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AN APPROACH TO TRAINING DESIGN IN THE CONTEXT OF THE

INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF A DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

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AN APPROACH TO TRAINING DESIGN IN THE CONTEXT OF THE
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AID projects, with few exceptions, emphasize the transfer of skills and attitudes to appropriate recipients in the assistance-receiving country. Since the 1960s at least, the framework of a project has been an "institution" which was created or reinvigorated with AID help. Definitions of "institution" varied considerably, but in all cases the terms "institution-building" or "institution development" were used to describe efforts to ensure that there would be an identifiable and appropriate entity to act as the engine, the pump, that would turn out a developmental service or play a developmental role, which in turn would catalyze development elsewhere in the country. This concept of "institution-building" generally focussed on one key institution as principal role-player in a given process. The institution received external-assistance to make up for newness or deficiencies. It was host to foreign experts (often hailing from a kindred institution abroad), its staffs underwent training usually abroad, and upon completing their training were slated to be integrated into its workings. Other forms of assistance---commodities, construction, and operating funds---often were part of the package.

From there the term "institution-building" spread to acquire new and more diffuse meanings. Projects were termed "institution-building" which sought to strengthen an organizational capability of any kind at any level. The term has been extended to cover just about any developmental project which does not primarily deal in the development of physical infrastructure; it thus has become broadly synonymous with "technical assistance" in contrast to assistance for physical infrastructure. It now is used to designate projects which transfer technical or organizational skills, or in which externally-provided experts work with a given organization to

achieve a specific output. Training is usually part of such projects, but what is being institutionalized and how is not always precisely defined, nor what the chances are of the key test of institutionalization being met, namely, that the "institution" survive effectively and usefully the time-frame of the externally-assisted project, and continue to play an aggressive role in the promotion of the objective for which it was created (mere survival not being enough). A reconsideration of the concept of "institution-building" is long overdue. This is not the purpose of this paper, but such a reconsideration and a possible restatement are anticipated by stressing not "institution-building" but the "institutionalization of a process". This paper deals in training in support of that institutionalization.

This paper is neither a handbook nor a detailed operational guide. It explains approaches to the design and implementation of in-country training in the context of an external-assistance project. As such it may be useful to project planners, project officers, and backstop officers as they address the project element of a project which disseminates skills and attitudes to alter the behavior of staffs at many different levels and of many different technical competences. Training outside of the host-country ("participant training") is dealt with only tangentially in most of the discussion, and is treated in section § Training in the United States. The perspective here is that while training in the U.S. and third-countries will continue and even increase, international assistance programs in the late 1980s and 1990s will be characterized by a much greater emphasis on in-country training. The proper design of such training must focus on a development process to be institutionalized. With more AID projects active in the "agriculture and rural development" sector---a sector which has been enriched by including projects which bear on regional planning and comprehensive regional development---this paper uses perspectives particularly suited to that sector.

The approach used here handles training as a sub-system among others intended to promote the institutionalization of a development process. "Process" is center-stage.

DEVELOPMENT "institutions" are supporting cast. The assumption is
PROCESS that the developmental process is the real objective of the project, the institution(s) merely instrumental, engines to lend thrust to that process. A process, in this paper, is an on-going (or to be made on-going) series of actions or transactions which in some specific manner or sector help improve capacity of a modernizing economy, society, or body politic, in which numbers of institutions of many kinds (modern, modernizing, traditional, etc.) already exist (many have existed since before colonial times [if any], others have been created or re-created since independence). An institution (as the term is used here) is an organization or other identifiable and definable group which plays, or has a role to play, in the institutionalization of a process; or may seek to counteract the process, or alter it. Institutions have charters (sometimes unwritten), staffs (sometimes unpaid), structures (sometimes informal), ideologies, programs, traditions, linkages, leverages---some of these may be quite diffuse or hard to define---that allow them to participate in a process (or to oppose or brake it); they might not have a site or campus or specific physical attributes. Even if one or more institutions should fail, it is important that the process continue, moved along by other institutions that play roles in that process. That is why this paper unlinks training from "institution building", links it instead to the strengthening of a process.

1. OF course, it is persons (trainees) who are being trained, not institutions. These persons are trained in
TRAINING FOR skills or groups of skills, that is, specific applied
WHOM? know-how so that they can accomplish tasks; the know-how may range from narrowly-focussed technical information (including hands-on techniques) to deep knowledge of a subject matter and how to apply it to a professional situation. With few exceptions attitudes are conveyed along with the skills. This combination makes possible changes in behavior of the trainees, hence of the

work-environment in agencies and institutions in which they will exercise the newly-acquired skills. In this manner, the behavior of such institutions and how and what they contribute to the institutionalization of the process is improved

2. What makes the subject of training so important is that it is the fundamental effort that breaks institutional inertia and brings motive power to the development process. It makes the wheels turn. Training must act on several interactive gears of the ENGINE development engine. First, the training system must render more efficient the professional capacities of persons. Second, it must improve the readiness of institutions and organizations to support the development effort. Third, it must insure the institutionalization of a process by creating a critical mass of development-skilled and motivated trained persons who can work in various organizational milieus, so that even if one institution fails, motivated professionals can function in an effective developmental milieu elsewhere.

A. Identification of the Process to be Enhanced

COMMENT: The process is defined as the appropriate mixing of professional, scientific/technical/substantive, material, administrative/managerial, physical, ideological and/or programmatic inputs which result in a continuous output of services or products or results which accelerate the development process by addressing a specific needs or purposes which enhance beneficially the economic, social, cultural, technological, or political well-being of the country and a significant majority of its people, directly or indirectly. Examples can be more and better food crops, a fairer tax-system, reliable health delivery facilities, a growing private sector that serves the economy and the marketplace, improved education, better access to all parts of the country, a more efficient and dedicated public service, a cleaner and more sanitary environment, less expensive staples, reduced morbidity and mortality, a demographic balance between people and resources---one can go on and on. That's what development is all about, but development

comes about through a vast set of processes, interacting with each other, to bring about objectives in a planned and cost-effective manner. Many organizations and institutions are involved, some broadly, some narrowly-focussed. Training prepares persons to contribute through their work or as aware citizenry in one or many of these processes.

- PROCESS
1. What is the over-all process to be furthered by this training?

 2. What particular sub-process will be the main substance of the curriculum?

 3. What changes in process/sub-process is hoped for or expected:
 - (a) between now and the start of training including but not restricted to pre-conditions to the project, conditions precedent, covenants, new legislation, etc.

 - (b) during the life-time of the training project

 - (c) During the 5 years following the end of the training project?

 4. Is the process new or already being done in some fashion? If not new, define the changes in the process which this training is intended to enhance or bring about.

B. Process Institutions

- INSTITUTIONS
1. What "modern" institutions serve as the stepping stones for the process? List up to ten of these (and not less than five) and rank order them in terms of
 - (a) importance of role they play in the process;

(b) the resources of which they dispose, to support the process including training for this process;

(c) any other criterion/criteria deemed important in relation to the training project.

(d) Now compare the several rank orders to better understand what "modern" institutions are involved in the process, and how.

TRADITIONAL 2. What "non-modern", traditional, "societal", cultural, or informal institutions or groupings serve as part of the process? Where possible, rank order them under two or more criteria, and reflect on these listings to the process in relation to the process and to B.1.

LINKAGES 3. Are there particular linkages between institutions listed under B.1 and those listed under B.2? I.e., do some of the "modern" institutions bear a particular affinity or connection to one or more of the "non-modern", etc., institutions? (Note: The word "modern" has many meanings and nuances. Those using the approach outlined here will have to define what the word should mean in the context of this analysis; one meaning it should not have is mere newness. As a starting point in making this definition in relation to development, "modern" would mean "most-supportive" of specific development goals. The definition, however, cannot be global; it must be linked to the particular country and society, and to the particular process.)

OPPONENTS 4. Which institutions oppose all or part of the process and do or may hinder its institutionalization? How effective can they be in their opposition? What part of the process is particularly vulnerable? How may this affect the training effort?

C. Training Institutions

TRAINING IN THE ENVIRONMENT 1. Identify institutions which already train people in support of the process. Include all types of institutions, "modern" and others, formal (like training centers or university departments), and informal such as "apprenticeship system", training within the extended kin-group, peer-training, on-the-job training, etc. Remember that the dividing line between education and training often is a thin, hence arbitrary one; outsiders often disparage as "education" what in reality is simply an ineffectual ("too academic and theoretical, not sufficiently applied") effort at training. (The analyst using this approach must make his/her own decisions based on the particular process and the particular setting.)

SORTING 2. To gain a better overview of the total organizational milieu, sort out and rank-order the institutions identified by the approach suggested in C.1. Sorting should be linked to the process that is being addressed. As needed, break out elements of the process in at least 2 ways ("along 2 axes"). One would be sequential in relation to the process, i.e., supportive of an early stage of the process, one or another of the middle stages, a later stage, etc. The other would be in terms of skills--that is, simple skills in contrast to complex ones (Are they training researchers in rice production or are they training extension agents, or are they teaching grading and sorting of seeds or are they training in marketing economics for rice?)

DUALITY OF ROLE 3. Now compare all the rank-ordered lists (they best be tabulated at this stage). Are there process-institutions that are also in training, or vice-versa? Are there close relationships between some of the process-institutions and some training institutions (consider all institutions, not only the "modern" ones). The training institutions which perform best in

Training for a process--how do they, their staffs, and their "graduates" accession the process itself and the institutions that serve the process? Do the institutions support the process as a whole or specific segments only? Which institutions relate to what sequential stage of the process? Do process-institutions reach out effectively to affect how the training institutions train for the process? Are there "mediating" institutions which lead the "outputs" of the training institutions (trained for the process) to institutions which are operational in the process, i.e., the process-institutions? (Examples of "mediating" institutions might be a civil-service commission, or the personnel office of a process institution, which collects trained persons and finds placement for them).

D. User Institutions

USING THE GRADS 1. Is there a particular institution which will make use of the "graduates" of this training? Or are there several? To what extent is the training effort targetted on one or more institutions (presumably, all of them process-institutions)? Has the training program as a whole been worked out with their collaboration and does it have their approval? Will the output of the training satisfy the needs of the institutions waiting for the training program's outputs? Up to now, or in the absence of this training program, how do these institutions fill their staffing needs in the skills for which training now is proposed? Will the new training program displace other training institutions who will see the new program as their rival, or is harmonization of interests--even cooption--possible? Will faculty members from existing training institutions be offered jobs in the new program? Why yes? Why not? What, if anything (and there usually is something) is appropriately compatible between the (new) training program and the existing institutions? If nothing is, and if no harmonization/cooption is possible, what vested interests can harm the new training program? What are the "weapons" they command and how can these be blunted?

CHANGES IN PROCESS 2. What changes in the process being addressed are subsumed by the training program now proposed? How do the user- or process-institutions perceive the proposed training program? Has it been attempted in some way by any of the other training institutions (domestic or foreign) in the past but rejected by process institutions?

FEELING LEFT OUT 3. What process institutions might feel left out as users because the training program is not geared up to produce sufficient graduates to fulfill their needs? Do any of the institutions that are being left out wield sufficient clout to force graduates to join them as staff rather than work for the intended users? What assurance is there that the intended user-institution(s) will in fact obtain the graduates in the manner the training program intends? What reasons are there to believe that the graduates will in fact seek/find employment with the user institution which the training program intends for them? What happens if they don't---will they support the process in like manner with other employing agencies?

E. Content of Training Program (Substance)

SUBSTANCE 1. What part of the process is the training program designed to address -- what flaw in the process is it designed to correct? Is this the most "strategic" training objective ---is this the part of the process which most needs redressing or strengthening? Are there parts of the process which should be corrected first because they are a "pre-requisite" to the part of the process addressed by the proposed training program?

SKILLS AND ATTITUDES 2. All forms of training seek to modify behavior. All training contains two distinct but interrelated elements: learning new skills and learning new attitudes. Does the curriculum give due recognition to the needs of the process by providing the right mix between skills training and attitude

training? (Training in skills is much easier than training in attitudes!) Does this mix correspond to the realities of the process as it exists now---will it emphasize those those aspects of the process that need revitalizing most? Has there been agreement about this by all leaderships that are concerned?

SKILLS ONLY 3. Would the training program be viable if it taught only skills and some theory that underlie these, but no attitudes whatsoever? If the answer is yes, re-examine the nature of the skills package that it is proposed be taught. True, very simple skills may need no changes in behavior other than the acquisition of a skill. However, nearly always, there are attitudes and behavior patterns associated with these skills. More than likely, the skill training as now defined will not achieve changes in the process if they can be taught without a modest "software" package of attitudes attached to the implementation of those skills. For instance, learning to drive a large vehicle is not enough to produce good bus-drivers. Good drivers also are taught rules of road-safety, concern for the comfort of passengers, awareness that their vehicles need on-going attention and maintenance, perhaps also rules about collecting fares. Without these attitudes to complement their skills, drivers will not acquire the behavior appropriate to the process of a sound mass transportation system.

ATTITUDES ONLY 4. Would the training program as now defined be viable if only attitudes were taught, and no skills, including no managerial skills? If your answer is "yes", go directly to section X on page YY and reflect on what is stated there.

COMMENT 5. Comment: Skills and attitudes both are held by individuals, who exercise them individually or as part of organizations. Individuals in organizations have skills which give the organization its capabilities---among which is the capability to institutionalize that part of the process that applies these skills or depends on them. Organizational policy and structure are determined by the organization's leadership and other decision-makers. Organizations

through their structures serve and protect their staffs' skills and behavior to maintain their own capacity to play a given role. Organizations expect their staffs not only to have skills, but to have attitudes about the exercise of these skills which will lead to behavior that serves the interests of the organization. Attitudes held by individuals, who display them within an organizational context, give the institution its "character" and its service-capacity. Organizations can encourage or discourage attitudes, and will reward or penalize those that display the proper behavior; this is especially true of organizations and institutions built on a hierarchical, bureaucratic model. Training programs, in the usual sense of that term, are not the appropriate device to impart attitudes by themselves. There are special types of training programs which focus on changing attitudes and behavior.

F. Format of Training Program

Presented here without full discussion are some issues and alternatives affecting format for a training course.

WHEN AND HOW OFTEN 1. Period and periodicity: There are advantages and disadvantages to short courses and long courses, and to frequent repetition of the same course. Geographic and Financial Factors play a role; so does the fact that there may be good seasons and bad ones, for nowhere is the year truly "round"---there are meteorological, cultural and religious, and bureaucratic and other process seasons that affect the timing of programs.

SIZE OF GROUP 2. The overall number of attendees of a given course is often decided more for managerial and logistic than according to training objectives. Best it should depend, primarily, on the nature of the subject taught and the amount of interaction hoped for between trainee and trainer. For each training topic there is an optimum trainee/trainer ratio, but these are influenced by space of

training venue, the maturity of the trainees and of the trainers, cultural conventions, and other factors. In a culture in which individuals hesitate to come forward with comments or questions, a small group often is advantageous especially for this very reason: it allows a sensitive trainer to coax trainees into active participation. If a large overall group of trainees is mandated, curricula can be planned so that the total group splits into smaller teams to create the needed rapport.

SANDWICH 3. For many courses, regardless of length, one formatting-model that has been found useful is the sandwiching of "classroom" work and "field" work. The latter may mean simply that the trainees return to their normal work setting and begin learning by doing, practicing what they have learned. They then come back for a second, often a last, dose of classroom work where the applied experience can be examined as part of the learning process.

G. Curriculum Development

UTILITY 1. Those who prepare the curriculum must understand how it is to be used. A curriculum is a framework of what is to be taught; serves as a checklist and a reminder of items to be covered; indicates a logical didactic sequence; sets up sub-units of training in the subject matter; relates these sub-units to the time frame of each training day and week; sets training objectives that are verifiable in some manner (quizzes and tests are among these), and in general informs trainees, trainers, and managers of what the course is all about by content and purpose. The more detailed the curriculum, the greater its utility, yet also the greater the danger that it will be misused and will become a constraint for the easygoing imparting of knowledge (whether skills or attitudes).

LINKED TO 2. It cannot be stressed too strongly that that if the
PROCESS training program is to be effective in improving and
 institutionalizing a process, the curriculum must be
 fashioned not just by competent training--specialists but by the
 practitioners of the process it is intended to serve. Even though
 the course may be perceived as a device for altering the
 process---modernizing it, changing it, even challenging it in order
 to allow the insitutionalization of something better---those now
 associated with the process and the main institution(s) that handle
 it must be made part of the construction of the curriculum as well as
 other facets of the training program. They must be given the
 opportunity to see themselves as the participants in this endeavor to
 train individuals in the (new, renewed, improved) process from within
 the training activity, not from the outside. At the beginning, this
 may have the effect of a limitation, of a curb on innovation; the
 practitioners may seek to preserve the status-quo. But such
 involvement has far more advantages than disadvantages; it is a
 small price to pay for what the cooption it makes possible. And that
 cooption of higher-ups is vital. Indeed, a problem frequently
 encountered is that graduates of a training course (in-country or
 abroad) return to their jobs filled with enthusiasm for new skills
 and ideas acquired in training, only to find that their supervisors
 and work milieu are antagonistic to new-fangled ways of doing things,
 leading either to a confrontational situation or to the removal of
 the "graduate" from his job. That is why a well-designed training
 program of any magnitude makes it possible for supervisors and
 their superiors to obtain a distillate of the training course in a
 brief seminar or workshop laid on especially for "higher ups", or as
 a second-best solution are given written materials descriptive of the
 course and the message that the trainees will bring back with them.
 This also is what makes it important to train a "critical mass" of
 staff in the same subject, so that ex-trainees find themselves
 increasingly in a work environment in which their ideas are shared.
 It is important for those that organize training to be aware that at

First the message brought back by "graduates" may be challenged and rejected, and that this may delay the beneficial application of what is learned to the organizational milieu and to the institutionalization of the process.

CONSTANT 3. The process that the training program serves itself
CHANGE must be capable of changing if indeed it is to be institutionalized. The training program that is to serve this institutionalization serves both as a catalyst for changing the process (by examining it in the classroom and in the "field") as well as a ratification of the changes that are taking place. For this reason, a curriculum is not a static plan but a dynamic restatement of what the training program is to achieve. A curriculum requires constant "massage", on-going revision, frequent corrections, both in overall scope and content and in classroom detail. Trainees, trainers, training-managers (organizers), as well as the process-managers and specialists play a continuous role in this unending evolution. A training program which is put on three times in a row without any change will be obsolete the third time it is run.

H. Methodology

ANDRAGOGY Andragogy is the term used for the training of adults. Like pedagogy (the training of young ones from infancy through the "teens"), it has not one style but many, depending on who these adults are, what their age and status grouping is, the amount of prior education/training they have had, and other factors that affect how they view themselves as trainees, how they view themselves in relation to the trainers, the nature of the subject and of the curriculum, etc. Obviously, mid-level officials in their forties should not be taught like teenagers; but also they may require a methodology that differs from that used with junior officials in their late twenties or senior officials in their fifties and sixties. The concept of andragogy (in contrast to pedagogy) as a

Formalized methodology for training is fairly new and is just beginning to spawn the multiplicity of formally-recognized sub-methodologies that has become accepted in pedagogy for different age-groups, learning aptitudes, subjects, and backgrounds. This places on all who have a role in shaping a training program, as well as importantly the trainers, the added burden of finding the right "approach", the right type of andragogy, to suit particular groups being trained.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING An important method in contemporary andragogy is experiential learning, in which the participants are the trainers of each other, and the trainer assumes the role of facilitator. The course becomes the joint responsibility of staff and trainees. This classroom mode is one in which the experiences of the trainees are described by them as cases and discussed: the participants are active as educators as well as learners. The discussion may include skills ("how I did this"), attitudes ("my reaction and that of my bosses, colleagues, and supervisees") as well as output ("this is what was achieved"), especially process-related output. When tried for the first time, it may produce some shock since the stress on participation often is unexpected and exceptional in a given cultural milieu. A by-product of experiential learning is that it gives many individuals a chance to analyze a problem to a group that includes peers and seniors. It can be an important experience that helps change attitudes of professionals about their own competence, and gives them a taste of a leadership role; it thus develops important job-related behavior.

CULTURAL ASPECTS Moreover, and this cannot be stressed too strongly, every culture breeds its own pedagogy and its own andragogy, though not all cultures do so with equal effectiveness. Most cultures provide training for adults, acculturating them throughout their lives, maybe in a religious or other traditional milieu, maybe in a civic or social or political organization, maybe in other modern contexts such as civilian or military professional training programs. A course may be rendered more effective by using an

andragogy that draws some of its methodological elements from local traditional andragony. Such training deserves to be examined in order to get hints on culturally-accepted elements usable as ingredients when shaping a suitable modern andragogy for the particular culture. What works best for adults is an andragogy that draws on prevailing local cultural patterns (new or old) on how adults are taught---draws upon and then adapts, quite often adapts very radically. Other elements may be identified from the methodology used for younger ones in the best traditional or old-established schools attended years ago by many of the adults now trainees of this training program. Traditional elements may be useful in reaching trainees in the host culture; a little bit of old-fashioned "rote training" may be quite useful in some contexts. Traditions might have to be radically adapted to make a course both attractive across cultural lines and suited to the subject matter as reflected in process needs, hence in a process-oriented curriculum. "Newness" of method itself may well be an attractive feature for the trainees, because of its novelty. However, a modern developmental subject conveyed to trainees through a brand-new curriculum need not be like one that would be used in Pittsburgh, Coventry, or Toulouse just because the subject is so modern. In short, various approaches deserve to be considered and tried provided that the "training culture" of the trainees is taken into account, and provided that the methodology suits the needs of process-oriented training.

OTHER ANDRAGOGY IS A TECHNIQUE FOR TRAINING ADULTS USUALLY IN A
USES CLASSROOM-LIKE SETTING. IN FACT, IT HAS OTHER USES AS WELL
WHICH WILL NOT BE DISCUSSED HERE. IT CAN BE ADAPTED READILY
FOR USE IN EDUCATIONAL RADIO AND TELEVISION, THUS PROVIDING A
LIVELIER FORMAT TO EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTS AND TELECASTS. SECOND AND
VERY IMPORTANTLY, ASPECTS OF ANDRAGOGY CAN BE BLENDED INTO MANAGERIAL
STYLE BY A SUPERVISOR WHO WANTS TO GUIDE THE WORK OF STAFF.

I. Trainers

DEFINITION A trainer is a person who transfers or facilitates the transfer of knowledge, skills, and attitudes to trainees. Trainer is a generic term. There are many types of trainers, and the design of a training project must include decisions as to which, or what mix, to use, and how and for what. Generically, trainers cannot be effective without:

1. A full and complete understanding of the subject matter they are to teach, including some of the theory or background that enables them to guide trainees into further understanding of a subject.
2. A thorough understanding of adult learning methodology; and of how that which they are called upon to teach relates to the process that is being institutionalized, and what that process is and is intended to achieve, at least in general.
3. An informed understanding of the roles of the trainees, and of the institutions in which they will work, as facilitators of the process and as strengtheners of its institutionalization.
4. Skills as trainers, skills in andragogy that they have learned but especially the mind-set, personality, and expositional ability which makes an individual an effective conveyor of information.
5. The status (ascriptive and descriptive) that will accredit them vis-a-vis the trainees. This status may come from age, rank, years of experience, reputation in the field, prior training of the trainer him/herself, social standing, as well as known prior performance as a great trainer.

6. Some training and orientation to the role of trainer in the particular program, the program's relationship to the process, the process itself, and refresher-training in methodology (including andragogy). Trainers also must be informed what materials are or will be available, and that their on-going collaboration is needed to develop these and the curriculum, and in general to improve the program. Their roles in needs-assessments, evaluations, follow-ups of graduates, revision of course or curriculum, etc., must be made clear to them from the beginning.

COMMENT: From the above it is evident that to be an effective trainer, PART- a person need not be a trainer formally trained as such; and in TIME adragogy, there are those who stress full-time trainers as well TRAINER as others who advocate part-timers. The latter proponents, however, generally tend to view as best a small group of senior, experienced (in training and in subject) full-timers who guide and maintain standards for the part-timers. First of all, certain skills are transmitted "on-the-job", and the trainer is a supervisor or senior colleague designated to initiate the newcomer. Professional training programs for adults often use part-time trainers borrowed from institutions that are pivotal to the process being institutionalized, and who come to the training site filled with information and enthusiasm about the process a segment of which they are being asked to explain and teach, and the organizations that play a role in that process. If these professionals lack knowledge of andragogy and experiential learning methodology, they can be given a special course for trainers. One advantage of such trainers is that they tend to focus on application rather than theory, but through their own studies and experience usually pack sufficient "theory" to be able to add important background detail to the curriculum. Such trainers, in addition to their other qualities, also serve as role-models for the trainees. They also may be able to catalyze the appropriate placement of graduates.

COMMENT: Full-time trainers have the advantage that they can devote
FULL- themselves to training with little encumbrance with
TIME other duties. They have the time to devote themselves to
TRAINER a deeper understanding of the subject matter, and to
prepare themselves to diversify the subjects that they are
able to train others in. Training such trainers in preparation of
their work obviously is more cost-effective and more feasible than
giving such training to part-time trainers who have and retain other
responsibilities. Full-time trainers also become available as
evaluators of training, as preparers of training materials, as
revisers of curriculum, as assessors of training needs, and as
planners of other or complementary training programs. Though their
work may not directly involve them with the process to be
institutionalized, they are part of the overall institutionalization
effort, and can look in on this process with an observer's
perspective.

COMMENT: Being an effective trainer is based on a balance of relevant
EXPERIENCED experience and skills which reinforce each other, and on an
TRAINERS: intellectual ability. Good trainers continuously learn new
facets of subject matter, new aspects of the "process", and
translate and impart this knowledge logically, comprehensively, and
in a way that can be absorbed and internalized by trainees. It is
valid to refer to "experienced" and "inexperienced" trainers, but
underlying both is the fact that training, like writing, acting,
composing music, or using a computer is to a large extent a "knack",
a talent, an aptitude that some have, others don't. Frequency of
being in a training situation, the subject matter, audience, etc.,
have a bearing on trainer performance, but there still remains the
matter of that "knack". An inexperienced trainer needs practice, and
may become a great trainer if he/she has that talent. Frequent
actual performance also will serve to evaluate effectiveness and test
the trainers' mettle. If a training system, especially one linked to
the institutionalization of a process, relies on young, new trainers,

it is vital that they be kept intensely engaged with the training process for a period of a year or two at least. The training system can risk having an experienced trainer, who is self-assured and knowledgeable, teach only intermittently; he/she will not lose effectiveness by being "dormant" for a while. Needless to say, all trainers who have proven effective yet will benefit from periodic "trainer's workshops" at which changes in the process being institutionalized, in the training activity, in the "milieu" of the activity, in pedagogy, are examined and discussed. Representatives of organizations involved in the process should be involved in these.

WORKSHOPS

INCENTIVES The designers of a training program must ensure that there exist in the milieu incentives for trainers, that is, for a person to take on the responsibilities (on the job and off the job) of serving as a full-time or occasional trainer. This is particularly true for full-time trainers. If they are to stick to training, and if training is to attract the best or at least really good people, career incentives must be made evident and secure. There are career services in which a stint of a few years as a trainer, as a faculty-member at a pre-service or in-service training center, marks the person as one who, thereafter, will be ready for higher responsibilities. Other systems recognize that training itself can be a career, one in which one can advance from junior to senior; and that a senior trainer need not abandon the "class-room" experience and become a manager/supervisor, but can continue to teach with excellence while administrators take care of the management side. Unfortunately, there also are systems in which those who cannot do, teach; in other words, in which being assigned as a trainer means being shunted aside from the mainstream of the career. Those who design training programs usually do not have full control over which of these perspectives predominates in the setting in which and for which the training program is being designed; but they do wield influence. That is why it is important that they understand fully what is implied by being a trainer, full-time or

part-time, in the particular milieu. Based on this understanding, they can devise incentives for the trainers of the project, incentives which may not be readily forthcoming from the system itself but which can be built into the training system under design. Their concern, of course, must be for this project. However, by dealing creatively with the design of the "trainer sub-system" of this training project, its planners and managers may well affect how the host milieu comes to perceive as well the trainer sub-system of other training for other processes.

J. Trainees

DEFINITION A trainee is a person selected to participate in a learning situation in skills and attitudes. The trainee is slated to have his/her behavior modified to serve the requirements of a position, role, or assignment in the process which is to be institutionalized, and in the institutionalization process itself. This requires a readiness (intellectual and emotional) to absorb new skills and new attitudes. Subsumed in the selection of trainees and in their training is a long-term commitment to the process and its insitutionalizaing. The history of development efforts over the last three or four decades abounds in training offered successfully and completed with distinction which did not achieve its intended objectives because, to put it succinctly, the "graduates" lost interest in what they were trained for. (For a different type of training which is replete with exceptions, see section Q., Saturation Training, on page 22.

INCENTIVES The successful completion of training must bring rewards which serve as incentives not just to to undergo the training but to stay around and give of oneself in support of the objective involved. To this end, trainees are entitled to feel that the effort they make in being trained will be rewarded, and moreover, that the training is not an end in itself but the key to a rewarding and satisfying professional assignment. In most cultures of Africa and Asia, one may express this thought also

to imply that there will exist a continuing relationship of mutual obligation between those who arranged and provided the training, and those who detached themselves from their existing condition to undergo it and be "transformed" into better qualified staffs who can work in support of the process to be institutionalized.

1. Just what incentives are needed cannot be expressed globally. This is related to existing patterns of employment in the civil service, or in academe, or in the grouping to which the trainees or graduates will belong. There may be in-service programs which are a pre-condition to advancement, and in other systems automatically yield a promotion. It also relates to the extent of the training, the discomfort or commitment it involves, its duration, and its explicit purpose. What is important is that graduates feel, and are known by others to feel, that the training was worthwhile and gave them rewards not just because they were give this training, but because, by being better trained, they benefit from working as part of the process to the needs of which they have been fitted. Generally speaking, there are both material and psychological rewards that reasonably should be expected. Those that plan the training should consider and make clear which of these rewards relate to the training project proper, and which come with being part of the process that is being institutionalized. The important rewards must come from the process as a continuing endeavor that will far outlive the project. The trainees must come to see the on-going post-training opportunities, not the training itself, as being the source of the important rewards. Some rewards for training (other than the enjoyment of the course itself and special "perks" that may come with it) is so important an issue that it ought to be part of project design, that is, built into the policy-dialogue with the Government about the training program.

2. All too many in-service training programs throughout the world's civil services are perceived as being short-time experiences that reward past performance at least as much as they are thresholds for future professional betterment. Both perceptions have validity, but good training is future-oriented, not past-oriented. In some systems, the trainees receive a chance to travel within the country (or abroad), to benefit from days, weeks, or months of relief from routine work in pleasant if not luxurious surroundings as compared with their normal haunts, of per diems and other payments associated with being in training status. These benefits may all be short-term, and there is little expectation that the training will lead, permanently, to something better which could not have been possible without this training. (There are governmental personnel systems of which it can be said justifiably that training is a means of keeping a certain percentage of staff from offices away from their work but happy with their "bennies" in order to rationalize the over-staffing of their units.) A good training program provides explicit recognition that having been selected for training is a compliment; that what lies ahead is professional betterment; that the trainee is provided with qualitative improvements in work-related skills and attitudes and the prestige of having new knowledge and capabilities to work with others in the institutionalization of the process. All of these must be stressed to the trainees in a credible, realistic, and identifiable manner. For this reason, those who design training programs in the context of the institutionalization of a process must work closely with the civil-service agency, or the personnel office, or whatever it is that shapes the basic legal or regulatory pattern of careers, to ensure that the basic system can provide, credibly and in fact, the real, the long-term rewards.

3. It is evident from the foregoing that the selection of participants is a complex undertaking which holds the seeds of success or failure of the training effort.

hence of the attempt to help the institutionalization of the process. The selection process is closely linked to the particular milieu as well as to the nature of the process to be institutionalized; only some glittering generalization can be offered in this paper. The selection process should be manifest; that is, those selected and those not selected should understand why. The selection process should be linked to the process of institutionalization. It should be a credible process which takes existing traditions and patterns, even some of its biases, into account; or at least, it should not do violence to existing local patterns and traditions. For this reason, it will likely include subjective factors stemming from local realities as well as objective criteria which are measurable and quantifiable. It might likely include interviews or other tests to which foreigners will not be privy. The Foreign adviser or consultant should keep in mind the realization that this is not a selection process for a similar training program in his/her own country but in the particular milieu in which it is taking place.

Inherent in what was stated above at INCENTIVES (page XX) is that those who select the trainees also are selecting future colleagues with which a long-term mutual relationship is wanted in the context of the objective of institutionalizing the process. This aspect brings with it selection criteria that reach beyond the selection merely of trainees for a course.

K. Training Materials

COMMENT: Just about any course benefits from training materials, provided the course and its process objectives, not just the materials, are the focal point of the training effort.

Materials may include:

(a) instructional matter which in printed text replicates major portions of the presentations to be made in classrooms by trainers;

(b) printed sources of detailed data, discussion, explanations, background, technical subjects, all of which are considered as best left out of the class-room work and assigned as additional reading before or following a lecture;

(c) "case-studies" containing actual events which point to problems addressed by "the process" and how, in these instances, the process (successfully or unsuccessfully) dealt with the problem;

(d) specific examples of how "the process" works and how it is being institutionalized---these can be based on actual experiences of course participants themselves;

(e) materials directed primarily at trainers as sources of information or guides on presentation of materials (sometimes called "teachers' workbooks");

(f) instructions and scripts for simulations and "games";

(g) graphic materials such as maps, charts, statistical or other tables, process-flow diagrams, etc.

(h) reference materials to be consulted between instruction, during simulations and games, and upon return to the usual worksite after the course has ended.

(i) aural or audio-visual materials for use during periods of instruction, after class, or as materials that can be used as external extension of elements of the course within contexts related to "the process", where they can be presented either by course-graduates or by trainers.

1. There is no formula by which to determine how much material is needed for one "unit" of course, be the unit the course or any part or one-hour session thereof.

NO FORMULA Nor are there formulae to determine how much materials should be created especially for or around the training program, and how much and what material already is available in the milieu. This is for management to decide in close consultation with trainers and practitioners---who will influence how much and what type of materials can best serve. A sufficiency of materials (especially [c] through [i]) is useful to both trainers and trainees, as well as to others concerned with the process. Too many materials not only may drain the training effort of resources and deprive trainers of spontaneity, but may be perceived as a burden by both trainers and trainees, who may feel they must use all that material somehow, no matter whether it interferes with the pace of the course.

2. Materials preparation can easily become the single most costly element of a training program. Materials prepared especially for this training project may have the advantage of great focus and appropriateness to an

CAUTIONARY
NOTE

adragogic effort, but carefully selected "real-life" materials have the advantage of being less costly and more realistic. The most realistic materials may well be obtainable from the organizations that directly are involved in the process, either as doers or as supporters or as clientele. Another type of materials derives from governmental, academic,

or scientific organizations who already produced these items as part of their own normal processes. Still another source of materials may be found in newspapers, in articles or reports dealing with the process and the problems it addresses, or the results (positive or negative) it has obtained. By using such materials from the "real world", the trainees are shown how such sources can inform them in the future, as they become engaged with the process and wish to keep up with the "state of the art" and the "state of the play". One purpose of any professional course is to prepare trainees for continuing self-training.

3. A programmatic question that usually is faced when designing and managing any training program is whether to devote resources to the assembling of a research and reference LIBRARY library for the program. The answer depends heavily on the nature of the training program, whether it will continue to be associated with a particular training site (school, training center, etc.), and on the process it is designed to institutionalize; and these questions must be weighed in relation to existing professional libraries in the milieu, their holdings, and their "user-friendliness". There may be other factors to consider. But as a rule (which may need to be ignored) it is best where feasible to enrich the holdings of the library of one or more process-linked institutions, on condition that trainers and trainees have access; or to issue to each trainer and trainee a professional library of limited size but containing materials fundamental to the process, which they will take with them as they work within the process. In addition, trainers will need a few good books on training methods and andragogy.

L. Evaluations

COMMENT There are many types of evaluation activities which form part of a well-designed training program. They range in

content from those that relate to the very design and inception of the program in relation to the process to be institutionalized, to those that focus on the management of the training and on the effective and constructive utilization of its sub-components and resources. Evaluations start in the class- or workshop room. Participants should daily be tasked with handing in anonymously a prepared form to rate the trainer, and trainers should have the responsibility to rate the achievements of the trainees. In many cases, it is useful to have parts of courses audited by a "process observer", an experienced professional (perhaps also a part-time trainer) who can take in what is happening and objectively evaluate its utility; however, this can only be done successfully if the cultural milieu is such that the visitor will not be perceived as an "inspector" but rather as a friendly observer and critic. Also, evaluations may focus on the end-products---the efficient and appropriate application of graduates in institutions and agencies that implement the process to be institutionalized; and on the end-results---how much the process and the institutions serving it have improved because more trained personnel are available. Evaluations are not judgements but fact-finding efforts to create improvement in training or in the process and the institutions linked to it. Rather than describe evaluations by sequence, they are presented here in relation to the process.

NEEDS

1. Needs Assessments: These are studies or evaluations which identify what needs for training activities emerge out of the process; the needs may be those of individuals working in particular organizational settings, or globally of certain organizations and its leaderships. What specifically are the substantive "holes" that training is to fill (or the reverse: are the substantive holes and cracks in the process susceptible to be filled by training, or are other types of interventions needed or needed first?)? What types of training---by frequency, duration, level, methodology (e.g.,

class-room work as against field-work---seem most appropriate; what benefits can be expected from such training, or respectively from various types of training? Is such training feasible---is it recognized that certain personnel of several process-institutions need training, and will they be available for it? What type of trainers are needed, and are they available, without or with additional training as trainers? What are the recurrent needs for training that the trainers may feel they will need? What are the training needs of those for whose training this program is intended; what do they need to learn--in their own views, those of supervisory staffs, of the process-institutions, and in the views of substantive experts in the process and in andragogy. What are the recurrent or future training needs of other staffs of the process-institutions, graduates or not of what is being designed or implemented? What kind of professional assistance is required for training which is not already available within the country, for how long and/or at what intervals? What resources---sites, materials, financial, managerial---will the training program require during the initial period it is to be operated? Later? Recurrently? Is there need for subsidiary training or orientation courses ("promotional training") to accredit the principal training program with the institutions and their leadership, or with other decision-makers? To what extent has the first, the second, etc., course been accepted by all those concerned?

2. Performance and Implementation: This type of evaluation is essentially similar to most evaluations performed on AID and other assistance-receiving projects. How well is the projectized effort doing in terms of meeting its anticipated objectives and goals, how effective and timely are its outputs, and how satisfied its clientele? What are the objectively measurable results of the training not just in terms of persons trained and performing better, but in terms, importantly, of the insitutionalization of

a process, or at least discernable improvements in its operation? (Don't measure only how many new land registrars have been trained and how many new land offices can now be staffed. Ask how many titles to how many plots of land of an aggregate of how many hectares can be attributed, at least in major part, to the new training program to help institutionalize the Directorate of Cadastral Surveys; is the directorate now adequate to the task of institutionalizing the cadastral-survey process?).

3. Managerial evaluations: This type overlaps with the preceding but examines not the process being addressed but the sub-systems of training for the institutionalization of a process. How well is the training program run? What is the level of discipline of the trainers, the trainees, management itself? How well are finances handled? Regardless of how good or how bad the output of the training sub-systems, how do they compare with similar training operations? What deficiencies are there and how can these be remedied?

EFFICIENCY

4. Relevance: A training program linked to the institutionalization of a process should be evaluated periodically as to relevance to that process, even if other evaluations give it high marks. This type of evaluation looks at the training program from the perspective of those engaged in and with the process, and draws out their views. How relevant is the program in terms of zeroing in on the most crucial skills and attitudes needed for the institutionalization of the process? Does the training program deals in these, or in more diffuse, tangential, supportive but less strategic ones. This type of evaluation requires a profound understanding of the process, the problems of its insitutionalization in the host milieu, and requires

RELEVANCE

sensitivities about what a training program can be expected to accomplish: Training is not a cure-all for all institutional or processual ills.

M. The Management of A Training Program

While the training program addressed in this paper is preparatory to or in support of the institutionalization of a process, there is another institutionalization also taking place: it is the institutionalization of a training mechanism (maybe a formal training program to be conducted by a formal training agency) which will manage this course, maybe also others in the future (on this, see section N. Institutionalization of the Training Program). For this reason, the entire set of procedures, approaches, mechanisms, considerations, etc., used for what at first appears to be a purpose of limited scope takes on dimensions that are much larger and more lasting. The chart on the next page presents an overview of the managerial scope.

Here are some points to be stressed:

1. Managing a training program is a complex managerial undertaking which, like the production of a great
COMPLEXITY brings together the script, the actors, the supporting cast, the locale, the objectives. In addition (unlike a Hollywood production) there are legal and regulatory considerations, academic and professional constraints, budgetary factors, and all the minutiae of restrictions and caveats that any bureaucracy, certainly two bureaucracies seeking to collaborate, can bring into play. The management of a training project requires skilled and dedicated professionals who understand fully the purposes they are addressing, the reasons for the effort, the respective expectations of all who play a role in the design.

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SIX STEPS IN MANAGEMENT OF A TRAINING PROGRAM

A. Identification of individual or organizational training needs, directly related to satisfactory performance now or in the future. It focusses on knowledge and skills

in which the trainees are not already proficient prior to training;

which, if strenghtened or acquired, increase productivity of the trainee's work group;

that can feasibly be improved through training or group consultation;

(B) Design of interventions: over-all strategies for client institutions, individual training units or modules, all grounded on previously identified needs;

(C) Development of training materials, such as case studies, small group exericies, individual assessments and work plans, lectures, etc.

(D) Instruction or facilitation of training events;

(E) Evaluation of training results, and follow-up meetings to improve application of learning to work situations;

(F) The administration of a training program, including attention to essential details such as the schedule, budget, notifications of trainers and trainees, preparation of materials prior to and during the sessions, training facilities, etc.

administration, conduct, evaluation, and follow-on of the training. Importantly among those "who play a role" are the end-use customers, i.e., those who will employ the graduates of the program.

2. Trainers are the most value human resource input, and must be the focus of much managerial attention. Trainers, including the part-timers, need to teach regularly according to a schedule drawn up well ahead. New trainers especially need to have their early experiences reinforced with a rigorous and virtually continuous series of training experiences. Part-time trainers need to be reassured that they have not been forgotten and are fully appreciated by being called upon to lecture frequently, if they are not to get the impression that they are being dropped tacitly (sometimes that impression wants to be conveyed!).

SCHEDULES

3. Management frequently focusses too much attention on the physical aspects of training programs, the places where it takes place, living quarters, food service,

LOGISTICS

etc. Normally these logistics, important though they are, can be delegated to public or private organizations that will handle them though they require direction and control. Linked to logistics are other special requirements of trainees, such as per diem, "pocket money", "book allowances", "food money", to permit them not to be out-of-pocket while they train away from home. Sometimes these minor items become nettles due to mismanagement or poor budgetary planning. Best is a standard policy, with published rates, applicable to as many courses as possible in as many training programs as possible. Morale of trainees and the impact of a training program is readily endangered by participants' perceptions of having been neglected.

4. It is management's role to see to it that courses are properly prepared in all respects, and that evaluations, **MASSAGE** re-assessments, and revision of courses and materials take place. While there must be continuity, every course and program must be "massaged" continuously. The scope of revisions should be focussed, not global, and low-key, not loudly proclaimed. Revisions maintain the courses' credibility; overly touted, they undermine confidence in the training apparatus in its entirety. Officially, it should in most cases remain the same course (unless there has been a catastrophic failure), even if significant changes are made in the course's content or structure.

5. A training program must become sufficiently well-known so that it can play a role in the institutionalization **NETWORKING** of a process. Information-sharing or networking should give sufficient publicity so that all potential users of the program (trainees, trainers, end-users, and managers of any part of the "process" to which the program is linked) take a continuous interest in the training program and begin to factor its efforts into their own and into the process. Publicity includes the publication at least of catalogues of courses, perhaps also of a newsletter or journal. Sometimes, an association of graduates of a training program provides a useful network for the dissemination of knowledge of what the course can do, and a helpful support for the training program as well as for the institutionalization of the process that is being addressed.

6. Management should be ready to experiment with **MODALITIES** modalities used in the conduct of all or of selected courses, keeping in mind the relationship between the training program, the institutionalization of the process, and the respective organizations and institutions which play a role in the process and its institutionalization. These modalities include:

a. Courses for which individuals are selected to be trained as individuals within a training group;

b. Courses the trainees of which are selected purposefully from certain agencies and institutions among whom greater collaboration is being sought, or because all of them make the same kind of professional contribution to the process (e.g., they are all comptrollers, or first-line managers, or supply specialists in respective agencies).

c. Courses laid on for a specific institution, and drawing trainees from different sub-units or field offices of that institution. The course can be given at a regular training site or on the premises of the institution---so that parts of the process can be observed during the course.

d. Courses laid on for a specific institution or sub-unit thereof, and including as trainees just about the entire staff, from director or deputy director down to the lowest professional level. This modality usually sites the course at the institution. This modality, much like the preceding one, may be particularly useful (how useful depends on cultural attitudes) if in addition to skills the course deals heavily in organizational or interpersonal behavior patterns. If the institution is large or diffuse, the course can be repeated in different sub-units so that the "vertical attendance pattern" is duplicated for different sub-units throughout the organization.

7. It can be very useful to have the training program contract out elements of training---courses, seminars, preparation of materials, evaluations and assessments HOST-COUNTRY ---to other (often private or voluntary) organizations CONTRACTORS in the country, such as universities, institutes, professional associations, etc. This is not a sign of weakness in the management of the training unit. For it has many desirable consequences: broadening the circle of supporters of the institutionalization of the process; bringing in different views and styles of training (including materials preparation, needs and other assessments) skills; reducing the load on the core group of trainers and training specialists; augmenting the diversity and quality of courses by tapping resources not available except under contract; and sometimes, benefitting the institutionalization of the process by encouraging the participation of the contractor(s) not only in training but in other aspects of the process as well. There also are disadvantages: the contractor(s) must be supervised closely for compliance with the objectives of the program and ability to produce process-oriented training; the contractor must be held to deadlines, performance, and in some cases the assignment of specific personnel whose talents and skills the contract sought to tap; and the relationship between the management of the training program and the contractor(s) must serve the needs of the training program first, of the contractor last.

N. Institutionalization of the Training Program

COMMENT: It is a question of semantics as well as of strategy to what extent a training program in support of the institutionalization of a process should itself be institutionalized. The type of training program discussed in this paper is not a goal in itself but serves another goal---institutionalization of some governmental or functional process, carried on by one or more agencies and institutions.

The training program has no reason for existence except if it serves that purpose. The purpose of this activity is not to necessarily to create a new training organization or any other institution which, by definition, will compete with all others, including the ones this training is to strengthen, for trained staffs, funds, managerial attention at a still higher level, and perhaps even clientele. This paper so far has not described by what device such a training program should be managed. It might be an existing "staff college", or a training directorate in an existing ministry, or a university, or elsewhere. It also is possible that no other solution was found by the designers of this training program than to create an entity which, by virtue of being new and independent, could address the institutionalization of the process from neutral grounds---not being itself a contestant for power of control over any part of the process to be institutionalized, except, for the present, conducting this training program. Whatever is the strategic choice, a soundly-designed program is based on six steps, shown in the chart on page ZZZ.

For the sake of argument, let's assume that the training program is truly a success in relation to the process, and that there is wide perception by those who are the organizational embodiments of that process that further training is required for the next few years at least; and that the momentum achieved by the training program and its management and staffs should not be broken. Such a view is tantamount to a demand to institutionalize the program. The steps that are needed to establish a sound training program are listed in the chart on page ZZZ. In such an event, there are several options that come to mind:

1. Continue the program under its present organizational charter. Presumably the management of the training program has a mandate from somewhere; let this mandate be extended for a fixed period of time, say six years or

whatever the clientele thinks is the minimum period needed to achieve the completion of the major training effort. At the end of that period, another option might be selected. It likely would be detrimental to the training program if a firm institutionalization does not occur by then.

2. Seek an arrangement whereby the training program, though maintaining its organizational integrity, becomes
AUTONOMY linked to that institution which carries major responsibility for the process but is supervised by a committee of representatives of other agencies involved.

Crucial is a judgement that the training program will maintain its autonomy and be able to serve the entire process, not just the host institution, and that the existing links between the other institutions and the training program be preserved if not strengthened. Very often, governmental agencies realize (albeit at times belatedly) the strategic importance of training; and that the agency that controls process-oriented training likely will gain control of the process.

3. Merge this training program with similar training programs, if such exist in the country, to form a larger
MERGE training agency with autonomous status and impact not on one but on several efforts to institutionalize processes.

By pooling managerial, substantive, and financial resources, the enlarged agency may well become a pivotal catalyst for developmental institutionalization, maintaining a neutrality vis-a-vis any inter-institutional rivalry for control of this or other processes.

O. Financing the Training Program

LESS IS BETTER It has been assumed that this training program was paid for by the Government because of the importance the Government attaches to the process and its proper institutionalization, and that the agencies whose

personnel are being trained are public employees, or otherwise sponsored by the Government; and that the training program is funded by allocations from the national budget paid either directly or through an intermediary agency to the management of the training program. This usually is the pattern, at least for a time. But it is important to remember that the best financing for a training program or institution comes from its users, with the national budget pitching in just enough to keep the training going. In other words, after the training program has demonstrated its value and gained a steadfast clientele, the agencies that participate among themselves should fund the bulk of the training (directly or through the Treasury, depending on fiscal management procedures), and the Government's subsidy should become smaller and smaller. Once this begins to happen, it will be an indication that the training itself is becoming institutionalized in the several organizations, and that it has become accepted that without the training program, institutionalization of the process would not have occurred and might not survive.

P. Organization Development

COMMENT: Organization development is a technique of intervention by specialists in organizational behavior, interpersonal relations and techniques, bureaucratic behavior and communications, industrial and organizational psychology (different terms for essentially the same field of competence; in plainer terms, such specialists are the socio-psychological counselors not of individuals but of organizational units. On page AAA it was stated that if "the training program as now defined [is] viable if only attitudes were taught, and no skills, including no managerial or supervisory skills, go directly to section P on page ZZ and reflect on what is stated there." That's where you are now.

USES

1. Organization Development (OD) is successfully applied where there is evidence that an organization or one of its units isn't performing the right way even though its staffing levels and staff quality meet usually-expected minimum criteria. The unit might be the leadership cell of the organization, or it might be a line or staff unit. There is something wrong there, and it affects the entire organization. It isn't lack of skills; it's lack of something else: the "savvy" of how to conduct business within the unit with other units, and with clientele; it is a problem of attitudes and behavior. This type of situation requires urgent attention. No matter how many skills are pumped into the organization (including this unit) by training programs, things still will not work because of an attitudinal handicap and a behavioral deficiency. The diagnostic analysis (including confirmation that skill-training in the usual sense is not the answer), the design of appropriate interventions, and the implementation of interventions are the uses to which organization-development specialists and their expertise are properly applied. OD assumes that open and free interaction, facilitated by a specialist in organizational behavior, in which staffs participate can beneficially affect attitudes and individual and group behavior to make an organization more effective. One final word of caution is in order: especially in hierarchical bureaucratic organizations, the senior managers are the prime role-models for all whom they oversee. If the signals from the top are the wrong ones, OD can improve things somewhat, but its achievements will be limited. That is why any OD-type intervention needs explicit and audible approval from on high.

SENSITIVE

2. Interventions of this kind are delicate, and fraught with political significance. Right from the start it must be assumed that the application of OD to a unit cannot remain confidential if it involves more than two or three officials (and if then!). Just as no individual wants

to become known as somewhat off his/her rocker, neither do organizations. That is why the application of OD must be preceded by a lot of consultations with those above and those who lead the organization, as well as, as a second step, those who will be involved. The politics comes in because a unit identified for OD may be perceived by others to have lost its mandate, to have been deadlined at least until the OD process is completed; this gives competing units or organizations an advantage with respect to common responsibilities for the process. All these sensitivities exist in all cultures, including American and west European (Atlantic) cultures. The same sensitivities exist, perhaps even more so, in traditional cultures in which formality and rigidity of behavior are the norms, and any modification or relaxation of behavior is seen as a threat to the individual, to kin and associates, if not to the culture. Often these difficulties revolve around questions of delegating authority and sharing information.

3. Organization-development, whether seen as part of managerial sciences or as part of the behavioral sciences, is known in many of Africa's and Asia's countries. There also are American and other specialists who have been successful in OD work in other cultures. The practitioner SPECIALISTS should be selected with care both as to capability and as to acceptability by the host country and especially the host agency. This is how should be decided a strategic question: whether the OD specialist(s) should be of the country, foreign, or a mixed team of both; each of these has its advantages. The presence of a foreign expert can come to depersonalize the process by involving an alien who has no inherent personal links to the host society, and will leave when this work ends. In some cases, the foreign specialist may be able to bring experiences gained in his/her own country as well as in other countries, thus enriching the professional competence of host-country colleagues. Whether foreign or

domestic, OD specialists should be assigned to do a specific task with one or more specific units, and then sever relationship with the unit(s) they "treated". Such specialists might be called back from time to time, but it is best that they have no permanent relationship with the units where they do OD. If a foreign specialist is provided by AID or another external-assistance agency, it is best he/she have no organizational ties to a team of foreign experts also working in that organization or otherwise involved with the institution-alization of the process through training or other means.

4. In particularly sensitive situations (often involving a conflict of authority, or built-in rivalries among leaderships), it might be advisable that the main part of the OD process take place away from the site of the unit, perhaps even abroad, to maintain confidentiality and respect sensitivities to the extent required and possible. IF AID sponsors the effort, they could become "short-term participants in a special program" in the U.S., possibly combining OD with other worthwhile training or observation.

5. Given many actual experiences with foreign-assisted projects, where interpersonal and inter-cultural complications arose on top of the more usual inter-organizational rivalries about a process being installed or enhanced, there is a lot to recommend the use of OD in the preparation or earliest stages of a project. Such interventions would be formatted as seminars or workshops or planning sessions. They would address a number of technical and implementation issues, but also contain a carefully worked-out element of OD, facilitated by the presence of one or more OD specialists, from the host-country or from abroad. This has been tried in all too few projects, but it is an acceptable practice in American industrial organizations and nearly always pays off. Such pre-project OD should

become a requirement for all new AID projects. It can save a lot of headaches later; the headaches saved might be your own!

6. With so many constraints inherent in OD, it is obvious that as a training program addressed only to attitudes and personal and unit behavioral change, OD has its CHALLENGE programmatic limitations: it's tough to projectize. For that reason, it nearly always is better design to link an OD intervention with a larger project, be it a training program or another developmental effort directed to improve and institutionalize or process. However, for USAIDs willing to pioneer, there is a convenient device for funding and structuring an OD project: a host-country Indefinite Quantity Contract (IQC) with one or more national and U.S. firms, working together to provide specialists on short notice for brief interventions.

[So much for OD. The reader is invited now to turn back to page X.]

Q. Saturation Training

COMMENT: In the twelve months ending 30 June 1985, 1,448,726 persons in the United States were trained or recertified as lifeguards in courses sponsored (if not taught) by the American Red Cross. Though qualified, not all of them became or wanted to be lifeguards where persons with this certification find employment. Some just benefit themselves and others by having mastered the three components of this skill . . . training---life-saving, cardio-pulmonary resuscitation, and first aid. Enrollment was not necessarily based on expected employment; incentives included the satisfaction of being competent to save lives. Such training increases (institutionalizes if you will) one facet of the health-delivery system in their communities. This illustrates saturation.

training---the provision of skills (usually fairly simple ones that any normal person of a certain age can learn) for which there is known demand, even if exact numbers of jobs cannot be cited with precision, and which can be applied in community situations. The assumption is that the cost of these course (covered in the lifeguard course by individuals, organizations, and communities) will be recovered at least in social terms, and for many lifeguards in economic terms. Social benefits would be increased greatly, economic benefits somewhat less, if twice that number of persons had been trained. There may be no "target positions" but usually there will be some expectation that many of those have taken this training will fill certain types of positions. "Leakage" of graduates to non-target positions, which is to be avoided in process-connected training, is taken for granted if not welcome in "saturation training". Saturation training differs from mass training. There is an emphasis on quality and proven competence in saturation-training that may be absent from mass training; and mass-education in theory tries to reach an entire population, while saturation training aims to at smaller numbers, based on projections of need.

USES

1. Saturation training can be used (like the lifeguard courses of the American Red Cross) to satisfy a market for thousands of skilled persons the exact numbers of which can be determined only imprecisely, where there is assurance that many, or most, of those trained will find public, private, or self-employed jobs based on that training. Demand for many skills increases in many sectors of the economy as the number of skill-holders increases; gross calculations can predict how many villages will need how many skill-holders over time. A pre-condition is sufficient flexibility in the socio-economic system to allow these trained persons to apply their knowledge. Another important prerequisite is the availability of trainers (certified or of the same level as those that are), willing for

wages or on as volunteers to instruct others. No doubt many of the graduates may not apply these skills for some time if ever, and some of them, over time, may lose the skills acquired if they do not have opportunities to practice them; but this training, because of the numbers involved, will benefit agencies, private-sector employers, and clientele.

2. Saturation training has an important place in development, and perhaps in the institutionalization of a process, even if it teaches skills only, virtually no attitudes (see page XXX, paragraph 3): literacy, numeracy, and typing to driver-education, the use of tools and machines, automotive mechanics in a country in which vehicles are prevalent, repair of water-related equipment such as pumps where municipal water and sewage services still are inadequate, infant rehydration techniques, etc. Saturation-training provides a set of stepping stones towards community management of development projects, for it sets up a pool of skilled persons which communal and voluntary groups can tap with ease. The community, or private enterprises or voluntary organizations indeed can be co-opted to give training for which they are end-users; they would receive technical guidance, standards, and support from a process-connected training agency, but implement it themselves.

3. Relatively few projects that receive external assistance provide saturation training. However, it is a useful variant especially when connected to projects that offer more applied and focussed training, or as a special project in a portfolio of sectorally inter-related projects. Graduates of the formal project training may be more effective if saturation-training provides them with support staffs, or with clientele that know quite a bit themselves.

NEW
FRONTIER

4. Saturation training may be the new frontier as a development technique, because of its flexibility and broad effects far beyond any narrowly-defined process or set of institutions. Implementation of saturation training now is facilitated by the new "hardware" of television, radio, computers, and satellites.

R. The Role of External Assistance in Training

COMMENT: Much has changed in the decades since "Foreign aid" in the modern sense started. In the mid-1980's, the role of external funding remains important, but that of foreign advisers is more circumscribed everywhere. "Middle-rung" countries now try to do without foreigners to the greatest extent possible, using instead their own specialists; when building new (or reshaping old) institutions, they call on aliens only for as short a time as possible for very specialized roles. In general in such countries, foreign expertise is more appropriately applied to the institutionalization of a process, and to specific support to one or more institutions and agencies that "do" this process, than to a training program in the service of that effort. In this manner, the foreigners deal with the training program indirectly rather than directly. This has organizational, cultural, and linguistic advantages. A sound approach to training now is to have local specialists as first-line trainers and training managers; aliens already working within the process might be called upon to advise on special training problems, while short-term consultants can provide guidance in andragogy or other specialized topics. Exceptions include cases in which quality saturation-training, or other training involving thousands at one time, is a substantive and managerial challenge as yet beyond the capacity of national institutions.

In other countries, where the absence of institutional capacity is a recognized limitation, there still may be need for the "old-style" institution-building project, including training programs in which foreigners are directly involved because of a dearth of local specialists.

S. Training in the United States

COMMENT: Training is the quintessence of technical assistance, and this paper has addressed in-country training because it is bound to become much more important as an AID mode of assistance. However, no matter if the bulk of AID-trained persons are trained in their own countries, training in the U.S. remains a particularly useful, even strategic, device if properly applied in the light of its advantages and disadvantages. By its nature it has complementarity to in-country training, but likely between now and the end of the century only a small minority of those trained by AID will be trained in the U.S.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES: 1. Here briefly are the advantages and disadvantages of training in the U.S.:

PRO (a) It is widely sought after by potential participants because it is viewed as high-quality training, can lead to a degree given international recognition, enhances the status of the trainee in the home-institution milieu, provides English-language fluency, which for some individuals the greatest professional incentive, topping even subject-matter knowledge. Such professionals become qualified to participate in American and international scientific and professional networking to a degree greater than what they can obtain in their own countries in many cases.

(b) It provides USAID projects with individuals trained to American standards in subject matter, facilitating professional exchanges with American and other professionals. Along with subject matter, participants also gain American perspectives on how the technical matter can be applied. American technical and higher education rightly prides itself on its emphasis on the application of knowledge, and this is of value to the development-process in the home-country.

(c) It provides individuals who likely will become leaders in their fields and more generally in their country with first-hand experience and understanding of the United States. They also pick up---especially the longer-term trainees---some of the cultural traits that characterize Americans, such as greater openness, tolerance to change, knowledge that things are different in other parts of the world and how and why, etc. Moreover, at courses or on campus, they also can share matters of development-strategy in relation to their training course with citizens from other countries, whom they meet often for the first time. Last but not least while in the U.S., they have opportunities to attend brief seminars or workshops in addition to their training in related subject matter, in management sciences, etc., and make observation trips within the U.S. that enhance their understanding of their subject matter.

CON

(d) Individuals returning from training in the U.S. may have difficulty readjusting to the professional and organizational milieu to which they are assigned; this is especially true if the returnee is one of a very few in the unit who obtained foreign training. Sometimes the returnee is assigned to an important managerial position with high visibility where his/her degree, English

language, ease with aliens and their ways, serve the ministry or government well, but do little for the development of the field in which she/he was trained. For these and financial reasons, such persons may "brain-drain" to other countries or international organizations, and are well-qualified to do so.

(e) Their sponsoring organizations, too, may have difficulties re-absorbing them. During their absence, things at home continued to develop and change; organizational restructuring may have taken place. At times the returned participant is isolated from the main-stream of the organization by having acquired different perspectives, alien attitudes, and a behavioral style ill-suited to supervisors and colleagues (some of whom have been trained in-country under the same or another project). Sometimes American advisors contribute to this unwittingly by focussing their attention on the returned participant in part for the wrong reasons---ability to communicate in English and a sense of ease with someone who understands Americans.

(f) Training in the U.S. is expensive and certain to become more expensive. Many can be trained in-country for the price of one individual program in the U.S. Short-term courses, while more affordable than degree training, are even higher in person/day cost. At times, participants are sent to short term-courses which though helpful and closely related to the trainee's professional field, lack exact fit professionally or by reason of absence of country-specificity. Host governments and USAIDs sometimes program such training because it is available and there is a candidate, not because it is what is really needed.

(g) Just as is the case of Americans going to Africa or Asia who may have difficulty making adjustments, the reverse is true of participants in some cases. In such cases, the effectiveness of the initial period of study may be reduced by such problems. It's a gamble with a lot of money at stake.

SELECTIVE USES 2. There are selective uses of training in the U.S. that complement in-country training programs.

(a) To obtain advanced, state-of-the-art, subject matter and andragogy skills which will serve the institutionalization of the process and in-country training to that end. This is especially appropriate if the trainee(s) completed in-country training programs successfully and as far as these can bring a person to a high professional level.

(b) To be groomed to become, alone or with a few carefully chosen colleagues, the country's links to the American and international milieu which are the functional counterparts to home-country institutions that in the U.S. serve a similar process (this implies links not to one American institutions but to an entire field).

(c) To attend a short-term course which ideally caps and supplements in-country training, and is of a character that lends itself to replication in the home country. In such case, the returnee(s) play a major role in organizing this new in-country training as part of the institutionalization of the process.

(d) To attend, along with a selected group of colleagues all carefully chosen, a tailor-made course at a carefully chosen U.S. institution with high competence in

the subject-matter field and in adragogy. Such a course would be country-specific and may be taught in part in the national language by specialists familiar with the country, so that prior attainments in English do not limit candidacy. The course would be offered, with minor adjustments, to several groups from organizations linked to the process to be institutionalized, so as to create a critical mass of specialists and officials who have shared an important training experience, and who will collectively and individually be applied to the process and training for its institutionalization.

T. Conclusions

This paper, it is hoped, will be seen as a first step to focussing greater AID attention on in-country training in support of the institutionalization of a process; it is not the final, state-of-the-art word either on training or on how to institutionalize development-linked processes.

The key points made above explicitly or implicitly (some may be addressed by other staff papers) are:

1. Training is the quintessence of technical assistance. In project design, training, both in-country and abroad, too often is imperfectly blueprinted and hence left to the vicissitudes of the project, the two sets of implementers-counterparts, and sometimes to chance offerings by American or other institutions. Often a project paper contains more about environmental impact than about training.

2. Processes, not organizations, need to be institutionalized in order to meet development needs. There rarely is one institution which alone serves a particular process. Besides, institutions and organizations are the engines of development processes, not the real carriers, and it is the process as a whole, not just its engines, that must be the principal focus of any technical assistance project.

3. In-country training is the wave of the future, and modern andragogy is its methodology. As more and more countries reach a level of development where local professional resources, though still inadequate, are present and wish to do more for the development of their country, financial considerations on the USAID side, and economic, nationalistic, and developmental considerations on the host-country side, make more and better in-country training not only a requirement, but a very constructive approach to train more people at many levels and many organizations (public and private) in respective skills and endow and endow them with the behavior patterns that support these skills. The national language is the language of instruction in in-country courses. In-country training programs also bring knowledge of modern andragogy to a country, so that it ceases to be dependent on imported training skills except for unusually "high-tech" subject matter. Last but not least, certain types of in-country training can provide the skills needed as underpinning for more delegation of authority to sub-national levels and for greater community self-development.

4. Training in the United States has an important role to play in the institutionalization of any process. However, it must be used as an expensive and delicate tool, after careful planning so that it complements and augments (rather than compete with) in-country training, and so that its costs (financial and other) are minimized. The English-language issue complicates programming of training in the U.S. One technique that might be explored more often is short-term training for a group in an American institution that can offer a tailor-made course, subject-matter specific and country-specific, as well as "rich" in andragogy.

5. AID has not yet resolved the basic issue of English-language training. Until AID together with other U.S. Government agencies or other donors can offer easy access to proper English-language training in AID-assisted countries, the language issue will complicate the selection of the most appropriate candidates for U.S.

training, discourage individuals from accepting in-country training as desirable, and cast in-country training as "the lesser choice" in the minds of host-country colleagues as well as American implementers. The question of how to resolve the language issue is one that AID should put on its agenda; the problem may hurt agriculture and rural development projects even more than those in other sectors.

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