learning: What new information have I/we heard? Have we satisfied our needs? What more should we do?

Source: adapted from Kur and Pedler (1982).

Senior Managers Seldom Participate in Formal Training

Although NFT is needed by all levels of management, it is particularly significant for senior-level, executive managers. In the same fashion that action training is a particularly appropriate approach for managers engaged in development projects, non-formal training is extremely relevant for the enhancement of managerial capacities at the highest levels of management. Senior officials in LDCs seldom attend formal training (Paul 1983) because:

1. Time constraints prohibit attendance at lengthy training courses.
2. The "superman complex" inhibits executive managers from seeking assistance through training (Miller 1984).
3. The "myth of competence" surrounds the role of the executive, detering senior managers from seeking formal training or participating in formal training; events can thus project an image that the manager may be incompetent (Wolf and Sherwood 1981).
4. There are actually few in-service training programs designed exclusively for executive managers; such formal training for top-level officials is a "rarity" (United Nations 1978).
5. Most managers, by the time they have assumed major responsibility, may have lost whatever interest in theory they might have had (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979).
6. The traditional forms of formal training, such as lectures, with hierarchical trainer-trainee authority relationship, are not appropriate for higher levels of management (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979).

This scarcity of appropriate learning activities aimed directly at the top levels of management is problematic. Interest has been shifting from middle-level to executive-level training in developing countries, especially in Latin America (Paul 1983); yet, the few formal courses that are offered for senior managers are seldom attended. The kind of management training found most suitable for senior officers is non-formal training, variously called "conferences," "roundtables," or "workshops," where the word "training" is avoided in the title of the meetings, and there is no open intention to train. Such NFT approaches are increasingly recommended for executive public managers. For example, a recent USAID-funded report to the Regional Training Council of the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC) recommends that:

> seminars be organized regionally and by sector. . . . Permanent secretaries of health in the nine countries might be assembled in one place for a weekend of mutual consultation and discussion that would enable them to compare notes on managerial problems in that sector in different situations. At the same time they could learn from each other as well as study innovations in basic management techniques in a carefully arranged setting at which recognized technical experts in those fields were invited to serve as resource persons. Similar seminars in transportation, agriculture, and education could be offered over a two- or three-year period until the need has been filled (NASPAA 1985, 24).

Broadly speaking, the intention is to bring together a number of higher-level managers having like interests and responsibilities, to give them an opportunity for knowledge acquisition by mutual exchange of information and experiences and free discussion of their common problems. Another excellent example is USAID's Asia Regional Committee on Community Management. This group of AID managers elects to participate in the committee in order to share ideas, assess programs, and learn from the experience of other AID missions.

Vital Learning Occurs Outside Formal Frameworks

Non-formal training is an important approach for enhancing managerial knowledge since it is in such informal settings that much learning occurs. Recent research on overseas training of Third World managers indicates that many consider non-classroom experiences as "the most important learning experiences" (Raffel and Lovell 1984).

The informal relationships a manager develops outside his agency enable him to increase considerably his understanding of his own organization and to establish contacts with those with whom he would normally have little or no contact. Peer learning may be the manager's best way to find a new way of looking at old problems. Maruyama, an anthropologist, examining the rather invisible networks of innovators, suggests that management innovators learn from each other by circulating their own informal newsletters and by participating in small, informal meetings within large, professional conferences. NFT stimulates and nurtures these non-formal learning activities.

Appropriate for Developing Countries

As noted earlier, senior managers learn more easily from peers and seldom attend formal training. With increased attention being given to training this level of managers in developing countries, NFT would seem particularly appropriate. A second driving force for increased utilization of the NFT approach is that it is typically less costly than formal training and action training. With the financial constraints tightly constricting many LDC economies, participation in formal training will likely be more selective. Third, for a variety of reasons, institutes of public administration and management training are often unable to respond quickly to the expanding and diverse kinds of demands placed on managers. Institutes may be providing courses for yesterday's managerial needs. Non-formal training activities, on the other hand, can respond more quickly to emerging problems and executive needs for new information.

The Rise of Non-formal Education in LDCs

In the last decade, the use of "non-formal education" (NFE) has greatly expanded throughout the Third World (Srinivasan 1977). Central and provincial governments in developing countries are taking more interest in non-formal education (Duke 1979), providing funding for non-formal educational activities from government tax revenues (Wilson 1976) and supplementing formal schooling to provide fundamental skills to meet the basic needs of rural residents. Non-formal education is designed "deliberately to develop skills that enhance life in the villages and barrios" (Ahmed 1975: v). During the 1970s, the World Bank significantly expanded its activities in non-formal education (World Bank 1971); NFE has also been utilized in America, primarily in the poorer regions such as Appalachia (Clark 1978).

Non-formal education consists of a variety of out-of-school learning activities and has emerged over the last decade as a difficult, yet effective, approach for providing remedial education to rural residents who have not had access to formal schooling, or whose formal education is inadequate. Two programmatic areas where it has been successful are family planning education and adult literacy programs. It is considered non-formal education because it occurs outside the formal, institutionalized education system, and its targeted clientele are those that have certain psychological attitudes that reduce the efficacy of further uses of formal types of schooling. These attitudes typically are a result of being deprived of schooling or having failed to complete it. As it developed, NFE carved out a particular educational philosophy or ideology. The philosophy generally emerges from two areas: critical analyses of formal education in the Third World developed by Ilich (1971), Freire (1970, 1973), and Ashton-Warner (1963); and, the learner-directed or student-centered learning theories of Rogers (1969) and Bruner (1962).

Coombs describes non-formal education strategy as any organized educational activity outside the established formal system—whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity—that is intended to serve some identifiable learning clientele and learning objectives (1973, 11).

Non-formal education has the same general characteristics as non-formal training and includes:

Learner-centered education has the emphasis on learning rather than on teaching: the learner participates in determining educational objectives and exerts substantial control over content and method.

Cafeteria curriculum (options, variety, and flexibility) is featured in place of the sequential, prescribed curriculum associated with formal training; curriculum is generated primarily by participant managers themselves.

Informal human relationships are essential: learners and educators are roles that ideally switch back and forth among participants; informal relations are based on mutual respect.

Reliance on local resources means that costs are kept low without sacrificing quality, that both conventional and unconventional sources are used, and that available resources are deployed efficiently.

Low level of structure is necessary: since a high level of structure means a high level of control, learner-centered approaches and informal human relationships are all difficult under tightly controlled situations (Etling 1977).

Non-formal education is not particularly new; in the last fifteen years, NFE programs have achieved remarkable success (Dodds 1978). *What is new is the realization that similar forms of learning activities can be designed for developing managerial skills in developing countries.* Although NFE is not precisely relevant, it provides the conceptual and practical framework, operational norms, and a sense of legitimacy for the non-formal training approach to enhance managerial skills in LDCs.

Non-formal training responds to the renewal needs of the manager. In NFT, the manager engages in self-renewal, gaining new knowledge and ideas that have been developed since the completion of the manager's formal education (e.g., new legislation or new budgeting techniques).

Non-formal Training Designs

NFT utilizes different methods and designs than does non-formal education. The methods are also somewhat different from those used in formal training, OJT, and action training. Some of the more common NFT designs are summarized below.

The Study Circle

The study circle is a popular form of informal adult education in the Scandinavian countries and has recently been experimented with in Canada, Great Britain, South America, and Australia. As a form of small group study, individuals join together to explore, study, and analyze practically anything of common interest. It typically includes five to twenty people and has a peer facilitator whose primary role is to stimulate and facilitate discussion and not be an expert trainer or consultant. Participation in study circles is purely voluntary; there are no learning outcomes to be achieved, no grades or examinations. The aim of a study circle is defined as "greater understanding" or insight into a specific area. In a dialogue with other people, individuals are constantly appraising their knowledge, comparing notes, and helping each other to achieve new insights and find new knowledge (Brevskolan 1977).

Unlike informal discussions, "the knowledge and experience which the participants bring to the circle are not enough. New information also has to be supplied in order for progress to result. The participants acquire this information by ascertaining facts, reading study material, going on field trips, consulting outside specialists, and so on" (Kurland 1982, 25-26).

A key variable in the success of a study circle is the role played by the facilitator or leader. The major function of the leader is to facilitate discussion and suggest study materials; the leader must also be a fellow learner who attempts to maintain an atmosphere of open, committed investigation (Kurland 1982).

Sweden and Denmark may be the most progressive in supporting study circles, with the government providing funding for circles which meet the following conditions:

meeting for at least twenty sessions of at least forty-five minutes each having at least five but not more than twenty participants, including the leader, at each session
working on a basic study plan acknowledged by the study organization
having a leader approved by the organization
keeping a list of attendees at each session
pursuing studies methodically within a subject or domain of subjects (Kurland 1982, 25)

Managerial Support Group

The managerial support group meets to provide both emotional and intellectual support to executive managers. Among the problems it may address are those of female managers, for example, who may feel especially "alone" at their particular level in the organization. Support groups can be organized in many different ways; one design particularly helpful for a group of twelve U.S. city managers had the following characteristics:

1. Two-day retreats were scheduled periodically with an expert resource attending to facilitate discussion and insights into particular areas such as personal development and stress management.
2. Monthly meetings were scheduled and rotated among the homes of the support group members.
3. A simple lunch was served at the beginning of each meeting.
4. Any discussions regarding city management problems and issues ("shoptalk") was limited to the lunch hour.
5. There was an individual (in this case a psychologist) who attended the meetings and acted as a resource and facilitator.
6. Only discussions of a personal nature were allowed after lunch—a rather tough rule to follow, they found.
7. Discussions were strictly confidential (Miller 1984).

Although this example emerges from the U.S. cultural context and may not be appropriate in some Third World countries, it provides a tangible model that could be modified for public managers in developing countries. Besides various cultural hindrances to developing manager support groups, other potential barriers include resistance to personal relationships based on trust, a tendency to intellectualize and depersonalize issues, and managerial mobility (Miller 1984).

Professional Societies and Management Associations

Extended professional networks and associations are generally found in all professional fields. Although they seldom play a central role in Third World countries, they are particularly useful to managers who work alone or in small groups in widely scattered locales. Members of management associations are offered a variety of continuing education and training programs and frequently develop informal learning networks. There is considerable research on "invisible colleges"-social professional networks found in various international scientific communities (Lin 1973; Shapero 1985). Scientists in invisible colleges maintain information networks through correspondence, visits, small invitational meetings, and information discussions at larger, more formal conferences.

An excellent example of such a professional learning community in public management is the International Committee on Management of Population Programs (ICOMP), which is composed entirely of the top managers of major population programs and major management institutes. Its main purpose is to improve program management by providing an "exchange of experience and expertise between countries" (Korten 1977, 14). It assists population programs by facilitating and stimulating research, training, and consulting activities. Another example is the All-India Management Association.

The following is a brief description of methods more commonly used by professional associations. It is important to emphasize, however, that much of the learning also occurs "around" these organized activities, during lunch or after hours.

Outside Speakers. Outside or guest speakers are a common part of many non-formal training activities. The members of a professional association that has been discussing certain problems may invite an academic, consultant, or some other "outsider" to make a contribution that can provide a theory, model, or framework that can help clarify, put in context, or explain the issues that the managers have been talking about (Huczynski 1983).

Interrogation of Experts. High-level policy makers or scientific experts are invited to discuss a particular issue or policy in which the managers have much interest and/or disagreement. The experts give no formal presentation; rather, a dialogue is generated in which all sides of an issue are discussed. Specific questions may be given to the expert prior to the session in order for the person to prepare specific responses. Much attention to facilitation, climate setting, listening, leveling, and feedback are required here.

Intervisitation. Here, members of a professional association or club arrange visits to one another's organizations to see exemplary types of work. For example, a group may address the question of running effective meetings and study the steps and procedures necessary for managing meetings. A member may then invite some of his peers to attend the next meeting he runs, and then his peers offer him feedback on his performance. Planning for intervisitation needs to take into account the probable effects of visitors or observers at a meeting or similar event. The method appears most useful when the person visited has clearly expressed his desire and when the purposes and procedures of the visit are clarified by all concerned (Huczynski 1983).

Lesson-Demonstration Method (Tell-and-Show Method). The lesson-demonstration is a traditional method, and variations of it are found in industrial training departments. As a technique it is less autocratic than a lecture but less permissive than a discussion. It typically has three phases: a brief lecture, a demonstration, then a question-and-answer period.

The demonstration is a planned presentation that shows others how to perform an act, skill, or procedure. Usually it is accompanied by an appropriate visual presentation, question period, and then participant involvement. Its advantages are that it is easier to visualize steps than to have them presented orally or in writing. It gives the learner an opportunity to test his learning under guidance and to build his confidence in performing under these circumstances. It also assists in relating the various steps in a particular process (Huczynski 1983, 177).

Panel Discussion. A panel discussion is a small group, of between four and six persons, that sits at a table in the presence of an audience and discusses a topic of which the panel members have a special knowledge. The number of panel members allows a topic to be discussed more thoroughly. A skilled panel leader can extract points from the panel and develop an informal atmosphere, which can add to audience knowledge and appreciation. A danger is that a vocal panel member can dominate discussion; success thus depends on the panel members' discussion skills. There is little audience participation; most communication goes one way from stage to audience. The advantage in this method is that it is possible to assemble a group of experts for a single meeting; however, the value is reduced if the panel lacks qualified members, has a poor moderator who cannot control the discussion, or where the audience fails to understand or respond to the experts on the panel. The panel technique is often employed to help clarify or identify problems or issues or to present several different points of view on a given topic (Huczynski 1983, 203).

Conference Meeting. A conference is a meeting of people in large or small groups. The conference may be of the high-powered type where members work well into the night, or it may be a less intensive type of social gathering. Most conferences have a designation in their titles (e.g., "Personnel Management in the 1980s"). The number attending the conference tends to determine the techniques that are used. It is usual for a chairman to set the scene, and a keynote speaker may be asked to address the participants, raising some general issues. Conferences can be divided into two types: the educational conference and the working conference. Educational conferences tend to embrace a large, or sometimes extremely large, number of people and have a theme designed to promote an idea. Working conferences are usually technical in nature and have a limited number of participants. Papers are distributed in advance, and the conference format involves participants actively working in small groups (Huczynski 1983, 73).

The United Nations considers conferences to be one of the most useful senior management training tools (Mailick 1974). Its utility is limited, though, in that while it ". . . is useful for analyzing problems, programs, procedures, and practices, it is inadequate for developing new attitudes, leadership, or supervisory skills, or ability to adjust to rapid social and economic changes. . . . Many foreign experts visiting the developing countries still favor this method for training of senior administrators, possibly because this is the only way to begin the process of involvement of senior administrators in training programs" (Mailick 1974, 377).

Conditions for Effective Use of Non-formal Training

Reviewing these variations in non-formal training, three conditions appear to greatly enhance their effectiveness:

1. The participants/members need to be rather homogenous interest groups, from similar managerial levels or rank.
2. The primary input should be from the group itself rather than predominantly from outside experts.
3. The learning content and focus must be selected by the group, not by members' "bosses" or any significant others.

Summary

The non-formal training approach has high potential for improving managerial talent in LDCs. Most developing countries have mixed economies, increasing the potential for sharing management experiences between public and private sectors. These approaches may also be very effective for executive managers who typically object to being "trained" and who seldom attend formal training programs. Their learning occurs in the form of discussions with peers, involving an exchange of experience and expertise, and in discussions with respected "authorities" in specific fields.

The non-formal training approach increasingly is being utilized globally. In Scandinavia, there exist thousands of government-sponsored "study circles" that provide non-formal learning opportunities. In several Asian countries, "business clinics" provide for such peer learning. Management associations and professional networks, another method of non-formal training, have been established in some developing countries. Professional support groups have mushroomed in the United States, providing a variety and multiplicity of peer learning.

The importance of identifying the non-formal training approach is that it forces an awareness that managerial training in developing countries is not synonymous with formal training or on-the-job training, and that a large amount of vital learning actually occurs outside of the more formal and planned training efforts. It also points out that planning and resource allocation for management training in developing countries must now consider this a viable approach to enhancing a country's managerial cadre.

Part 3

Assessment of Training for Enhancing Managerial Talent

8

Insights from Theories of Adult Learning

There are four general training approaches available for enhancing indigenous managerial talent in developing countries: formal training (FT), on-the-job training (OJT), action training (AT), nonformal training (NFT).

In Part 2, each approach was described, including brief summaries of the more common methods used within each. Part 3 will provide a more comparative examination of the approaches, refining our analysis by pointing out the inherent strengths and weaknesses in each.

The Question Restated

One could easily believe that the question "Which management training approach is most effective: should be answered simply with the help of empirical research studies. Unfortunately, an examination of the literature provides very limited evidence. Findings based on what few empirical studies have been done raise doubts as to the direct impact of any training on improving managerial performance in developing countries (Kakar 1979), and indicate that there are many variables other than training that also influence managerial learning. The quality of managerial training may also be a key variable.

More important, it must be emphasized that *there is no one best training approach*. In developing countries, *all four approaches are needed* to develop the managerial resources necessary for economic and social development. The more training approaches that are potentially accessible to developing countries, the more effective the country's training efforts will be. Therefore, the more relevant question is: Given their advantages and disadvantages, what are the best uses for each approach?

There have been no previous assessments comparing the relative strengths and weaknesses of these four approaches. Much has been written comparing the effectiveness of certain methods used within the formal training approach (Carroll et al. 1972; Watson 1979; Olmstead and Galloway 1980; Newstrom 1980; and Neider 1981). Some analysis has occurred comparing formal training with on-the-job training; see, for example, Bass and Vaughn (1966), Kondrasuk (1979, 1980), Rackham (1979), and Kainen et al. (1983). Yet nothing has emerged comparing and contrasting the advantages and disadvantages of all four approaches. This is not surprising since two of the four approaches—action training and non-formal training—have only recently been recognized as potential approaches to improving managerial talent. Yet it is not this lack of recognition that has impeded evaluation efforts; rather, it is the inherent methodological problems that inhibit effective evaluation attempts.

Difficulties in Evaluating Training Approaches

Management training approaches aim at changing managerial behavior in certain directions; these changes are intended to improve the manager's individual performance and the performance of the administrative system, eventually leading to greater success in achieving a country's goals. In order to evaluate accurately each approach's strengths and weaknesses in influencing the development process, it is necessary to determine the extent of behavioral changes that are actually facilitated by each approach and to what extent these changes, in turn, improve the performance of a project, program, or organization. This impact is extremely difficult to ascertain. Closer scrutiny of the available research on training indicates several difficulties in assessing and comparing the effectiveness of the four training approaches:

1. The ambiguous causal relationships between training, learning, and organizational improvement make it inherently difficult to conduct empirical analyses (Meigniez 1961; Siffin 1976).

2. The majority of evaluations focus exclusively on formal training, only one of the four available training approaches; the investigations of formal training are seldom comprehensive (Paul 1983), and there exists no empirical investigation into the action training and non-formal training approaches.
3. The evaluations that are conducted are seldom methodologically rigorous, with weak research designs, inadequate statistical tests, and poorly controlled confounding variables (Stone 1982).
4. The wide variety of training designs and methods available within each training approach allow for a wide variety of potential impacts relating more to differences in training design than differences in approach.
5. Various definitions of "effectiveness" and different levels of analysis are utilized by those conducting evaluations or research; for example, donor agencies, scholarly assessments, LDC governments, and institutes each has its own unique conception of "effectiveness." This creates problems in comparing studies that have different criterion measures (Whelden 1982 and Paul 1983).

As a result of these, we empirically know very little regarding the deliberate shaping of effective managerial behavior through training. Insights that do emerge are dominated by anecdotal accounts and are easily overgeneralized (Stone 1982).

Problems of Levels of Analysis

The most important concern in evaluating management training is the impact of each training strategy on organizational performance. Yet, evaluations seldom go beyond the end-of-course surveys, which typically occur at the completion of a particular *formal* training program. To clearly identify levels of analysis relevant for accurate assessments of training approaches, a four-point framework can be utilized. This framework, initially developed by Kirkpatrick (1960), identifies four realms of measurement.

Reaction Criteria. This is the most frequent level of analysis and collects data on participants' reactions and responses to a discrete, time-bound training program. The reactions are obtained usually through end-of-course reaction forms and generally measure the trainer's performance, the difficulty and relevance of the training content, and the general dynamics of the training session.

It must be emphasized that even at this very superficial level of analysis, positive reactions can be very misleading. House and Tosi (1963) and Carroll and Nash (1970) point out the inadequacies of the reaction criteria. They warn that positive reactions to management training are more influenced by such nontraining personal and situational variables as the participant's satisfaction with his/her own organization, the participant's perception of the degree of authority, power, and autonomy he/she holds, the length of time on the job and in the particular organization, and the level of support for the management training activity by one's higher management. Reaction evaluations are simply too misleading to provide accurate data evaluating training approaches.

Learning Criteria. These are measures of content-related learning, such as knowledge acquired, or facts, skills, and attitudes learned as a result of the training.

This level typically utilizes pen-and-pencil types of measures, such as pretests with posttests, and aims at measuring the specific gains resulting from the learning experience. Standardized tests, tailor-made information recall instruments, or problem-solving exercises can be used for this level of evaluation.

These first two levels of evaluation—reaction criteria and learning criteria—are "internal criteria" since they focus exclusively on the content and process of the training and the internal training environment. The next two levels can be considered "external criteria" because they are more directly linked to job performance and organizational improvements, the ultimate goals of the four training approaches. They focus on the *work environment.*

Behavioral Criteria. These measure the extent to which the newly acquired knowledge, skills, or attitudes influenced on-the-job performance. The crucial variable here is the amount of *transfer of learning* that occurs to the unique job context of the individual.

Data on this level can be collected from observers' reports about actual changes in behavior after the training compared with behavior before training. This level of analysis requires such instruments as observation scales by supervisors and peers, self-rating scales, follow-up questionnaires, and posttraining interviews. Behavioral evaluations following the training can encourage participants to apply the training to their work.

Results Criteria. These focus on the degree to which the training experienced by a manager impacts, influences, or contributes to the productivity and effectiveness of the individual's group or organization.

This level of analysis attempts to measure the organizational outcomes occurring from modified behavior as a result of the training experience. The results or outcomes are the ideal criterion for evaluating training. Unfortunately, this level of analysis is also the most difficult in that the direct causal relationship of the training to outcome must be identified; such simple correlations are difficult to identify due to the complexity and multiplicity of variables potentially influencing learning and behavioral change.

Visually, the four levels of analysis can be represented graphically as shown in Figure 8.1.

Given these four levels of analysis, it is easy to see that the deeper the evaluation, the more difficult to evaluate. It is no wonder that training approaches have not been evaluated at the "results" level. Such an evaluation requires a long-term effort, with multiple results criteria, and a rather large sample. There have been so few comprehensive evaluations of the training approaches that one is forced to deduce and infer from existing theory.

To provide an initial analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of the four training approaches, a nonempirical approach will be taken in this chapter, assessing the approaches in relation to contemporary learning theory and behavioral change theory. In the next chapter, the training approaches will be discussed in relation to the particular training objectives inherent in each. These analyses will build a foundation for Chapter 10, where combinations of training approaches and training strategies are suggested that can further enhance managerial capacities in LDCs.

Figure 8.1 Four Levels of Evaluation

Training Activity	Trained Persons	The Job or Organization	Results in Job and Organizational Performance
Reaction Criteria: Did the trainees enjoy the training?	Learning Criteria: What did the trainees learn?	Behavioral Criteria: Did trainees' behavior change on the job?	Results Criteria: Did the organization or project improve in performance?

Insights from Adult Learning Theories

What insights can adult learning theories provide for assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the four training approaches? More important, what learning principles can educational research in LDCs provide? Although the quality of indigenous Third World scholarship is improving dramatically, most learning theories still derive from those initially formulated in industrial countries. These insights may thus be culturally biased; however, they do provide a framework valuable in guiding indigenous Third World research in adult learning theory.

The most popular educational theory in America today is Knowles' "andragogy." Although Knowles highlights the very important differences between teaching adults and teaching children, it is more a theory of teaching than a theory of learning (Cross 1981). For this analysis, the most important distinction to be made is not between children and adults as learners, but the *contrasting of "training" with "learning."* This distinction is especially important given the expanded conceptualization of training required for improving management-training efforts in developing countries. Learning is defined here as a relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of practice, experience, or reflection (Bass and Vaughn 1966).

Common Schools of Adult Learning

All training approaches, designs, and methods derive from a mixture of learning assumptions and theories. There is no one learning theory appropriate to all ages and all levels of analysis. Yet, most learning theories can be grouped around three broad types:

1. Learning through external conditioning
2. Learning through cognitive problem solving
3. Learning by experience

Each group of theories offers unique and relevant insights into effective management training.

External Conditioning

External conditioning has a long tradition in public administration training (McGill 1973). Thorndike's "law of effect" may be the most concise summary of this type of learning: behavior that is rewarded tends to be repeated. Learners acquire new behaviors when they receive some form of reward for doing so, and the rewards are more effective if they immediately follow the desired behaviors.

This group of theories is variously called the "behaviorist approach" (Elias and Merriam 1980) or "behavioral perspective" (Stone 1982), and it has grown much beyond earlier insights from classical conditioning theories. There has been a diverse and widespread influence of this group of theories on training; it has greatly influenced the developments of "competency-based training," "behavioral objectives," and "trainer accountability." More important, it has served to highlight that learning through reinforcement is an efficient and effective means for internalizing new behaviors and skills. This group of theories in adult learning indicates that training that focuses on skill-building objectives has more impact if it follows specific principles of reinforcement:

- In the early stages of learning, reinforcing every desired response; once learning is proceeding as expected, switching to an intermittent reinforcement schedule
- Reinforcing each response immediately
- Establishing convenient secondary reinforcers
- Extinguishing (decreasing or eliminating) undesired responses by withholding reinforcement
- Should the learner fail, the trainer sharing the responsibility (Dubin and Okun 1973, 12)

A more recent form of the external conditioning group of theories being utilized in training is "social learning theory" (SLT), which provides the theoretical basis for the behavioral modeling method used in custom-tailored formal training. SLT assumes the more classical principle of reinforcement that an individual learns new behaviors on the basis of expected outcomes (reinforcement). Yet, it is somewhat different and more complex than traditional behaviorist theories in that SLT argues that individuals choose to respond to particular external reinforcers and that this choice is based on one's expectations of outcomes and the intrinsic values one places on the outcomes. In SLT, outcomes (reinforcers) are divided into three groups:

1. The intrinsic satisfaction one gains from engaging in a particular behavior
2. The intrinsic satisfaction one gains from successful completion of goals

3. The satisfaction one gains from the extrinsic rewards for engaging in behavior of accomplishing goals (Stone 1982, 31-32)

Cognitive Problem Solving

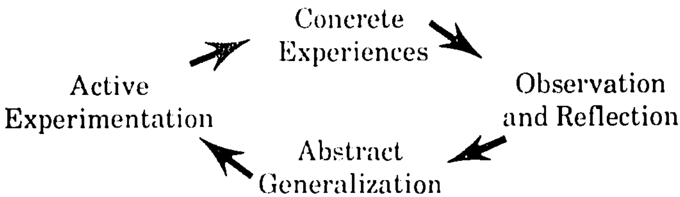
This general approach to learning emphasizes that adult learning occurs from problem solving. Educational and psychological research in the United States supports the notion that *most adults engage in learning activities in the hope of solving a problem, rather than with the intention of learning a particular subject* (Cross 1981). This pragmatic, problem-centered orientation in adult learning is evident in various empirical analyses. Tough (1971, 62) concludes that "most adult learning begins with a problem or responsibility, or at least a question or puzzle," not because of some desire to study a particular topic or subject area.

Knowles (1978) argues that this problem-solving approach can be facilitated in groups. It assumes that cognitive learning occurs when inquiry is prompted by a learner's own motivations or goals; the learner sets goals and joins with others in an interdependent form of collaborative problem solving. The learner is motivated by a goal of solving some problem, free from the influence of external rewards and punishments (Bruner 1962). Insights from this group of theories indicate that:

1. Adults learn by solving realistic problems; therefore, training needs to be problem-centered not subject-centered.
2. Knowledge and skills perceived by the learner as relevant to his/her goals and/or identified problems are experienced as more useful and thus retained longer than training in areas not immediately applicable to real life situations.
3. Training that allows for collaborative, problem-focused learning will stimulate an individual's motivation to learn.
4. Goals for achievement need to be set, most likely collaboratively.
5. Adults learn only when there is a felt need (goal or problem) to learn.

Experiential Learning

Learning from experience involves a cycle of experience and reflection, and a continuous interplay between the learner and what is being learned. Learning, according to this approach, relies less on external reinforcement or problem-centered specifics and more on the learner's capacity to experience and reflect (Torbert 1973). It assumes that learning can occur anywhere, that "learning" and "doing" are interdependent and, that as one increases his/her capacity to learn from experience, the less dependent one becomes on external conditioning or crisis-oriented problems. This group of learning theories assumes a "learning cycle" similar to that initially developed by Kolb et al. (1971).



Donaldson (1973), one of the preeminent American city managers, emphasizes the importance of this approach in learning top-level managerial skills such as external, political relations. He argues that:

> Politics is like love making in that you have to do it to improve. No amount of study of the Kama Sutra will be of much value to your love life unless you have someone to practice with. The same thing is true of the political process. The handbooks . . . really won't help you unless you can put the theory into practice (1973, 507).

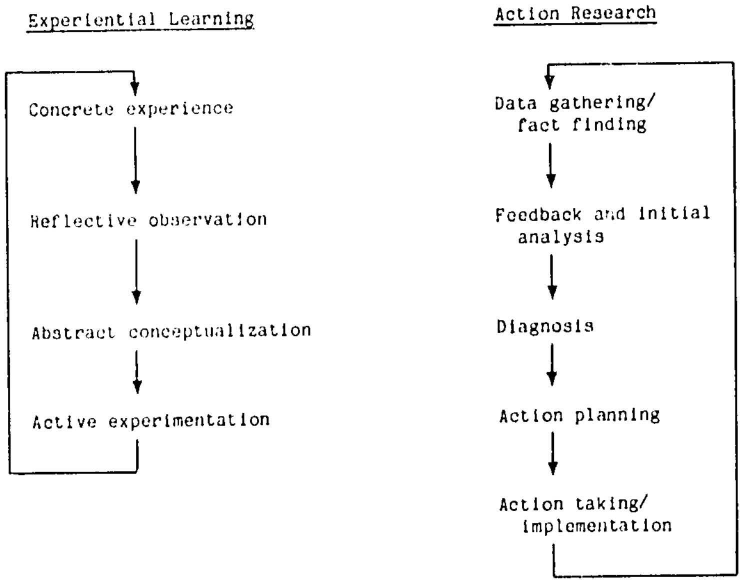
In other words, a manager learns what is effective in the process of attempting to act effectively, attending to his or her own experience, and then reflecting on it.

The experiential learning cycle is quite similar to the action research model and, as such, overlaps with the cognitive problem-solving theories of learning that are implicitly based on the scientific model (see Figure 8.2).

Implications from this group of theories emphasize that *adults learn by doing and then reflecting*, and that:

time must be provided to reflect on experience
learners must be actively involved and "experiencing"
experience affects adult learning in that people relate new learning to what they already know

Figure 8.2 Similarities Between Experiential Learning and Action Research



Learning Styles: The More Recent Group of Learning Theories

Much has been written and discussed regarding the three common groupings of theories. Much less has been written on a fourth major group of theories emerging in the literature: the importance of *taking into account the various learning styles* of adult students (Smith 1983). Whether done formally through diagnostic instruments or informally by paying attention to specific cues, adult learning is more efficacious when trainers and managers pay attention to the preferred ways that individuals process information and their preferred learning environments.

There are a variety of theories of learning styles, each built on unique sets of research and conceptual bases. The literature on learning styles is quite varied. McBer and Associates (1980) utilize Kolb's theory of learning cycles to suggest that individuals learn in one of the following styles: feeling, thinking, watching, doing. Witkin et al. (1977) and Even (1982) argue that learners have one of two predominant cognitive styles: field-dependent and field-independent. Pask (1976) suggests that individuals are either operational learners or comprehension learners. Other learning style inventories are plentiful and most are rather complicated. The most simple framework, and the one with most potential applicability to developing countries, emphasizes the degree to which one learns by seeing, hearing, or doing. This approach is consistent with various anecdotal references by trainers who say that people retain 25 percent of what they hear, 45 percent of what they see and hear and 70 percent of what they see, hear, and do (Donahue and Donahue 1982). Although this approach can be oversimplified drastically, it does provide a solid groundwork from which learning styles in developing countries initially can be identified. A review of the American literature on this approach to learning styles will help provide insights into the importance of learning styles in LDCs.

Educational Psychology

Educational psychology (for example, Barbe and Swassing 1979) informs us that children have different learning modalities. Children learn from many senses: the five senses of hearing, seeing, tasting, smelling, and touching, as well as temperature, balance, and motion. However, there are three senses that are almost exclusively utilized:

1. *Visual:* including both sight and inward visualization
2. *Auditory:* hearing, speaking, and discussing
3. *Kinesthetic:* sensing muscle movements and positions in space and touching with fingers

Everyone utilizes all three modalities for learning, but each individual has a learning strength or dominant modality. Where this preferred learning modality originates is not totally clear according to educational psychologists; but it is certain that modalities change over time and, that at any given time in one's life, most individuals have a predominant, subconsciously preferred learning style. Milone notes that:

> The change reflects both developmental characteristics of children and the environment in which they are reared. Primary-grade children are more auditory than visual, with kinesthesia the least well-developed modality. Between kindergarten and sixth grade, however, a shift occurs: vision becomes the dominant modality, and kinesthesia supersedes audition. Sometime between the late elementary grades and adulthood, there is yet another shift. Vision remains the dominant modality, but audition becomes more important than kinesthesia (1981, 3).

Modality strengths appear to be independent of sex, handedness, and race. Some general trends in grammar school children indicate that about 30 percent of American children are visual, 25 percent are auditory, 15 percent are kinesthetic, and 30 percent are mixed with two predominant modalities such as visual-auditory or visual-kinesthetic (Milone 1981).

Unfortunately, trainers and managers often use their own particular learning modality when transmitting information. Training participants who share the trainers modality, for example, are the ones who learn best in that particular training session. Milone thus argues that:

> As a teacher, it is important to remember that what would work best for you might not work best for your students. It is important to know yourself, to know your class, and to know who in the class is different and will need special understanding. This is where an awareness of modalities and a stock of techniques for the various strengths will prove invaluable (1981, 4).

Neurolinguistic Programming

Neurolinguistic programming (NLP) is a relatively new theory in interpersonal communications. Beginning in the early 1970s, Bandler and Grinder (1975, 1979) began exploring and observing extremely successful American clinical therapists, individuals such as Fritz Perls, Virginia Satir and Milton Erickson, who seemed to perform some very successful sort of "magic" on their clients. Distilling from personal observation of these "magicians" and careful review of videotape recordings from the therapists' sessions, they formulated what they call a "metamodel" for therapy and change based on a rather explicit theory of communication. We will not attempt to summarize NLP's rich insights or discuss its application to organizational change and development. Rather, we will highlight a smaller portion of its communication theory that is particularly relevant to learning styles and management training.

Learning theories are inextricably tied to communications theories, and the basic construct of the communication theory inherent in NLP is the concept of the "representational system." Although individuals are *always* taking in sensory data at *all* times from the five basic senses, only three are typically *utilized* to retain data and to access it: visual, auditory, and kinesthetic (both visceral touch and affective emotions). The other two senses—taste and smell—play a much smaller role in the retention and representation of sensory input.

The predominant or preferred mode of representing reality is one's primary "representational system." For example, a person with a visual representational system (a predominantly visual way of representing reality) tends to retain sensory input visually, has easier access to visual memory, and discusses his social reality in predominantly visual terms. Language cues that indicate that someone is working from a visual representational system are phrases like: "I *see* what you mean," or "It *looks* clear to me." An individual with an auditory representational system typically retains information best verbally and often represents reality with auditory language cues such as "I *hear* what you mean," "It *sounds* fine to me," or "We seem *in tune* with each other." Similarly, a person with a kinesthetic representational system more easily remembers the "feel" of things and typically uses such phrases as: "I have a *handle* on that," "It *feels* OK to me," or "We seem to *resonate* together on this issue."

Individuals represent the world to themselves and to others either auditorily, visually, or kinesthetically. Effective communication occurs when people communicate in the same representational system. Conflict occurs on one level or another when that rapport doesn't exist; they are, in essence, speaking different languages.

This rapport or its lack usually occur subconsciously. Effective communicators, whether educators, trainers, or managers, are therefore those who are skilled in consciously identifying the representational system of another, and then changing one's communication style to match the other's representational system.

Implications of Learning Styles Research

First, it is important to note that *everyone learns in different ways* and that *effective training requires using a variety of visual, auditory, and kinesthetic training methods.* Effective trainers must, therefore, expand their repertoire of skills and tools. Training designs and methods should reflect the predominant learning styles of the training participants. This becomes problematic since most training designs seldom take the various learning styles into consideration.

Second, there are empirical data indicating that *learning styles are culturally specific and culturally biased.* Boothe (1983) found, for example, that black South Africans predominantly learn auditorily, that is by hearing. That means that verbal input should be maximized and visual input (films, slides, video tapes) minimized. Likewise, reading and writing assignments will have a very restricted influence on learning. Many of the Arab cultures tend to be very auditory and learn best by hearing and then practicing (Martin 1984). Arabic management trainees may often consider themselves "nonreaders" and learn considerably faster when they are allowed to talk things out. Some Middle Eastern cultures also appear to be very kinesthetic; participants in management training workshops typically enjoy role playing and simulation exercises that involve movement (Martin 1984; Arneberg 1984). Videotaped role playing, on the other hand, may cause problems in some Moslem countries due to religious feelings people have about having a camera pointed at them (Richards 1984).

Each country, and possibly regions within a country, have inherent learning style biases. Biases toward auditory learning styles can be identified. Boothe, for example, collected data regarding four South African groups (Zulus, Xhosas, Sothos, and Tswanas) in a variety of ways: direct contact and observation, visits to primary schools and universities, and analyses of modes of entertainment, tribal influences, and language capabilities. In his research he found that the failure of most training workshops could be attributed not to deficiencies in content, but to inappropriate training delivery, especially in a manner incongruent with the participants' strong auditory learning biases. One example of the causes of auditory predominance is the fact that in the rural areas there is no electricity; thus, entertainment comes almost solely from battery operated radios. Similarly, there is considerable anecdotal data that indicates kinesthetic and auditory methods are highly effective in Middle Eastern and Asian countries (Arneberg 1984). The heavy reliance on the more passive, auditory learning styles is also evident in certain parts of Southeast Asia:

> Student participation was discouraged in Vietnamese schools by liberal doses of corporal punishment, and students were conditioned to sit rigidly and speak out only when spoken to. This background . . . makes speaking freely in class hard for a Vietnamese student. Therefore, don't mistake shyness for apathy.[1]

The third implication is that *learning styles in management training need further investigation*. Different cultural contexts have an impact on individual learning styles to such a degree that one will likely find specific styles indigenous to certain geographical regions.

Behavioral Change Theories

Another source of insights relevant to management training is the recent inquiry on creating, facilitating, and stimulating change. This is an appropriate source for insights into management training for two reasons:

- learning involves change: something is added or "taken away"
- the ultimate goal of management training is behavioral change

Research indicates that a manager's behavior can be changed (Dyer 1983), although there has been considerable debate on the subject, e.g., Fiedler (1967). Lewin's (1951) classic formulation indicates that behavior (B) is a function of one's internal personality characteristics (P) and the environment or life-space (E). Thus B = (f)P,E. Relating this formula to developing countries (Matheson 1978) identifies the various personal and environmental variables influencing on-the-job behavior (see Figure 8.3).

Hersey and Blanchard (1980) argue that behavior can be changed, but that it is difficult and can often take much time. Gaining new knowledge takes the least amount of time, changing attitudes takes somewhat longer, changing individual behavior considerably longer, and modifying group behavior consumes the longest amount of time and is the most difficult (see Figure 8.4).

Individual and group change was facilitated and learning enhanced, Dalton (1970) found, when six conditions were present:

Figure 8.3 On-the-Job Behavior Influences

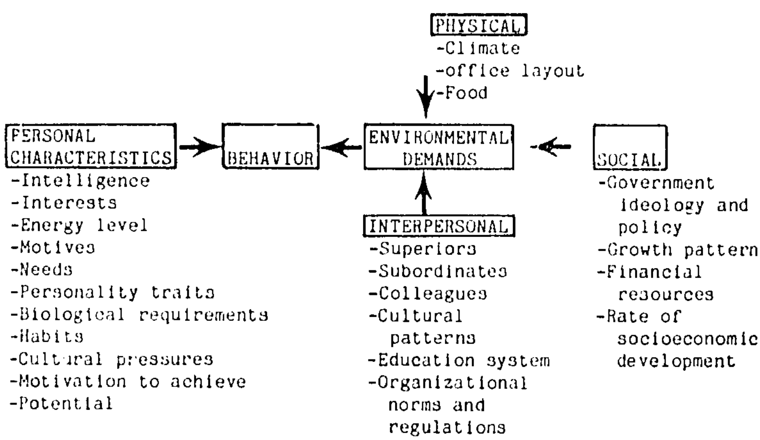
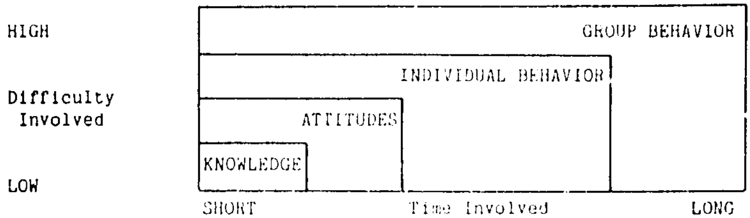


Figure 8.4 Changing Behavior



1. There was a strong felt need, tension, or "hurt" that moved the individual or group to want to change.
2. The person assisting in the change was highly esteemed by the persons changing.
3. The change effort moved from general proposals to specific plans and workable subgoals.
4. The change plan increased the self-esteem of people changing.
5. The change plan resulted in new social ties or reformulation of old ties around new behaviors and attitudes.
6. The people changing shifted from external motives for changing to an internal understanding and commitment.

Implications of Theories of Adult Learning and Behavioral Change

These recent insights indicate that the existence of certain conditions can tremendously enhance the effectiveness of the four training approaches in influencing managerial behavior. Following Dalton's findings, Dyer (1983), for example, identified six prerequisites for ensuring high quality learning in the formal training approach (see Figure 8.5). His analysis demonstrates the advantage that custom-tailored training has over the other two formal training designs—packaged and distance training. Several other specific propositions emerge:

- The best training situation involves the learner in the use of several sensory modes or representational systems, i.e., provides observation, discussion, and practice.
- Training that provides practice, feedback, and reinforcement is more effective in skill building than training that does not provide these opportunities.

Figure 8.5 Changes and Training Designs

Change conditions	Training design issues
1. People change when there is a felt need	1. Managers should go to programs in areas where they feel a need to improve--not because they are sent or it is "their turn"
2. People change when supported by a respected other	2. Training should include a linkage with a respected other--preferably one's superior. This person should understand and support the training goals
3. People change when their change plan moves from general goals to specific plans and actions	3. Training designers need to include a process where managers can spell out a specific plan or action for improving their managerial performance
4. People change as they move from a condition of lower to higher self-esteem	4. Too often training designs do not help managers see that the training will increase their feelings about themselves. In the past, some good theory X managers felt threatened by the prospect of changing to theory Y
5. People change as they shift from old social ties to new or revised social ties	5. Too often, training is not connected to the back-home setting. This results in a dramatic loss of learning when managers return from a training program. Training designs should link training into the back-home situation
6. People change as they move from external to internal commitment to change	6. Training designs should include opportunities for people to explore this commitment to change, to conduct dialogue with others, and to develop their own insights and understanding

- Feedback enters the human system through one of three sensory modes; thus, individual learners are more receptive to feedback provided to them in their representational system/ learning modality, e.g., hearing feedback for "auditories" and seeing feedback for "visuals."
- Training is more effective in changing behavior if it is related to one's actual work situation, a "felt" problem, or in some other way is experienced as important or relevant to him or her.
- Managers will learn more when they themselves feel a need to improve or change than if they are "told" to learn something or "told" to change because "my boss wants me to."
- Training will be more effective if the individual translates the learning into concrete plans and actions that can be implemented on the job.

Summary

This brief review of the literature on behavioral change and adult learning indicates several propositions regarding management training in developing countries. First, the importance of cognitive problem solving as the focus of adult learning highlights the need for addressing "real life" problems in training. This becomes particularly important for the design of formal, in-service training programs: the closer the training can be related to the individual's actual job situation, the more impact the management training will have on on-the-job performance.

This underscores the importance of attending to a thorough and accurate needs assessment as a prerequisite to effective training, regardless of the particular strategy—formal, on-the-job, action, or non-formal. In addition, it can be argued that the higher levels of management will likely demand training with more immediate payoffs.

Second, training is only one of the many complex and interwoven variables that influence individual learning and behavior. Thus, formal training can often be only marginally effective in modifying or changing managerial behavior. However, theory and research indicate that training can be very effective when practice, reinforcement, feedback, and reflection are integrated sensitively into the training design and when the new skills and behavior are supported by the supervisor back on the job. The research outlines a series of conditions or steps that must be followed to ensure high-quality formal training that will enhance learning retention and easier application of newly acquired skills.

Third, the insights from the three groups of learning theories highlight the advantage that OJT and action training may inherently have over formal and non-formal training due to the focus on real-life problem situations of the managers. Yet this inherent superiority applies only to the middle-level manager who has some prior experience as a grounding framework. Preentry management trainees may be less stimulated and assisted in developing skills by the action training and OJT strategies. A basic, foundational framework is required in order to reap the full advantages of OJT and AT; and this basic foundation can be provided more easily by utilizing formal training, whether it is packaged, custom-tailored, or a distance training design. In the same sense, OJT and action training have a lesser impact on senior managers. Since few senior managers find formal training appropriate, the non-formal training strategy may have more impact than the other three strategies. Senior managers learn more easily from people in the same situation—other managers—emphasizing the potency of peer learning at the higher levels of management.

Note

1. This quote is from the Kaleidoscope section of the *American Education*, vol. 12, no. 6 (July 1976): 5.

9

Achieving Management Training Objectives

Little empirical data has emerged comparing and contrasting the advantages and disadvantages of the four training approaches. This chapter will attempt this task, and like all initial efforts at capturing the fine nuances of complex activities, various gaps will likely remain and valuable insights left unheralded. Nevertheless, there are three generalizations that can be made at this early stage:

1. There are many difficulties in evaluating training approaches. There is an inherent problem in identifying causal relationships between training activities and improved organizational performance. Training designs within each approach can enhance or inhibit the success of each approach. Similarly, the trainer's skill and learner's motivation and readiness are variables that can skew the results of any one approach and make comparisons nearly impossible.
2. Each approach can be enhanced by ensuring that the specific training designs within each approach reflect current insights into adult learning theory and behavioral change processes.
3. Each approach tends to emphasize certain training objectives over others.

Using these generalizations as a foundation, it becomes apparent that certain training approaches are more efficacious for certain managment training objectives, national priorities, and levels of management.

Each training approach—formal, on-the-job, action, and nonformal—has a natural tendency to emphasize, stress, or focus on a few particular training objectives. In this section, the variety of training objectives will be identified and specific objectives for management training will be established. Each approach will then be analyzed in terms of which objectives it tends to emphasize. This assessment may be the most critical to identifying successful management training approaches, since *the success or effectiveness of a particular approach can be ascertained only in light of the specific training objective for which it is intended.*

Educational Objectives

The objectives of education generally have been a source of debate since the earliest of philosophers. Not until the mid-twentieth century did a satisfactory classification scheme emerge when the American Psychological Association sought the development of a conceptual framework and common terminology for evaluating the education process.[1]

Conventional Educational Objectives

Three "domains" of educational objectives were identified in this early classification scheme:

1. *Cognitive:* "Objectives which emphasize remembering or reproducing something which has presumably been learned, as well as objectives which involve the solving of some intellective task for which the individual has to determine the essential problem and then reorder given material or combine it with ideas, methods, or procedures previously learned. Cognitive objectives vary from simple recall of material learned to highly original and creative ways of combining and synthesizing new ideas and materials" (Bloom 1956, 6).
2. *Affective:* "Objectives which emphasize a feeling tone, an emotion, or a degree of acceptance or rejection. Affective objectives vary from simply attention to selected phenomena to complex but internally consistent qualities of character and conscience" (Bloom 1956, 7).

3. *Psycho-motor:* "Objectives focusing on some muscular or motor skills, a manipulation of material or physical objectives, or some action requiring neuromuscular coordination" (Bloom 1956, 7).

This early study found that most educational objectives fell into the cognitive category; fewer were in the affective domain; and only a very few psychomotor objectives were found in the educational literature, most of them regarding handwriting, speech, physical education, and trade courses (Fisher 1973). These three groups of objectives provide a preliminary foundation for specifying objectives of management education.

Management Education Objectives

Literature on management education built on these three domains, with Pedler (1978) adding two more as relevant domains:

1. *Cognitive:* knowledge
2. *Affective:* attitudes and feelings
3. *Psychomotor:* mainly manual skills
4. *Interpersonal:* person-to-person skills, blending specific cognitive, affective, and psychomotor skills in face-to-face interactions
5. *Self-knowledge:* personal growth and an expanded awareness of one's strengths and weaknesses

Although there is overlap in these domains, it is a useful framework for understanding management education objectives; however, it is difficult to separate these learning areas in reality. Gage and Berliner (1979) note that none of these kinds of behavior is isolated from the others.

> While we are thinking, engaged in intellectual activity, we also experience emotions and display certain movements. When we are lost in feeling, swept away by a symphony or a poem, we are nonetheless thinking, posturing, i.e., engaged simultaneously in certain cognitive and psychomotor behaviors. And whenever we perform certain bodily movements—such as high diving or piano playing—we also think about how we move and have feelings about our performance (1979, 164).

General Training Objectives

Objectives of general training have been described in somewhat different terms from educational objectives. It is easier to grasp the differences in objectives when training efforts are seen as *interventions* aimed at:

altering an individual's behavior by
changing knowledge level, attitudes and/or skill levels, for the ultimate purpose of
creating desirable consequences for the individual's organization

Education activities alone are not capable of directly stimulating organizational change (Gregg and Van Maanen 1973), whereas general training has change as its raison d'etre. In order to have a positive impact upon organizations, various objectives for general training activities have been identified. The objectives most often cited for general training efforts are:

knowledge acquisition
changing attitudes
problem solving skills
interpersonal skills
participant acceptance
knowledge retention

These six categories have been used frequently, for example, in comparing the various strengths and weaknesses in formal training methods (Carroll, Paine, and Ivancevich 1972; Watson 1979; Olmstead and Galloway 1980; and Neider 1981).

Management Training Objectives

Refining objectives from general training to training specific to management is the next step. Several frameworks for understanding objectives specific to management training have been offered (This 1971; Parry and Robinson 1979). For example, Watson (1979) has listed succinctly specific objectives which management training may attain:

1. Communicates to managers corporate philosophy, policies, procedures, rules, and standards
2. Teaches managers how to determine the consequences of

specific managerial actions and behaviors
3. Provides people with the opportunity to exchange ideas with their peers
4. Exposes managers to new perspectives and concepts that often stimulate more creative and/or deeper thoughts
5. Enables managers to increase their awareness and sensitivity to, and understanding of, the significance of their behavior
6. Teaches managers new practices
7. Changes attitudes toward new management practices, such as participation management, motivation, and so on
8. Helps people choose to change their behavior and become more effective managers

Looking at management training objectives from the higher levels of corporate management, Powell and Davis (1973) isolated a unique list of objectives. Studying ninety-three Fortune 500 corporations, they found that most companies sought four behavioral changes in training their employees:

better decision making ability
new knowledge about the participant's own area or organization
better adjustment to changing external environment
improved human relations and communicative skills

The reasons these same organizations utilized management training programs with longer-term objectives included:

widening executives' business perspectives
exposure to new hypotheses
preparation for greater responsibility but not necessarily promotion

For the purposes of this analysis, the framework developed initially by Dooley and Skinner (1977) (see Figure 9.1) will be utilized as the basic foundation for establishing management training objectives particularly relevant to developing countries.

These eight managerial training objectives are extremely useful in guiding management development efforts; however, they do not include additional objectives that may be uniquely relevant to the context of developing countries. Considering the unique characteristics and past history of management training in developing countries, it is necessary to establish additional managerial training objectives. Since the ultimate goal of the four training ap-

Figure 9.1 Management Training Objectives

1. Acquire knowledge 2. Develop concepts 3. Understand techniques	Knowledge domain
4. Acquire skill in use of techniques 5. Acquire skill in analysis of organizational problems 6. Acquire skills in the development and application of action plans	Skill domain
7. Develop useful attitudes 8. Develop mature judgment/wisdom	Attitude domain

proaches is to strengthen the administrative and management capabilities to cope more effectively with the constraints and opportunities for development in the Third World, three additional management training objectives will be added to the Dooley and Skinner framework: *transfer of learning, capacity building, and inspiration for continued learning.*

Transfer of Learning

The extent to which transfer of learning occurs is a fundamental issue since the object of training is to facilitate some behavioral change at a point after the training has been completed. The task of management training in developing countries is to *help individuals acquire and use information relevant to managing in the Third World context.* Until recently, however, management training in LDCs has ignored the problems of transferring the learning from the training environment to the job (Youker 1982). Effective transfer of learning eliminates the "shooting star effect," where the training is reported as a "wonderful experience," but results in little transfer from the training site to the manager's performance on the job (Van Velsor 1984).

The transfer of learning is simply the degree to which the individual uses the knowledge and skills learned during the training on the job in an effective and continuous manner (Georgenson 1982). More important, from all the techniques, procedures, ideas, or concepts learned, effective transfer of learning implies that the individual can select the most appropriate response to a new, nonstandard situation. He can modify, alter, or create new theories, procedures, or tools to cope with the development context in which there may be no previous solution or "right" answer (Huczynski 1983).

The transfer-of-learning problem can best be understood when "learning" is recognized as a necessary condition for improved performance, but not a sufficient condition by itself. Key factors are the retention of knowledge and skills and their application on the job. Thus the training approach that best facilitates *learning, retention*, and *application* will be more successful at ensuring the transfer of learning.

Unfortunately, this is not always easy to guarantee. There are several factors that influence an individual's performance following participation in management training, with three specific variables particularly influencing the transfer of learning:

1. *The training design and delivery:* Gray, Quick, and Laird (1978) identified five key factors that influence the retention of knowledge and the transfer of learning:
   a. the knowledge organizing framework
   b. the trainer's instructional style
   c. training and learning goals
   d. styles of learning of the participants
   e. the knowledge delivery mechanism
2. *The individual learner* is the second variable that influences the amount of learning and the transfer of learning. This includes such factors as motivation, readiness, capacity to learn, ability to take risks, commitment, and tolerance for ambiguity.
3. *The working environment of the individual.* This may be the most important single variable in effective transfer of learning (United Nations 1978); four particular areas are crucial:
   a. the individual's boss, who can support or inhibit changes in behavior
   b. the individual's peers
   c. the individual's subordinates
   d. the organization's climate

The design of training programs cannot control for fluctuations in the learner or in the individual's working environment. However, one principle regarding the transfer of learning stands out (Leifer and Newstrom 1980; Lippitt 1979; Kelly 1982; Broad 1982;

Ehrenber 1983): to increase the probability of effective transfer of learning, *the time between the exposure to the idea/skill and its application must be minimized.* Thus, the management training approach that can lessen the time between acquisition and application would most likely be more effective in transferring the learning. The action training and on-the-job training approaches thus appear more effective in transferring the learning. Custom-tailored formal training is also potentially successful in stimulating the transfer of learning from the training site to the work place (see Figure 9.2).

Capacity Building

Training in developing countries must also focus on developing local capacities for growing viable, self-sustaining local organizations and institutions (Youker 1982). Although we are at the early stages of understanding the process of capacity building in developing countries, it has emerged as the major area of concern for development administration in the 1980s (Honadle 1982).

Capacity building is somewhat different from earlier efforts at "institution building." Capacity building focuses on using the existing base of organizational and human resources, whereas institution building typically introduces an overlay of external resources and new institutional infrastructures. Capacity building aims particularly at building local capacities on the foundation of existing resources to stimulate, manage, and produce new internal resources. When analyzing management training, it implies that the training approach is designed in ways that assist participants in becoming more effective at solving their own problems with minimal intrusion or influence from external actors. For a comprehensive review of the capacity-building literature, see Honadle (1981).

The literature also indicates that *training approaches in LDCs that lead to increased capacity building are more effective than ap-*

Figure 9.2 Training Approaches and the Transfer of Learning

/	/	/	/	/	/	/
LOW POTENTIAL FOR TRANSFER	Formal Training: Packaged and Distance Training Designs	NFT	Formal Training: Custom-Tailored Design	OJT	Action Training	**HIGH POTENTIAL FOR TRANSFER**

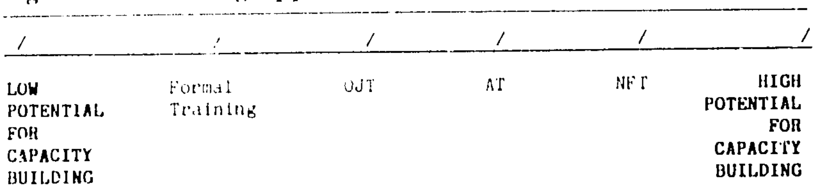
proaches that encourage reliance on external resources. Management training that meets this objective stimulates local administrative and managerial capacity to sustain the benefits after the initial training investments have ended (Honadle 1982). This requires expanded use of existing social networks and the development of new, indigenous networks and associations, resulting in an increased reliance on internal resources. Management training approaches that encourage continued reliance on external resources—an external authority figure, donor agency, or expert trainer—will be inherently less effective at meeting this objective.

Non-formal training approaches appear to have more impact in stimulating and nurturing local capacity building. Although action training, OJT, custom-tailored formal training, and some newer forms of packaged, formal training (e.g., the Coverdale Training) induce participant involvement, they nevertheless still rely to one degree or another on an external authority. Whether called facilitator, observer, coach, or trainer, the learners are still dependent and reliant on this person for social context and conceptual guidance. Action training and OJT thus rank below the non-formal training approach in stimulating capacity building (see Figure 9.3).

Inspiration for Continued Learning

Management training in developing countries must necessarily *improve the learning skills* of the participants (Kearsley 1984) and must somehow *inspire continued learning.* This objective emerges from the general emphasis on developing self-sustaining, adult learners who are capable and motivated to assume responsibility for their own learning (e.g., Knowles 1973). This objective is crucial particularly to developing countries since they are only beginning to build knowledge in the area of management techniques, styles, and concepts appropriate in their particular cultural-social-political-administrative contexts. Indigenous scholarship in man-

Figure 9.3 Training Approaches and Capacity Building



agement is increasing, uncovering subtle differences in requisite managerial skills, forcing managers in developing countries continually to learn and understand emerging insights. Managers must keep abreast of new information and new technologies, acquire new knowledge, and learn new skills relevant to their context.

In this sense, managers must become effective "consumers of research," learning, and digesting the insights increasingly precipitating from the Third World. The objective also emphasizes the particular importance of learning from experience and "embracing error" (Michaels 1973; Korten 1982). Management training in LDCs, therefore, should prepare managers to learn throughout their professional careers rather than just mastering current techniques and information; *effective management training triggers future exploration, experimentation, and learning.*

This attention to learning how to learn is consistent with the ground breaking learning theories posited by Bateson (1973), who distinguishes a number of levels of learning, with the first three listed here:

1. Taking in a fact or piece of data—learning only in a very simple sense, equivalent to an act of sensing or perceiving or taking in a stimulus
2. Learning a new form of responsiveness, kinds of responses appropriate to specific situations, including all forms of specific skills
3. Learning that makes the individual more effective at achieving learning of the number 2 type (Burgoyne and Stewart 1978)

Management training approaches in developing countries must focus on each of these levels of learning, and should not only transmit what is already known but also nurture or inspire *a continuing process of discovering what is not known and understanding new insights as they are being discovered.* This requires that the training experience itself *positively influence the learner's attitude toward learning itself.* It thus prepares managers to learn more and maximizes the likelihood that they are encouraged to "learn more about what they have been taught" (Mager 1984, 11).

The non-formal training approach, at first glance, best meets this objective. However, three particular variables can influence strongly a learner's inspiration, ability, and commitment to learn continually; and, all four training approaches can meet this objective if the following are considered:

1. *The content* of the training must include information on *where* additional sources of information on the particular subject are and *how* to interpret or consume this additional information (Fry 1984).
2. *The trainer's attitude* towards a particular subject can influence learners to approach or avoid the subject of learning (Mager 1984).
3. *The training design*, whether within the formal, OJT, AT, or non-formal training approach, can be structured in such way that it generates increased motivation to learn (Mouton and Blake 1984).

A Comparative Assessment Based on Training Objectives

In light of the particular contexts of management training in developing countries, it seems very important to add three training objectives to the original eight (from Figure 9.1). Eleven objectives can then be arranged (see Figure 9.4) along a time dimension as training outcomes occurring during the training intervention (immediate objectives), as short-term outcomes of training (intermediate objectives), or as longer-term outcomes (long-term objec-

Figure 9.4 Management Training Objectives in Developing Countries

	TIME	
Immediate Objectives	Intermediate Objectives	Long-term Objectives
1. ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE		
2. DEVELOP CONCEPTS	7. DEVELOP USEFUL ATTITUDES	9. BUILD CAPACITY
3. UNDERSTAND TECHNIQUES		
4. ACQUIRE SKILL IN USE OF TECHNIQUES	8. TRANSFER LEARNING	10. INSPIRE CONTINUED LEARNING
5. ACQUIRE SKILL IN ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONAL PROBLEMS		
6. ACQUIRE SKILL IN DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION OF ACTION PLANS		11. DEVELOP MATURE JUDGMENT/WISDOM

tives). Each of these objectives—immediate, intermediate, and long-term—are intended to achieve the ultimate goal of the management training approaches: to enhance indigenous managerial capacities and improve organizational performance in less developed countries.

Each training approach has inherent strengths and weaknesses in achieving these objectives. The very limited amount of research indicates, for example, that on-the-job training is less effective than formal training in knowledge acquisition (Bass and Vaughn 1966). The following figure (Figure 9.5) visually represents the inherent potential for each approach in achieving each of the eleven management training objectives appropriate to developing countries. These comparisons derive from the earlier discussion of adult learning theories (Chapter 8), behavioral change (Chapter 8), and management training objectives (Chapter 9). This comparison identifies certain generalizations regarding the effectiveness of each training approach in meeting the eleven training objectives. It needs to be emphasized that these are generalizations that are made under the "best of all world" conditions:

1. "The strategy at its best": Each approach is designed appropriately, so that the best mix and sequencing of methods is utilized and an effective learning climate is created.
2. "Trainer excellence": The trainer—whether the manager in OJT, a peer in NFT, or the formal trainer—is highly competent in his facilitation of learning.
3. "Motivated and capable learning": The learner is assumed to have the desire and capacity to acquire, retain, and apply the learning.

The following generalizations cannot be made without these assumptions. In actuality, these conditions seldom exist. Formal training in LDCs, for example, is seldom designed with the necessary mix and integration of methods (Paul 1983). Similarly, senior managers are not always skillful as trainers while conducting OJT with subordinates (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979). Nevertheless, no comparative assessment could be made unless these intervening variables are held constant.

Each of the four management training approaches, thus, has its unique strengths and weaknesses (see Figure 9.6). The *formal training approach* has a high potential for meeting the immediate objectives of knowledge acquisition, understanding concepts, and understanding techniques. Its potential declines, however, in

Figure 9.5 Inherent Potential for Achieving Objectives

TRAINING APPROACH	FORMAL	ON-THE-JOB	ACTION	NON-FORMAL
Immediate Objectives:				
1. ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE	●	◒	●	●
2. UNDERSTAND CONCEPTS	●	○	●	◒
3. UNDERSTAND TECHNIQUES	●	◒	●	●
4. ACQUIRE SKILL IN USE OF TECHNIQUES	◒	●	●	○
5. ACQUIRE SKILL IN ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONAL PROBLEM	◒	●	●	○
6. ACQUIRE SKILL IN DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION OF ACTION PLANS	◒	◒	●	○
Intermediate Objectives:				
7. DEVELOP USEFUL ATTITUDES	○	◒	◒	○
8. TRANSFER LEARNING	◒	●	●	◒
Long-term Objectives:				
9. BUILD CAPACITY	◒	●	●	●
10. INSPIRE CONTINUED LEARNING	●	●	●	●
11. DEVELOP MATURE JUDGMENT/WISDOM	○	●	◒	●

Key: ● high potential

◒ medium potential

○ low to no potential

Figure 9.6 Summary of Strengths and Weaknesses

Approach	Strength	Weakness
FORMAL:	1. Acquire knowledge 2. Understand concepts 3. Understand techniques 4. Acquire skills in use of techniques (only in custom-tailored designs) 5. Inspire continued learning	1. Develop useful attitudes 2. Develop mature judgment/wisdom
ON-THE-JOB:	1. Acquire skills in the use of techniques 2. Acquire skill in the analyses of organizational problems 3. Transfer learning 4. Build capacity 5. Develop mature judgment/wisdom 6. Inspire continued learning	1. Understand concepts
ACTION TRAINING:	1. Understand techniques 2. Understand concepts 3. Acquire skill in use of techniques 4. Acquire skill in analysis of organizational problems 5. Acquire skill in the development and implementation of action plans 6. Transfer learning 7. Build capacity 8. Inspire continued learning	1. Develop mature judgment/wisdom
NON-FORMAL:	1. Acquire knowledge 2. Understand techniques 3. Inspire continued learning 4. Build capacity 5. Develop mature judgment/wisdom	1. Acquire skills 2. Develop useful attitudes

achieving the skill acquisition objectives. The formal strategy displays only a medium potential for meeting the transfer of learning and capacity building and continued learning objectives. A low-to-nonexistent potential exists for achieving attitude and judgment/wisdom objectives.

The *on-the-job approach* differs significantly from that of formal training. It presents a low-to-medium potential for achieving the immediate objectives of knowledge acquisition and understanding concepts, a medium potential for understanding techniques and acquisition of implementation skills for action plans, and a high potential in the acquisition of skills relating to techniques and analysis. On-the-job training shows a high potential for learning transfer, capacity building, and mature judgment development objectives, but only a medium potential for attitude development and the inspiration for continued learning.

The *action training approach* blends the strengths of formal and on-the-job training. While it displays only a medium-to-high potential for meeting the objectives of knowledge acquisition and understanding concepts, it has a high potential for achieving the other immediate objectives of understanding techniques and skills acquisition. Action training's high potential continues for the intermediate objective of learning transfer and the long-term objective of capacity building. A medium potential exists for attitude and mature judgment development and continued learning inspiration.

The *non-formal approach's* potential for objective achievement is markedly different from that of the other three strategies, as is its focus and usage. Its potential rates high on knowledge acquisition and continued learning inspiration. A medium potential exists for understanding concepts and techniques, learning transfer, and capacity building. It exhibits a low-to-no-inherent potential, however, for several of the objectives. The non-formal strategy emphasizes the understanding and acquisition of knowledge rather than the acquisition of the skills to put that knowledge into practice.

Summary

Too little monitoring and evaluation occurs to develop a comparative assessment of formal training, on-the-job training, action training, and non-formal training. Utilizing adult learning and behavioral change theories provides a framework for deducing and inferring the relative strengths and weaknesses of each approach in achieving specific training objectives. The identification of appropriate objectives for management training approaches in LDCs provides a framework for an initial comparative assessment in Figure 9.5. Figure 9.6 visually summarizes the strengths and weaknesses of each approach. This assessment indicates that certain approaches, when combined into training strategies, will be more effective for certain national priorities and managerial target groups. This will be discussed in the following chapter.

Note

1. Fisher (1973) highlights this historical point. The American Psychological Association's framework is discussed in considerable detail in the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, The Classification of Educational Goals: Handbook I—Cognitive Domain* (Bloom 1956); and *Handbook II—Affective Domain* (Krathwohl et al. 1964).

Part 4
Implications and Directions for the Future

10

In-Country Training, Overseas Training, & Third-Country Training

The opportunities for individuals from LDCs to obtain public management training are reasonably extensive. This is true whether referring to opportunities within the LDCs or on a more global basis. The International Labour Office (ILO), in its 1980 Directory of Management and Administrative Institutes, lists 236 training institutions in ninety-one countries (see Figure 10.1).

The 1981 Directory of the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA) listed 276 public administration training institutes and schools in ninety-one countries. The major difference between the two lists is that IASIA includes more university departments engaged in training activities. However, even the IASIA number is an understatement because most of the intradepartment or ministry training centers that are, for the most part, sectorally related are not counted; yet, there is little question that they do contribute to achieving public sector service training goals.

Management training opportunities are extensive and can be generally classified into three locations:

1. *In-country training:* training is provided within one's own country; in-country training can be further distinguished by whether it is provided by one's own organization or enterprise—internal training—or by an institute, school, or agency outside of one's organization—external training.
2. *Overseas education and training:* training and educational programs are provided to LDC participants "overseas" in in-

Figure 10.1 Training Institutions by Category and Region

	Asia	Africa	Latin America	Total	%
University department or schools of administration	27	20	38	85	36
Autonomous institutes of administration	11	12	13	36	15
Government institutions of training	39	44	22	105	45
Management institutes	5	2	3	10	4
Total	82	78	76	236	100

dustrial countries, for example, in North America and Europe.

3. *Third-country training:* training is provided outside of one's country by an institute or school in one's geographical region; much of the third-country training is provided by Third World universities and by regional training institutes.

These three are also fundamental elements in any developing country's efforts to improve its managerial and administrative capacities and have been supported by European and North American donor agencies. In most developing countries, however, little analysis is given to deciding whether a manager is sent to an overseas location or a third country, or participates in training activities within his or her own country. This chapter will provide a framework that can facilitate such an analysis.

In-Country Training

Most LDCs, regardless of size, prefer to provide in-country training through their own training centers and institutes for various reasons. The magnitude of in-country training that occurs within the national institutes of public administration and management training centers is not apparent even from the somewhat impressive numbers of institutes identified by IASIA and the ILO. Though university departments or schools of public administration will have a relatively small number of students (averaging fifty per year, for example), national institutes within the LDCs have substantially larger numbers of participants. For example, the Indian National Academy of Administration annually trains 275 preservice management trainees in a year-long course and another 1,000 trainees in short-term programs (Mathur 1980). In Sri Lanka, the Institute for Development Administration trains 125 new administrative service recruits in a year-long professional program and annually gives 155 short-term training programs to 4,000 participants (Kerrigan 1982).

Providing in-country training has several potential advantages; the most important is that all four training approaches are possible on an "in-country basis." Because of this wide flexibility of approaches, *its potential* for enhancing the managerial talent in developing countries *is much greater* than overseas or third-country training. The most severe disadvantage of "in-country training" is that high-quality trainers may be scarce in certain LDCs, which forces the use of less effective indigenous trainers and expatriate trainers.

Beyond this inherent advantage and disadvantage, some other general observations have been made. It is important, first, to keep in mind that "in-country training" can be provided through a national, subnational, or sectoral training institute, external to the manager's own organization, or it can be provided internally by a management development center, or "in-house" training department within a ministry. The Commonwealth Secretariat (1979) has analyzed the strengths and weaknesses of the external and internal programs and, therefore, these will not be reiterated here. However, there are several generalizations appropriate to in-country training programs whether providedinternally or externally to the individual's organization.

Advantages and Disadvantages of In-Country Training

Advantages.

1. In-country training allows for the combination of any of the four available training approaches: formal, on-the-job, action training, and non-formal.
2. Within formal training, all three program designs are potentially available: packaged, custom-tailored, and distance learning; overseas and third country training are mostly limited to the formal training approach, typically offering only packaged training workshops.
3. Both the general relevance and specific custom tailoring of the training curriculum are possible with in-country training.

4. Elements of management training can be conducted at the office or in the immediate work environment.
5. Per capita costs, and potentially overall training costs, are reduced when compared to overseas training and third-country training.
6. Common values and managerial approaches can be developed through collective participation in similar types of programs.
7. In-country training can tap the resources of indigenous Ph.D.s.

Disadvantages.

1. The most crucial disadvantage of in-country training is its reliance on in-country training resources. In many developing countries, the necessary trainers, materials, and facilities are just not available, weakening any in-country training provided. Quality trainers/staff may be difficult to attract and motivate, resulting in a lower caliber of trainers. In-country training is, thus, a viable choice only when adequate in-country resources are available and accessible.
2. Curriculum content can become narrowly mechanistic and instrumental, building job skills without the mind-broadening effect.
3. Specialized and advanced management training may be difficult to provide (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979). Therefore, training for the senior executive management levels may best be pursued outside of one's country.

The major advantage of in country training over third-country and overseas training is its flexibility to engage in all four training approaches. Whereas overseas and third country are almost exclusively limited to formal training designs and some non-formal training, in-country training can also encompass on-the-job and action training activities. In-country training thus provides for more opportunities to enhance managerial talent in developing countries.

Overseas Education and Training

Although tightening budgets and fiscal strain in the Third World have reduced participation in overseas education and training, there continue to be considerable resources spent to support managers for training abroad.[1] LDC governments consider university training and degree programs in North America to be a valuable source of knowledge, skills, and prestige (Fry 1984), and individuals often go to considerable lengths to secure opportunities to participate in overseas training and advanced degree programs (Weiler 1984). In many areas of specialized knowledge, North America is the only region in the world that has adequate training facilities, as well as the sophistication and flexibility that can accommodate large numbers of foreign trainees (Weiler 1984). Due to a country's technical prestige, training at certain North American and European universities is considered by many in developing countries as the pinnacle of successful mobility and education and is highly rewarded in the trainee's home country. Thus, North American universities are heavily involved in human resource development for the Third World.

Foreign study in North America and Western Europe is not a recent phenomena. Study abroad is a "pervasive phenomenon dating back as early as 500 to 300 b.c., when intellectuals migrated to Athens" (Fry 1984, 203). In the last decade, two themes emerged emphasizing the importance of overseas education and training: linkages between national development and education/training, and the increasing interdependence in the global arena.

The national development focus links a country's economic growth and its employment infrastructure to education and training (Harbison and Myers 1964; Portes 1976). In a longitudinal study of overseas training and economic growth, Fry (1984) found a direct relationship between the numbers of individuals participating in overseas training and economic growth within a particular country. The interdependence focus, on the other hand, stresses the growth of an international economic interdependence of nations and, due to this global interdependence, managers in developing countries must gain broader perspectives on national development. Management education and training abroad encourages the learner to understand more fully the international context in which each country is situated, as well as facilitating acceptance of cultural diversity, and thus provides a basic building block in developing a peaceful, collaborative global community (Fry 1984).

Strengths and Weaknesses of Overseas Education

Overseas education provides a dilemma for Third World countries; it has significant advantages and disadvantages. In a comprehensive review of the literature on overseas education, Fry identifies several potential positive and negative impacts of studying abroad (1984, 203-220).

Positive Effects.

1. *Political Development:* Overseas experiences can be major catalysts for social change, when experience in another political, cultural, social, and economic environment becomes a powerful motivating force when one returns to his/her country. Flack (1976) noted that early African nationalist leaders such as Nkrumah and Azikiwe developed their intense determination to work for national independence of their countries and a strong desire to promote the common interests of their region while participating in overseas training. Banomyong (1974) similarly found that key Asian leaders such as Chou En-lai and Ho Chi Minh developed their revolutionary ideals while studying overseas in France.
2. *Development of Technical Skills:* Overseas training and education is an important vehicle for acquiring specific technical and professional skills relevant to development.
3. *Development of Foreign Language Competencies:* Studying abroad provides an effective means for acquiring skills in a foreign language. Developing a competency in an international language has the secondary effect of opening up access to a wider range of scholarly materials from diverse ideological backgrounds.
4. *Development of Regional Consciousness and Greater Sensitivity to the Need for Cultural Democracy:* The "cultural collisions" that occur during a visit to study or train in an industrialized country force visitors to become more conscious of the various cultures in their own region, easily gaining an "African identity" or a "Southeast Asian identity." Fry argues that individuals can develop more sensitivity to cultural diversity, and more interest in cultural democracy and the need to be fairer to cultural minorities in their own countries.
5. *Enhancement of Mobility Opportunities Through Study Abroad:* Overseas education can be an important factor in upward social mobility in LDCs, providing considerable prestige and an avenue of mobility for those selected to participate in overseas education. In most developing countries, however, participation in overseas education is less

open to women and to those from lower socioeconomic backgrounds.

6. *Cross-cultural Enrichment Effects:* Not only does overseas education provide opportunities for the acquisition of technical and professional skills, and increased avenues for career advancement, it is also an intensive cross-cultural experience that can have a deep and fundamental meaning for many individuals (Brislin 1981). Attitude changes associated with overseas education are an area of considerable impact.

Potential Negative Effects of Overseas Education.

1. *Content Irrelevancy:* The educational content and curriculum can often be irrelevant to the Third World context and may not be helpful when individuals return home.
2. *Foreign Exchange Costs:* Overseas education is expensive and creates a serious loss of foreign currency when considering the foreign exchange costs of overseas study.
3. *Individual Opportunity Costs:* Studying abroad often involves considerable opportunity costs. This is particularly problematic for smaller developing countries with less educated managerial talent to draw on when large numbers of individuals leave the country for overseas education.
4. *Socialization into a Consumer Culture:* Individuals participating in overseas education for extended periods often become part of a consumer oriented culture, which is prevalent in industrial societies and stresses the purchase of luxury goods such as video tape recorders, private automobiles, and home computers. Foreign students return to their home-countries with a luxury consumption orientation.
5. *Loss of Educated Expertise:* This is more commonly referred to as the brain drain. Nearly one-third of the foreign students, for example, coming to the United States for advanced degree programs do not return to their own countries (Greer 1983). This migration of educated talent raises world productivity, although it does produce negative distributional effects which are quite complex.
6. *Incorporation into the Structure of the Dominating Center:* Through overseas education, individuals are more easily incorporated into the global network of transnational corporations and multinational enterprises. Arnove (1982) argues that overseas advanced degree programs for societal elites

are part of a larger, subtle system of political control, domination, and dependence.

7. *The Problem of Cultural Marginality:* The attitude and personal changes often associated with studying abroad force individuals when returning home to face the problem of "cultural collisions." Some individuals are able to integrate their newly acquired values and attitudes with the old, home country cultural values and become multicultural (Brislin 1981). However, some individuals do not readapt as easily and can be characterized by Nehru's comments after being socialized to the Western culture while participating in overseas education: "I have become a queer mixture of the East and West, out of place everywhere, at home nowhere. . . . I cannot get rid of either that past inheritance or my recent acquisitions. . . . I am a stranger and alien in the West, I cannot be of it. But in my own country also sometimes, I have an exile's feelings" (1955, 596).

Advantages and Disadvantages in Training LDC Managers Overseas

In general, there are various potentially positive and negative factors in considering the impact of overseas assignments on LDC development. It is generally assumed that managerial training overseas significantly influences the development process in LDCs. Yet, there is not a great deal known about its impact on increasing management capacities. Available empirical and anecdotal evidence indicates that there are various advantages and disadvantages in sending individuals overseas to participate in managerial training programs. Nonetheless, overseas training, both short-term and long-term, is very attractive to managers in government.

Advantages of Overseas Managerial Training.

1. *Attendance in Overseas Training Enhances the Prestige of the Participant:* This is significant in developing countries where studying abroad increases an individual's prestige within an organization. This becomes particularly important in terms of managerial influence since a manager's power and influence over others is partially related to one's "perceived" expertise (see, for example, French and Raven 1959).

2. *A Wide Range of Comparative Experience Can be Provided* (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979): Although the subject matter and the frame of reference of the training content may be inappropriate to the particular context of the developing country, the experience of discovering that there are a variety of frames of reference can be illuminating to a management trainee from a developing country. Training may not be appropriate for the social and administrative realities of the development context, but there is a cross-cultural, academic broadening that stretches one's perspective on the roles and functions of management.
3. *Detachment from the Home Environment Can Increase One's Insights and Understanding:* New approaches to managerial processes may be more easily understood when learned in a foreign culture.
4. *Universities in Developing Countries May be Slow to Develop New Conceptual Approaches and Original Course Content in the Management Field* (Moock 1984): In African universities, for example, there are not enough experienced teachers in specialized disciplines or the necessary facilities and equipment to provide a sufficiently high quality of training in advanced levels of certain types of professional work.
5. *There are Significant Mind-broadening Aspects:* There is common criticism that the content and methodology of overseas training are far removed from the realities of the visiting trainee's country and that the subject matter and the frame of reference provided during the training experience are not particularly relevant. However, what is more significant is that the experience forces one to realize that there are additional frames of reference other than the one commonly utilized in the individual's home country. The concepts, theories, and paradigms transmitted during the overseas training experience are not necessarily directly applicable or immediately relevant to the political, economic, and social reality of the developing country. Nevertheless, overseas training can develop one's ability to think creatively, conceptualize issues in broader terms, and be versatile (Moock 1984). Advanced degree programs in North America, for example, have the potential to develop the kinds of skills and conceptual categories required to understand, anticipate, and potentially influence the dynamics of development in LDCs.

Disadvantages of Overseas Managerial Training. Overseas training is exclusively designed as formal training and advanced graduate education.[2] Thus overseas training utilizes primarily only one of the four management training approaches available to developing countries. *This is its most severe weakness.* As such, it is limited by the same disadvantages as in-country formal training. Overseas training has two additional disadvantages due to its distance from the individual's organization. First, research clearly indicates that the closer the training is directly related to one's actual job situation, the more impact on job performance. Second, overseas training has inherent problems in the transfer of learning between the exposure to an idea/skill and its application on-the-job. Several other weaknesses also create serious limitations in overseas management training.

1. *The subject matter and frame of reference inherent in the training may not be relevant* to the particular needs of a public manager in a local development context. Weiler (1984) argues that the body of research and the underlying paradigms of North American public administration are not always applicable or relevant to the social, economic, and political reality of an underprivileged country. This is a common indictment of North American training, that the training content is too often far removed from the realities of developing countries. The professors or trainers providing the learning for the manager seldom understand the cultural context in which he or she lives. A study by Baron (1979) highlights this: in a survey of ninety-three graduate university programs, most faculty members felt that it was not the instructor's responsibility to make the subject matter immediately applicable; rather, it is the student's responsibility to translate the content of study and identify ways of applying the basic concepts and principles at home. This may be the primary reason that 75 percent of surveyed Third World public administration students in the United States felt they did not get enough material useful for development in their home countries (Lovell, Raffel, and Ryan 1985). In addition to financial difficulties and social interaction problems identified by these respondents, they also noted that U.S. public administration education was plagued with the ethnocentricity of course offerings.

   A second problem inhibiting the development of relevant curriculum is a wide diversity of backgrounds and national contexts from which the students emerge and will likely return. It is generally true that managerial skill building in areas particularly relevant to developing countries is not one of the strengths of participant training. It is perhaps more appropriate for "mind broadening" than skill refinement. Training for specific managerial job skills can be achieved best closer to the actual work place.

2. *Reentry into the back home environment creates an additional problem* that limits the effectiveness of overseas training. Coleman (1984) argues that this problem is equal to or perhaps more important than the relevancy dilemma in overseas professional training. Returning managers must confront the constraints and opportunities in their national environments, the quality and supportiveness of the administrative infrastructure, and the prevailing incentive and reward structures in their society.

   In addition, if significant attitude changes occur while participating in a formal overseas training program, individuals may face the problem of "cultural collisions" noted earlier by Fry (1984).
3. *Participants may treat overseas training as a reward, or vacation, or a "junket"* rather than as a learning experience. For example, in Thailand after a specific number of years of working in a ministry, one automatically earns a trip to the United States or to the United Kingdom. These norms in Thailand are different for each ministry, but there is a specific understanding that after a certain number of years you are automatically allotted a trip abroad for "management training" (Arneberg 1984).
4. *The foreign environment can be distracting* to those participating in overseas training (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979). The cultural diversity can thus become a two-edged sword: on the one hand, the diversity can enrich the participants' learning while, on the other, providing a distracting nuisance to individuals attempting to gain new insights.
5. *Per capita costs are usually very high*. This disadvantage is gaining in importance as Third World countries face tighter financial constraints. Overseas training is getting more expensive, while LDCs are becoming less able to finance the overseas costs.
6. There may be *a language problem* for managers sent out of the country, providing limited accessibility to high quality training programs if the manager does not know English,

French, or Spanish.

7. Many are sent to training with *no clear sense of what learning outcome* they would desire. There is tremendous ambiguity in the competencies to be developed and specificity of managerial improvements needed. Similarly, seldom does one ever establish goals or objectives of the training that is to be provided overseas. Therefore, it becomes very difficult to evaluate the effectiveness of overseas training experiences.

From this analysis it becomes clear that sending managers abroad may merely result in learning other ways to see things generally. This is particularly important for senior-level, executive managers, where it may not matter what they learn specifically, or what training courses they take; but, it is crucial that they broaden their perspectives on administrative processes. This is something that cannot be done as easily in training provided inside of one's country.

Sending top-level managers outside of the country can be used to broaden, and polish, and to engage them in some kind of comparative analysis. This is most likely to happen when they are sent to programs that mix the trainee population so that in any training activities there are participants from various countries.

Third-Country Training

Third-country training describes training that is provided to individuals in countries other than their own home country, but not "overseas" in North America or Europe. Historically, overseas training in Europe and North America was seen as more appropriate than third-country training. Recently, however, LDC governments have been increasing their support for management training provided regionally by a "third country." Malaysia, for example, now sends many of its top managers to Japan and Korea for training (Caiden 1984). One reason is that the work of North American and European public management training is uneven, and for some has been disappointing. A significant number of managers returning from overseas public administration education in America, for example, report that they did not receive enough useful material for development activities in their home countries (Lovell and Raffel 1984). Another incentive for supporting third-country management training is the increasing numbers and improving quality of regional training centers that have emerged in less developed countries. There are four additional factors that increasingly influence the choice of third-country training for study abroad: the individual's language, former colonial ties (Moock 1984), the home country's political ideology, and availability of funding and financial support.

Third-country training also includes training considered by some as "overseas," but is actually provided regionally by a "third country." For example, more than half of the "overseas" students from most Arab countries are actually "over-the-desert," participating in training and education in a nearby Arab country. Yemen is the extreme case where 85 percent of the "overseas" students are in Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Syria, or Turkey (Cummings 1984, 245). Such "overseas" training is considered here as "third country."

Third-country management training is most often provided by a regional training center or institute. In Southern Africa, for example, the Pan-African Institute for Development (PAID), located in Cameroon, provides rural management training programs to a variety of Southern African nations. Similarly, the Mananga Agricultural Management Center, headquartered in Swaziland, offers courses in agricultural management to individuals from Africa, South Asia, and the Caribbean (NASPAA 1985). Although many African nations have their own government sponsored or nonprofit national institutes of public administration and management, management trainees often participate in training courses provided by PAID or the Mananga Center. This is considered "third-country" training.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Third-Country Training

Training in third countries has similar strengths and weaknesses as overseas training; yet, it has the interesting effect of improving some of those weaknesses while also generally reducing some of its strengths.

Advantages.

1. A range of comparative experiences can still be provided, but more likely a smaller range limited to more regional perspectives.

2. Detachment from one's home environment can allow for cross-cultural comparisons.
3. Some training centers and universities in third countries may have higher quality faculty and facilities than in-country institutes and universities, and often are considered more prestigious than the national institutes of public administration.
4. The mind-broadening aspects are still significant, especially when one sees that a variety of frames of reference are available to understanding management.
5. Per capita costs will not be as severe as "participant training" if travel costs can be reduced by participating in a nearby regional training program.

Disadvantages. The weaknesses or disadvantages of overseas training also apply to third-country training but in less dramatic ways.

1. Curriculum irrelevancy can still be a problem, but less so if the training content uses cases "closer to home," for example.
2. Reentry into the back-home environment could be a problem, but "culture collision" is likely to be of much less intensity, especially if one merely went to a country "next door"; the difficulty of directly and immediately applying the insights learned still remains an issue unless the formal training contains the design elements necessary for facilitating back-home application.
3. Third-country training can still be potentially treated as a reward, diminishing the quality of learning. However, it is less likely to be perceived as a vacation than participation in training in North America.
4. The foreign environment can still be distracting, but less so if the culture is somewhat similar to one's home country.

Third-country training experiences focus almost exclusively on the formal training approach and may be best suited to middle-level and senior-level managers. The cross-cultural, comparative perspective potentially available in third-country training can be useful in stretching a middle manager's perspective on the role, function, and cultural influences on management. Third-country formal training, in addition, may be the most feasible way to provide formal training to executive managers due to their reluctance to participate in in-country formal training. Like overseas training, however, it is less effective in developing practical managerial skills and may have limitations in the transfer of learning and in local capacity building.

Regional proximity, however, allows for regional networks and associations to develop, establishing the basis for the peer learning activities encompassed in the non-formal training approach, such as support groups and intervisitations. Similarly, field assignments in another country in the same region is a "third-country" approach to on-the-job training. Most of the third-country training, however, is exclusively of the packaged design, formal training approach.

Summary

In-country, third-country, and overseas training remain popular with bilateral and multilateral donor agencies. With Third-World budgets feeling strained, the costs and benefits of sending individuals to overseas or third-country training are being more closely analyzed. Each has its own advantages and disadvantages, and each has some limitations on the training approaches available at each location (see Figure 10.2).

In-country training has the advantage of allowing all four training approaches to be pursued—formal, on-the-job, action training, and non-formal training; whereas one approach—formal training—is primarily utilized in overseas training. Thus greater

Figure 10.2 Available Training Approaches by Location

	Training Approach			
Location	Formal Training	On-the-Job Training	Action Training	Non-formal Training
Overseas	●	○	○	◒
Third Country	●	○	○	◒
In-country	●	●	●	●

key: ● High availability

◒ Medium availability

○ Low-to-no availability

emphasis should be given to in-country training, where the training process and content can be more relevant, and where more than just the formal training strategy can be pursued. While overseas training will continue as an approach to enhancing managerial talent in developing countries, it has inherent limitations and should be balanced with-third country and in-country training. As developing countries improve and expand their indigenous training resources and facilities, more effective third-country and in-country training can be provided. The decreasing emphasis on overseas training will provide excellent opportunities for a more refined selection of participants. Senior-level managers can then be targeted for overseas training.

Notes

1. For the most recent and comprehensive discussion on overseas education and training, please *see* the *Comparative Education Review* special issue on "Foreign Students in Comparative Perspective" (May 1984).
2. With the exception of overseas field assignments, which are a variation of on-the-job training.

11

Practical Guidelines and Policy Implications

The preceding chapters have identified four training approaches for developing managerial talent in the Third World—formal training (FT), on-the-job training (OJT), action training (AT), non-formal training (NFT)—each with a specific orientation, different objectives, and unique elements (see Figure 11.1). In addition, management training is available and can occur in three general locations: overseas, in-country, third country.

None of the four training approaches, nor the three locations, is inherently better than any other. Each has its strengths and weaknesses that must be considered. The crucial issue is for a developing country to *find the right balance between them,* given its unique cultural context and available financing and human resources. The right balance may include, for example, a mix of several training approaches within the same morning or afternoon, or a combination of overseas formal training followed closely by in-country non-formal training activities.

It is difficult to assess comparatively the impact of each approach and location on improving managerial talent in a particular developing country.

Such an evaluation would require a rather clear understanding of each country's unique development processes, its internal administrative structure, the professional climate and particular tasks of the management personnel, and a measurement of managerial performance over time. That is beyond the scope of this analysis. However, utilizing the framework provided by the four training approaches, the principles inherent in learning theories

Figure 11.1 The Approaches Compared

ELEMENTS	THE FORMAL TRAINING APPROACH	THE ON-THE-JOB TRAINING APPROACH	THE ACTION TRAINING APPROACH	THE NON-FORMAL TRAINING APPROACH
What is the general orientation of this approach?	Expert learning that focuses on one subject area (e.g., budgeting) or a set of interrelated subjects (e.g., effective supervisory practices)	Organization-specific task orientation, One-to-one relationship between senior managers and "trainee" focusing on improved individual job performance	Focuses exclusively on training to solve a "live" organizational problem or opportunity utilizing the resources of an intact work group or unit; All substantive material focuses on the problem at hand (problem-centered)	Peer learning self-renewal and improvement focus conducted in a mutually supporting learning community with individuals from different organizations and projects
What are the objectives of this approach?	To transmit knowledge, concepts, and techniques to groups of people with the ultimate goal being individual improvement	To acquire organizationally relevant and job specific skills through person-to-person training	Organization development through successful project implementation knowledge and use of problem-solving procedures individual and group improvement of performance learning how to learn	Maintenance of a learning community that in addition to social and affiliation activities, provides an environment where individuals can learn from each other and learn from accepted "authorities" in specific areas
How is content/curricula decided? How are needs assessed?	Decided by sponsoring agency; teacher centered learning; needs are assessed by sponsoring agency	Teacher centered learning; Needs assessed by boss/senior manager	Joint needs assessment with decision makers and the working group training emerges from research (data collection and problem analysis) regarding organizational performance, and the training intervention then leads to further evaluation, assessment, and follow-up	Content focuses on internally generated insights and indigenous knowledge curricula/format determined by needs of learners, problem-centered
Trainer-learner role?	Trainer is expert authority who imparts wisdom; learner-dependent relationship, passive to semiactive learning	Boss as expert authority, coach, reinforcer, and role model	Trainer joins the work team or project as a resource	Each member is simultaneously a trainer and trainee

Strengths?	Economy of "method"--"one" teaching "many" maintains uniformity in training substance; most easy to evaluate/most measurable; speeds up learning/more information in a shorter period of time; avoids errors of trial-and-error method	low monetary outlay; keeps training closely related to the job; more effective in changing behavior than outside training interventions; flexible enough to be adjusted to different learning rates; more complex skills can be learned over longer period of time; reinforces learning from formal training	Integrates formal training sessions and informal coaching with on-the-job problem solving; fosters self-direction by the group, and builds group coherence and commitments to objectives; creates learning opportunity for host country trainers; emphasizes maximum participation in learning process; directly imparts individual managerial capacities and organizational performance; concepts and skills taught are directly related to needs or problems or opportunities identified	Common interests and unique learning needs serve as basis for initiation and continuation; reliance on local resources/low costs; emphasis of knowledge acquisition and information exchange; issues addressed have immediate relevance to most, if not all, participants; means of enhancing managerial capacities at highest levels; emphasizes learning from organizational experiences
Weaknesses?	Difficult to transfer classroom learning to behavioral change on job; transfer and learning dependent on (1) inclination of learner, (2) bosses' style, (3) climate, and (4) need to use it on the job; training takes place away from immediate supervisor or project officer; dependent on knowledge and biases of trainer; can be expensive in time and money to customize to make culturally specific and relevant	Too slow in view of urgency--learning by doing and trial and error--may take time; dependent on ability of senior manager to train subordinates; lack of high-caliber senior managers in some organizations; success dependent on rapport between senior and junior managers; doesn't address future educational and development needs of younger managers	Long-term commitment of time, money, personnel; group orientation in individually oriented societies; instability of external environment in many LDCs; doesn't address future educational and development needs of younger managers	Contrary to incentive and reward patterns in many LDCs; no formal authority pressing for behavioral change/no guarantee of success can reinforce existing systems and practices; groups must be homogeneous or group learning can be dominated by persons with rank; success dependent on rapport among participants

Figure 11.1 continued

ELEMENTS	THE FORMAL TRAINING APPROACH	THE ON-THE-JOB TRAINING APPROACH	THE ACTION TRAINING APPROACH	THE NON-FORMAL TRAINING APPROACH
Most effective for which levels and types of management?	Most effective for junior and middle-level managers; senior management seldom attends formal training	Especially junior and middle-level managers; not effective at senior or preentry levels	Project management, middle management	Senior level, top management
Conditions for effective use	Requires effective design: (1) diversity and mix of methods, (2) action oriented, (3) affective sequencing of methods and content modules; trainer must possess wide repertoire of learning tools and materials; back-home support--boss, peers, and consistent with organizational norms; accurate needs assessment done; topic seen as relevant to learner	Boss needs managerial style that facilitates counterpart learning; high caliber senior managers; clearly defined expectations; positive learning climate; junior and middle-level managers must have appropriate level of basic education to meet increased job requirements; long training timeframe	Felt need for change; flexible training design; stability and continuity in supportive external environment; long-term commitment of resources; highly skilled trainers (diagnostic and process skills); trainer has "expert" credibility; minimal personnel turnover; use with other strategies (e.g., formal)	Homogeneous interest groups, similar managerial levels or ranks; primary input should be from outside experts; learning content and focus must be selected by group participants; use with other strategies

and behavioral change, combined with the strengths and weaknesses of the three locations, *some initial practical guidelines and policy implications can be suggested regarding management training in less developed countries.*

Successful Management Training Is Based on Effective Needs Assessment

The choice in utilizing one of the four training approaches and encouraging managers to participate in overseas, third-country, or in-country training *must be based fundamentally on some assessment of needs at the national level, organizational level, and individual level.* Most developing countries establish national five-year development plans. A few countries, Malaysia, for example, include a planning element for developing managerial talent in order to meet their five-year goal (Arneberg 1984).

Most countries, however, do not integrate training into the national plan, and national training activities seldom refer to the five-year plans. This is a major deficiency when deciding on overseas, third country, or in-country training. It is important for developing countries to identify their areas of priority actions (Jilong 1979). Countries can then devote appropriate resources to the priority area and, based on developmental need and available resources, can then more efficiently target the training to overseas, third country, or in-country. The training activities thus become directly supportive of national programs. The link between national goals and management training can be established with a national training policy that reflects the national plan and identifies training targets and priority areas.[1] Management training then becomes relevant to the achievement of national objectives.

Similarly, organizational needs assessments are required to identify training priority areas relevant to the manager's particular situation and organizational context. Training then becomes supportive of organizational growth and development. A comprehensive organizational level needs assessment would include a study of the relevant organization, agency, or ministry—its objectives, its resources, and the total socioeconomic-technological environment within which the organization exists (Bass and Vaughan 1966). This level of analysis helps answer where the training emphasis can and should be placed, focuses on clarification of long- and short-term objectives, and determines the availability and needs of its management resources.

Unfortunately, a common difficulty in needs assessments is that the training objectives too often reflect the limited orientation and preconceived notions of the individual who is conducting the assessment. For this reason, it is important that an assessment of training needs at the individual level supplements the national and organizational analyses, and that it is conducted as a continuous dialogue between the managers being assessed and the person or group conducting the needs assessment.

Following national planning and goal setting, and after organizational and individual training needs assessments, the appropriate training approach and location—in-country, overseas, or third country—can then be chosen to support national programs, organizational improvement, and individual managerial development.

Overseas, Third-Country, and In-country Training for Different Levels of Managements

Effective management development in the Third World requires in-country training, as well as overseas and third-country training. Overseas training provides the manager with a more conceptual or general perspective on the role of managing and can have a "mind-broadening" effect on individuals. It provides "cross-fertilization" of ideas, as well as alternative "frames of reference" from which to view the managerial role. In-country training, on the other hand, more likely assures that specific management skills are acquired and implemented.

Overseas training and education tends to emphasize theory, issues, and authors. Its strength is that it can stimulate comparative frameworks and can develop important regional and global networks for government managers and development administrators; its main weakness is that it can have little potential for transfer of learning when the development administrator returns to his or her own country. When training is taken abroad, there is a tremendous need to institutionalize some sort of *debriefing process* and post-training support where the management trainees, upon their return to the country, share what they have learned and identify ways to implement what they have learned. This requires better in-country reorientation, and best occurs inside one's own organization as it decreases alienation and increases one's sense of investment in the training.

In-country training has the advantage of providing more relevant knowledge and skills. Commonwealth Secretariat (1979) argues for increased attention to in-country training for this reason: training is provided within the type of environment where it is intended to be applied. It also warns, however, that continuous in-country training can result in "inbreeding," justifying overseas training for the sake of broadening the horizons of individuals in a different environment (1979, 39).

Based on this analysis, the following guidelines initially emerge (see Figure 11.2):

- *Preentry management training* requires in-country training to provide basic levels of country-specific information, skills and attitudes.
- *Middle-level management training* requires in-country and third-country training, and occasional overseas training if financial resources are available (e.g., from a donor agency).
- *Senior, executive-level management training* requires the comparative perspective typically emerging from overseas training, as well as opportunities for third-country training.

Requisite Training Approaches for Different Levels of Management

A similar assessment can be completed for the four training approaches: formal, on-the-job, action, and non-formal training. Each emerges as particularly relevant to specific levels of management, and their strengths limited to one or two distinct levels of management. The following propositions may be effective guides in choosing

Figure 11.2 Management Levels and Training Locations

Level of Management	Most Appropriate Training Location
Preentry, preservice	In-country
First line management and . . . supervision	In-country and third country
Middle-level management	Third country and in-country
Executive-level management . .	Overseas and third country

an appropriate training approach (see Figure 11.3).

- *Preentry management training* requires formal training, especially the packaged and distance learning designs.
- *First-line management and supervisory training* requires formal training (especially the custom-tailored designs) and action training for those responsible for project management.
- *Middle-level management training* requires on-the-job and non-formal training (and action training if responsible for project management).
- *Executive level training* generally requires non-formal training.

Approaches Based on Objectives and Training Priorities

From a third perspective, certain training approaches appear more applicable to specific management training objectives. The comparative assessment in Chapter 9 indicates that specific training approaches are best suited for different training objectives (see Figure 11.4).

Finally, assuming that a developing country has established a national plan, and that management training priorities have been developed that reflect the national plan, certain priority targets are also more amenable to particular training approaches (see Figure 11.5).

Assuming the existence of adequate training resources in-country, as well as overseas, it generally appears that the approaches and locations can be most successful if utilized by specific levels of management (see Figure 11.6). Senior-level executives, for example, may benefit most by overseas formal training and third

Figure 11.3 Management Levels and Training Approaches

Level of Management	Most Appropriate Training Approach
Preentry, preservice . .	Formal training (especially the packaged and distance learning designs)
First-line management. . and supervision	Formal training (especially custom-tailored designs) and action training
Middle management. . . .	On-the-job training and non-formal training (action training if responsible for project management)
Senior executive. . . . . management	Non-formal training

Figure 11.4 Training Objectives and Approaches

Management Training Objectives	Most Appropriate Training Approach
1. Knowledge acquisition and retention	1. Formal training and action training
2. Skill building	2. On-the-job training, formal training (primarily the custom-tailored design), and action training
3. Development of appropriate attitudes and mature judgment	3. On-the-job training and non-formal training
4. Transfer of learning	4. On-the-job training and action training
5. Capacity building	5. On-the-job training, action training, and non-formal training

country and in-country non-formal training.

The formal training approach appears to be the least effective strategy for improving managerial talent at the senior executive level. A different approach is definitely required. If formal training is provided, it must be designed more as an "action planning" session, where a task-oriented trainer/facilitator assists the participating executives in working through an actual organizational problem or project they are individually pursuing "back at the office." The facilitator, for example, helps identify feasible project goals and objectives, assists in the development of an action plan, and helps the executives prepare the plan for delegation to subordinates for implementation.

Middle-level managers may benefit most by learning experiences that are in-country on-the-job training, in-country action training (if they are responsible for project management), and non-formal training that is provided in-country and third country. First-line management and supervision may require in-country action training, on-the-job, and formal training (especially the custom-tailored designs). Training for preentry and preservice appears most appropriate if it is in-country formal training (especially packaged and distance learning designs).

Scarce In-country Training Resources

These suggestions assume adequate in-country training resources for providing formal and on-the-job training. In many LDCs, how-

Figure 11.5 Approaches and Location by Priority

Target Priority	Most Appropriate Training Approach	Most Appropriate Training Location
1. Training that deals with the impact of the political environment on public organizations (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979)	1. On-the-job (Donaldson 1973), non-formal (Miller 1984)	1. In-country
2. Training in project management (Morris 1981; Korten et al. 1977)	2. Action training (Solomon et al. 1979)	2. In-country
3. Upgrading training for middle-level managers (Youker 1983)	3. On-the-job (United Nations 1978) and non-formal training	3. In-country and third country
4. Basic management training for managers in rural areas (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979)	4. Formal training, especially distance training designs	4. In-country
5. Executive management skills for public enterprises in a global market place	5. Formal training and non-formal training	5. Overseas and third country
6. Developing an international and comparative perspective for public executives	6. Formal training and non-formal training	6. Overseas and third country

ever, there exists poor quality and limited capability of training institutes and training departments, forcing much of the formal training to occur in third countries, at regional training centers, or overseas at universities in industrialized countries.

Training of Trainers

LDCs with scarce internal resources may best be served by first pursuing a comprehensive training-of-trainers (TOT) strategy. Key indigenous trainers can pursue formal TOT training overseas, for example, at the University of Southern California's International Training-of-Trainers program or the World Bank's Economic Development Institute. Upon returning home, the indigenous trainers then provide in-depth TOT training to individuals in-country. This is a longer-term capacity building strategy that requires strong commitment by national training institutes to be successful. When sufficient internal training resources are then made available, the suggested training strategies become considerably more plausible.

Posttraining Support

When first-line supervisors and middle-level managers are sent overseas for formal training, due to scarce indigenous training capability, a shorter-term strategy is available: posttraining support. Following a formal training or educational program overseas, it is important that the individual applies what he or she has learned. First, the formal training must be seen as being useful by the individual's superiors. This is usually ensured if an adequate assessment of national and organizational needs had been conducted prior to the training overseas. In addition, the internalization of new managerial behaviors is enhanced when the following posttraining support is provided upon returning to one's home country:

1. *The individual "briefs"* his or her superiors, peers and subordinates on the training and education overseas, and explains its organizational relevance. New techniques and theories learned can be discussed and shared with other organizational members. This may take the form of formal

Figure 11.6 Management Training Strategies for LDCs

Level of Management	Appropriate Training Option
Senior, executive managers	a) overseas formal training b) third country non-formal training c) in-country, non-formal training
Middle-level managers	a) in-country, on-the-job training b) in-country, action training c) third country, non-formal training d) in-country, non-formal training
First-line manager and supervisors	a) in-country, action training b) in-country, on-the-job training c) in-country, formal training (particularly the custom-tailored design)
Preentry and preservice	a) in-country, formal training (especially the distance learning and packaged designs)

training workshops, on-the-job instruction, and non-formal peer training, and provides a crucial reorientation to the returning individual.

2. *Alumni groups are formed,* joining together other management staff who have participated in the same or similar formal training program; these groups should be allocated time to meet during regular work hours, when possible. Forcing the alumni group to meet during lunch or after hours suggests that the training has a low priority in the organization.
3. *Follow-up training on the new skills* is provided on-the-job by the individuals superior or mentor. OJT provides reinforcement of the new skill learned and increases the probability that new behaviors will be internalized. Additional follow-up formal training in-country can also provide the opportunity for the individual to review and update, in order to refresh his or her memory of the details of the content of the overseas training experience.
4. *Rewards for training* by tangible rewards or incentives offered to returning management trainees can also motivate individuals to use what they have learned overseas; rewards do not necessarily have to be monetary or promotional. Formal, public recognization can be considerably motivating to many.

More General Guidelines

Described below are major lessons already recognized for improving North American and European efforts in developing high-caliber managerial capacities in Third World countries.

Adaptable Theories, Concepts, and Tools

We cannot, and should not, expect wholesale transfer of North American and European public administration and management theories, concepts, and tools.

Whatever public administration knowledge is transmitted, it must ultimately be *adapted* to the specific situation of the learner. The concepts and tools developed in the United States and exported to LDCs cannot be *adopted* wholesale, grafted onto an existing administrative-political-economic system often very different from the North American and European systems from which they were born. Not only do the unique Third World administrative systems require modifications of the tools that are imported from the West, but a learner must additionally modify the concepts and skills to the specific situation in which he/she operates. Thus, the public administration knowledge that is transmitted must eventually be modified by the learner and the educator (trainer or teacher) to be culture-specific, sector-specific, and organization-specific. What is needed is the adaptation of management skills to local cultures, and more important, the development of original local techniques and managerial systems.

Culture-supportive Management Training

Management training must be supportive of the indigenous culture, and not countercultural.

Public administration and management training must recognize the cultural differences between North America and Third World countries, as well as the cultural diversity among and within less developed countries in Latin America, the Middle East, Africa, and Asia.

Emphasis must be placed on meeting specific training objectives by designing training experiences appropriate to the local culture. Considerable front-end reconnaissance may be required prior to designing the management training that is supportive of the indigenous culture. Three particular areas require attention: communications patterns, culturally based role expectations, and culturally influenced learning styles.

Communication. The essence of education is communication; intercultural communication—verbal and nonverbal—thus becomes a fundamental issue and often inhibits the transmission of theories, concepts, and tools. A poignant example is provided by Condon and Yousef (1975, 122):

> The British Professor of Poetry relaxed during his lecture at Ain Shams University in Cairo. So carried away was he in explicating a poem that he leaned back in his chair and so revealed the sole of his foot to the astonished class. To make such a gesture in a Moslem society is the worst kind of insult. The Cairo newspapers the next day carried banner headlines about the student demonstration which resulted, and they denounced British arrogance and demanded that the Professor be sent home.

The importance of understanding and utilizing unique cultural communication patterns is also obvious in the use of metaphors and analogies when used as an instructional technique. Most agree that metaphors are powerful tools for education and training; thus, the cultural relevance of a metaphor is necessary in order to have full impact. A management trainer in Saudi Arabia, for example, provides little clarity when he or she explains that the "formal organization is just the *tip of the iceberg* when examining organizational behavior." Reference to icebergs in teaching Middle Eastern students has minimal analogical value to them. More appropriate metaphors, based on Islamic folk legends, for example, would be infinitely more effective in communicating relevant information.

Role Expectations. Role behaviors vary from culture to culture and tend to mirror a particular culture's values. These behaviors, and the expectations or assumptions that influence them, usually exist at the informal level and require cultural sensitivity by trainers. The cultural expectations attached to a role, as well as how strictly they are followed, can prove to be an almost insurmountable barrier in public management training. The lack of awareness of a culture's role expectations can effectively block the communication process by the use of an inappropriate behavior or the formation of a negative evaluation of an individual who fails to meet a culture's expectations.

The most common problem in management development activities is the role expectations of the *trainer as expert*. Management trainers are often expected to be the experts and to act like experts who are able to easily transmit some truth. Unfortunately, in such training activities as case studies, role playing, and simulation exercises, the trainer role as facilitator and coach directly contradicts the role as "expert" and can cause some unique forms of cognitive disorientation to non-western students. This forces the trainer to develop "transitional techniques," where the training initially conforms to the participants expectations, and then moves incrementally toward the direction required for achieving the specific learning objectives. For example, where the trainer is perceived as expert, the trainer may start out in that role by lecturing, but when he or she has gained the respect and trust of the participants, a shift to other more participative training methods can occur.

Learning Styles. There is considerable data, both anecdotal and empirical, indicating that individuals learn in different ways and that effective education strategies require using a variety of visual, auditory, and kinesthetic methods. There is emerging data indicating that learning styles are also culturally specific and culturally biased. The failure of many management training programs can be attributed not to deficiencies in content but to inappropriate training delivery, especially training that was not congruent with the participants' learning biases.

It is extremely important to be aware of the culture in which one is working. It is difficult to pick up all the nuances of the culture, especially when many Third World countries have multiple cultures. When coping with the indigenous culture, country personnel have to take a major responsibility for several reasons. As insiders, they know the culture, are not temporary, and are more likely to create workable alternatives within the culture. Training, whatever its form, should therefore encourage country personnel to take a larger role than mere observation and evaluation.

Distinction Between Learning and Teaching

An important conceptual distinction must be made between "learning" and "teaching" and this distinction must be reflected in the training designs.

Many view public administration and management training narrowly as a very specific transfer of an expert's specialized knowledge to more than one individual at a time. Most define training exclusively in terms of teaching or instruction. Management training must be conceptualized in broader terms. It is too often seen as "courses" to be offered in a classroom setting. This is too limiting, for most learning activities actually occur outside of a classroom. More important, *training involves learning, not teaching;* unless something has been learned, there is no training. Learning is a relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of practice, experience, or reflection. With this broader framework, the array of available training options, approaches, programs, and methods is tremendously expanded.

The distinction between learning and teaching is particularly crucial in developing countries since they are only beginning to build locally relevant knowledge in the area of management techniques, styles, and concepts appropriate in their particular cultural-social-political-administrative contexts. Indigenous scholarship in management is increasing, uncovering subtle differences between developed and developing countries in requisite managerial skills. This forces managers in LDCs to learn continually and to understand the culturally specific insights that are emerging. Thus public management training in developing countries should not only transmit what is already known, but also nurture or inspire a *continuing process of learning* what is not known and understanding new insights as they are being discovered.

Combining Training Approaches for LDCs

We must experiment with different combinations of training approaches and methods, observe their impact, and evaluate their effectiveness in improving managerial capacities in LDCs.

Assuming that training efforts require a focus on learning, not teaching, new learning activities need to be developed and evaluated. Although evaluating the effectiveness of training programs is very difficult, increased efforts must be made and the results collected and disseminated. Training practices should be rich, varied, and creative. Understanding management training as encompassing four specific approaches—formal, on-the-job, action, and non-formal—expands the number of training options available to Third World countries, and creates an almost infinite variety of combinations. Middle-management training regarding budgeting techniques, for example, that combines a formal training workshop provided by an expert trainer, with on-the-job coaching by one's superior, and non-formal training activities (such as luncheon meetings and a newsletter for budget officers) can stimulate peer learning and the further reinforcement of new budgeting skills. Combining other approaches to an initial formal training program can initiate sustained knowledge and skill building, and can inspire continued learning over time that is relatively costless.

Policy Implications

Management training of high quality is a goal common to LDCs; yet, this simply stated goal is usually not achieved. Failure to reach this goal is perplexing, as LDCs are providing sizable amounts of money and other resources for management training, and, frequently, the LDC's money and resources are substantially reinforced by donors. *LDCs must now develop and nurture "systems of learning resources."* Management-training policies must be enacted if training is to produce the returns expected by the LDC. Exactly which training practices and policies are established and how successful they are varies with each country. However, areas that an LDC must analyze and establish policy for include trainers, national training policy, location of institute, and the organization and administration of the training institute.

Trainers

The trainer is the most important component in management training (UN Conference Training Report, 1976). Regardless of the approach, the method, or the training location, the success or failure of training is primarily linked to the quality of the trainer. The better training institutions in LDCs devote considerable time and effort to attracting the best trainers possible.

The trainer must have such tangible qualifications as:

1. Technical expertise in training as well as general management skills
2. Experience in government or the private sector, preferably at a high level of administration. The trainer will have difficulty communicating the subtleties of the administrator's art without having experienced them personally
3. A masters degree, with the Ph.D. preferred
4. The ability to conduct consultancies and action research for government or public enterprise agencies. Based on his work in Nigeria, Odia (1975, 28-29) effectively argues, as do many others, for the importance of the trainer also being an effective consultant; by its very nature, consultancy is a form of teaching.
5. The interest, talent, and commitment to participate in scholarly research that can be applied to the needs of the LDC. Trainers also are expected to have the research capabilities that allow them to be intellectually active and professionally proud of their capacity to grapple effectively with national problems (Stifel et al. 1978).

The tangible qualifications of the trainer are formidable, although by themselves will not guarantee success. The trainer must also be instilled with intangible qualifications including:

- A "zeal" or a "sense of mission." Ralph W. Tyler, founder and Director Emeritus of the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences, Stanford University, cogently argues that this is the key to being an effective teacher or trainer (Tyler 1984).
- A commitment to the belief in the essence of public service and an unwavering commitment to and practice of the highest ethical public service standards
- An interest in training as more than a job

Good trainers are not all that common; yet, a training center stands little, if any, chance of success without instructors of high quality. This issue is exacerbated frequently by low salaries that encourage, or force, the trainer to seek additional employment outside the training center. The more successful training institutions finance additional education for their faculty members. Thus developing an appropriate incentive system that attracts and retains trainers of high quality must be a top agenda item for LDCs. This may be crucial in developing in-country training capability; without indigenous training resources, formal training will have to be sought overseas or in third countries, creating significant transfer-of-learning dilemmas.

Another issue confronting training institutes is the acceptance of "secondment trainers." Too often a person becomes a trainer because his services are no longer needed within some other agency of government. Such an individual usually has few of the qualifications required of trainers and is simply biding time until a more favorable position is available. Salaries, recruiting and keeping faculty, and secondment are issues that must be dealt with in the training institution's policy statement.

National Training Policy

Another key ingredient to effective management training is a national training policy which reflects the national plan. For example, if the national plan espouses decentralized government and development activities, the training policy should have action plans to help achieve this policy.

Scarce resources underscore the need for a national training policy. Additional reasons include the importance of covering the full range of government activities, the necessity of training activities being relevant to the achievement of national objectives, the need to maintain a degree of consistency or continuity in a training policy, and the importance of linking training for immediate job improvement to a more comprehensive, forward-planning framework for the LDC (Reilly 1979).

The ingredients for a national training policy as suggested by Paul (1983, 30-33) include (a) stating the objectives and scope of training so that the importance of training is well understood by both the employers and those providing training; (b) offering guidelines to training needs assessment and assigning the responsibility for this task among relevant agencies to facilitate orderly planning of training activities; (c) articulating the overall training plan for the government, the underlying strategy and, given the scarcity of resources—human, financial, and organizational—giving priorities in terms of the tasks to be accomplished; (d) providing guidelines for the monitoring and evaluation of training with special reference to the impact of training on organizational performance and the achievement of national development; and (e) establishing suitable linkages between the broader personnel policies of government and training so as to allow training to influence significantly career development and promotion prospects of public servants.

Having a national training policy that dovetails with future LDC developments as delineated in the national plan is obvious; yet, few LDCs have adopted a formal training policy. In Latin America, few countries have passed civil service laws with reference to training (Paul 1983, 34); and, in Asia, only Pakistan, Malaysia, and the Philippines have declared training policies, with India having partially adopted one (Raksasataya et al. 1980 and Mathur 1980, 24-30). In Africa, no country has a comprehensive training policy although the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa has strongly encouraged and fostered such a practice with some apparent success. At a 1981 meeting of twenty-three African countries concerned with human resource planning, there was strong consensus for the need to have national training policies (Addis Ababa Meeting 1981).

The relative newness of national training policies and the small number of countries adopting such policies does not allow many definitive statements to be made. However, there is agreement that a training policy has the potential to help in the total development of a country. The adoption of national training policies does not assure training program success; but the absence of such a policy simply compounds the difficulty of the task.

In the absence of a national training policy, it is recommended that training institutions develop their own statement of training policy to reflect as closely as possible national goals. The importance of adopting training policies for each of the training institutions in an LDC should never be minimized. Clarity of thought regarding the training population to be served, needs assessment practices, structure and content, hiring practices for full-time and part-time faculty, pay scale, and professional development practices for faculty and staff will help in achieving individual and institutional goals for each training institution.

Location of LDC Training Institute

A management training institution in an LDC will normally be administratively housed in a department of government, a university, or a semiautonomous unit. Few, if any, training institutes are completely independent. Following a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of each location, (Reilly 1979, 116-122), we will present a review of the organizational features common to management training institutions with an earned reputation for being successful.

Training institutions that are a unit of government have the potential advantages of (a) favorable political and administrative support; assistance in obtaining appropriate trainees; better acceptance as part of public service in contrast to higher education linkages, which are regarded with suspicion in some countries; (b) better opportunities for consultancy and research; (c) more ready access to information about government; and (d) the opportunity to provide trainees with practical field work. If the training institution is part of government, a major disadvantage is the loss of control in the operation of the institute because the government's administrative system and practices are imposed on the new organization (Paul 1983, 67). Other disadvantages found are higher turnover of staff, nepotism, and possibly the pressure to be more oriented toward application.

Locating the management training institute within a university structure can have many positive features. This is true whether it is part of a department or school, a separate organizational unit, or a semi-independent body. Advantages related to the general atmosphere and ambience of the university are: prestige, accessibility to students, research emphasis, library resources, physical facilities, and a more receptive climate to new ideas.

Training institutions located within universities frequently are confronted with such issues as: changing the focus from education for the purpose of obtaining an academic degree to training for the purpose of acquiring new skills and knowledge to improve one's job performance; focusing on the formal training approach to the exclusion of on-the-job, non-formal, and action training; accepting the University's primary method of teaching, lecture—in lieu of more appropriate training methods; and evaluating the performance of trainees primarily by written examinations, when other evaluation techniques may be more appropriate. Again, the almost total absorption of doing it the university way, both positive and negative, prevents the training institute from having its own identity. Also, what may be the accepted positive features of university related institutes will vary from country to country.

Semiautonomous (some say autonomous) institutes normally are more oriented to private or public enterprise concerns than are public management institutes. The most noted strength of semiautonomous centers is the absence or limited control of their functions by government. Normally, such an institute is viewed as more sensitive to client needs, although it may simply be the result of charging for their training fees. Having the right to establish their own pay scales gives the semiautonomous institute the hiring edge over its public counterpart and the opportunity to provide financial incentives when deemed appropriate. The problems encountered include initial financing, difficulties in building an enviable reputation to attract clientele, charging for training services that may be available less expensively through government subsidized institutes, and the lack of a more powerful parent organization from which it can obtain assistance.

Organization and Administration

The organization and administration of training institutes have not been studied extensively, although adequate information exists from which pertinent observations can be made. Nevertheless, the *organization and administration* of training institutes in LDCs are as relevant to their effectiveness as the *content and quality* of their services. See, especially Paul (1983, 67). Kubr (1982) provides a comprehensive strategy for effectively managing training institutes. Sherwood and Fisher (1984) also provide excellent suggestions for stimulating institutional self-evaluation and development.

No single set of organizational or administrative criteria exists to predict a training institution's success; however, there are some policies and institutional arrangements that appear to be more effective than others. Some of these follow.

Limited Governmental Controls. To meet the changing needs of the LDC and to help forge thinking to meet the developmental programs of the LDC, flexibility or autonomy is important. Training institutes that use this flexibility successfully earn the privilege of continued autonomy.

Integrated Purpose. The perception that teaching, consultancy, and research is one integrated process, not three distinct processes, is often found in successful training institutions. It is frequently argued that teaching is bland, or even worse, if consultancy and research are absent in the life of the trainer. Similarly, effective institutes stimulate and nurture the utilization of all four training approaches: formal, on-the-job, non-formal, and action training (Odia 1975; De Guzman 1976).

Leadership. Institutional leadership is directly related to the success achieved in all training programs. The successful institutes have been able to establish a sense of purpose and direction for their organizations. These institutes also have been successful in recruiting and keeping faculty who are intellectually active and professionally proud of their capacity to grapple effectively with national problems (Stifel 1977, 98).

Faculty Nucleus. The size of the institute's nucleus must be sufficient to provide a scope for experimentation, innovation, and programs and activities that require multidisciplinary groups (Chowdhry 1977; Paul 1983). The specific number for a faculty nucleus will be determined partly by the purpose and breadth of training of the institute; however, a successful institute frequently has more than twenty faculty members for its nucleus.

Faculty Development. The more successful institutes have established meaningful faculty development programs. In a recent international survey of 118 management training institutions, the most urgent problem identified by the institutes was the need to develop and upgrade faculty (Fngelbert 1980). Reilly (1979, 14) notes that faculty professional development programs should focus on three areas: the theoretical content of the faculty's teaching area, the practical application of what is to be taught, and how to train.

Continuous Evaluation of Programs. For an institute to maintain its relevance to trainees' learning needs, regular evaluations of its programs must be conducted by the institute. A successful institute *strives to become a "learning system,"* one that continually updates its training activities, refreshes its training facilities, and renews its goals and objectives.

Summary

Effective management training requires practices, policies, and resources that will attract talented and dedicated trainers, select the best organizational form, and assure that the best management practices guide the organization and administration of the training institute.

Management training priorities should be reflected in the goals and policies of training institutes as well as be embodied in a country's national plan. Different training objectives and priorities—for example, the development of political skills for public enterprise executives—require specific training approaches such as non-formal training. Similarly, different levels of management require different training approaches.

Most important, training priorities, goals, and objectives must precipitate from needs assessments. A country's management training efforts, in order to meet its identified objectives, must utilize all four approaches to management training: formal training, on-the-job training, action training, and non-formal training.

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About the Authors and the Book

The basic premise of this book is that management training and education, now more than ever, are crucial ingredients in the development process. Calling for a fundamental reconceptualization of management training in developing countries, the authors assess the current state of the art of public management training in LDCs, outline the training activities used in those countries to develop managerial competencies, and identify the more effective approaches to providing management training relevant to Third World contexts. They examine the strengths and weaknesses of each of the management training approaches and offer practical recommendations that can guide effective management training efforts. They are particularly concerned with providing assistance to emerging efforts within the developing countries themselves to build indigenous managerial capacities and improved management systems.

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