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POPULAR PARTICIPATION AND INTERNATIONAL TRAINING:

- I. REPORT ON THE WORKSHOP ON TRAINING FOR SOCIAL CHANGE
- and
- II. A PROTOTYPE TRAINING DESIGN FOR SOCIAL CHANGE

Final Report Prepared for
The Agency for International Development
Office of International Training

by

IDEAS, Inc. (Institutional Development and
Economic Affairs Service, Inc.)
1755 Massachusetts Ave., N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Contract A.I.D./csd-2588

August 14, 1970

A.I.D.
Reference Center
Room 1656 NS

Popular participation and international training:...

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To: John Kean TA/PM

12 October, 1970

From: R. W. Schmeding TA/EHR *RWS*

Subject: Review of IDEAS, Inc. final report of 14 August, 1970

1. Aside from the fact that the document is quite interesting, the physical format is not the kind that facilitates understanding. I would be happy to be deprived of some of the scintillating syntax and colorful phraseology if it meant having a clearer picture of what is proposed. Perhaps both could be achieved?

It might help if some type of more traditional outline could be utilized, especially under Roman II. As for example, under "Design" at least some clear, concise statement of:

- A. Objectives
- B. Scope and Limitations
- C. Methodology

2. Of particular concern to me is the fact that the objectives or purposes of the proposed program do not specifically indicate what the design purports to accomplish. The emphasis upon "political development," for example, is not specified in the statements of "purpose." If I have understood the "purpose" section correctly, the following represent that which is proposed:

1. The participants will be given opportunities to think through the implications of their profession as it relates to the development of their countries.
2. The participants will analyze education as a process, an institution and as part of a larger system. To do this, participants will look at themselves as educators; their preconceptions and experiences will be utilized in a kind of self-analysis.
3. The participants will be helped to see problems clearly and to try new solutions (for example, thinking through the "primacy of education in development process" and "rethinking assumptions about education,")

While I understand that such broad statements of "purpose" may cover the emphasis upon "political development," I would be happier with more specific formulations of objectives. The first objective implies a broad-based examination of education as part of a total development process, including the economic, social, historical and political elements; something I believe is noted on pp. 33 ff. But this is too far removed from the "purpose" section.

In short, the purposes or objectives should be specific, indicating in precise terms exactly what is planned. See p. 4 comment that "training goals and desired skills (should be) . . . clearly specified and stipulated in terms of future desired behaviors. . ."

3. Page 3 of part II asks, "Is there popular participation in the decision-making about education?" I have the feeling that the proposed program itself

does not reflect "popular participation." Put another way, what opportunities do participants have to decide what they will study and how they will study? Is this important?

4. Is there too much emphasis upon oral, verbal skills, too much reliance upon participants' facility with the English language? We have to be careful that we are not expecting a too sophisticated ability with language tools which not all participants may possess equally. Put another way, what we may in fact be measuring, assessing, or evaluating in the final analysis is the number of persons in our participants' group who are fluent and articulate enough to express their new perceptions, skills, and changes of attitude, etc., and not any clear picture of the quality of participants' growth and change. I like the "work experience" element, and this should mitigate somewhat what I regard as a heavy emphasis upon verbal oral expression skills.

5. How is the program itself to be evaluated? Although I can see elements of evaluation, as for example, in participants' perceiving themselves as they perceive, and in the brief reference to "follow-up" (page 44), in what manner is the overall training scheme to be evaluated? Put another way, what is the "end-product" to be of such a program as this? An evaluation of a pilot-try-out of a new kind of training scheme; an assessment of learning, developed skills, changed attitudes realized through a training program? This whole question is very much a consideration of purpose.

6. Ziegler's criticism of sensitivity training, that the "process becomes more important than the purposes of the training," may be applied with some justification to the training scheme as proposed in the document. No one can seriously fault the energy, ability, and imagination that has so obviously gone into the development of this training scheme. But one may ask if the "medium is the message"--is the detail and strategy of this scheme obscuring the purposes of having such training in the first place?

7. I am a bit overwhelmed by the intricacies of the training scheme, which admittedly may be more apparent than real. It is an appealing scheme; I would find it a stimulating experience to be involved in such an undertaking, as a participant. But is it too sophisticated; "too much"? In our cultural context, wherein we delight in experimentation and innovation, the thing could be most helpful and productive. But can we expect participants from developing nations to profit from such a blending of a variety of pedagogical methods, steeped as they are in the traditional learning approaches? This may simply be another way of asking if it might not be wise to ask LDC participants to review the projected training scheme before it is established.

Suppose the scheme doesn't work; suppose participants simply cannot cope with the program; what contingency plan exists for "bailing out"?

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August 14, 1970

Robert E. Matteson, Director
Office of International Training
Agency for International Development
1901 Pennsylvania Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C.

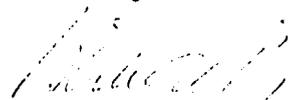
Dear Mr. Matteson:

In fulfillment of the provisions of Contract No. AID/csd-2588, we hereby transmit to you a report which sets forth a design for a program for possible use as a supplement to present technical training programs. Incorporated into this report are the summary and findings of the Workshop which contributed to the conceptual framework of the design.

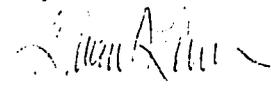
This design represents a suggestive prototype. As a model, it could be adapted for a number of other professions. While this particular design is geared to educators studying in this country under AID sponsorship, it could, for example, be reprogrammed as a supplementary training design for people in the field of public health or social welfare or journalism.

We are very appreciative of the cooperation we have received from your staff both in preparing the Workshop and in planning the design. The series of inquiries we made regarding substantive aspects of various programs being sponsored by OIT were always answered promptly and in detail. Lastly, we felt the scope of work to be undertaken represented a real challenge, particularly the more recent assignment directing us to tailor the overall design specifically to the needs of foreign educators. It has been a challenging experience, a learning experience, and for both we are grateful.

Very sincerely yours,



Csanad Toth



Brian D. Beun

Associate Directors

cc: Mr. Martin M. McLaughlin
Mr. John Lippmann
Mr. Arthur Mekeel

Enc.

POPULAR PARTICIPATION AND INTERNATIONAL TRAINING:

- I. REPORT ON THE WORKSHOP ON TRAINING FOR SOCIAL CHANGE
and
- II. A PROTOTYPE TRAINING DESIGN FOR SOCIAL CHANGE

Final Report Prepared by

IDEAS, INC.

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I. REPORT ON THE WORKSHOP ON TRAINING FOR SOCIAL CHANGE

- Washington, D. C. - April 27 - 29, 1970 -

TRAINING FOR SOCIAL CHANGE

A three-day workshop was convened by IDEAS, Inc. to discuss in as much depth as possible the problems--methodological, pedagogical, and institutional--in recasting and in devising fresh, shorter training courses which embrace the social and political change objectives of Title IX for AID-sponsored foreign nationals.

The selection of participants, the general design of the conference, the designation of the core subjects, and the technical format were all worked out in continuous discussion with representatives of AID. In its purposes it was agreed that this should not be a workshop imprisoned within a tight or arbitrary agenda, nor under compulsion to force its way to an agreed set of recommendations and conclusions, nor bound by fixed rules of discussion and debate. Above all, the effort was made that this not be a workshop in which participants talk to but rather with AID, that its size be small enough to permit candor and open reconnaissance, and that no one feel bound to obstinate defense of their institutional roles or professional garrisons. This goal was achieved to a substantial degree.

To provide a common framework for discussion, to abbreviate a wasting excess of preliminary calisthenics, and to stir a constructive disaccord of views several short papers were prepared and circulated in advance of the workshop. (See the abstracts of these papers in Appendix F.) In addition IDEAS prepared analytical synopses of fifteen training programs under AID's and

others' aegis and sought to define four principal foci around which much of the discussion could revolve. This was less successful; not all participants had or took much time to read them, much less ponder them in advance, and quite a swath of the same ground had to be traversed a second time; some of the material was never reached. There was perhaps an excess of advance materials--one would like to believe an embarrassment of riches. One conferee at least thought the conference handbook was a kind of mortuary and that it might have been better to prepare papers immediately after the workshop.

A third objective in planning the conference was to have in attendance a blend of persons--not all specialists, not all present, past, or future AID employees or consultants, not all blighted victims of scholastic endeavor. (For the list of workshop participants see Appendix G.) Such an amalgam was reasonably well assembled, though only during the second day were there strong signs of effective cross-breeding. In the earlier stages the voices of the "outsiders" were largely muted. However, the feeling grew that the formal and informal contributions made by Mr. Dawley, Miss Howe and others, not barnacled by long voyages in the briny deep of foreign assistance and unvexed by the ambiguous contours of Title IX, added greatly to the astringency and realism of the meetings. They helped everyone to perforate those presentations which were encased in private languages or in personally privileged logic. Even then not every conferee left the workshop with the conviction that they had fully comprehended the position

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of Dr. Meehan, which he argued most persuasively. The non-specialists nudged the workshop into considering how still experimental techniques to alleviate obdurate domestic problems might have analogues in and provide buttressing for Title IX training courses.

Since the discussions did not march to a fully elaborated series of conclusions or to the genesis of a fully articulated prototype, it seems best to present this account of the conference in a more synthesized than chronological fashion. The nuclear points of discussion, regardless of where they occurred in the sessions, and the main motifs are highlighted in this summary together with the main lines of recommendation. Undoubtedly this does violence to the insouciant patois of some conferees, the Gothic expositions of others, the lambent wit of many, and the integrity of some presentations. However, a complete narrative account of the conference would be very cold mutton. The workshop papers, abstracts of which are appended, preserve in coherent and usable form the main avenues of thinking that went into the conference. This report instead stresses the convergences, the road-blocks, as well as the new terrain that the workshop brought to light.

THE UNDERPINNING OF TRAINING FOR SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CHANGE

The principal focus during much of the first two days was the effort to crystallize conceptual cores for training programs for social change. For much of this time, the discussion was in counterpoint to the presentation of Dr. Meehan, who also submitted two analytical papers in advance of the Workshop on cognitive

skills and intervention strategies.

Dr. Meehan did not argue a preemptive role for the cognitive training in which he and Dr. Chiappetta specialize. But he did feel strongly that it was the only sensible core for relatively short courses and that it was most likely to have spill-over effect in other areas--awareness, values, and social intervention strategies. Dr. Meehan felt that his pedagogical approaches to training were the most adoptive, the least dependent on place, political climate, or duration of training, the natural bedrock for the achievement of wider objectives in training, "What we call cognitive capacity provides the essential reality control in behavior; it supplies the ground for preference and the substance of preference. Without it, all human behavior is merely random," said Meehan. Provided training goals and desired skills are clearly specified and stipulated in terms of future desired behaviors, then progress can be made even in the face of handicaps--e.g., Princeton Lyman's and Ziegler's stress that the typical trainee is a middle-level technician or bureaucrat who is not disposed to innovation, much less revolution. Skills can be generalized, Meehan argued, and a capacity to identify and choose alternatives can also be enlarged even among less than ideally chosen trainees. Of course, any course should seek candidates who in fact are likely to be agents of social change, to avoid training programs which are either overdiluted or too rich in content, and to take into consideration the resources that will be necessary for the trained agent to use effectively.

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Dr. Chiappetta in large measure echoed Meehan's thesis and set forth his ideas that "critical skills" can be identified. He too felt that in a development perspective, cognition plays a far more decisive part than does value. Though claims ought not be exaggerated, he, too, saw practical ways of combining problem-solving with some infusion of the participation training which Title IX seeks. Chiappetta too stressed a need for careful selection of goals; if this is done and the teaching is good, then training can give the participant a framework for problem-solving and the ability to see potential for the transferability of methods of solutions.

During the first day the cognitive methods were described mainly in general terms, but they held center stage while alternative pedagogical routes established only small beachheads. The Freire Method alluded to by Mr. Toth and Mrs. Fisher received only summary analysis and was largely discarded except by Dr. Stephansky who felt that it at least took proper account of the needs for political sensitization in training and the desirability of avoiding excessive complexity. But Chiappetta saw the Freire method as largely a "red herring" across the path of the workshop. Meehan insisted that nothing was more ambiguous than "experience," and they and others felt that the Freire method is too romantically formulated and too much an indoctrination in value set with scant cognitive content. The Freire method of "conscientizacion" thereafter vanished from the discussion.

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Sensitivity training, the broad context for which was set by R. K. Ready in a conference paper, was also rejected by most conferees as the center-piece of a Title IX prototype course, though many acknowledged that it could be woven in as an organic part of such a course--which was indeed Mr. Ready's own preference. Some doubts lingered, however, first raised by Princeton Lyman, who saw little mesh between sensitivity training and participation training. In his mind sensitivity training too easily becomes self-absorptive--worrying more about its own integrity as a means of communication rather than about movement towards the solution of problems. A good course needs more institutional grounding; Schott, though sharing some of those reservations, felt that sensitivity training had some coherence when viewed in a short add-on course. Miss Howe looked at sensitivity training as a particularly arrogant approach, while others--especially from AID--expressed the fear that sensitivity training can erode self-confidence and become an enervating rather than productive intellectual experience. Dr. Stephens cautioned about the intellectual flimsiness of some sensitivity training, its natural concentration on the small group, and its omission of social and cultural themes, especially in relation to foreign societies. He also saw sensitivity training as working against the grain of need in most foreign countries, What is required is not to produce a smooth interplay between the personality and the group but rather to learn to operate against powerful group or elite pressures which implies rejecting the group, standing on one's own feet, rejecting prevailing value systems. Sensitivity

training seems to favor the smooth operator, nursing the torment of decision and purposive action. In short, the criticism was not consistent: some felt that sensitivity training was too sedative; others too laxative.

Dr. Stephansky raised cautionary flags about all the methods being ventilated. If the Freire method is a kind of hazy cloud bank, too romantic in its imagery and too amorphous in its description, both Meehan's cognitive propositions and sensitivity training have dangers too--the notion that we can make better technicians if we but get the chance. Though it is clear that Title IX is a statement of desperation in the thickening gloom and though the current climate for aid stressing social advance is adverse, the excessive dependence on the two methods espoused will add but one more certainty that technology/efficiency will override political/social objectives. Messrs. Beun, von Lazar, Toth and Cross added similar perspectives of their own.

Mr. Ziegler was most persistent in pursuing what he considered the possible shortcomings of the cognitive methods. He warned that a vital distinction must be made between change as action as against knowledge. Whatever pedagogical techniques or mix thereof adopted, there is an authoritarian disposition to assume that persons coming here have nothing to teach us but only need to learn. He echoed the view of Stephansky that in a period of "low profile" and a time when there is greater sensitivity to the dangers of arrogant interference through foreign assistance, we must equally guard against bleaching all fervor out of what we

do and of trying to transfer political skills without worrying about how they are to be used. A false technocracy is one peril; the other is that we try to transfer knowledge without carefully looking at the assumptions by which we are doing so and without asking whether there are not some things which we need to have transferred to us. This in turn implies some significant behavior changes in AID itself--not an easy task at this moment in its history.

Mr. von Lazar sought to stress that political change and participation must also be considered in the context of the organizational life and class structures of the societies we are thinking about. A movement towards political development is intimately interlocked with a concern for maldistribution of political power, income, economic benefits, and social influence. Therefore trainers must keep in view those skills which lead to "extended participation," Mr. Schott, Mr. Toth and others said that Title IX is becoming completely frozen by fears of involvement and interference in other countries. There are people in AID and there is experience and a body of knowledge to show that we can act in many instances with reasonable tact and clarity. Title IX cannot work in a condition of political abstinence and chastity. As Mr. Lyman has pointed out, the issue of sensitivity, if not to be minimized, should also not be overdramatized. A

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mere technocratic input is a recipe for stagnation. Dr. Stephan-sky said this is a two-edged phenomenon: "technification" of the individual can become a deep-seated purpose in a society--for some, technical education is the fulfillment of human and social aspirations. Meehan agreed that technology can be social.

A NEW SYNTHESIS? -- THE EXPERIENTIAL MODEL

Against this mosaic of formulations it was gradually possible, during the second day, to steer a course towards a greater coalescence of viewpoints. The opening moves were made by Messrs. Chiappetta, Dawley, Ready and Ziegler.

--Dr. Chiappetta asserted that an overall strategy can be devised that encompasses most of the goals which were set; there are certain cognitive paths to which other dimensions can be added. He did state--supported strongly by Ready--that values are the hardest concept to incorporate in training--hard to confront and work with, and one should not expect much more than an exposure to value choices in the type of courses we can envisage here.

--Mr. Ready said that cognition, even if not worked out rigorously, is compatible if not overlapping with sensitivity training and problem-solving; it can apply to organizational groups in a cross-cultural setting. Sensitivity training, like cognition, has fluid boundaries and is not just bound to the small group or self-identification. Sensitivity training, if

properly conducted, is quite capable of raising realistic confrontations and even stimulating risk-taking.

--Mr. Dawley advanced the need of a third component: experience-based or action kind of training in a critical environment--to find places where people have a chance to see and act out some of the things learned or aimed at in the other kinds of training experiences. He, Beun and Ziegler in particular stressed the need for this ingredient if awareness and behavioral change are to have any roots.

--Ziegler argued that out of these perspectives it was possible to reach a reconciliation provided we are talking of something more than a two-week course. He and Chiappetta agreed that the classroom and written processes of instruction were not the sole instruments of training. He agreed that the Meehan method was by no means antithetical to problem-solving; properly applied, this is one of its merits; he concurred too that some kind of behavioral outcome should be projected in training. A real mix, not just a contrived melange, but a genuine communality of methods can be constituted. To be sure, there are different modalities. Meehan, for example, believes that one can successfully train a group which includes people of quite differing educational background, profession, and level of motivation and is more skeptical whether action and learning can be combined fruitfully. Chiappetta is properly concerned about a confusion of outcomes and means, and the arrogance of saying that the beha-

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vioral outcome will be democratic participation. In turn, Dawley is diffident to concede too wide a mandate to relatively abstract and ideologically neutral techniques; he would feel that Meehan-Chiappetta are too much riveted on the instrumentation, too little on the mission of the courses. But, Ziegler concluded, these are not irreparable lesions. There is connective tissue among all main approaches.

Mr. Schott, Mr. Mathers and Mr. Stephens remained concerned, however, that the conference was eluding the central issues of a Title IX course--target groups and content.

This in turn led to a more sustained discussion of several more specific topics:

1. Title IX A wide diversity of views were aired and little agreement achieved about the implications of Title IX. The sole measure of agreement was that structurally the Title IX office was storm-tossed, mendicant, and in a continual identity crisis. Similarly, OIT was weak, almost a kind of passport office in Lippmann's phrase. At one extreme Ready looked on Title IX as a mere impediment, setting problems in insoluble terms, best shucked off in planning and programming. Chiappetta said this was mischievous advice; Title IX does provide a framework which can be used intelligently and with reasonable honesty provided the goals are not overinflated, e.g., nobody should accept a contract put to the tests of "democratic participation." Toth

and Schott, conceding the perplexing injunctions of Title IX, nonetheless felt that it posed correct issues, e.g., how to improve life qualitatively for more people. These value injunctions are not meaningless or frivolous.

2. Who is trained? Though in the end almost everyone returned to the point of departure--that Title IX courses must address themselves principally to middle sector, professional type "target group" personnel and that they were mostly derived from "captive groups," a vigorous discussion broke out several times during the workshop.

Ziegler pointed out that most of the trainees are not persons who--by background, by the official selection routes, or by destination on return to the home country--enjoy ambiguity, conflict, confrontation, uncertainty. They are not natural fomentors, intervenors, or social revolutionaries. Nor do most of the places where they came to in this country, including universities, involve them very much with the kind of perceptions involved in Title IX.

Miss Howe, Dawley and Toth in particular felt that, even if the official constraints in selection could not be broken, the missions could be moved to do a somewhat better job in widening the channels of choice, while here in this country we could take steps to find settings for training which would serve to reduce the communications gap and give more clout to

the experience.

3. The Training Environment It was agreed that this was a more manipulable variable than the selection of trainees. The best context is one that is neither too derivative nor too demanding. We should not put people where, every time they try something, they fail. Nor does a pure authoritarian situation provide any climate for learning. It ought neither to be one in which the training is so thoroughly impregnated with purely intellectual values as to be unreal nor should it be one in which knowledge is dethroned. It ought, Cross and others argued, to be an environment in which doubts can be raised--about how values were derived and formed--and which makes the future a little more open.

This led, under the spur of Beun and Dawley, to more consideration of the experiential component of training. Ziegler said that an important aspect of learning is to meet situations in which actions have consequences. This implies not only the need to act affirmatively; it also is a form of self-knowledge--developing patience and realism and disabusing oneself of quixotic fantasy and overexpectation.

Assuming a course of about six weeks, sequential or in a mix of time periods during a year, most conferees saw merit in matching action professions with action situations. Various illustrative suggestions were made by Dawley, Mrs. Fisher and

others, such as, Operation Breadbasket, Conservative Vice Lords, Street Academies, Student Health Organization. Miss Slavin questioned whether there is not a danger in seeking "innovative" action groups to select those which are the most atypical, the most revolutionary, the most removed from the mainstream of our own experience. Others however felt that there was a number of "moderate," even somewhat conventional groups--as in education--which could perfectly well be selected. Beun argued that there are also parallel or at least overlap types of issues in different societies: both the Pearson Commission and the Kerner Commission are concerned with the dual society, for example, and CAP agencies here at home are trying to respond to a universal problem--the unresponsiveness of local government to basic popular needs. It might be possible to replicate this kind of dual phenomena in several areas to give more pertinence to the training.

SOME MEANS OF BRINGING CHANGES TO TITLE IX COURSES

It was not possible during the third day to devote as much time as originally projected to the two prototype course outlines which were circulated nor was it possible to flesh out the specific recommendations for the dimensions of training programs, the skeleton of which were worked out by Messrs. Ziegler, Dawley, and Chiappetta. It is therefore only possible to allude to several themes which were reiterated or given some visible

shape in the concluding discussions.

1. There was some considerable, though not altogether common, criticism of the evaluation techniques now being used by AID on its training programs. In varying intensities conferencees judged their quality as ranging from mediocre to dismal-- especially when measured against the expense and talent involved. Several participants gave support to the proposition made by IDEAS, Inc., that evaluation be shifted largely from the trainees to the courses themselves, and to the training techniques. The selectees should have as much confidence as possible after as during the course that they are in a nonmanipulative and nonprobationary atmosphere. They should not be "banded birds." There was not universal assent to this and everyone agreed that an occasional sample analysis of individual performance during and after courses was justified. Dr. Meehan particularly felt that post-course evaluations were very important in the experimental period of course formulation, but all agreed that within current budgetary limitations, AID is capable of improving this aspect of training.

2. It was widely agreed that skills and awareness were the most measurable and identifiable by-products of a training course. In the mixed experiential-cognitive design that seemed to emerge from the workshop a natural evaluation was built into the program.

3. Messrs. Beun and Dawley attempted to elicit from the workshop possible recommendations for improving selection in such a way as to assure more strongly motivated trainees. Mr. Beun, for example, raised the possibility that trainees might have a contributory obligation through a per diem or some other ties which might help to weed out wider support. Miss Silberman and Dr. Chiappetta felt that this was unworkable and would place yet another needless burden on both the design and mechanics of a prototype.

4. Dr. Chiappetta stressed that there would have to be plenty of tooling-up time for this prototype--possibly even rehearsal. Since it is not likely that more than one prototype will be established in the near future, this advice was swallowed easily, though Mr. Mathers and others pointed out that the best rehearsal was actually doing it.

5. Mr. Ziegler and Mr. Holborn discussed the need--already reflected in IDEAS, Inc.'s prototype outline--that modified contractual arrangements would have to be created and new characteristics devised. If the preferences of the workshop were given a year to be realized, it would take a mix of capacities which few if any single institution possess. Action groups and action learning are rarely found within a university or within other kinds of educational and research spin-offs--such as the National Training Laboratories or Rand Corporation. A single organization

would have to take contractual responsibilities and it would have to reach for all its pieces into differing institutional orders and vested interests. The formation of such a coalition which did not diffuse responsibility nor violate legal requirements would be difficult. On the other hand, it should be possible to find umbrella organizations which would be responsible financial middlemen and effective conduits and monitors. There are precedences for such arrangements; sometimes they even lessen rather than complicate the administrative red tape. When several programs are operative in stages over the next year, then this more flexible kind of organization would help to guard against a cast iron sequence of training and improve the possibilities for genuinely productive experimentation. At all events some kind of multi-franchise operation would have to come into existence.

RECOMMENDATIONS: TOWARDS PROTOTYPE TITLE IX COURSES

I. In the guidance given prior to the workshop, participants were asked to consider two prototypes. One largely incorporated the perspectives of Messrs. Meehan and Chiappetta; the other was an in-house proposal on professions and development of IDEAS. Neither had a prescribed time dimension, but each assumed that the period available would not be much greater than one month.

2. Out of the workshop, the conviction deepened that the total training period--if any Title IX dimensions were to be obtained--must be at least one month and preferably longer. It was recognized, however, that in the foreseeable future financial constraints would not permit a full semester length training period or even two summers. Moreover, the course would have to be in cycle with the calendars of academic institutions, the primary reservoir for the selection of trainees.

3. There was wide agreement that the most prevalent training experiences now sponsored by AID have only fringe relevance to Title IX and professional development. Many of the training courses examined by IDEAS or alluded to by other participants were only minimally related to Title IX, faithful at best to its surface injunctions and the educational position papers of AID. Only a few programs were cited which were of more than a "sampler" or quick message variety. Most were judged to be shallow and diffuse in their impact. The Loyola and Lisle programs received the most approbation for their better conceived and more pertinent approaches to training--though, they too, fell short of providing a working model. AID's evaluations and evaluation techniques have generally not yielded useful extrapolations and forestalled corrective therapy.

Too many courses take the form of a disjointed overture (orientation), or a casual entre acte (Christmas course) or a quickly improvised cadenza at the end of the performance (the

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terminal re-entry). Each of these types is too episodic, generally unequal to its environment and occasionally even debilitating. Clearly, there is a larger task than merely refurbishing these kinds of brief training efforts. Only Dr. Meehan reluctantly and to a lesser extent, Dr. Chiappetta and a couple AID representatives, felt that two weeks could provide any workable base for Title IX training.

4. Among the specific weaknesses of the two-week programs, the following were raised most commonly during the workshop:

--The tight format tends to allow little more than lecture presentations.

--Almost all experiential learning requires a longer span of time.

--The content tends to be diluted and the objectives loosely defined.

--It does not provide sufficient time for participants coming from a diversity of locales to get to know each other well and to have exchanges of viewpoints.

--If yet another pilot or prototype effort takes the short two-week form, then the possibility of ever holding a longer one is further precluded.

5. There was a feeling that the whole training need not be continuous but could occur in two or three segments; some indeed felt that there was a positive and reinforcing effect in such phasing. A short Christmas period and a longer summer period seem altogether feasible and there might in addition be a certain

amount of training or at least communication by mail and possibly a weekend or two at accessible regional centers.

6. Though not everyone felt that they always provided the best possible training targets, it was agreed that under current circumstances, selection would have to be made from among the five thousand or so foreign nationals in this country under AID sponsorship during any given year. Possibly at a later time it might be useful to try follow-up training in the home regions if a sufficient number of recent alumni with a sufficient homogeneity could be assembled. In the meantime, the individual courses with their generally professional emphasis should seek a more homogeneous clientele with the same working language, and a common professional interest. The educational background and level of experience can be kept more eclectic but should not be too clashing and discordant.

7. Almost everyone present felt that the courses should assume a more experiential character--not just observation but also, to the highest degree possible, direct involvement. Though the general direction and financial responsibility for a training program could not be divided among several parties, it ought to be possible for various voluntary organizations, action groups, and centers of innovation to play a collaborative or supporting role in the training process. Such organizations ought generally to have some innovative perspectives, but they need not in all circumstances be unconventional or newly formed. Few courses in

any event could be solely action-oriented or experiential in their design.

8. Though in the year immediately ahead it is probably possible to stage but one new professional Title IX course for one group, in the mature future it might be conceivable to consider a continuous round-robin or "lazy Susan" course whose separate emphases would allow new trainees to enter at any of the various segments and then proceed along the full cycle.

9. However many Title IX courses of whatever duration ultimately existed, they could still only have core target groups in view. Only a portion of five thousand plus in this country can be successfully or economically handled in a Title IX oriented course experience. But in the view of most conferees, this is a preferable choice to make as against perfunctory orientation courses for all or most of the foreign nationals within the AID ambit. Much more study is required how ultimately all those in this country might receive some kind of Title IX training so as to fulfill the Congressional mandate.

10. No strong views were harmonized regarding the best locations and institutional settings of Title IX courses, though the recommendations imply a diversity of settings even for a single course. Several conferees were of the opinion that prior training courses by AID and other agencies were too exclusively anchored in universities. This monochromatic bias would be overcome naturally when a prototype is started which includes

a significant experiential component.

11. It was the strong recommendation of the workshop that at least one--and preferably more--prototype courses be designed and set in motion so as to operate over the next academic year and the summer following.

II. A PROTOTYPE TRAINING DESIGN FOR SOCIAL CHANGE

MANDATE

Our present mandate is the design of a short, Title IX course for one target group of foreign nationals who have been selected in accordance with their home country's development priorities and preferences and have come to the United States for technical training.

Accordingly, our task was to determine, first, for whom would Title IX training be most beneficial and practical; second, how to incorporate this legislative mandate into a training program and, third, what training approaches are most appropriate to achieve the Title IX objectives.

THE SOCIAL PURPOSE OF PROFESSIONS

The largest share of training of foreign nationals is done in the technical areas. It was, therefore, the consensus of the Workshop as well as of OIT and IDEAS that the appropriate way of introducing Title IX to participant trainees is to complement their technical education by expanding their perspectives and responsibilities toward their professional role in terms of the social-political aspects of the development process.

It is the underlying assumption of this Course that professionals who have been sent to the United States for training are expected to perform in accordance with the development policies and priorities of their respective countries. Therefore, their profession cannot be construed in isolation from the society it is ordained to serve. In whatever field the participant

trainees enlarge their knowledge or skill, the profession to which they belong must have a social purpose for them. The way the participant trainee perceives his profession will be a decisive factor in his active response to or quiet acceptance of the social conditions and changes occurring in the society in which he lives.

For several reasons, including the educational priorities of development as well as the substantial number of participant trainees in the education field, educators have been selected as a prototype professional target group for Title IX training.

THE TITLE IX PREMISES

We have faced quite a formidable task, for into this design we had to amalgamate three highly elusive subjects: Development, Title IX, and Education, each with its own unsettling and unsettled definitions.

Each one of these have been the focus of much debate and analysis by task forces and commissions, study groups and learned dissertations. A basic or all-encompassing objective of each, however, remains as fugitive as the corresponding means to achieve them are still experimental and arguable.

Our job was explicit nevertheless to the extent that the design should incorporate as a key determinant of the development process, the concept of popular participation as outlined in the Title IX Section of the Foreign Assistance Act. Accordingly, we took as a point of departure,

those relevant premises--and the only ones around which there is a consensus--which state that popular participation implies that "the people of the less developed nations should participate...in decisions that affect their lives, [and] that they should participate in the implementation of development and the fruits of economic growth."^{1/}

In order to establish the linkages between education and popular participation, the design has been predicated on these questions about education which are integrally related to popular participation.

1. Is there popular participation in the decision-making about education?
2. In what manner are people involved in the implementation of these decisions, in the educational process?
3. Who benefits from education?

PEDAGOGICAL APPROACHES APPROPRIATE TO TITLE IX

Our principal handicap in preparing this design was the lack of precedents and the relatively few experiments in Title IX training for foreign nationals. Although we have reviewed--though not closely evaluated or observed--over thirty training projects with some relevancy to popular participation, we have found only a very few that have systematically incorporated popular participation as an objective or have not contradicted this objective by the very manner in which they were conducted.^{2/}

It also remained unresolved during the Workshop as to which or what combination of pedagogical methods or approaches is best suited for a training course in Title IX.^{3/}

This dilemma was reflected not only in the Workshop but in the entire literature dealing with training as well as in each and every training program currently in operation. The rather subjective and with few exceptions, unsatisfactory evaluations of past and existing training programs, sponsored both by AID and other governmental or private organizations, are of little help in delineating the pedagogical approaches applied or in determining their respective merits. Amidst all barely disguised bias, obfuscation and incoherence about pedagogical approaches and methods, there is one fact that is absolutely clear: that there is a number of schools of thought, each with its own more or less articulate spokesman who have carved out for themselves a jealously guarded "training territory" which they consider--not unsurprisingly--not only the best but also an exclusive approach which the other schools do not possess.

We have found generally not that the little emperors of training territories have no clothes on but that they all wear the same clothes though their accessories may differ. And, what's more, most of them can enhance Title IX objectives since the principal thrust of each one is to instill a habit and vigor of self-analysis or awareness in the participant as he interacts with others in a group or environment.

Admittedly, some of these schools of thought are not too well known-- though they should be, while others are known only too well and unfortunately are vulgarized.

The case in point as regards to the former is Paulo Freire's "concientizacion" method.^{4/} One reason for its lack of fame is Freire himself who is more a practitioner than a writer, and whose works in Portuguese, Spanish, as well as English, are tortuous essays in an atrocious prose. A second reason may be found in the fact that his educational propositions have a definite political taint and are therefore jealously protected by their guardians against abuse. The third probable reason is his exile from Brazil that makes him suspect in this country in the eyes of those who see "subversion" in any action that might liberate men from his oppressors.

Another case in point is the so-called "sensitivity training" that has become--to the chagrin of its responsible advocates--a vulgarized fad in this country in the hands of charlatans. Its profane versions seem to be replacing both the confession booths and stag parties for people who would have gone to either in any other time. They are as cathartic as a revival meeting and have as much long-range an impact as a Billy Graham crusade. The popularity which they enjoy is due less to their pedagogical effect on any than to the tragic search of many in this country to find some reason for their being. Nevertheless, the recent deluge of popularizing articles and books,^{5/} has placed many of its serious practitioners on the defensive.^{6/}

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Sensitivity training may be on the defensive for other reasons as well in some sectors of the foreign assistance community--perhaps for reasons similar to Freire's chastisement. It may very well be that AID has experimented with sensitivity training in so few programs^{7/} that the combined effect of these programs are overshadowed by an understandable mistrust that the vulgarized versions in this country have generated. Suspicion is not the exclusive domain of the cautious. Sensitivity training has always been the target of attack from another side where the accusation is that this approach is a plot to domesticate people into joyfully accepting their insignificance in the work of huge industrial complexes. The serious writers^{8/}--in contrast to the vulgarizers--on sensitivity training are also their own worst enemies. Although this training approach boasts a quarter of a century of experience, it is yet to find its decipherer who would interpret their incantations into a language understandable to all.

Another major stumbling block was specifying the methodology applied under the so-called "cognitive" approach which, though it occupied a great deal of the Workshop's time, in its practical applications is largely contested. To the extent that it contributes to problem-solving, it is incorporated into the course's training method. Since, however, its advocates made claim for a considerable amount of training time, we do not find its full application feasible in our current design.

There is less controversy over the other pedagogical approaches which have been taken into consideration in preparing the design: the classical lecture-seminar approach and the experiential learning. The familiarity with and reliability of the former and its current use in many AID sponsored training projects make its use in the design inevitable. Although experiential training, in light of the dictum that practice makes perfect, has few detractors, it is still considered too slow and costly as evidenced by the relatively few AID participant training programs which have had this approach as their principal one. Unfortunately even these few ^{9/} were so carelessly evaluated that from the existing AID documents, it is impossible to establish either their true character or effectiveness. The "observation tours" or short "exposures" which are frequently used as substitutes in a great many AID-sponsored programs do not allow trainees to get more than a glimpse of reality. As touristic attractions they may serve a good purpose but their impact is dubious if not outright counterproductive at times. The observation of the achievement of others does not necessarily lead to either achievement motivation on the part of the observer or to the acquisition of skills to adapt. In fact, they can be highly misleading for the participant trainees, who instead of comprehending through experience, are left with a quagmire of impressions, which cast no light on the successive development stages or the cause and effect relationship between the observed achievement and its causes. ^{10/}

Since the design incorporates an admixture of training approaches, each of the approaches, stripped to their essentials, should be defined:

Sensitivity Training

Sensitivity training, which is probably the most non-ideological, non-charismatic, is particularly concerned with the process rather than the content of learning. Though it can be a form of encounter training and at a rather basic level, a type of simulation training, it most frequently emphasizes organizational and group-mesh--and hence to bridling conflict and sometimes also shielding "real life" situations.

Characteristically, sensitivity training is carried out in a small group (the T group) at a laboratory. The ideal number is considered to be twelve. In the training sessions, according to NTL (National Training Laboratories) doctrine, participants have as their primary objective the creation of a unit whose members can communicate with one another, can accept and value individual differences, can work together and arrive at workable decisions. Generally, there are no stated goals beyond this, no shared expectations about how one should behave within the group, and no designated leadership. A trainer, most often a psychologist or sociologist, is present and takes part, but he is not in a formal sense a discussion leader or chairman. His supposed function is to help the group learn from its own behavior, and in theory the group members achieve self-awareness as well as developing a kind of miniature community or culture of their own.

With its low ideological profile and its neutral setting, sensitivity training is a fairly adaptive piece of instrumentation. It can be a rather ruthless form of both self and mutual criticism; it can also be a way of deflecting conflict and of creating conformity. For the most part, sensitivity training has not taken place in a social cause or politically charged environment.

Cognitive Approach

The cognitive approach also is generally neutrally positioned, but it does insist that training must have defined, if not fixed objectives. Though it can take many forms, it tends to be a more directed and more planned kind of learning process--learning with an agenda and with leadership. Though not inherent in its purposes, it more often takes place in a university setting.

Like sensitivity training and experiential approaches, it also emphasizes that teaching and the critical transfer of knowledge depends upon more than exposition and the pouring of information into inert vessels. It seeks to develop self-sufficiency, the capacity to make choices and to see alternatives, and the stimulation of conceptual awareness.

It tends to doubt the ability of educational techniques, especially in short courses, directly to change or very much affect values. What it feels more confident of is the ability to shape conditions and methods of thought in which the urge to act and the sense of commitment and responsibility is strengthened. This is

achieved by making it possible for participant trainees to generate alternatives from which reasoned choices can be made, and to sense better the "road blocks" which must be dismantled or circumvented if progress is to be made. There is, therefore, a special emphasis on "intervention strategies" and awareness rather than mere emulation and knowledge absorption. Social knowledge, social technology, and problem solving are set in the forefront of attention --not a cultural consciousness or social mission. For example, in training for social development, it emphasizes the need for priorities in the allocation of scarce resources and skills. It also believes that training must be suited to the authority patterns of the society where the individual will function.

Experiential Learning

This approach also has a goal of "critical awareness," but it believes more strongly that ideas must be tested against personal experience and within the context of "real life" situations. It does not depreciate the honing of intellectual skills, but it does doubt the capacity of pedagogical methods, however deployed or arrayed, to develop the disposition and sustained follow-through towards purposive social change. It believes that both the sensitivity and cognitive approaches alone are too instrumental, too technically oriented, and need at least to be enlarged by end-oriented considerations.

By placing people in action situations in which they can be participant-observers, an additional educative dimension is provided. It makes more likely, though by no means inevitable, that the trainee will better develop a capacity for social insight and innovation. The experiential approach is more disposed to place the student in a conflict atmosphere, in a more emotion-charged setting and in a more ideological and politically sensitive environment. It also believes that it better jostles closed mind sets that are often brought by professionals and paraprofessionals to this country.

Experiential training must generally be more than quick exposure and must be participatory if it is to have lasting values. It must also be worked out in such a way that the insertion of foreign participants is not so awkward or intrusive as itself to change the action situation. It also assumes at least a rough analogue between the action or working situation encountered in this country and those which the trainee will encounter in his own country. It generally also means that the training site must have a sufficient number and diversity of action programs and experiments to accommodate the whole group in smaller segments.

"Concientizacion"

The "Concientizacion" is identified with the work of the Brazilian Paulo Freire. Though not without its parallels in nationalist movements

of the nineteenth century (e.g., the Narodniki), it has been largely seen in a Latin American context. It is strongly reformist in its objectives, non-elitist and populist in its temper, and seeks to project a clear cultural consciousness and identity. It is almost solely concerned with social and political change; it welcomes a climate of class and ideological consciousness, of alienation and it seeks to cut through the hierarchical habits and imposed cultures of traditional societies.

It is idealistic, even romantic. Without large objectives it does not believe that the energies of the masses can be harnessed or useful learning take place. It does not believe that the purpose of education is to repeat, to receive, or simply to adapt to what exists. It is rather to participate, to unsettle, to re-create-- to achieve creative feedback. It glories in having a political taint and does not believe that education is separable from politics, and from political action. The first task of education for political and social action is to create within a society antibodies against the debilitating infections of outside and imposed cultures. Cultural self-liberation is the end objective. This requires that education be not merely an elitist over-coating but something rooted among and fertilized by the larger masses, especially the young. "Concientizacion" tends to be most skeptical about the ability of universities and voluntary organizations in this country to train effectively. It seems to prefer action training in the field, within the environment where change must be forged. It is not

bookish in its emphasis. Rather, it seeks out and attempts to identify in a given cultural milieu concepts and images which have immediate and concrete significance (e.g., lack of land, low wages, bad housing, while contrasting them to large holdings, the ostentatious living of the few, etc.) to those to be "concientized." By using the "dialogue" approach, such examples are expanded and given meaning in the larger socio-political context.

"Concientizacion" holds that while people experience deprivation, poverty, oppression, they are not necessarily aware of being deprived, poor and oppressed. Through dialogue, however, they can be made aware of the causes of their underprivileged state to obtain the clearest possible conception of what they want to change and achieve, and how, and that they can be imbued with a commitment necessary for that achievement.

1. Max F. Millikan et al., The Role of Popular Participation in Development, report of a Conference on the Implementation of Title IX of the Foreign Assistance Act, June 24 to August 2, 1968, M.I.T. Report No. 17, the M.I.T. Press, 1968, pp. 1-2.
2. See IDEAS, Inc. Workshop on Training for Social Change, "Survey of Training Programs in Relation to Title IX."
3. See "Report on the Workshop on Training for Social Change."
4. Paulo Freire, La Educacion Como Practica de la Libertad, Tierra Nueva, Montevideo, 1969.
5. E.g., Dr. William C. Schutz, Joy: Expanding Human Awareness; Bernard Gunther, Sense Relaxation Below Your Mind; and Jane Howard, Please Touch!
6. Max Birnbaum, "Sense and Nonsense about Sensitivity Training," Saturday Review, November 15, 1969.
7. E.g., the leadership training program carried out in New Orleans by Loyola University and the training of "social promoters" at Landivar University in Guatemala City.
8. Leland P. Bradford et al, T-Group Theory and Laboratory Method, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1964.
9. E.g., AID's in-house evaluation of the Lisle Fellowship Inc.'s "Leadership Training and Summer Enrichment Program" - AID, 1967 and "The AID/IIE/VISTA 1967 Summer Associates Program" evaluated by the Institute of International Education, September 25, 1967.
10. Csanad Toth, "Evaluation of the Farmers Union Latin American Farm Leadership Training Project," AID, December 1966.

THE DESIGN

PURPOSE

Although the course material is geared to educators, the same pedagogical process could be applied to any group of foreign nationals.

Our purpose is not to provide them packaged solutions or to train them to act in prescribed patterns, but to provide them with the opportunity to think through the implications of their profession as it relates to the development of their country.

They will also analyze education--as a process, an institution, and a part of a larger system. To do this, they will examine themselves, and their role as educators.

In addition, the course in itself will be a searching, questioning one. First, because the group discussions during the course will be reflecting upon all that the participant is bringing with him to the course--his preconceptions and experiences. Secondly, because the participants will be exposed to people who have already gone through that process of examination and are experimenting with solutions. These people will be the ones the participants meet in the work experience segments of the course.

The course will combine various pedagogical methods in group discussions with a group living environment, a neighborhood setting and a work

experience. The work experience will be in innovative organizations concerned with learning.

Because this course will present to the participant new and different insights which he either has not had the opportunity to see or perhaps was unwilling to see, may well cause him to examine himself, his society, his learning experiences in his country, and the situation which he will return to in his own country. And if he finds one or more of these elements deficient, he may be able, not only to see clearly the problem, but to posit a solution--and be willing to try it. This is what we hope to inculcate.

We are not biased toward these work experiences in the sense that each participant should go back to his country and imitate them. We are biased in the sense that the people in these work experience groups have looked at their role as teachers, looked at the present school system, saw some of its faults and are trying a new way to change it. It is this process of seeing problems clearly and trying new solutions that we want to get across.

What this course does is confront the preconceptions which the participants (and the trainers) have with a total experience. The themes are, therefore, also treatments of attitudes which they might hold. This confrontation allows them to think, examine, re-evaluate. It is our hope that they will be able to extend this evaluation to the problems of their countries, to find the root problems and to be willing to try new solutions.

When so many of our firmly held premises and assumptions about development are being re-examined, there is no reason to believe that the primacy of education in the development process will escape thorough analysis. And at a time when we intend to pay greater attention to the views of the less developed countries themselves, it is very appropriate to involve the participant trainees in the task of rethinking the assumptions about education. The feedback from this will be an additional benefit to AID.

DYNAMICS

The course can be defined by two simultaneous processes, the phases of training and the stages of learning. The training phases are the chronological steps of the course design. These comprise the contribution of IDEAS and the trainers and are described in the Format. The learning stages occur simultaneously, but within each participant. They describe the personal growth process and can only be determined, in the final analysis, by the participant himself.

Both training phases and learning stages depend on the continual use of four alternative ways of perceiving each of four basic themes. The themes are:

1. Relationship of education to political development
2. Cultural dimension of education
3. The role of the educator
4. Educational innovation

The perceptions are:

1. Technocentric perception
2. Lever perception
3. Elitist perception
4. Cultural mission perception

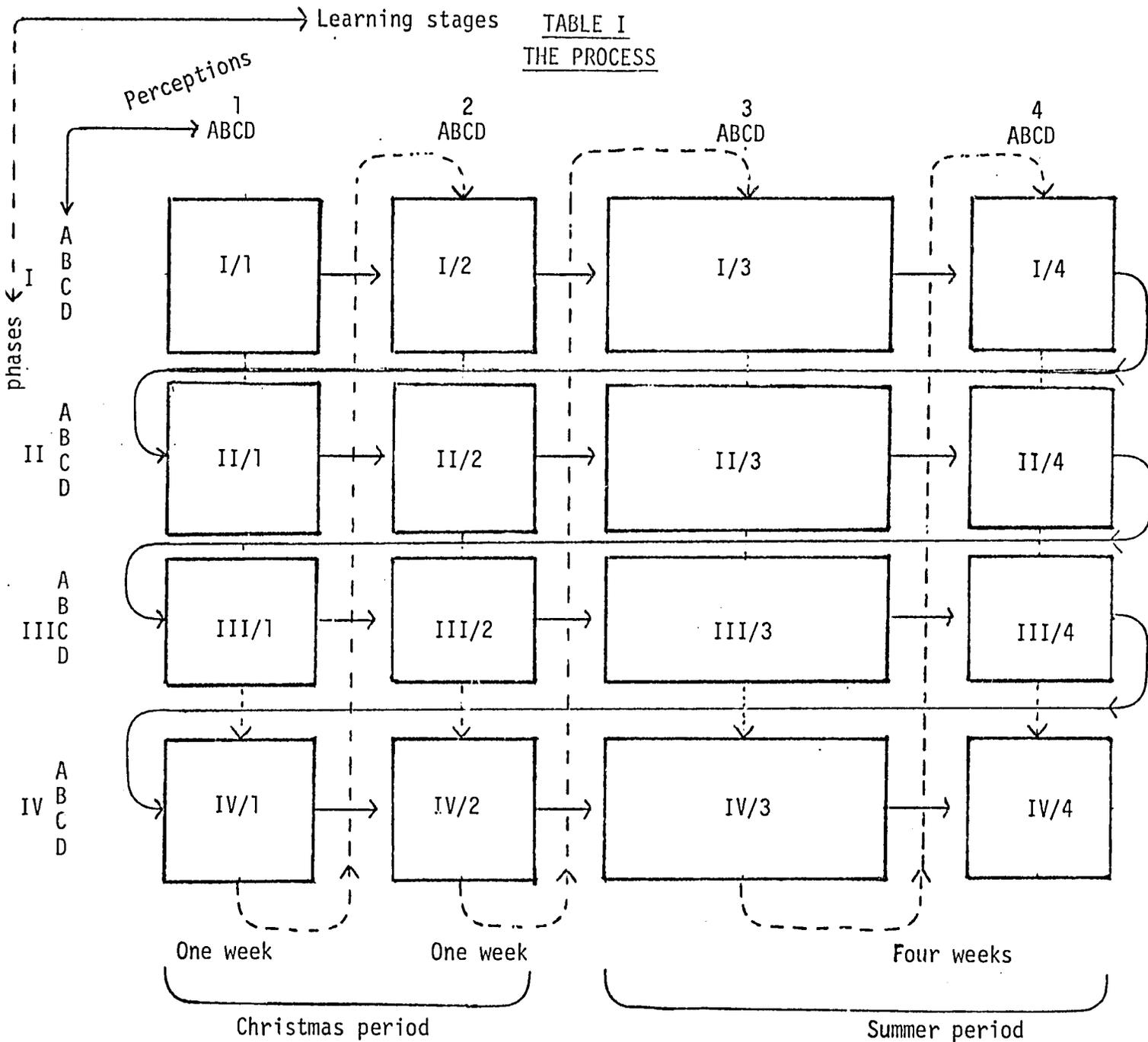
Both the perceptions and themes will be described in this section, and a treatment of the latter is illustrated in Appendices A, B, C, and D.

The varied experiences which comprise and contribute to the training phases are drawn from the participant's past as well as his present within the course. In a less definable way, they are also the raw material of the learning process--the reality factor which precludes easy answers and propels the participant into continual re-examination.

Table I on pages 18 and 19 schematically describes the simultaneous processes of training phases and learning stages in relation to the perceptions and themes.

A random illustrative example should serve to explain Table I. Let us assume that a group of participants are located within box III/3. In terms of training phases, they have already discussed group perceptions of the four themes described in phase a. They have also taken phase b and dealt with each theme in relation to their previous U. S. experiences and studies. They are now in the middle of phase c. They have already participated in two innovative educational projects and discussed them in relation to the themes and to their own past experiences. Since they are still

TABLE I
THE PROCESS



Training Phases

Phase a

- I x 1 = Perceiving the relationship of education to political development
- II x 1 = Perceiving the cultural dimensions of education in relation to political development
- III x 1 = Perceiving the role of educator in political development
- IV x 1 = Perceiving the relationship of educational innovation to political development

Phase b

- I x 2 = Perceiving (I x 1) in light of previous U.S. experiences and studies
- II x 2 = Perceiving (II x 1) in light of previous U.S. experiences and studies
- III x 2 = Perceiving (III x 1) in light of previous U.S. experiences and studies
- IV x 2 = Perceiving (IV x 1) in light of previous U.S. experiences and studies

Phase c

- I x 3 = Perceiving (I x 1) + (I x 2) in light of new experience
- II x 3 = Perceiving (II x 1) + (II x 2) in light of new experience
- III x 3 = Perceiving (III x 1) + (III x 2) in light of new experience
- IV x 3 = Perceiving (IV x 1) + (IV x 2) in light of new experience

Phase d

- I x 4 = Perceiving themselves as they perceive (I x 1) + (I x 2) + (I x 3)
- II x 4 = Perceiving themselves as they perceive (II x 1) + (II x 2) + (II x 3)
- III x 4 = Perceiving themselves as they perceive (III x 1) + (III x 2) + (III x 3)
- IV x 4 = Perceiving themselves as they perceive (IV x 1) + (IV x 2) + (IV x 3)

Learning Stages

Stage a

- I x 1 = Perceiving the relationship of education to political development
- I x 2 = Perceiving (I x 1) in light of U. S. experiences and studies
- I x 3 = Perceiving (I x 1) + (I x 2) in light of new experience
- I x 4 = Perceiving themselves as they perceive (I x 1) + (I x 2) + (I x 3)

Stage b

- II x 1 = Perceiving the cultural dimensions of education in relation to political development
- II x 2 = Perceiving (II x 1) in light of U.S. experiences and studies
- II x 3 = Perceiving (II x 1) + (II x 2) in light of new experience
- II x 4 = Perceiving themselves as they perceive (II x 1) + (II x 2) + (II x 3)

Stage c

- III x 1 = Perceiving the role of educator in political development
- III x 2 = Perceiving (III x 1) in light of U.S. experiences and studies
- III x 3 = Perceiving (III x 1) + (III x 2) in light of new experience
- III x 4 = Perceiving themselves as they perceive (III x 1) + (III x 2) + (III x 3)

Stage d

- IV x 1 = Perceiving the relationship of education innovation to political development
- IV x 2 = Perceiving (IV x 1) in light of U.S. experiences and studies
- IV x 3 = Perceiving (IV x 1) + (IV x 2) in light of new experience
- IV x 4 = Perceiving themselves as they perceive (IV x 1) + (IV x 2) + (IV x 3)

participating in the third innovative educational project, they have begun to think about it in relation to the themes and their own past experiences, but have not yet discussed it with each other.

In terms of learning stages we can describe a single participant's location within box III/3 at the same point in time. He has thought about the relation of education to political development and related it to his own U. S. experiences and studies. He has also thought about it in light of his first innovative educational experience and in terms of his perception of his own educational identity and position. He has reached stage b of the learning stages and gone through the same process in relation to the theme of the cultural dimensions of education. He is now in the middle of stage c of the learning stages. He has thought about the general role of the educator in political development, has related this to his U. S. experiences and studies and is now beginning to think about how the theme, in relation to his own experience, relates to his new experiences, (I/3 and II/3 as well as III/3). He has not yet examined his own identity in relation to the role of the educator in political development.

The Format, which follows, outlines the course in terms of Table I. It includes a time schedule, the form of training and illustrative suggestions for resource persons and institutions.

COURSE FORMATFall 1970

Selection of participants

Mailing of reading materials and guidelines: participants will be asked to think about and respond to the guidelines in terms of their own previous experience.

Christmas 1970 - 12 days

<u>NO. OF DAYS</u>	<u>TRAINING PHASE</u>	<u>THEME</u>	<u>LEARNING STAGE</u>	<u>FORM</u>	<u>ILLUSTRATIVE RESOURCE PERSONS & INSTITUTIONS</u>
2	Preparatory	The group learning process	Orientation Creating a group	Modified sensitivity session	Course director and National Training Laboratories
1	a (I x 1)	I	a (I x 1)	Seminar	Speaker (probably a political scientist)
1	a (II x 1)	II	b (II x 1)	Seminar	Speaker from New Thing Gallery
1	a (III x 1)	III	c (III x 1)	Seminar	A philosopher of education
1	a (IV x 1)	IV	d (IV x 1)	Seminar	An educational innovator
1	b (I x 2)	I	b (I x 2)	Seminar	The group itself
2	b (II x 2)	II	b (II x 2)	Seminar & experiential (participation in four grass roots cultural projects. Group would be divided into sub-groups. Evening discussion comparing experiences)	New Thing Gallery Anacostia Neighborhood Museum Morgan Community National Center George Washington University Street Theatre
1	b (III x 2)	III	c (III x 2)	Seminar	Speaker from Boston Community Pilot Project
1 1/2	b (IV x 2)	IV	d (IV x 2)	Seminar & films	Educational Development Corporation

<u>NO. OF DAYS</u>	<u>TRAINING PHASE</u>	<u>THEME</u>	<u>LEARNING STAGE</u>	<u>FORM</u>	<u>ILLUSTRATIVE RESOURCE PERSONS & INSTITUTIONS</u>
1/2	Transitional			Seminar	
				1. Introduction to summer innovative environments.	Course director
				2. Discussion of second semester projects in relation to summer activities.	

Spring 1970

Development of a group projects in the communities where groups are studying.

Although prospective projects will be discussed at the end of the Christmas program, their design and implementation should be left almost entirely up to the participants. Projects could include analytical reports on teaching experience, or local government relations. Or a group of participants might set up their own extracurricular education project.

The second semester thus serves as kind of "dry run" for the situation which will confront the participants when they return to their own countries. Participants will be required to make some kind of report on their activities to the group at the beginning of the summer program.

Summer 1971 - 4 weeks

<u>NO. OF DAYS</u>	<u>TRAINING PHASE</u>	<u>THEME</u>	<u>LEARNING STAGE</u>	<u>FORM</u>	<u>ILLUSTRATIVE RESOURCE PERSONS & INSTITUTIONS</u>
2	Reports & preparations	1. Second semester projects		1. Presentation of reports	Course director
		2. Information on experiential situations	Orientations & formation of subgroups	2. Seminar	

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<u>NO. OF DAYS</u>	<u>TRAINING PHASE</u>	<u>THEME</u>	<u>LEARNING STAGE</u>	<u>FORM</u>	<u>ILLUSTRATIVE RESOURCE PERSONS & INSTITUTIONS</u>
4 1/2	c	-	a (I x 3) b (II x 3) c (III x 3) d (IV x 3)	Direct participation in an innovative educational environment (the group will be divided into 3 subgroups participating in 3 different environments.	Boston Community Pilot Project Fall River Workshop Educational Development Corporation Early Childhood Education Workshops
1 1/2	c (I x 3)	I	a (I x 3)	Modified sensitivity training & seminar (Use of guidelines)	National Training Laboratories
4 1/2	c	-	a (I x 3) b (II x 3) c (III x 3) d (IV x 3)	Rotation of groups among innovative environments	Same local groups as above
1 1/2	c (II x 3)	II	b (II x 3) b (II x 4)	Modified sensitivity training & seminar (Use of guidelines)	National Training Laboratories
4 1/2	c	-	a (I x 3) b (II x 3) c (III x 3) d (IV x 3)	Rotation of groups among innovative environments	Same local groups as above
1 1/2	c (III x 3)	III	c (III x 3) c (III x 4)	Modified sensitivity training & seminar (Use of guidelines)	National Training Laboratories
3	d	-	a (I x 4) b (II x 4) c (III x 4) d (IV x 4)	Group as a whole visits innovative governmental environment.	Vermont State Department of Education Vermont legislature

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<u>NO. OF DAYS</u>	<u>TRAINING PHASE</u>	<u>THEME</u>	<u>LEARNING STAGE</u>	<u>FORM</u>	<u>ILLUSTRATIVE RESOURCE PERSONS & INSTITUTIONS</u>
2	d (IV x 3)	IV	d (IV x 3) d (IV x 4)	Modified sensitivity training & seminar	National Training Laboratories
1	g r a d u a t i o n				

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LEARNING STAGES

The training phases provided by the process are expected to guide participant's inquiry.

Applying an admixture of pedagogical approaches, the course will stimulate the participants to examine, from their individual points of view, the Education-Development-Title IX axis. They will be examining this issue in relation to their past experiences and the experiences provided by the course itself. The design envisions four learning stages:

1. To perceive the development implications of education

How does the participant perceive development, education, and popular participation? What does he consider to be the linkages among them? How does he see the relationships between culture and education on the one hand and popular participation on the other? What is the role of educator in the development process? What educational innovations, if any, have an impact on development and increase popular participation in development?

2. To perceive the development implications of education in light of his U. S. experiences and studies

In what way has his U. S. training focused on education, development, and popular participation? Does he see the linkages among them in the U. S. and have these linkages been a subject of his studies or experiences while in this country? Has he seen

popular participation in the context of education and U. S. culture? How does he view the effects of U. S. education and culture on his own society and educational system? What is the American teacher's role in the development of the U. S.? In the community in which he lives in the U. S., what educational innovation, if any, has he detected or been involved in?

3. To perceive the development implications of education in the context of new experiences provided to him by the course

How relevant is the new experience vis-a-vis development, education, and popular participation? Does the experience embody the linkages among them? To what extent is the new experience an expression of popular participation? What is the role of the educator in the new experience? What is the educational innovation of this new experience in terms of who decides, in what manner people are involved and who benefits from these educational innovations?

4. To perceive himself as he is perceiving

How does the participant evaluate the manner in which he perceived the development implications of education, and the linkages among development, education, and popular participation? Can he objectify (look upon himself objectively) his presence and role in the education system and process and would the views be held or formulated during the course meet the test in the environment to which he expects to return? How has he reacted to his past and new experiences as an individual who has embarked upon a career of teaching? Can he see himself as an innovator in education in the context of popular participation?

PERCEPTIONS

It is inconceivable that the participants of the course would arrive without holding to an individual perception, a particular view, prejudice or bias vis-a-vis education and its relationship to development.

How such individual perceptions are formed, we cannot know. They are held because of one's educational background, upbringing, cultural milieu or his political views and everyday experiences. They may not even be held in all honesty, they may be rationalizations or are perhaps offered because a participant believes that what he conveys is what we would want to hear. To detect and define these perceptions prior to the course would be both time consuming and costly. To disregard them, however, would greatly endanger the learning process, and therefore the success of the course, because we would impose on him a particular perception which he may not share and simultaneously denigrate his own beliefs.

The individual's perceptions are, however, extremely important as they are his prism through which he perceives the relationship of education to political development, through which he perceives and codifies his U. S. experiences and studies prior to the course or his experiences during the course or, for that matter, the way he sees his role as an educator. His particular perception will inevitably coincide or contradict with and affect, favorably or unfavorably, the views and perceptions of his peers in the course.

It is immaterial whether one particular view is untenable from an "objective" point of view since as long as one participant has it, it will remain a perception to reckon with. It is, however, imperative that the

participant realize that the perception he holds influences the way in which he examines the relevant issues, his experiences of the past and the experiences he has during the course. Only if he is aware, or is made aware during the course, of his peculiar predisposition can he be expected to look upon himself objectively and critically as he perceives the issues and, if he can or wants to, re-evaluate his perceptions and their effect on him as an individual and educator.

Since the perceptions with which the individual participants will approach the Education-Development-Title IX axis will remain unknown until the course itself is underway, for the purposes of the design, we have had to assume and codify alternative perceptions which the participants will probably adhere to. As such they are not ready-made, to be imposed but anticipated perceptions. Although with the respective perceptions we tried to be all-encompassing, there is no assurance that the participants themselves would not substitute them with still different perceptions.

These perceptions are:

A. The technocentric perception of education is summed up in the slogan, "Education--an investment in the future." Education has a certain cost to the society, and the society expects to benefit, with a profit. The greater the profit margin to society, the better the educational system is. The people are the tools for a developing society, and education is the machine which makes the tools. The phrase, "the product of a good education" comes to mind.

Often a carry-over from colonialism, it disregards diversities of popular culture and assumes that education takes place within and serves a pyramidal social structure.

D. The cultural mission perception connotes two different cultures, one of which feels superior to the other. This superiority, real or imagined, can take the form of being smarter, richer, more advanced or more powerful. Whatever the superiority belief is based on, that group feels duty-bound to educate the other culture in their ways-- that which made them superior. The dominating culture either presupposes no existing culture or finds nothing of worth in the existing culture. It is education for acculturation, not necessarily accompanied by direct political subjugation.

These perceptions are not only assumed as the ones held by the participants but they will run through the themes presented to them as well. Whoever will be asked to act as a resource person to treat any one of the themes, we can be sure, will not be "objectivity" personified but will have his own views to which he is, of course, entitled. To oblige any of the discussion leaders to deal the themes from only one particular point of view (and which one?) would be contrary to the free exploration of the subject matter and would indirectly attempt to impose on the participants' only one point of view. Although the themes as they are presented are central to the design for a course on the educators and Title IX, the way in which they are treated are only illustrative of one perception or another.

The dynamics of the process would not only allow the examination of pertinent issues, a reflection on past experiences and immersion in new ones in the light of alternative perceptions. It would also pitch perceptions against perceptions as they respectively give meaning to reality, that is to issues and experiences. Often perceptions of the resource persons and of the participants themselves will coincide, more often they may not. In either case, the reaffirmation of agreement or restatement of conflict between different perceptions will not be the necessary or desirable determinant of the end-product of the course. Who is to say that if perceptions coincide they are by definition true and suggest feasible actions or, if they don't, one or both are false?

It is rather their becoming conscious of the relationships between perception and reality and others that is decisive. Only by being aware of these relationships and their own personal relationships to their perceptions and their reality can they be expected to critically examine and evaluate each. Once this critical inquiry is induced the participants can begin to form a coherent commitment for themselves as educators and apply whatever skills are germane to their profession to achieve that what they have committed themselves to.

Would the end-product of this course, that is, the graduate of such a course be necessarily committed to and skilled in promoting popular participation? Probably yes though not necessarily. This training program was not

designed to impose on the participants a preconceived or preprogrammed pattern of behavior or to sell them one particular view, and that includes Title IX. Rather it is designed to offer an open-ended opportunity in which the critical issues facing the educators in the development process are explored according to the creative personality of each participant. If the premise of Title IX holds that the process defines the end, then the self-determining process applied in this course should produce results in accordance with Title IX.

THE THEMES

Offered to the participants as a framework, the themes are designed to incorporate the threefold popular participation question about education. The themes are central to the examination of the Development-Education-Title IX axis as they attempt to establish the linkages between the educational and the political systems, between the educational and politicization processes, between education and popular participation in the cultural context, as well as identify the roles that educators are expected to play in the development process for change. They are intended not only for discussion during the first week of the course but are expected to constantly recur and provide the background during all phases of the course.

The way in which these are treated reflect one or another anticipated perception. While some are based on conventional wisdom, others are intentionally unorthodox and provocative to elicit dialogue among the participants. They each, however, follow their own internal logic toward their intended conclusion.

The themes are:

I. Relationship of Education to Political Development

Education acts as an initiation to the political system. The quality and quantity of education in any country is a tangible expression of that country's political, social and economic philosophy and practices. This theme should provide the participants an opportunity to view education as an integral part of a large system. Education as

a product of colonialism, as a perpetuator of elitism and as an institution dedicated to its own continuation are treated here.

II. Cultural Dimension of Education

Education is a reflection of a country's policy, not necessarily that country's people. If education is not relevant to a people's culture, it will deculturize them. Students then become objects, alienated not only in the schoolroom, but in society. Education must allow for the continuation of the living culture by making the student a subject in formulating what is to be learned and how. It is here that self-determination is learned. A reassessment of educational policies and priorities must take into consideration that as long as people remain mere recipients of education, the development process is impaired.

III. The Role of the Educator

Educators labor under conflicting role expectations. But, most importantly, an educator is an agent of the system--often personally blamed for it--and, as such, he can act as an apologist for it or an agent to change it.

IV. Educational Innovation

By viewing educational innovation in this country, the participant may examine what he may do to change those elements of the system in his home country which he feels need changing. By providing him with a critical set with which to view his experiences in this country,

(based on the questions, "Who makes decisions?" "How are people involved? "Who benefits?"), he may be able to objectively view the barriers to change in his own country and find innovative ways to circumvent them.



INNOVATIVE EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENTS
(A SUGGESTED MODEL IN NEW ENGLAND)

Purpose

The tools of self and societal analysis developed during the first part of the course will provide the participants with an analytical way of looking at educational innovation. They will work in innovative educational projects and examine them as critically as they examine the status quo.

Their participation in innovative work experiences should challenge the participants to move beyond diagnosis of environments and past experiences, and to begin the search for roles they themselves might assume. None of the work experiences will provide easy answers, readily transferrable to the developing countries. Yet, however successful or unsuccessful projects may be in achieving their goals, they can provide the participants with the raw material essential both to feedback and to habits of continual re-examination and testing.

Setting

An important question to be considered is whether participants should spend the entire four weeks in one project or be exposed to a variety of experiences. Under the first alternative, an educational administrator, for example, might concentrate on the relationship between a state government and curriculum innovation. But the advantages of exposing participants to a variety of environments would seem to outweigh the advantages of a more

concentrated experience. A combination of projects will illustrate the complexity and variety of the relationship of popular participation to educational change. An assistant group leader could serve as permanent liaison between each project and the participants temporarily assigned to it.

The plan for New England is simply illustrative of the range of projects which could be chosen; these are not necessarily the programs nor is it the area of the country which would be used.* Participants could spend 3 to 7 days in each of the three environments.

Guidelines

What follows is a set of guidelines which the participants would be asked to consider during their work experience in educational projects. The guidelines, based on the themes, take the form of open questions since the participants will be asked to use them to build their own approach to inquiry about the experience.

1. Innovation for what?

a. Who decides? What is the institutional source of educational innovation in a particular community? Government? Community demand? A curriculum development institution? Why did the innovation flow from that particular source? Relation to

*For other areas of the country see Appendix E.

child-centered versus adult-centered classroom? Relation to the role of administrators?

b. The question of who decides leads into the question of what kind of innovation? Improving the system which exists? What would widen participation in the creation of culture? Are schools necessary for education? Should innovation take place outside or inside the classroom?

c. How are people involved in educational decisions? What is germane to the role of the teacher as social change agent? Do parents actually contribute to the process, or are they merely asked to ratify previous decisions? Are administrators involved as supervisors or advisors? Who allocates and/or creates educational resources? (school bond issues, referendums, platforms)

d. Who benefits from innovation? Children? Teachers? Parents? Political organizations? Community?

2. What is the relationship between curriculum innovation and social change?

a. Can involvement generated by curriculum innovation be used for other purposes? Can involvement generated for other purposes be used for curriculum innovation?

b. Is there any relation between curriculum innovation and socialization for popular participation?

c. What is the relationship of government to curriculum innovation?

Fall River, Massachusetts

The Bank Street College of Education of New York City, sponsors a six-week summer curriculum workshop for "Follow Through" and other public school teachers in Fall River, Massachusetts. (Teachers who are not from "Follow Through" programs must come from lower income neighborhoods.) The workshop takes place within the Fall River summer school program.

The major purpose of the workshop is to strengthen popular participation in the process of curriculum innovation. Parents are regularly brought into classrooms. Curriculum is built from field trips into the community as well as from classroom materials.

Another purpose of the workshop is to help teachers take advantage of and tie their ideas into Title I programs in Fall River. (Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act provides compensatory education funds for children from low income families.) The AID participants could thereby have a first-hand look at the results of federal educational legislation on the local level.

Watertown, Massachusetts

Educational Development Corporation (For a general description of the Educational Development Corporation, see Appendix E, Massachusetts.)

Three different kinds of experiences could be provided by

the Educational Development Corporation:

1. Participants could analyze the decision-making processes used by a curriculum development institution. They could meet with professionals, spend time in particular programs, (see 2 and 3 below) and interview school officials or community representatives who had dealt with EDC. A number of EDC films could be incorporated easily into the program.

2. Boston Pilot Community Project - A task force of twenty EDC professionals works with groups of parents from a number of elementary schools. The purpose of the project is to help parents organize politically to combat such educational conditions as crumbling buildings, no heat in winter, etc. One group's visit to the school committee and marches on city hall have begun to lead to official corrective action. Once the most elemental educational needs are met, the project plans to begin dealing with the quality of education.

3. Early Childhood Education Section - Summer workshops (8 weeks) of the Early Childhood Education Section, designed for Head Start teachers from the Boston area, have focused on a different theme in relation to curriculum innovation each year. In 1969 the theme was "Adventure Playgrounds," based on the works of Lady Allen of Hurtwood.* With the help of community

* "Adventure Playgrounds" in England, under Lady Allen's encouragement, have become virtual outdoor classrooms, providing children with a wide variety of activities, including painting, carpentry, water play, and simple scientific experiments.

groups, children and teachers changed the character of existing playgrounds by collecting interesting junk from the neighborhood, and by building equipment themselves. EDC provided art and science materials. In 1970 the theme was "How to Run Your Own Curriculum Workshop." Emphasis was placed on overcoming teachers' fear of change by involving teachers directly with innovative cultural and scientific materials.

Montpelier, Vermont

The Vermont Department of Education (see Appendix E, Vermont) Participants would have the opportunity of looking at a governmental bureaucracy which is actively encouraging educational innovation. The Vermont Department has six task force members stationed in different regions of the state. Each member is in charge of calling local meetings including parents, teachers, and administrators. Local groups then accept the Vermont Design for Education as the basis of planning for curriculum innovation or they reject it and propose their own plans. An official of the Department stated that it had been responsible for promoting a great deal of grass roots educational politics at the local level.

An analysis of the Vermont Legislative response to the activities of the Department would provide another institutional perspective. Topics covered could include legislative support and opposition, constituent relations on this issue and the power of the purse.

SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS

Given the Workshop conclusion that trainees coming to this country are not deliberately selected on the basis of their interest in social change, some of the following criteria would help to locate participants with above average motivation.

Suggested Selection Criteria

1. Participants should be reasonably fluent in English. (Unless the program is held in the Southwest, with Spanish as a common language.)
2. Participants should be selected from a variety of American educational institutions, including some from institutions involved in curriculum innovation, (e.g., Bank Street College of Education, Webster College in St. Louis, Harvard School of Education, etc.).
The interaction between participants studying in innovative education schools and those from more average institutions would reinforce a major purpose of the course. That purpose is to cause participants to reflect upon past experience, of whatever kind.
3. Participants should be concerned with the elementary level of education, but could include administrators or planners as well as teachers.
Homogeneity of subject matter will unify the course themes.
Heterogenous participant roles in relation to elementary education will strengthen discussion about the role of the educator in relation to popular participation.

The elementary level has been selected for three major reasons. The majority of innovative educational programs in the United States are at the elementary level. Secondly, the potential impact on the

participants' countries is greater. And, finally, the elementary level is closer to the people and can more easily involve large numbers of parents in community activities. More parents are concerned about education when their children are in elementary school.

4. Two or more participants should be selected from each institution so that group follow-up work will be possible during the spring semester. Alternatively, two or more might be selected from different institutions in the same city.

FOLLOW UP

The participants selected will already have purposes for studying in the United States. This course will encourage them to reassess, question, or redefine those purposes in terms of the objectives of Title IX.

They also have decided upon occupations to return to in their own countries. In those positions, the participants can come to act out developmental roles they would not otherwise have attempted. What those roles may be cannot be tacked on as a follow-up program. They must grow out of the interaction between the total United States experience and the environment to which the participant returns.

PROJECTED COST

DIRECT COSTS

\$ 4,860

Rent (\$30. per day for 22 days	\$ 660.
Printed materials (\$20. for 20 participants)	400.
Xerox (@\$10 for 20 participants)	200.
Printed and Xerox Materials for resource persons	100.
Audio-visual aids (\$100. per week)	600.
Telephone & Telegrams	100.
Postage	200.
Experiential Environment Cost (\$100 per day)	1,600.
Other Equipment Rental	<u>1,000.</u>
	\$4,860.

STAFF COSTS

\$18,080.

STAFF SALARIES

\$12,600.

Director (\$310. per week x 12)	\$3,720.
Assistant Director (\$200. per week x 12)	2,400.
Secretary (\$140 per week x 12)	1,680.
4 Subgroup Leaders (@\$150. per week x 8)	<u>4,800.</u>
	\$12,600.

Travel Costs	2,400.
Per diem	3,080.

FACULTY COSTS

\$ 6,900.

Fees for 44 man-days @\$100.	\$4,400.
Travel	1,600.
Per diem	<u>900.</u>
	\$6,900.

Overhead (40% of salaries
& fees)

\$ 6,800.

TOTAL COST:

\$36,640.

PROJECTED PARTICIPANT PER DIEM AND TRAVEL COST

Per diem: 42 days x 20 participants x \$15.	\$12,600.
Travel : Two round trip @ \$200. x 20 participants	<u>8,000.</u>
	\$20,600.

COST PER PARTICIPANT PER WEEK

Not including participants' per diem and travel	\$ 140.
Including participants' per diem and travel	560.

71' Budget
Approximate Cost
\$110 - 92

36
29
29
92

APPENDICES

EDUCATION AND POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT

Education, like castor oil and chicken soup, has been considered the cure-all to the problems of underdevelopment. It has been reified, like manna from heaven, as above reproach and good in and of itself.

Yet it is possible to taint education; to twist an old saying, the devil can use education to his advantage. When we think of 1984 and the widespread schooling of youth in Nazi Germany, we shudder to think that the sacrosanct institution, education, can also be used as a vehicle for indoctrination. We find that it was our concept of education which was erroneous all along: Education is not neutral.

Education is a tool of socialization in any society. More palatable than coercion and more effective than reward, it has always been a most practical channel of induction and recruitment. Society has, does, and always will use education to perpetuate its own legitimacy and effectiveness--the system, values, human interaction and myths.

The Tocquevillian notion of the connection between school and the social fabric--so much a part of Americana--has been long ignored by political scientists concerned with the overview of developing nations. Only recently has this interdependency been resurrected by such men as Gunnar Myrdal and Paulo Freire. Once dismissed as only a culture preserving institution, education is now regarded by political scientists as the key determinant of all aspects of change. Homage to the education-polity relationship has been paid by political scientists, among them, V. O. Key, Jr., David Easton,

Seymour Martin Lipset, Gabriel Almond, Sidney Verba, and Bert F. Hoselitz.^{1/}

"Whether termed citizenship training, indoctrination or even more crudely, brainwashing, the objective of the educational system in all societies is to produce among the youth attitudes and dispositions that will support the society in which they live."^{2/} Education is also the key which unlocks the door to success in the system. It is the main, and often the only, pool from which recruitment into the system is made and the main vehicle for social mobility. If both of these functions of education--socialization and political recruitment--are being accomplished, then education serves its third function, political integration. Ideally, a totally integrated society is one in which all its members possess the same values and norms.

Title IX legislation is one expression of recognition that there is an important political dimension in development. It illustrates the hope of opening up the political system by increased popular participation in all aspects of national life. Education is the prime candidate for popular participation.

But how can closed political systems seriously embark on universal education and at the same time safeguard their legitimacy and effectiveness? Wouldn't that make them either lemmings or liars? Or, put another way, isn't such an education, from the system's viewpoint, "dysfunctional?"

No political system is going to spell its own destruction by instituting an educational policy which runs counter to its own aims.

One characteristic of emerging countries is the cultural gap between the educated minorities and the uneducated masses. In colonial periods, the elite were the educated--and only the elite were educated. But they were educated to further the colonizer, not the colony.

The thought that an underdeveloped country might need and should have something radically different from the curriculum in the home country is generally out of keeping with the policy and ideals of colonialism. The farther a native could go in the educational system, the more firmly he becomes acculturated in the ways of the colonial power. Those who could rise the highest in the colonial society became the most completely assimilated. Education is then a screen through which aspirants to power and high positions must pass. While the route to power is education, colonizers are usually careful to provide education to the already powerful--to the chiefs and the traditional aristocracies where they existed. The only way to get ahead in the colony has been to become educated, which was--and is--the process of becoming acculturated to the ruling culture. When the new country was freed, this concept of education as the only means of social and economic mobility remained.

So did the pattern of schooling the few to rule over the many. Because education had belonged to the elite, it was logical to assume that if one were lucky enough to be educated, then he must be elite. Education became

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the blue-blood transfusion. Merely being educated set one apart from the masses. Setting up education as a false god while it was still available to the few widened the gap between the educated and the masses. Schools served to reinforce the prevalent assumption by members of the educated class that they have a "natural" right to rule.

On top of this notion of education breeds superiority is heaped another aphorism: superiority breeds superiority. Once development starts in one sector of society, the inequalities within the society tend to increase. Trade, labor enterprise are apt to move towards the progressive areas, leaving the poor zones still poorer. The rich get richer and the poor stay uneducated.

This assumes that the door to education is locked for many. Unfortunately, even if this assumption is rebutted, the type of education open to the masses is like giving them a bell to summon the butler--they don't need it and they can't use it. Education has long believed that it was above practicality. "Vocational" is always linked with the word, "training," not "education." Thus, education tends to prune its subjects for higher echelon jobs, while the middle steps and technical positions go wanting. This is partly due to the high opinion educators have of their field, and also due to the pupil to whom education was originally geared. The effect is to make the pinnacle of the pyramid top-heavy. Those who were "educated" to assume high level positions find that there is no room at the top. This

causes dissatisfaction--and dissidence--among the overeducated-underemployed. It creates a class of articulate misfits who dislike the system for raising their hopes, then dashing them. It also creates dropouts who see no relevance of education to the life that they know they will be leading. Thus, those who most need it, are not being served by education, nor is their position in society being improved. It also inhibits development, if that can be considered separately from the advancement of the people, by not educating individuals to fill occupational roles at all levels, even the mundane or highly technical.

"The demand that education be directed to practical ends either of a general sort or as preparation for a particular trade or profession strikes against the character and pretensions of traditional liberal education... Hence a critical phase of the democratization of educational systems has been the struggle to alter the character of secondary education."^{3/}

The strides which the developing nations are making in education are giant steps backward by perpetuating educational elitism. In Africa and Brazil, two regions with a much lower overall level of performance than the U. S., outlays per student on the university level are roughly equal, whereas outlays on the lower levels are startlingly lower. The gap between the cost of university education and elementary education is much more unequal than in the U. S.^{4/} At the same time, these findings suggest that the great difference in per student costs at different levels of education is correlated with the potential earnings of persons with different years of schooling.

The strides which the developing nations are making have, ironically, often become tools to preserve elitism. Whether by accident or design primary education has been downgraded and viewed as unrelated to development. Since the early sixties, a few countries in Africa and Latin America have made a conscious effort to reverse these priorities. Among these countries are: Tanzania, Uganda, Nigeria, and Chile.

"Although the declared purpose [in the South Asian countries] was to give priority to the increase of elementary schooling in order to raise the rate of literacy in the population, what has actually happened is that secondary schooling has been rising much faster and tertiary schooling has increased still more rapidly," Gunnar Myrdal said. He adds that primary school increases are hardly ever reached while the upper levels are overridden, despite secondary schooling being "three to five times more expensive than primary schooling, and schooling at the tertiary level five to seven times more expensive than at the secondary level." Myrdal said that this tendency is greater in the poorest countries meeting the demands of upper class for higher education. "Here we see again how the school system is determined by the inegalitarian economic and social stratification and the unequal distribution of power."^{5/}

Paradoxically, the higher the value placed on education, the more it becomes an institution to perpetuate the system that holds it in esteem. Ivan Illich sums up the reverence paid to education, sustaining political and social elitism by making an apt analogy:

"School has developed a formidable folklore...The Church, holy, catholic, apostolic, is rivaled by the school, accredited, compulsory, untouchable, universal. Alma Mater has replaced Mother Church... The school has become the established Church of secular times. The modern school had its origin in the impulse toward universal schooling which began two centuries ago as an attempt to incorporate everyone into the industrial state. In the industrial metropolis the school was the integrating institution. In the colonies the school inculcated the dominant classes with the values of the imperial power and confirmed in the masses their sense of inferiority to this schooled elite...It would be difficult to find a society whose political and industrial leaders are not concerned with education. They all want more education, directed toward the sector which they represent... Among the nations of the third world, schooling discriminates against the majority and disqualifies the self-educated. The divorce of education from schooling discriminates against the majority and disqualifies the self-educated. The divorce of education from schooling has its model in the de-mythologizing of the Church. We fight now, in the name of education, against a teaching profession which unwillingly constitutes an economic interest, as in times past the reformers fought against a clergy which was, often unwillingly, a part of the ancient power elite. Participation in the "production system," of no matter what kind, has always threatened the prophetic function of the Church as it now threatens the education function of the school."^{6/}

All this adds up to one thing; schooling, the leading institution for development, is being used to buttress the status quo. Children are seen as objects--open vessels--into which knowledge, values and beliefs are to be poured instead of subjects--who participate in their own personal growth. When children become actors who confront the environment, and in the process, both the child and the environment improve.

Questions such as who makes the decisions about education, who is involved in the education process, and who benefits from education, make one who is concerned about popular participation uncomfortable at the least. This course hopes that in future there can be different answers to these questions.

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1. James S. Coleman, ed., Education and Political Development, Princeton University Press, 1965, p. 8.
2. Ibid, p. 23
3. Ibid., p. 37
4. Ibid., p. 549
5. Gunnar Myrdal, The Challenge of World Poverty, Random House, New York, 1970, pp. 183-4.
6. Ivan Illich, "Commencement at the University of Puerto Rico," New York Review of Books, October 9, 1969

CULTURAL DIMENSION OF EDUCATION

Few development sectors are as ostensibly tailor-made for the popular participation criterion as is education. What could conceivably be described as a more concrete, alluring and on-the-target objective for the practice of popular participation than "mass," "universal education" or "full enrollment?" Long before Title IX was enacted and without its assist, no government, donor or recipient of foreign assistance, would have dared not to enunciate the "education of the people" as its development priority.

The lack of progress in this area has not detracted from the clarity of this goal and from the amazing consensus on its validity. Although there has been a tripling of primary and a quadrupling of secondary and university enrollments in the last twenty years or so, there are still more school age children outside the formal education system than within it. And the number of literacy campaigns launched has only been matched by the number of campaigns that failed.

Not that the crusade to educate the people was ever given up. On the contrary, failures and frustrations only seemed to have accentuated the need and thus the response. Education has survived, in rhetoric and practice, as a development priority while others have come and gone. Education remains an objective, a salvation; while man is its object, the one to be saved. Unflinching efforts to educate the ignorant masses is reminiscent if not analogous of the missionary zeal with which warriors of all ages have set out to conquer souls and win the hearts and minds of men.

The assumption that the major need is for improved "delivery systems" is rarely questioned. Television, along with other new techniques, may well represent that educational breakthrough which prestigious commissions suggest is needed.^{1/} But the evidence, based on the uses to which television is being put, is hardly overwhelming. Transistor radios were similarly hailed about a decade ago but it is still an open question whether they have ever had a great educational impact-- or if they have had, just what that effect was.

Along with depending on technology to solve the problems of education in the developing countries, there have been other propositions promising similar breakthroughs, all of them aimed at educating the people in what was considered the best form of popular participation. These other breakthroughs would be achieved, to use the Pearson Commission's words, through "a systematic analysis of the entire learning process as it applies to developing countries."^{2/} Of course, the Commission continues, this would require "fundamental changes both in educational policy and in the nature and magnitude of the aid efforts that will be needed." It is somewhat unfortunate that this same Commission does not really bother to explain what the fundamental changes ought to be except for stating that educational objectives should be "geared to the absorptive capacity of the labor market" or to the aims of "social mobility."

In line with such "technocentric" education, there are references in every educational reform program to "vocational" education. This "new"

solution moves the same rote learning methods from the classroom to the factory or business office.

The foremost question as stated in educational reform priorities is not really a Title IX issue. It is rather what kind of educational benefits the new technology will spread. If, as the Pearson Commission says, past aid in the field of education "has served mainly to buttress classical methods, applied by unquestioning teachers, both local and foreign, trained in a mold cast over a hundred years ago," why should a different delivery system, but only modern, change all this?^{3/}

What is there that would make the difference between past failures and future success? Would the fundamental revision of educational policy (and the increased amount of domestic and external resources devoted to education) meet the basic Title IX questions about education? That is, would such change in educational policies and practices make a difference as to who makes the decisions about education, in what manner and who are involved in the education process and who benefits from it?

As long as education is perceived as a process of transmitting culture from one generation to another, from the smarter to the dumber, from the more advanced to the less developed, decisions about what is transmitted in the education process will remain the monopoly of the educated. Education for more people means that a greater number of people are schooled in whatever culture the educated believe to be best. The people would

constitute the objects or recipients of this cultural mission. They would be empty vessels into which a culture is poured. The question is: if the people are the objects of the cultural mission, whose culture is being transmitted?

This institutional monopoly of the educated serves to maintain, in Myrdal's words, "the cleft between the 'educated' and the masses."^{4/} They are acculturized in the image of the possessor of a particular culture, whether it is in the colonial tradition of a foreign (French, Russian, English, or American) one, or in the elitist tradition of a domestic ruling class or a "technocentric" one, where being educated is fitting into the development purposes of the country.

Increased access to education via mass media enhances the cultural mission, or, to use a less euphemistic term, it domesticates, regiments, controls and indoctrinates. In such a cultural framework, popular participation is inoperative. If changes in the educational system and process do not alter the locus of decision-making and the manner in which the people are involved, do the people really benefit from education?

The acculturation process has its corresponding effect: deculturation. Any people being "educated" already possess some kind of culture. Acculturation precludes, rather than encourages, its survival and development. In this sense, its consequences are more destructive than a mere technocentric bias based on inequality.

Long-term development has a cultural dimension. Culture is both a yeast and a social cement. It both inspires and unifies. It is an expression of societal consciousness, a foundation of values, a common understanding of a people's historical experience, an awareness of being creators of their own history instead of being the object of someone's else's. The fundamental development issue at stake is self-determination. This cultural consciousness, this possession of culture is a necessary if not sufficient condition for development. It is not xenophobic to the extent that it disdains of foreign and modernizing influences.

Whether looking at developing societies now or in the past, it is undeniable that modern--and therefore often very different--influences are borrowed or adapted from abroad. But it is equally true that such influences do not fall on fertile soil if the sustaining culture of a society is denied its existence or its opportunity to be generated from within. Where there is an excessive dependence on force-fed culture from advanced societies, there is also a paralysis of a genuinely unified indigenous culture and consciousness. Unlike the small elites in most less developed countries which have embraced a largely imported system of cultural traditions and values, the majority of the society has neither been able to absorb this culture or articulate its own.

If deculturation amounts to excluding people from exercising their self-determination, it also makes the individual an object and not a subject of his own destiny. The end effect is an impaired development process

because "development is achieved only when the locus of decision for the transformations suffered by a being is found within and not outside of him."^{5/}

The cultural mission concept of education "does nothing but invade the value frame of the popular classes in order to impose its options and frustrate their action. And under these circumstances, it is not possible to speak about cultural freedom."^{6/}

It is only in the context of cultural freedom that man is able to absorb and benefit from other or alien cultural influences. Increased access to education, universal or mass education loses its Title IX meaning, if education neglects man's own cultural creativity and instead imposes on him an alien culture and thus denies him his most elementary right of "being himself."

In his freedom man adds to himself and to his environment, and what he creates he affects and is affected by it. His culture is his being aware of his goal in perfecting his own nature, of his creating relationships between himself and his social and physical environment. Thus, while the acculturation process treats him as an object, deculturation alienates him and blocks the development of his human potential. Not unlike animals, he neither creates or expresses his culture and is unaware of not being aware of this.

1. Commission on International Development, Partners in Development, Praeger Publishers, New York, 1969, p. 201.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid., p. 200.
4. Gunnar Myrdal, The Challenge of World Poverty, Random House, New York, 1970, p. 191.
5. Paulo Freire, "Cultural Freedom in Latin America," in Human Rights and the Liberation of Man in the Americas, ed. by Louis Colonnese, University of Notre Dame Press, Notre Dame, 1969, p. 173.
6. Ibid., p. 175.

THE ROLE OF THE EDUCATOR

Teaching is possibly the oldest profession and certainly the most stratified. The homage we pay our teachers is a common social ritual, the underpinning of which is the unstated assumption that they are following in the footsteps--within the confines of our own personal world--of the great teachers of yesteryear--the Confuciouses, the Buddhas, the Christs, the gurus, the Horace Manns. For isn't it the teacher who initiates us, opens up the secrets of the unknown or instills our thirst for knowledge, furnishes models which even the very young seek--for a time at least--to emulate.

The analogies, of course, can be drawn ad infinitum, depending upon one's disposition or turn of mind. Such a view, of course, hardly befits a pragmatic, modern day outlook. But old myths never die, they just linger around until more opportune myths can take their place.

Today, and unless the computers make their profession anachronistic, teachers are development's pet pioneers and best bets. They are the decisive elements in the "development-equals-education-and education-equals-development" equation. They are reassuring indicators in the bullish investment market in human resources.^{1/} Concern with efficiency in education, particularly as it relates to the suitability of the end product for the market gives teachers a strategic role in improving the quality of the labor force.

Their utility quotient is not exhausted by economic indicators. They are also effective purveyors of good citizenship, multipliers through which attitudes, values and skills to shape and form good citizens are piped along

with "muzak" into the heads and hearts of their pupils. Depending, of course, upon the definition of good citizenship, the job description of theirs is not to reason why, theirs is but to teach or die. A dangerous task, with dubious rewards if one thinks of the fate of teachers of the Socratean mold who did or of Kyros' beheaded pedagogues who did not. An easy target of scorn when they "put dangerous ideas into the kids' head," scapegoats or apologists when they don't. Now that there is a civic education thrust in development policies that purports to give priority to civic education at all levels of the educational system,^{2/} it is the teachers again who have been selected to become the pioneers on the everchanging frontiers of everchanging new emphases.

That they are sought after and held in esteem, particularly in the underdeveloped countries, is not surprising in a world of scarcity. As if their role were not already a formidable task they are expected to perform functions over and beyond the call of duty of the profession--outside the classroom. "They must become--as a recent AID study on educational priorities suggests--a major source for social development, participating in important efforts to improve the communities in which they work. Both the teachers and the classroom must become an integral part of the social process that is transforming their society."^{3/} This is a broad enough job description to take teachers for granted--being often the only or among the few "educated" around in a radius of some miles--as a principal catalyst and activist in

the most varied kinds of rural and urban development projects. "Outside the classroom" he dispenses advice on family planning, surveys the land for agrarian reform, agitates for the green revolution, takes the census, acts as election judge (or informer in less civil environs), cooperates with Peace Corps members and foreign advisors; he is a member of community development committees and urban councils and, where adult education's practice of "each one teach one" does not work, he teaches each one.

With all these expanding responsibilities, new challenges and opportunities, teachers, as a recent survey in the less developed countries has shown, "are often a disgruntled and even a bitter group."^{4/} For all the respect and priority accorded their profession, their pay is universally low, their status not widely coveted; and even their performance has come under increasing scrutiny. Just as education's functional/dysfunctional nature has come to be the object of intense questioning and self-searching, so have the teachers become recipients of their proportional share of blame.

Although their low economic status hardly allows them to be members of the elite, in the employ of an elitist educational system, they are hard put to disclaim that they are not servants of it. Whether they would ever become innovators in the tradition of great teachers in spite of the system which they are supposed to uphold is also a serious question. As experience bears out, the vicious circle remains operative when "irrelevant education results largely from teaching teachers to teach irrelevant things--to propagate

unrealistic values and to cling to educational traditionalism."^{5/} As far as their coaching role for economic development is concerned, some surveys show that only a "tiny minority" of teachers in the less developed countries believe it the proper function of education to be the furthering of economic objectives.^{6/} Civic education, as much a product of the political milieu in which it is transmitted as a threat to the same, is a two-edged sword for whom ever wields it. Teachers in many less developed countries, to stick their neck out, require motivation, and skill to get away with it.

For those who face up to the challenges and opportunities "outside the classroom" there is as much a mixed bag of motivations as a mixed blessing in terms of performance. If teachers cannot extend the learning process into the community and bring the community into the "classroom" and must instead perpetuate old educational notions through tediously spreading knowledge about the "3Rs," is it surprising that they may seek fulfillment as individuals outside the classroom? And is the teacher, in the final analysis a substitute for all skills that are lacking in a community and is it in his community's interests to do all that and none of them well?

The deference toward and the nagging doubts about teachers is more than a baffling paradox to be described by experts on development and education. It is a proper question for the teachers themselves, and, as such, is a most proper theme for the course. However, it will not do to anticipate

and offer in advance to the participants a definition of their role and profession, (no matter how tempting it may be to sell them that what is "actionable" under the current guidelines of educational development policies).

Whichever the definition the members of the course advance, whatever perception they subscribe to, the purpose is to provide them an opportunity to perceive these issues objectively and subjectively both as teachers confronted with an identity question and a role definition and as individuals who made conscious decisions to fill this identity and role.

1. Irma Adelman and Cynthia Taft Morris, Society, Politics, and Economic Development--A Quantitative Approach, The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1967, pp. 123-6.
2. H. Field Haviland, Proposed AID Program for Civic Education, prepared for AID, June 1970, p. 18.
3. AID Bureau for Technical Assistance, Office of Education and Human Resources, paper on "Priorities in Education and Human Resource Development--The 1970s," January 1970, p. 22.
4. Gunnar Myrdal, Asian Drama, Random House, New York, 1968, p. 1735.
5. AID paper on "Priorities in Education and Human Resource Development," p. 21.
6. Seymour Martin Lipset and Aldo Solari, Elites in Latin America, Oxford University Press, New York, 1966, p. 495-7.

EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION

In the previous themes we have discussed the link between education and development. We alluded to the vicious circle nature of underdevelopment: the way in which elements in an underdeveloped society seem to reinforce each other. Since the course is designed for educators, it is appropriate to explore the kinds of innovation and action which can help to break the link in that circle and thus bring about change.

The themes have repeatedly made references to the popular participation questions "who," "what," and "for whom" as they relate to education. This section treats these questions as they relate more specifically to educational innovation, with the object of that innovation being greater popular participation.

Certainly, not all innovation is an improvement. The kind of innovation has to be determined in light of the objective, popular participation.

The military "improving" warfare by substituting the M-16 for the M-1 rifle might be considered innovation. Not all innovation is in itself good. An improvement on what exists may act as a placebo. Title IX emphasis goes beyond the kinds of innovation which are only improved delivery systems, more modern hardware, programmed learning or other new tools of the old system.

The way in which the kind of innovation can be judged as serving the overall purpose is by asking the three Title IX questions:

Who makes the decisions about innovation?

Certainly, who is to benefit must be given a voice in making decisions. In the child-centered education, the child, by expression of his preferences or interests helps to formulate the curriculum or the way in which a subject is studied. In the adult-centered education, the teacher makes all the decisions about what will be studied and how.

A related question is how the role of administrator is viewed--as a supervisory role or an advisory one? Is he involved in the learning process as a helper or criticizer? If an educational administrator had a great deal of formal power, like firing teachers, he would be less free to be an innovative curriculum advisor. Without formal duties, he might have the time to help teachers experiment.

In what manner are people involved in innovation?

Is there discussion, feedback, and interaction between the community and the nation on educational issues--between the community and the people? Witness the participation--but not involvement--of the people in Nazi Germany. When the learning process of children is seen as extending beyond the walls of the classroom, so might the teacher's role. A teacher might help children to plan an experiment to determine whether a new variety of corn will produce higher yields per acre over the course of a year. Although the teacher's community role is still defined by the learning experience, the project itself links education to the development process. The teacher extends her role vis-a-vis the children not only out of the classroom but

into the community, as parents, many of whom are farmers, become involved both in the education of their children and in the results of the experiment.

Who benefits from innovation?

If the benefit of innovation is, by our definition, greater popular participation in the creation of culture, then benefits must be measured by increased popular participation not only in the transmission of culture but also in its creation. The object of this particular institution of society is the children--shouldn't they play some role in their education? Shouldn't they be subjects at the same time they are objects?

The community model finds individual purpose and meaning in the actual processes of education. It views learning as an end in itself as well as the means to other ends. Therefore, it must define community--not as a miniature "system"--but as a group of individuals, involved in creating and re-creating their own culture. The learning experiences of children are central to the community's culture, breathing new life into the furthering of that culture. Curriculum is not an extraneous and imposed culture confined to the four walls defined as "school," but a process growing out of the people's traditions, beliefs, values.

A village is a rich world of crafts, stories, tradition, and occupations--materials for learning. One learning experience might be educational farms where children can learn science, math--even geology and meteorology--by planting and harvesting crops. Learning about vegetable dyes can be a lesson in science as well as art. Children can learn a language through recording the folklore stories of the village elders.

There are many barriers to change--economic, political, social. Some of them we have discussed previously. But the most important barrier in dealing with individuals in a training program is the psychological barrier. This is the only barrier which we can effectively deal with in this course.

Perhaps the most startling question we could ask a group of educators is "Are schools necessary?" The idea that education is linked to the four walls mystically endowed with the designation "school" is perhaps the most basic and most commonly held preconception. As a psychological assumption, it precludes a whole range of considerations related to Title IX, such as:

Are there alternative educational institutions better suited for popular participation?

What is an educational resource?

How are educational resources allocated within a community?

In this course we hope to startle the participants by calling into question even their most deeply held beliefs. If we can deal with question the psychological barrier, then it is left to each participant to deal with the other barriers which exist in his society.

EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION AT THE ELEMENTARY LEVEL
AN INVENTORY

The following inventory is illustrative of innovative elementary educational programs existing in different parts of the United States. The list is by no means exhaustive, but does show that educational experiments are not confined to particular regions or kinds of communities.

In general, the programs studied are neither conventional nor chaotically permissive in their educational approach. A surprising number have developed out of public educational systems.

Of the programs surveyed, only the Boston Pilot Community Project, the Bank Street schools/summer institutes and, possibly, the Rough Rock Indian School consciously attempt to tie curriculum innovation to community involvement.

ARIZONA

- Tucson:
1. Project CREATES (Cultural Resources Exploration, Awareness Through Educating the Senses) of the Tucson public schools is housed in a "learning center." It is open to both teachers and children. One purpose is to demonstrate that children learn through "experience, experiment, search, research and discovery, rather than by traditional techniques built on memory, recall, and the amassing of data isolated from personal meaning."
 2. The University of Arizona is sponsoring a Mexican American Curriculum Laboratory run by the National Laboratory on Childhood Education in Urbana, Illinois. Emphasis is on helping children develop a positive self-image. This grows out of a feeling of competence as well as from the teacher's encouragement. To develop verbal skills, talking in class is encouraged.

Classrooms are divided into "interest areas" used for half of the day. Children design their own intellectual kits, a homemade collection of items organized around a theme of their choice.

ARIZONA (cont'd)

Rough Rock: The Rough Rock Indian School, although financed by the Bureau of Indian Affairs, is run by a board composed of members of the Navajo tribe. Curriculum is developed around Indian cultures.

COLORADO

Boulder: The Center for Environmental Education, under a grant from the Ford Foundation, is developing science and environmental elementary curriculum through working in the schools.

The major emphasis is on the child-centered classroom which is neither permissive nor conventionally authoritarian. Rich and varied curriculum materials allow teachers to build on areas in which children demonstrate interest and excitement. The Center plans to work with the OEO-sponsored "Follow Through" program run by the Bank Street College of Education. (Bank Street programs including parental involvement are centered in both the Boulder and Louisville elementary schools.)

CALIFORNIA

Berkeley: "Other Ways" is a group of educators, artists, writers, businessmen, athletes, architects, and others headed by Herbert Kohl, author of Thirty Six Children and The Open Classroom. "Other Ways" is not a school, but an alternative pattern of interaction between adults and children. The philosophical purpose is to remove compulsion from education without being merely permissive. The group holds seminars or workshops for interested groups or school systems around the country.

San Francisco: A new Science Museum in the Palace of Fine Arts is geared to exhibits in which people can actually participate. The current theme is the five senses, in relation to music, art, science, etc. Plans to work with the schools are being developed.

GEORGIA

Cobb County: Project Success is composed of counseling teams focusing on individual children in response to school assistance requests. An attempt is made to be "nonjudging, non-authoritarian, and non-administrative."

ILLINOIS

- Chicago:
1. The Nat King Cole School has developed a comprehensive program to get parents involved in their children's education.
 2. Seven Chicago schools have participated in the Watertown, Massachusetts workshops and are using Elementary Science Study curriculum. (See description under Massachusetts.)
- Rockford:
- An experiment is underway to allow children to design their own curriculum.

LOUISIANA

- New Orleans:
- Youth Organizations United (YOU) sponsors a program which uses derelicts to care for small children and take them on trips to the zoo, parks, etc.
- Baton Rouge:
- Five elementary schools are using Educational Development Corporation materials and have sent teachers to the Watertown workshops. (See Massachusetts.)

MASSACHUSETTS

- Fall River:
- Fall River has a Bank Street College "Follow Through" program. (See "Innovative Educational Environments--New England Model," for details. See also New York for more on the Bank Street College.)
- Roxbury:
- Highland Park Free School
The Community School
- Watertown:
- The Educational Development Corporation
1. The Early Childhood Education program runs summer seminars for Head Start teachers in the Boston area. (See "Innovative Educational Environments--New England Model" for details.)
 2. The Elementary Science Study Section runs workshops to introduce teachers from around the country to their elementary science curriculum units. ESS's designs and tests packets of science materials which can be used in ordinary as well as innovative schools. The major design criterion is that one packet of materials lead to a variety of questions and experiments. The packets are designed so that children can work with them individually, with a teacher, or with other children.

MASSACHUSETTS

Watertown (cont'd): 3. The Boston Community Pilot Project organizes parents politically on educational issues. (See "Innovative Educational Environments--New England Model.")

MICHIGAN

Kalamazoo: Three schools that have participated in the workshops run by the Elementary Science Study (Educational Development Corporation) serve as Regional Enrichment Centers.

Pontiac: A massive educational park is being constructed which will include community services as well as schools. It will open in the summer of 1971. Its purpose is to promote large scale inner city renewal. It was designed by Urban Design Associates and was sponsored by the United Fund and the Mott Institute for Community Improvement.

MINNESOTA

Bloomington: The school system gives small grants to enable teachers to develop their own ideas on curriculum.

NEBRASKA

Lincoln: An experimental space curriculum is being developed throughout the school system. It is sponsored by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration.

NEW JERSEY

East Brunswick: The school system is using sensitivity training to encourage curricular and administrative innovations.

Middletown Township: The state's Science Interpretive Program centers around the Sandy Hook State Park. Since 1956 all education majors in New Jersey have been required to spend a week at the New Jersey State School of Conservation. The program includes outdoor experiments. More recently the New Jersey State Council for Environmental Education has integrated conservation education into science study in grades 4 to 6. A class might be assigned to design a marsh bird, given the nature of marshes. The class would then visit the park and look at actual marsh birds. The final topic of the course is the relation of conservation to political action.

NEW YORK

New York City:

1. Bank Street College of Education - Under an OEO grant, Bank Street runs a number of "Follow Through" and public school programs which tie curriculum reform to community related activities. The major premise of the program is that the public schools are potential agents for social change. The Bank Street goals for children are expressed in terms of the kind of people they could become as adults, "...coping human beings who would be able not merely to adapt in their culture but to help shape it." Emphasis is placed on the interaction of learning and personality development. New York City programs include:
 - a. The Children's School - Bank Street says parents are involved in their children's education. Teachers from other schools often visit.
 - b. Polly Miller Child Care Center (East Bronx) - A ten hour day care program for children whose parents work full time.
 - c. Early Childhood Center - Opened in 1966 with OEO money, includes programs for parents and siblings to participate in the classroom activities as well as provisions for training and consultations. There is continuous interchange and discussion between parent and teachers.
2. Children's Community Workshop School - The approach is similar to that of Herbert Kohl in "Other Ways." (See Berkeley.)
3. East Harlem Block School - Founded in 1956 by a group of parents, the school has tried several educational approaches or philosophies. They tried and abandoned the Montessori approach as being too rigid. Next they tried the Summerhill approach and decided it was too permissive. They are developing their own approach based on using a wide variety of materials and children working together in small groups.
4. P. S. 123 in Harlem has set up a "corridor program." Children are free to leave classrooms and explore innovative curriculum materials set up in the corridor outside the classroom. At first the teachers resented the competition but have now begun to allow children

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New York City (Cont'd): to bring corridor material into the classroom.

Note: Harvey B. Scribner, who was the innovative Commissioner of Education in Vermont has just been made Superintendent of Schools in New York City. Other innovative programs should appear soon there.

NORTH DAKOTA

Grand Forks: The University of North Dakota's New School for Behavioral Studies in Education has a mandate from the State Government to remodel the school system along informal lines. A statewide study committee was sent to England to study the "Primary School Revolution" which started in Leicestershire.^{1/}

Beginning in 1968, teacher education was revamped and the school now enrolls experienced teachers in a year long course which is an adaptation of the Leicestershire approach. As of 1969-1970 twenty eight districts were participating in the teacher training and curriculum innovation programs.

Although the North Dakota classrooms are generally modeled on the English approach, the North Dakota program places somewhat more emphasis on reading and evaluation of reading progress.

OREGON

Eastern Oregon College: A mobile teacher corps visits the migrant worker camps in the area. Teachers help the children get to school and tutor them during the winter. During the summer a special program focuses on music and an anthropological approach to Spanish American culture. All the teachers speak Spanish.

PENNSYLVANIA

Philadelphia: 1. Superintendent Mark Shedd is initiating the Leicestershire approach in Philadelphia schools. Pilot classroom projects started four years ago. Learning centers in the basements of elementary schools provide the kind of variety in curriculum materials which would be economically prohibitive for every classroom.

1. For an explanation of the Leicestershire approach, see Beatrice and Ronald Gross, "A Little Bit of Chaos," Saturday Review, May 16, 1970, pp. 71-85.

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Philadelphia
(cont'd):

2. The Pennsylvania Advancement School is a laboratory for curriculum development and teacher training. The school enrolls 7th and 8th grade boys with problems in their regular schools for an intensive eleven week term. A unit on boxing, which the boys were very interested in, was designed to improve reading skills. The unit covered "Boxing and Minority Groups, The Appeal Now and in the 20s and 30s."

TEXAS

Austin:

The Texas Education Agency sponsors a Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

Vermont:

Montpelier - Under Commissioner Harvey B. Scribner (see Note, New York), the Vermont Department of Education has encouraged curriculum innovation. The Vermont Design for Education, published by the Department, emphasizes the open classroom, the integrated day and encouraging children to ask all kinds of questions. But Scribner has emphasized that he wants "Twenty-five approaches, not just one."

There is considerable emphasis placed on community involvement. To quote Dr. Scribner, "I keep telling the poor that the schools aren't going to serve them, that they've got to stand up and start making demands... (See also "Innovative Educational Environments--New England Model.")"

WASHINGTON, D.C.

1. Community Nature Center - Located in the Adams-Morgan Area across from the Morgan Elementary School, the center operates on funds from several foundations with assistance from the National Park Service. The center houses a number of animals which neighborhood children care for and learn from.
2. Anacostia Neighborhood Museum - The museum is part of the Smithsonian Institution. Neighborhood interests and demands help determine the changing content of exhibits.
3. New Thing Art and Architecture Center - A community center "dedicated to the development of the Black community through art and education." The center runs a program for children under thirteen.

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NOTES ON PARTICIPANT TRAINING

by R. K. Ready

For several reasons, a conflict may arise between trainers and trainees. The trainees may come to training for purposes other than that which the trainers envision, or may change their goals during the course. Selection methods do not guarantee the trainee will have a sympathetic ear. Trainers have a tendency to insist on the purposes and results of training while the trainees tend to close out all but what they want from the course. This results in a power struggle. All efforts are then directed toward the conduct of the course, and not the content. Open discussion in small groups can handle this situation. It allows trainees to discover their individual needs for training.

Planners of training courses often see potential in trainees which the trainees themselves don't see. Sensitivity training provides reduced resistance to change, increasing the likelihood that they will innovate. It encourages participation and teamwork and reduces counterproductive conflict.

There is more than one kind of change agent; agents can see change as the result of problem solving or as the result of revolution. The type of change agent which the trainer may produce bears directly on the type of training he offers. There is little known about what produces a change agent. More research

in this area is needed. If trainees are selected because they have already produced and emerged as leaders and doers, then perhaps the most effective type of training would be allowing them to reflect, assimilate, redirect.

Training occurs outside the realm of the trainee's life. As much as is possible, the training should be brought close to the real-life of the participant. Groups of trainees from the same location and from the same professions should be brought together. This will help them to associate their experience to their real-life situation during training and also help to reinforce training once the participants have returned home. Ideally, training should take place in the trainee's home culture. Training should be as closely related to application as possible.

If the participants complain about some phase of training, the trainers must respond to this complaint. The small group discussion must be responsive, not just an exercise in blowing off steam for the participants. Questions might arise in discussion such as: Why am I here? What am I up against? What can I do about things that are happening to me in this training? What can I do to circumvent the problems I will face back home? How do I feel about all this? The discussions should be directed in some professional way to deal with these kinds of questions. The end of the conference could deal with re-entry matters and problems in the home countries.

Small discussions are to expose and explore problems, but often the solving of problems cannot be done in the group. It has to be done in other contexts--perhaps in the home environment. If there is not responsiveness or openness in the home environment for the trainee to act as a change agent, he will end up more frustrated than ever. Program norms and procedures of participation should be built into the program to help diminish the frustration level of re-entry. These should be directly related to the participant's situation in the home environment and would be a sort of "how to" element.

PARTICIPANT TRAINING AND ISSUES OF PARTICIPATION

by Princeton Lyman and John Schott

The largest share of training for foreign nationals is done in technical areas. But this does not mean that technical training is neutral. It may lean heavily toward a particular development strategy. Technical training can have an important bearing on the issue of participation. Trainers should be aware of this in training programs of any nature.

There is a difference between training for development--sensitive individuals and a development strategy. The first may be desirable to help create the second, but there is no guarantee that the first is sufficient, or even relevant in some countries. Training has concentrated on the individual, but training for developmental strategy for the country is by far the most difficult and perhaps of greater developmental importance.

The underlying assumption of this paper is that there are alternative development strategies open to the developing countries. Some of these provide the opportunity for broad participation and equitable access to resources, along with economic progress. Which alternative is best for a country must be debated by its citizens on economic, social and political grounds. The U. S., as trainer, should not eliminate any development alternative or its implications.

Choice of development strategies and of technical solutions must be geared to the type of society one wishes to create. The purpose of U. S. sponsored training should be to create a greater awareness of issues and to open up the implications for participation of different development strategies; it cannot be to prescribe a particular strategy or simply to expose participants to "the democratic way of life." Training should place before participants development alternatives and provide as much technical information as necessary to enable an individual to choose intelligently between different paths of development. It should help to make it technically possible for countries to choose paths which provide greater participation while modernizing. It should show that technical knowledge can be a potential tool for social change.

Two questions to consider are whether the U. S. is equipped to present development strategies other than the ones this country has used. It might be a mistake for the U. S. to try to stretch its technical training capacity beyond its own experiences so as to encompass alternative strategies that bear little relationship to its social, cultural and economic fabric. Would we plunge into areas we could not understand. This might end in poor technical advice.

Another question is if the U. S. decides that technical training is inextricably related to development preferences, who is competent to do the training? Are there agronomists, educators, public administrators who can see and can expound on these issues, or must we rely on the social scientists, and leave the particular application to the trainees?

COGNITION AND CHANGE

by Michael Chiappetta

Since societal change comes through the individual, a training program for social change must focus on the individual. Further, a training program must focus on those aspects of the individual which are amenable to change. Behavior may be categorized as logical (cognitive)/emotional (affective)/normative (behavior required by society) and also by what the individual believes (theoretical or values) and how he actually acts (operational).

It may be possible to distinguish a series of behavioral characteristics which relate directly to a societal role.

Following are cognitive skills:

- a. Number of factors used in explanation.
- b. Temporal orientation: past, present, future.
- c. Reference to factors amenable to human control or natural events not open to control by man.
- d. Sequential structure of relations/isolated references without structure as series. Discrete or related.
- e. Particular, specific solutions/broad, general categories. The criterion is whether or not the solution has any implications, FORCED implications.
- f. Simplicity, complexity of structure used for explanation.
- g. Kind of action proposed to solve problems; simple resource allocation, technological change, technology plus resources, vague social reform, rational cooperation and planning, change of personnel.

- b. Capacity to span conceptual distance, to connect changes that were conceptually disparate in the language of the culture.
- c. Use of trial and error methods to correct assumptions, recognition of cognitive dissonance.
- d. Orientation to intervention in the environment--habit of asking "what might I do to achieve this?"
- e. Future orientation, concern for what has not yet happened, tendency to project on the future.
- f. Use of counter to fact conditionals in thinking--asking "How might things have been different?"
- g. Use of analytic methods, habit of breaking problems into constituent elements.
- h. Use of roundabout methods of approaching goals, habit of visualizing intervening variables, related to b. above.

In designing a training program, the next question is if these skills can be taught or imparted.

If this is yes, then the trainer can proceed in developing a training course which he thinks will develop these skills or sets of skills.

- h. Sense of temporal relevance, restrictions on choice imposed by history.
- i. Specificity/diffuseness of responses.
- j. Awareness of cost.
- k. Reliance upon symbolic action, reasoned relations.
- l. Evidence of experimental attitude, willing to learn from failure.
- m. Reaction to inconclusive results.
- n. Abstract/concrete focus.
- o. Capacity to deal with counter to fact conditionals (how could things have been different? What would be different if this were different?)
- p. Capacity for calculation of implications, use of non sequiturs.
- q. Conception of catastrophe. Meaningful? Reality control.
- r. Acceptance of folklore and homilies.

It may be possible to correlate a skill with a collection of skills; that is, a person who can relate the past, present and future may also be able to put particulars into broad categories, and this may hold true for all who hold skill "a" will hold skill "b." There may also be a group of skills which are necessary and sufficient for effective behavior. A possible list of these so-called "critical" skills follows:

- a. Capacity to span temporal distance, to relate changes over time.

TRAINING FOR POLITICAL CHANGE: NOTES OF IDEAS,
NEW AND OLD

by Warren Ziegler

Social change is the adjustment society makes to scientific, political and natural innovation. It is a by-product of events such as earthquakes, assassinations, unions, new forms of government, new communication devices, and better medical care. It is not something one is trained to create, but something one is trained to understand.

On the other hand, political change is directed human action toward a goal. Conflicts arising from differing preferences by different individuals or groups are resolved through the political process, broadly defined.

The criteria to determine a successful training program for political change agents are increasing their cognitive-motor capacity and affective disposition among learners to engage in self- and other-confrontation, to be undismayed by conflict, and not to be incapacitated by uncertainty and ambiguity.

There is not yet agreement among theorists and practitioners as to the point at which an increase in someone's awareness of himself, others, and the situation in which he lives inhibits rather than promotes political activism. In addition, little is known about how to develop a disposition for engaging in action for political change. Therefore, training aimed at increasing the

learner's awareness so that he will become a change agent is unfruitful, or, at best, doubtful. A critique of present training approaches follows.

Most training programs in the U. S. depend on some form of authority. When foreign nationals are trained, the authoritarian pedagogy is magnified into a "we have something to give you but you have nothing to offer us" stance.

When learning-by-doing is the method used, the trainer assumes that the trainee will come to the conclusion expected, this is not always the case.

Artificial experiences--gaming, simulation--may be valuable, but only if the experience is close to real-life and only if the trainee transfers the learning from the gaming situation to his real life. Simulated experiences as a learning technique are still in the experimental stages, with attendant risks.

Sensitivity training or group dynamics must also be closely related to the real life situation in order to have carry-over effects. The difference between the foreign trainee's situation in this country and his life in his home country may be so great as to render sensitivity training in his U.S. context unmeaningful and therefore useless.

Sensitivity in the U.S. lacks an ideology. The process becomes more important than the purpose of the training. Pedagogical methods alone are not enough to produce a political change agent. An

ideology is also needed. However, change for the better in another society may be quite different from what is so here. Thus, no ideology can be offered. To cause participants to see alternatives and to move toward bringing them about is the goal of change agent training.

Specifically, training should rid participants of their concept of the inevitability of the future. When participants believe that the future is not predestined, therefore hopeless, they may participate actively in molding the future. Providing the participant with a future perspective will not ensure political action by the trainees, but it is an absolutely necessary ingredient to enhancing their capacity for political change.

CIVIC DEVELOPMENT TRAINING FOR FOREIGN NATIONALS

by Richard H. Stephens

U. S. training is skill-oriented. But responsible observers say that there can be a greater return on training aimed at conceptions and values, ways of thinking and systems of ideas.

Stability in the developing nations is not preservation of the status quo. It is progress in political, economic, and social areas. There must be a reasonable relationship between levels of expectation and levels of achievement. That requires a climate which allows and encourages change and individual mobility and opportunity. The government which suppresses change is most likely to undergo change. Change will occur whether or not the government supports it, the question is whether change will occur peacefully.

In most developing nations, oligarchy rules. Most trainees come from this ruling class. The trainees who don't have limited influence. Overthrow usually results in another oligarchy taking over. Populist regimes usually follow dictatorship. But they are short-lived since they fail to take over the basic tools of power from the ruling circle. Change is difficult because the institutions are deeply entrenched. The same class controls the money, resources and power.

Political parties, the politician and the military occupy a pivotal position between the government and the populace. They are in an ideal position to transmit sound national values to the populace.

The approach here deals with a new emphasis in training with a stress on self-discovery, strengthening value frameworks, and civic sense. The first objective is a wider recognition of the necessity for a greater effort by the trainee to help in the development of civic consciousness and citizen participation in his homeland.

Training would explain the dynamics of American society and hold give-and-take discussions on those elements of it adaptable and transferable to the trainee's native land. Combining seminars, symposia, and regular courses, this training represents a conscious effort to demonstrate: (1) the identity of values between the people and representative institutions; (2) U. S. views on citizen participation and public services; (3) the civic responsibilities of the citizen to state and community; (4) the role and importance of national symbols; (5) a free press and judiciary as factors, among others, which contribute to balance, stability, and progress within any democratic society. Another necessary ingredient for creating a change agent is a new sense of values. Attitude change is needed to guide the application of knowledge gained on training.

Training should be an add-on to more technical or professional education. An effective program needs: Americans with a knowledge of the trainee's geographic region and tact and competence to counsel and train effectively on national values in the context of Western culture, ethics and principles; adequate support arrangements from a cooperating university; an active stimulating group of resource people from colleges, voluntary, governmental and commercial establishments; a "live in" training site.

The contractor should: cooperate with AID and the Departments of State and Defense in curriculum and selection; conduct feasibility studies for using community service groups in training; select participants who are familiar with U. S. customs and local customs in the area of training; contact leaders in the vicinity of training; secure cooperation from a university in the vicinity and use their extracurricular experiences; work with the embassies to identify a group of potential leaders, national leaders as participants; use pre-course sensitivity and follow-up to increase training's effect.

The aim of training should be set as a symposium or seminar to stimulate research, innovation and experimentation in overcoming bottlenecks to progress in bringing about citizen participation in improvement of environmental conditions relating to health, housing, and other social needs, and increased use of democratic institutions like labor unions, cooperatives, voluntary associations and political parties. The aim is greater efforts toward development of local institutions required to facilitate broader popular participation in development. The seminar presents the kinds of changes in values which this kind of progress implies. Early sessions would stimulate self-awareness by studying the lives of local leaders, power structures. The trainee will then interview leaders, observing what personality traits or events have made them leaders. The trainee will then be given a social and historical perspective of the area under study. The key to this type of training is to imbue

in the trainee empathic understanding, the ability to put himself in another's shoes. The training areas will present unfamiliar people and situations in socially distant relations, but strongly resembling those back home.

The trainee's observations form the basis for a seminar, controlled by the seminar director which will create an identity crisis in the trainee's life and cause him to break away from his past self-absorption and see himself as one of the few available to reverse the adverse trends within his society. He sees his life if it continues along its present track as continued self-absorption, stagnation. But if he assumes his new role as leader dedicated to change in his society, he sees his life as one of creativity and leadership. This perception may stand as a definition of civic education.

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POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT: SOME NOTES OF THE PROBLEMS OF BEING
UNDERDEVELOPED AND MISGUIDED

by Arpad von Lazar

In the developing nations, there is a lack of national integration. National integration can be defined as the degree of interaction across space/class; it is the general feeling of nationalism and of belonging; it is the participation of citizenry and the citizenry's ability to gain the benefits of citizenship. All these definitions imply the involvement of people in a system of social, economic, and political interaction. This system is generally known to its citizens as the nation. National integration, then, is the attitudes which an individual has toward the community, his general feelings of identification with the nation, and the opportunity he has to be in contact with other members of the national community.

Lack of national integration can often be traced to the actions of a certain segment of that society which is locking the rest out. If part of the society is keeping the whole society from change, that segment of society must be changed in some way, or be circumvented. Change cannot come from that sector of society which is integrated; it must come from a marginal sector. Change must come from people willing to take risks, because they have nothing to lose. Change need not be revolutionary in nature as long as the statu quo sector is willing to compromise or sees an advantage to itself in supporting change.

Marginality is the lack of participation in national life. There are two forms of participation: passive, in which one enjoys the goods and benefits of society; and active, in which one participates in the decision-making process, is politically involved,

and has a sense of civic responsibility. Passive participation is necessary but not sufficient to active participation. For an individual to be integrated--which requires both types of integration --would require a change in perception (his awareness of his relationship to society) and a change in instrumentalization (his ability to change his circumstances). If an individual has some way to improve his situation, he is more likely to have to be satisfied with his position, feeling that the future will bring change for the better (perception).

Marginality within a society can be measured by the ability to communicate and have inter-personal transactions beyond the primary unit of family.

This ability to communicate is dependent upon the technology available for communication and the nearness of those with whom an individual communicates. What is not easily measured is the willingness of individuals to communicate.

Rural areas are often the centers for marginal population. Low population density leads to isolation. The level of technology is low due to lack of capital in subsistence agriculture. Literacy levels are low because of lack of educational opportunity and its lack of relevance to agriculture. Rural life is by definition marginal since urban life defines modern society. The opportunities for social mobility are greater in urban areas.

Marginality is defined by those in a dominant position in society, who define all national life style, ideology, values and norms. The dominant society cannot simply ignore the marginal because they are a potential threat to the status quo. They have the most wants and may be the least willing to follow the accepted paths to making their demands felt.

The problems of political development should be viewed as concern with the maldistribution of political power, income and economic benefits, and social influence.

To be successful, the trainers should: clarify which skills lead to "extended participation," leave the "how to" up to the individuals to be defined within their own national context; leave the decision of what alternative is in his country up to participant; realize that national integration might have to come before changing any of the institutions in the country; make sure the political skills taught in training are neutral and not slanted toward a particular culture or political system.

INTERVENTION ORIENTATION

by Eugene Meehan

Deliberate social change depends upon human action and choice. Social change cannot occur until some actor intervenes in the environment to alter the future. Reasoned behavior requires an actor to look at the alternatives achievable by his actions, choose among them with reference to his set of values, then act upon his preference.

Rational planning and active intervention through organization is becoming a necessity for human survival. Participation is tested in terms of the changes it produces. A major purpose of training for participation then is to make the individual aware of the need to examine the consequences of behavior and not to accept traditional standards of adequate performance which disregard outcomes. Training should give the trainee "a set," a way of looking at the environment that will cause him not only to intervene, but to actively seek opportunities to intervene and to use such opportunities rationally. Training should also create in the trainee attitudes; it should make him aware, responsible about the things in the world that need changing, controlling. At the cognitive level, training should instill habits of thinking which will help him to develop intervention plans and the ways to carry them out.

There is a gap in training between the stated intentions and purposes of training and the actual achievement of trainees.

U. S. training has been successful in instilling attitudes, but unsuccessful in strengthening cognitive skills. Verbalized goals cannot be translated into action without cognitive capacity, or action-oriented thinking. Training should improve an individual's ability to put his values into action. It should provide him with an engineering outlook. Engineers and agriculturalists have a purpose in the environment. Their profession is based on a method of thinking, a set. This orientation to the environment leads them to look for the causes of change, the methods by which it can be achieved, the way in which events might have been avoided, the way in which change works.

This questioning of the environment and change--an analytic outlook, cannot guarantee that he will then be active. But he cannot be--he won't even find the opportunities to act--if he does not ask these questions.

There is a clear relationship between the propensity to think analytically and causally and successful performance in the environment. Determining whether the quality of the performance can be improved by training, and whether that improvement will be reflected in his performance are not documented.

Once the participant has been conditioned to think analytically and with intervention in mind, training should maximize the benefit he gains from all types of learning. Once he is looking for methods of change, he will look at methods in this country and see if they would work at home. Training should provide the participant with a framework to search for useful solutions to problems and to see the transferability of methods of solutions.

TRAINING AGENTS OF SOCIAL CHANGE

By Eugene Meehan

Those skills necessary for producing agents of social change are not clearly definable nor are they inclusive, just as one cannot teach a single skill called "management." But some of the ingredients in social change and the individuals who produce it are identifiable. A flexible experimental training program can be designed around these ingredients. An experimental training program will provide a base from which knowledge of training can be cumulated, the results evaluated, and the program refined. A social change agent must have: (1) an awareness of conditions in his society which need changing; (2) a capacity to see what the possibilities for new norms are, and how to achieve them; (3) a capacity to arrive at a chosen alternative--an intervention strategy.

For evaluative purposes, training goals should be specified in terms of future desired behavior. The agent should not only be able to see what things need to be changed, but ⁱⁿ what order. Trainers should identify precisely the skills to be developed in the trainees, to avoid over- or under-training; locate the places in the country where the trainee's skills could best be put to use and pick trainees who will be working there on their return; take into consideration the resources that will be necessary for the trained agent to work effectively; pick the most likely candidates for becoming agents of social change. Training should be directed at the authority patterns as they exist within the home country. Training agents of social change is more than just producing highly skilled workers,

training must result in the agent having the capacity to develop and modify both his goals and the means used to attain them with regard to the content of culture and the constraints ~~pp~~ provided by available resources and technology. The goal of training is reasoned behavior: an individual who can learn increasingly from experience, and can change his behavior accordingly.

There are four prerequisites to reasoned behavior.

Awareness of self and the environment is the first. The agent must be aware of what needs change, and aware of the results of his actions.

Values are a guide to relevance, a locus for action, a basis for organizing and allocating resources (setting priorities). Desire for change stems from dissatisfaction with the present, caused by a conflict between the individual's values and what he observed to exist in reality. A training program can gather information about the ways in which values are formed, altered, transmitted, and the consequences of different sets of values in altering decisions in various situations.

Cognitive capacity is calculated intervention in the environment to achieve selected goals. It is the essential reality control of behavior. It supplies the ground for preference and the substance of preference. Cognitive capacity is the ability to project the implications of action-in-the-present onto the future. The process by which explanations are tested and criticized, a necessary element

in cognitive capacity, can be generalized and included in any training program.

Lastly, the trainee should have an orientation to intervention. This is a capacity ~~to~~ to visualize ways of achieving goals through individual and collective action. It is the urge to act, a sense of commitment and responsibility.

The four above must be present in an individual in order to create an agent of social change. Without these four points which give the individual an analytic framework, man could not possibly extract the maximum benefit from the available resources in the environment. These four points are not a panacea, but a beginning in constantly refining training programs.

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